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Studying the Process of Writing in a Foreign Language: An Overview of the Methods

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Abstract—This paper provides an overview of the methods adopted in researching the process of writing in a foreign and second language. Cognitively-informed research tends to adopt verbal protocols as a primary method of investigation. In contrast, sociocultural theoretical frameworks typically focus on collaborative writing tasks to elicit data. This overview argues for the need to adopt methods consistent with a sociocultural perspective in studying individual writing tasks.

Index Terms—foreign language writers, verbal protocols of writing, concurrent verbal protocols, collaborative writing, sociocultural study of foreign language writing

In studying the processes of writers, a tension exists between process and product. Typically document analysis and analytic scores are used to explore questions of product. In this paper the author will draw from research to identify how researchers have studied process to better understand what happens during foreign language writing and to determine possible avenues for studying the processes of foreign language writers. Foreign language is defined as a language learned while living in a society where that language is not spoken.

Foreign language writing studies started following the footsteps of research in native language writing (Krapels, 1990). The first investigator to take a process-oriented stance was Zamel in the early 1980s, who adopted a cognitive framework based on the model developed for native language writing by Flower and Hayes (1981). Zamel conducted her investigations using interviews (Zamel, 1982) and observations followed by interviews (Zamel, 1983) and concluded by hypothesizing that, very much like writing in one's native language, composing in a foreign language "is a non-linear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (p. 165). After these exploratory studies, foreign language writing scholars have adopted a variety of methods to overcome the challenges of studying cognitive processes, that is to gain access to interior phenomena that are not directly observable (Ericsson, 1998).

Krapels (1990), in a comprehensive overview of writing process research, described the various designs adopted. Methods employed to investigate the process of writing in a foreign language included concurrent verbal protocols (also called think-aloud or composing aloud, the most common method of data collection), but also retrospective verbal protocols, various types of interviews or questionnaires, and direct or videotaped observations. Document analysis was not a preferred method due to its emphasis on the final product, however written texts have been generally used to contrast the data elicited via verbal protocols, interviews, or observation with the quality of the text produced. Due to the overwhelming extent to which think-aloud protocols have been used, I will start by discussing concurrent verbal protocols. While addressing their limitations from an information-processing cognitive framework and from a sociocultural framework, I will introduce other approaches used in the literature to study the process of composing in a foreign language, such as using multiple data sources, retrospective verbal reports, post-hoc analysis of documents, technology enabled methods (i.e. keystroke logging records), and employment of collaborative writing tasks.

I. CONCURRENT VERBAL PROTOCOLS

Concurrent verbal protocols, the verbalization of thoughts while performing a task (for example, see Ericsson, 1998; Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995) have been the most widely adopted data collection method in the foreign language writing process literature for they attempt to access the cognitive activities behind the act of writing. Shortly after Zamel's (1982, 1983) explorations of the field of second language writing research, Jones and Tetroe (1987) in a seminal paper adopted verbal protocols to investigate the native language and second language planning strategies of six learners of English. The verbal protocol method allowed Jones and Tetroe (1987) to examine the impact of linguistic proficiency and writing strategies on planning and to conclude that, while the extent of planning differed in native and second language, the process qualitatively remained the same. The use of verbal protocols has been widespread in most of the subsequent scholarship in second and foreign language writing and a separate discussion of individual studies goes beyond the extent of this paper (some widely cited studies are the ones conducted by Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001; Qi, 1998; Roca De Larios, Manchón, & Murphy, 2006; Victori, 1999; Whalen & Mériard, 1995; and Woodall, 2001), but I will rely on critical reviews conducted in the past decade to inform the discussion of this data collection method as employed in foreign language writing research.

Issues with Design in Studies

Roca de Larios, Murphy, and Marín (2002) conducted an extensive critical review of 65 studies conducted in the foreign language writing area in the 1980s and 1990s. After having perused the methodological aspects of the studies they concluded that there were widespread operational issues that needed to be addressed by future research. Not surprisingly, since verbal protocols are a very common elicitation method, criticisms correspondingly related, directly or indirectly, to the employment of think aloud techniques. Specifically, Roca de Larios, Murphy, and Marín (2002) revealed that the information typically reported on the directions provided to the subjects, the context, the unit of analysis, and the characteristics of the participants that may have impacted the quality of the data provided (such as verbal ability or writing ability), was often incomplete or limited. Pressley and Afflerback (1995) recommend that in order to collect data with verbal protocols researchers need to conduct a critical consideration of the characteristics of participants (such as verbal, reading, and writing ability), their familiarity with verbal reports and with the task, their personalities, the characteristics of the text and its physical characteristics, the directions provided, the inclusion of practice tasks, the coding strategies, the reliability, the criteria used to select verbal reports for inclusion, and the theories used in framing.

The lack of information on the directions provided to the participants is particularly problematic since different prompts and elicitation techniques encourage the elicitation of different types of data (Jourdenais, 2001). Firstly, the prompt may either support introspective reports that involve explanations, or direct their participants to think aloud without making interpretations (Jourdenais, 2001). Reports can be metalinguistic, “verbalizations that require subjects to verbalize additional specific information” (Bowles & Leow, 2005, p.417), explaining their writing processes, or nonmetalinguistic, limited to verbalizing thoughts, thus eliciting different types of data (Bowles, 2008; Bowles & Leow, 2005; Leow & Morgan-Short, 2003; and Wigglesworth, 2005). Pressley and Afflerback (1995) and Jourdenais (2001) advise against selecting metalinguistic reports and encouraging interpretations and explanations for it may affect subsequent performance in the task, a phenomenon known as reactivity. Therefore, knowing the precise prompts and directions provided to the participants is key to a correct interpretation of the data. Secondly, researchers make decisions on whether to prompt participants (regularly or during pauses) to continue their verbal reports while performing the task and it is likely that designs that include reminders to think aloud (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995) will hold more abundant data and perhaps data of a different type. Therefore, details on the strategies used by the researchers should be included in their report to build solid arguments toward the study conclusions. Thirdly, in order to increase the chances to obtain rich verbal protocols some researchers design their study to include training sessions or some form of modeling of the composing aloud technique (for example, Stevenson, Schoonen, & de Glopper, 2006, describe in detail their protocols for modeling). This may guide the participants to focus their attention on certain strategies rather than others, therefore impacting the data it is supposed to elicit (Jourdenais, 2001). For example, modeling a re-reading strategy may lead the participant to display use of re-reading strategies that the participants may have not employed otherwise. Finally, since warm-up sessions will affect the quality of the think-aloud by reducing the impact of the think-aloud on the processes involved in the task (Ericsson, 1998), whether they are implemented or not is important information to build credibility.

As previously stated, the issues that Roca de Larios, Murphy, and Marín (2002) disputed in second or foreign language writing research are overall addressable with more complete reports and thoughtfully planned research designs. I will now proceed to discuss more general concerns on the veridicality and reactivity of the method itself as employed in first or second language research. The first series of comments is from information-processing or cognitively-oriented theorists and scholars. It is followed by examples of studies that attempted to address these concerns. The second set of issues are raised from a socio-cultural paradigm of research and are followed by a brief presentation of the methods adopted in socio-culturally informed investigations of foreign language writing.

II. LIMITATIONS OF CONCURRENT VERBAL PROTOCOLS

A Cognitively-Oriented Framework

Jourdenais (2001), based on a survey of previous studies, concluded that the value of verbal protocol use as data collection procedure in language learning cognition research is demonstrated, but also acknowledged some limitations. There are concerns on the reliability of the method, especially in contexts where the participants may feel particularly compelled to give to the researchers what they think they want. Furthermore, there is a debate on the veridicality of the method. While the issue of possibly fabricated information seems to apply to a larger extent to retrospective protocol, the completeness of the reports, whether in first or second language, has been questioned also for concurrent verbal protocols (Ericsson, 1998; Jourdenais, 2001; Russo, Johnson, & Stephens, 1989). Finally, there are founded concerns on whether all writers have the metalinguistic ability or the access to the information to describe what they are thinking. The latter concern relates to the fact that individual differences were detected in the way individuals approach verbal reports (Jourdenais, 2001, Wigglesworth, 2005), in their need to be prompted to keep talking, and in the level of comfort with the technique (for example, some felt awkward and expressed a sense of uneasiness in a study conducted by Jourdenais, 1998). In this regard, it is noteworthy that Whalen and Ménard (1995) discarded 10 out of 22 writers in their pivotal study because those participants could not think aloud while composing. The concern about the feasibility of thinking aloud while writing is made even more complex in foreign language writing, since the process itself poses a

big demand of cognitive resources in the writer (Manchón, 2009). Requesting additional resources to verbalize thoughts may go to the detriment of other processes related to the writing task, such as idea generation or monitoring.

Attempts to partially address these issues can be made through careful design of data elicitation techniques and with thoughtful data coding. For example, in order to conduct a sound data analysis and interpretation, Jourdenais (2001) recommends taking into account the context when analyzing verbal protocols (stressing the usefulness of using a video recording), to compare the analysis with the text produced, to include multiple data sources, and to adopt consistently a theoretical framework to inform the analysis.

Adopting Multiple Sources or Alternative Data Collection Methods

Several scholars attempted to address the limitations of verbal protocols by triangulating their data sources. By doing so, they aimed at accessing otherwise non-directly observable writing processes via verbal reports, but additionally they scrutinized the reports using cues from other sources to support the data analysis and interpretation.

For example, Cumming (1987) integrated data from composing aloud with observations and questionnaires. Several researchers designed studies that included both concurrent verbal reports and retrospective reports, such as Qi (1998) and L. Wang and Wen (2002), often adding other sources such as written product quality (Armengol & Cots, 2009) or written texts and questionnaires (W. Wang, 2003).

A few scholars adopted retrospective verbal reports in place of concurrent protocols. Jourdenais (2001) warns that retrospective verbal reports may display inferences or conjectures of the subject rather than accurate memories. However, some strategies may minimize this phenomenon, such as showing recordings of the behavior or the actual product to elicit specific information, preferably immediately or shortly after the completion of the task rather than after more time elapses. To my knowledge, the research studies that employed retrospective reports adopted written products as a parallel and crucial data source. For example, Sasaki (2000) analyzed written texts, videotaped paused behaviors of the writers while composing, and stimulated recalls. Ellis and Yuan (2004) analyzed the compositions in terms of fluency and complemented the information with retrospective interviews.

While mainly adopted in product-oriented scholarship (such as the contrastive rhetoric area), post hoc analysis of documents has also been used in foreign language writing process research (Wigglesworth, 2005). Typically, it has complemented concurrent verbal protocols (for example, see Whalen & Ménard, 1995, who integrated their composing aloud data with an analysis of textual drafts), but an attempt to investigate the writing process without verbal reports, based on product analysis was made by Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992). In order to draw conclusion on the process while analyzing the product, the study design constrained the participants into either translate or compose their text directly. This way, it was possible to compare the products and see differences between the two groups as related to different composing strategies. However, it is unclear whether imposing a composing strategy on a writer leads to the enactment of the same processes that would happen in naturally occurring composing. As this example illustrates, a focus on the product can give limited information on the process, and here lies the rationale for employing verbal protocols in foreign language writing research.

More recent developments in technology have enabled other options to incorporate data from the written product into writing process analyses. Stevenson, Schoonen and de Glopper (2006) triangulated their verbal report data with key-stroke logging records. The availability of consistently improved technologies for tracking the text development opens up new possibilities to investigate the process of writing through an analysis of the product, the text, in its making, in a way that would have been too time consuming and labor intensive before the advent of such software.

A Socioculturally Informed Framework

More substantial criticisms to concurrent verbal reports question their representativeness of the writing task as it would have occurred without verbalization and their representativeness of thought. A major area of debate arises from reservations that verbal reports might change the task of writing itself (Jourdenais, 1998). According to Ericsson (1998), who worked in native language research, while verbal reports affect the time spent on a task by increasing it, there is no evidence that they alter the process and the performance, provided that the participants are allowed warm-up activities and provided that the verbal reports do not require metalinguistic comments or explanations (a strategy that leads to changes in the performance, typically by improving it).

Ericsson's (1998) conclusions are not subscribed by theorists that adhere to the socio-cultural tradition. While acknowledging that not all thoughts may be verbalized, Ericsson and Simon (1993) assert that the verbalized thoughts are valid and consistent with the subject's cognitive processes. The scholars base their conclusions on the comparison of verbal reports with task analysis results. Their work was based on the premise that concurrent verbalization leads to higher validity and that the validity decreases when time between task and verbalization elapses in retrospective reports. Sociocultural perspectives question the assumption that inherent cognitive processes can be verbalized and communicated, since the very act of verbalization is inextricably connected to thinking. Major representatives of this theoretical stance are Smagorinsky (2001) in the field of first language writing research and Swain (2006) in the area of second language acquisition.

First of all, Smagorinsky (2001) warns about the fact that specific cultural conceptions of the world are embedded in the verbal protocol, with consequences on the legitimacy of interpretations by the researcher that carry the "risk of assuming that the researcher's understanding of words is the true understanding, and that the participant's role is to gravitate toward the researcher's conceptions" (Smagorinsky, 2001, p.236). McDonough and McDonough's (2001)

study constitutes a rare example to attempt to address these concerns by having both the researcher and the participant separately analyze and interpret the verbal report transcriptions.

Furthermore, Smagorinsky (2001) argues for the social role of speech in research methodology. Speech changes the task, for speech is inherently directed to somebody (the concept of addressivity in the work of Bakhtin). In this regard, Smagorinsky (2001) suggests that verbal protocols can be viewed as a conversational turn rather than a representation of writing processes.

Most importantly, Smagorinsky's (2001) socio-cultural stance influence is paramount in the belief that speech influences thinking. In this view, speech has a mediation function and thinking and speaking are inseparable. This is in sheer contraposition with cognitivist and information-process oriented views of speech as a manifestation of independent and pre-existing internal cognitive processes. As a consequence of the fact that speech and thought are viewed as interrelated and inseparable, Smagorinsky (2001) argues that verbal protocols cannot be considered a rendering of cognitive process, rather they are a constitutive part of the cognitive processes and as such they constitute an object of study in themselves, rather than a method to access internal processes.

Swain (2006) raised similar arguments from the foreign language area of research. Since language and thought are integrated and language is a tool for thinking it is not legitimate to use verbal reports, whether concurrent or stimulated, as a procedure to collect data on presumed internal cognitive processes. According to the output hypothesis (Swain, 1985) the act of producing language, far from being a simple display of acquired knowledge, is an act of learning in which knowledge is transformed and advanced. This is how verbalizing affects the task processing itself: it is "a process of comprehending and reshaping experience" (Swain, 2006, p. 97), therefore it produces meaning rather than merely reporting it. In virtue of this process, Swain (2006) argues that verbal protocols should be considered part of the treatment, rather than a data collection method, supporting an argument, similarly to Smagorinsky (2001), that verbal protocols should be considered an object of investigation and analysis. Verbal protocols affect the thinking processes in a threefold fashion (Swain, 2006): a) they lead attention to specific aspects of the experience, settling the meaning in that direction, and thus transform thought; b) in doing so they create an artifact, an object to manipulate; and c) the created artifact could be internalized, once again impacting cognition. Swain (2006) supports her arguments with evidence from studies in second language acquisition and other areas of research. A recent empirical study by Uggen (2012) had findings consistent with the hypothesis that verbal reports are a source of learning and consequently affect the task. The 30 students involved wrote a text, underlined salient parts of it while reading it aloud, rewrote the same essay, had a first grammar post-test, responded to a stimulated recall, and finally had a second grammar post-test. Based on the data collected, Uggen (2012) concluded that the output influenced subsequent noticing patterns and the students' grammar awareness.

Other empirical studies (Bowles, 2008; Bowles & Leow, 2005; Leow & Morgan-Short, 2004) suggested that reactivity is not an issue with non-metalinguistic verbal reports, possibly due to differences in the operationalization of the concept. In fact, Bowles (2008) and Bowles and Leow (2005) measured the impact of non-metalinguistic and metalinguistic verbal reports on text comprehension and on subsequent use of a specifically targeted grammar structure. Possibly a focus on the impact of verbal reports comprehensively on language and on the writing process could have different results. The debate is far from settled and more research is needed.

Socio-culturally sensitive data collection methods

As the previous discussion highlights, from a socio-cultural perspective verbal protocols of writing are not considered a method to access data on cognitive processes, rather an intervention that affects the data. Consequently, scholars working within a sociocultural framework are exploring alternative data collection methods to investigate the foreign language writing process, specifically using recordings of dialogues that occurred during collaborative tasks (Wigglesworth, 2005). The first steps in this direction were taken in the 1990s, when DeGuerrero and Villamil (1994) analyzed interactions between pair of students engaged in collaborative revision tasks. Consistently with a sociocultural framework, the interactions constituted an object of study rather than simply a data collection method. While DeGuerrero and Villamil (1994) focused solely on revisions, Antón and DiCamilla (1998) studied the interactions of five pairs of foreign language writers working on collaborative writing tasks and Otha (2000) examined a pair translation task.

Swain and Lapkin (1998) assigned a jigsaw writing task to a pair of students and analyzed their dialogue. The unit of analysis was language related episodes, discussions of linguistic issues on lexicon or form. This design allowed to see how language was used both for communication and as a cognitive tool and how the dyad co-constructed new knowledge through the interaction. Swain and Lapkin (2002) followed-up on the same task by asking the pair to notice the differences between their text and a native speaker reformulation. Data sources were the taped noticing, stimulated recall interviews, rewriting of the same text, and general interview on perceptions. This design allowed a complex interpretation of the noticing behaviors of the participants to develop.

Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) assigned a text reconstruction and a joint composition task to pairs of students and analyzed the transcripts of the conversation with a focus on native and foreign language use. To my knowledge there are no studies that applied a sociocultural lens to investigate foreign language writing as a process without using collaborative writing.

III. CONCLUSIONS

The above overview of the methods adopted in the literature to study the process of writing in a foreign language sanctioned the vast popularity of verbal protocols as a data collection procedure. Many studies adopted concurrent verbal protocols, with a few exceptions adopting retrospective protocols, often as integration to concurrent reports. Even if more attention is needed on reporting information on the data collection practices and on the participants (Roca de Larios, Murphy, & Marín, 2002), several studies triangulated their data with multiple sources. The potential to access cognitive processes that would not be otherwise observable seems to outweigh concerns regarding the veridicality and reactivity of the method. At the same time, scholars in the socio-cultural tradition employed collaborative writing tasks of various types to be able to witness the process of writing while avoiding the reactivity of concurrent verbal reports. A limitation to this approach so far is that it does not respond to questions regarding non-collaborative writing, whose processes remain largely non-verbalized spontaneously, thus hard to access directly. Future research can explore how to access non-collaborative writing tasks maintaining a sociocultural perspective in the writing process.

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Finnish Foreign Language Teachers' Views on Teaching and Study Reality in Their Classes: The KIELO Project's Rationale and Results

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Abstract—The purpose of this research has been to survey the approaches to foreign language (FL) teaching and studying in Finnish FL classrooms. The central idea was to try to identify the main types of teaching and study activities according to the FL teachers. The survey was conducted as an online questionnaire with the help of the Federation of Foreign Language Teachers in Finland (SUKOL) in 2010. The FL teachers were asked to describe their own teaching and their students' studying in the classrooms. The questionnaire consisted of 115 items with a Likert scale (1–4) and eight open questions. Altogether 147 FL teachers responded to the survey. In this article we highlight the KIELO research project's rationale, the research methodology and the research findings concerning teaching and study activities the FL teachers see to be most/least common in their classroom, and the differences between context-dependent and context-independent teachers. The implications of these two teaching approaches are discussed.

Index Terms—foreign language teaching, foreign language studying, foreign language classroom, context-dependent teaching, context-independent teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

The KIELO project ("Language Teaching" or *Kieltenopetus* in Finnish; 2009–, ongoing) is a research and development project in foreign language (FL) teaching, studying and learning, with a view on foreign language classroom reality. The starting point for the project was an interest in getting deeper understanding of the reality of FL teaching and study practices in FL classrooms in Finland, to have more research-based knowledge to develop foreign language teacher education and in-service teacher training. The research aim is to describe, analyze and interpret teaching and study practices in foreign language classrooms: the ways in which foreign languages are taught and studied, how these ways are justified by the teachers and perceived by the students.

The KIELO project is a national and international project. The Finnish research covers, so far, dozens of theses (pedagogical studies and master theses) and a national KIELO survey. The international research cooperation includes Japan, Chile and tentatively South Korea, countries in which the KIELO survey has been conducted within their national educational context.

In this article we first deal briefly with the societal, didactic and methodological premises of the KIELO project in order to give some background information to the main body of this article, focusing on the Finnish survey and its preliminary results.

II. THE RATIONALE OF THE KIELO PROJECT

We first discuss some societal, didactic and methodological premises behind the rationale of the KIELO research on teaching, studying and learning in FL classrooms in Finland.

A. Societal Premises

The four societal premises include the Finnish national core curriculum, the national language education policy, formal, informal and non-formal education, and the Finnish society.

The basic values for FL teaching, specified in the national core curricula (LOPS, 2003; POPS, 2004), focus, among other things, on social interaction and study strategies. They also define the objectives, emphases and assessment of FL teaching. It is important to notice, however, that the Finnish FL teachers have always been free to choose the teaching methods and approaches they prefer and want to use.

The Finnish language education policy and future guidelines are widely mapped in the KIEPO project (2005–2007). One of the key observations in the closing report of the project (Luukka and Pöyhönen, 2007) is that research results are not exploited systematically enough in the planning of FL education in Finland. However, only research-based knowledge could help FL educators anticipate future challenges and cope with them in a meaningful way.

One of the recent megatrends in education is strengthening links and obscuring boundaries between formal, informal and non-formal education (e.g. Conner, 1997–2007). It has been, and still is, a general belief that learning takes place principally, or even exclusively, in formal education, that is, in the institutional school system. The good results since 2000 in the OECD-based PISA studies (PISA Key findings, e.g. 2006; 2009) have understandably encouraged many Finns to see that the Finnish school system works well and that the objectives of the national core curriculum are sound. There is, however, a risk in formal education to forget that people learn naturally in out-of-school, real-life contexts as well. According to the sociocultural approach, learning is a typical way of being a human being. It is aptly claimed by Säljö (2001: 112) that a human being cannot avoid learning. In this spirit, we argue that formal FL teaching should therefore exploit the rich informal affordances, such as the Internet, which are a natural part of students' lives. Non-formal learning should not be ignored either. Performances, movies, presentations at museums and science centers, for instance, can be used for language-pedagogical purposes, too. The way to afford FL learning opportunities and to make students use foreign languages is to open the doors and windows of FL classrooms and to let the Internet, social media, and various digital and mobile technologies in.

The Finnish society is becoming increasingly multicultural. It is predicted that in Helsinki, the capital city of Finland, the percentage of the students with an immigrant background is growing from the present 11% to about 23% by 2025 in primary and secondary schools (Merimaa, 2008). Multiculturalism is equally connected with national and cultural identity (e.g. Uljens, 2007) and therefore, to our way of thinking, a topical challenge to FL teaching. As language and culture are indivisible, FL teaching and studying inevitably also mean teaching and studying culture and intercultural communication. In addition, FL teaching is also education to respect diversity, to enhance awareness and understanding of multiculturalism.

To sum up, the societal premises of FL teaching represent life-enhancing challenges to Finnish FL classrooms.

B. Didactic Premises

Our main didactic premise is based on the framework of the FL didactic teaching–studying–learning (TSL) process (Fig. 1). This framework provides an instrument to describe, analyze and reflect on the various dimensions of pedagogical reality in FL classrooms, which helps us to better understand teaching, study practices, and learning.



Figure 1. The Foreign Language Didactic Teaching–Studying–Learning Process
(in the spirit of Uljens, 1997; in Finnish in Harjanne, 2006, p. 57).

In this framework, the three components (teaching, studying, learning) are equally taken into consideration to guarantee deeper understanding of the pedagogical practices in FL classrooms. In the KIELO project, we argue that teaching can promote learning, but we cannot expect that teaching a foreign language automatically leads to learning it. Instead we see that through their teaching FL teachers can direct students' study processes, and that the students can direct their own learning through their studying. In addition, we have to bear in mind that foreign languages are also often learnt without purposive teaching or studying in informal educational contexts, such as in leisure-time activities. Further, the TSL process is recursive implying that students' learning impacts their study practices. In the same way, teaching is affected by the students' studying and learning. In the KIELO project the focus is on FL teaching and studying, which are clearly observable activities and can be controlled and developed.

To be able to analyze, reflect on and understand the complex reality of FL classrooms, we will use our model (Fig. 2) developed on the basis of Uljens's (1997) school didactic model.

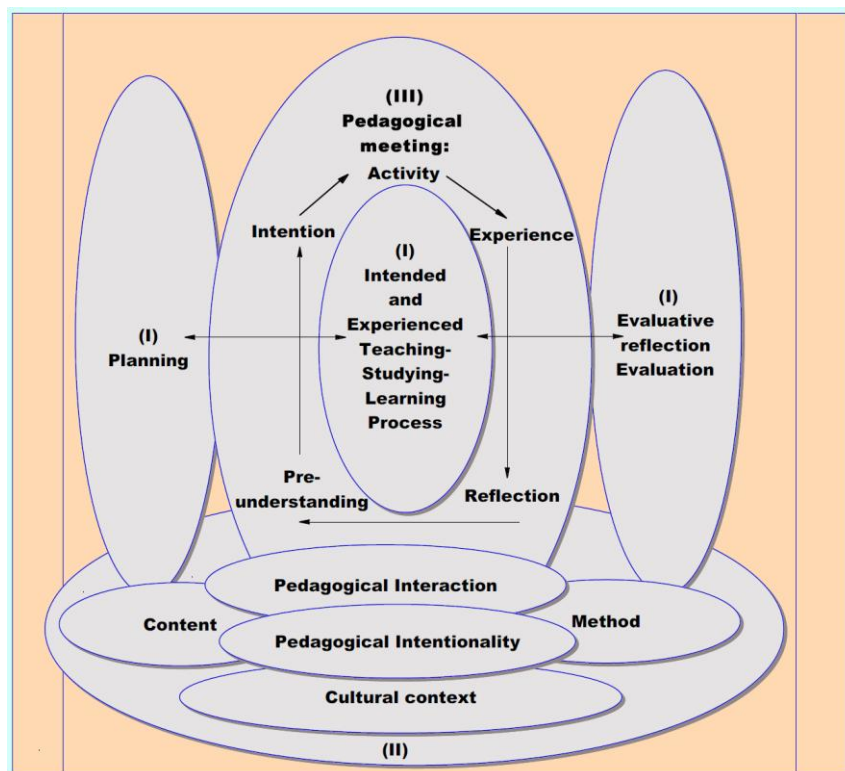


Figure 2. The forms (I) and aspects (II) of pedagogical activity and the pedagogical meeting (III) in the framework of the didactic teaching–studying–learning process. (Based on Uljens's reflective model of school didactics [1997, p. 65]; in Finnish in Harjanne, 2006, p. 63; modified and visualized by Harjanne).

The forms (I) and aspects (II) of pedagogical activity and the pedagogical meeting (III) explicate the relevant components linked to FL teaching and are interconnected in a complex way. The forms of pedagogical activity are teaching planning, the teaching–studying–learning process, and evaluative reflection and evaluation of the TSL process. In line with the activity theory (Leontjev, 1978), the TSL process can be seen from a dual perspective: as something planned or intended, and as something already completed or experienced. This dual mode is in fact a central research perspective in the KIELO project. The activity theory by Leontjev (1978), based on sociocultural theory, emphasizes the situational nature of activities and actions (Lantolf, 2000a). According to this theory, people's activities are determined by the sociocultural context, their sociocultural history and their orientation and objectives, which should be taken into account in FL research (e.g. Säljö 2000).

The aspects of pedagogical activity, that is, intentionality, context, interaction, content and method, are in close interplay and closely included in the three forms of pedagogical activity. We discuss the didactic framework of TSL process more thoroughly elsewhere (e.g. Harjanne, 2006: 58–64; Harjanne & Tella, 2007). Here, we highlight only one of the pedagogical aspects: context. The sociocultural context of a FL classroom influences what is taught, studied, and learnt and how. The theoretical basis of this view rests on socio-constructivistic theories (e.g. Fox, 2001) and sociocultural theories (e.g. Lantolf, 2000a). The context connected to the TSL process is social, cultural, mental and pedagogical, *inter alia*. The relevance of the cultural context in pedagogical process is emphasized by Uljens (1997), for instance. Society, school, classroom and curriculum are examples of cultural contexts. Students are representatives of the local cultural context and their home background, and they help these contexts become involved in classroom activities. The values of teachers and students as well as their respective roles are considerably culture-related. (Uljens, 1997: 25–26, 83–87.) Consequently, FL teaching cannot be understood without taking into consideration its sociocultural, mental and pedagogical context.

The pedagogical meeting includes teachers' and students' intentions based on their prior experiences, and reflection of them. These intentions become observable through the teacher's teaching and the students' study processes. We see that the teachers' values, conceptions, beliefs, experiences and expectations of FL teaching, studying and learning channel their pedagogical action and practices. This view is supported for instance by Borg (2006), who discusses the significance of language teachers' cognition. Borg claims that language teachers' way of teaching is affected by their values, practical and theoretical knowledge and their beliefs of themselves, of their students, and of teaching, studying and learning. Consequently, in the KIELO project we see in accordance with the sociocultural view (e.g. Lantolf, 2000b) that students' orientation to FL teaching, studying and learning channels their studying in a significant way. Students' orientation to pedagogical activity and studying are steered by their values, conceptions, beliefs, experiences and expectations of FL teaching, studying and learning.

We also contend that FL teachers' expertise includes theoretical knowledge, practical knowledge and skills based on experience and tacit knowledge, and the integration of theory and practice. In addition, we see in line with Borg (2006) that professional development requires systematic and purposive reflection of one's own teaching and its justification. Borg (2006) claims that language teachers need to reflect on their own teaching in order to be aware of their own beliefs, as unconscious thought patterns may limit the influence of practical and theoretical knowledge on cognition and thus on teaching. One of the aims of this KIELO survey is precisely to activate the respondents to reflect their own teaching and their students' studying.

C. Methodological Premises

Communicative language teaching (CLT) has been the dominant methodological approach in Finland, and in many countries all over the world, for many decades, at least in theory and in Finnish FL core curricula (LOPS, 1994, 2003; POPS, 1994, 2004). Our research interest in the KIELO project is to investigate different teaching and study practices in FL classrooms within the frame of CLT, how CLT is interpreted and implemented by FL teachers in classrooms, and in what way the teachers justify their practices.

The theoretical background and the methodological features of communicative language teaching have been widely discussed (e.g. Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 158–173; Ellis 2003; see also Harjanne, 2006; Harjanne & Tella, 2009). We refer here only very briefly to some key aspects. CLT is one potential methodological approach to meet the challenges that the widened view of communicative language proficiency (CEFR, 2001) and the widened view of FL learning, seen as a combination of different views or as socio-cultural view (e.g. Säljö 2000), give. The main features of CLT can be listed as follows: (i) student-centeredness referring to direct practice of the target language, meaningful tasks and communication from the students' point of view and students' participation in planning, and reflective evaluation of teaching and one's own studying; (ii) consideration of all components of communicative language proficiency (CEFR, 2001) or intercultural communicative competence (e.g. Byram, 2010) as in real life; (iii) integration of listening, reading, writing and speaking as in real life.

Our research interest in the KIELO project in the FL teaching and study practices within the frame of CLT rises from the national, and also international, research findings that show that CLT is far from the reality in many FL classrooms, although CLT has been promoted for quite a few decades. According to some studies, it is surprisingly common that in English-language classrooms in Finland both teachers (e.g. Bonnet, 2002) and students (e.g. Nikula, 2007) use Finnish. Teaching and studying appear to focus on linguistic structures in isolation from meaning and language functions (e.g. Alanen, 2000). However, there are also studies (e.g. Harjanne, 2006) that show that CLT is used with good results. Many international research findings (e.g. Li, 1998; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999) also point to CLT being quite a rarely-used approach in many FL classrooms. It is, however, indicative that in interviews and enquiries the teachers themselves claim they use CLT, but when observed they tend to prefer traditional grammar-based teaching. In certain cases the reason may well be that many FL teachers simply do not believe that communicative tasks could promote students' FL learning (e.g. Gatlinton & Segalowitz, 2005: 327). FL teachers' beliefs seem to direct their teaching practices and if their beliefs are in parallel with traditional language teaching, they prefer it, as Borg (1999), for instance, argues. In addition, some FL teachers may have misunderstood what CLT really is. Brown (2001: 43–46) states that FL teachers should make sure that they really understand the principles of CLT in order to be able to plan their teaching accordingly.

III. THE STUDY

A. Research Task

The KIELO project's societal, didactic and methodological premises led to the key research task, which is to describe, analyze and interpret what the language teaching reality is in FL classrooms, in what ways foreign languages are taught and studied, and on what pedagogical grounds. The purpose of the KIELO research is to get a socially and contextually constructed perspective on the teaching and study activities taking place in Finnish FL classrooms. In this article, we focus on the following research question that determines our data analysis: What are the Finnish FL teachers' main approaches to FL teaching?

Vygotsky (1978) argues that FL teaching, studying and learning are mediated by social and cultural context. According to social-cultural ideas, the students in the classroom take part in constructing the studying and learning context and content. Personal learning is mediated by communication and learning at the social level (e.g. Lantolf, 2000b; Säljö 2000). The interaction does not just make the learning easier; rather, interaction *is* learning (van Lier, 2000). As an indicator of personal learning, we can use the social participation and communication (e.g. Donato, 2000). As Vygotsky (1978) explains, the students and the teacher create a Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), in which the language is situated in a cultural context. The students can learn a foreign language through the shared context and content produced together with the peers and the teacher. These views are related to CLT and we refer to this approach as a context-dependent approach. The other approach is a context-independent approach, in which language learning is considered as (more) individually mediated. According to cognitive approaches a student is seen as an active information processor of linguistic input and FL learning is seen as individual information construction, language acquisition, on the basis of former language knowledge (Sfard, 1998; Skehan, 1998). The target of learning can be said to be primarily an individual's enrichment of language knowledge. These views are related to more traditional FL teaching.

B. Data Collection

The data were collected through a questionnaire addressed to the members of the Federation of Foreign Language Teachers in Finland (SUKOL). It was conducted online in 2010 via the University of Helsinki E-form system. The construction of the questionnaire items was based on earlier research and theory on communicative language teaching (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Skehan, 2003). The respondents were guided to evaluate their own teaching and their students' studying according to their own views and experiences as FL teachers. The questionnaire includes two parts: 115 statements and 8 open questions. The 115 statements cover 15 salient themes related to communicative language teaching: 1) teacher/student roles in the FL classroom; 2) teacher-centeredness vs. student-centeredness including planning of teaching, choice and performance of tasks and assessment; 3) native language vs. target language used by the teachers and the students; 4) emphasis of reading, writing, speaking and listening; 5) task features (mechanical and context-isolated exercises of words and structures vs. communicative tasks); 6) focus on meaning vs. form; 7) grammar exercises vs. tasks; 8) exercise book vs. teachers' own tasks; 9) individual vs. group work; 10) text book vs. authentic materials; 11) traditional teaching and studying in the classroom vs. studying on the Internet and informal learning outside the classroom; 12) practicing of study skills; 13) scaffolding (teacher–student, student–student); 14) differentiation, and 15) language and intercultural communication. The 8 open questions concern the FL teachers' views on (i) the factors linked to good FL teaching and studying; (ii) their rationale behind these factors and (iii) which of these factors are very seldom realized in their classroom, and (iv) the factors linked to communicative language teaching and a communicative task.

The respondents consisted of 132 female and 15 male Finnish FL teachers. 40 teachers were 30–40 years old, 50 were 40–50 years old, and 57 teachers were over 50. Most of the teachers ($n=81$) taught only one language, 53 teachers taught two languages and 13 taught three or more languages. The languages taught were English (102 teachers), Swedish (64 teachers), German (32 teachers), French (11 teachers), Spanish (8 teachers), Russian (6 teachers), Italian (3 teachers) and Finnish as a second language (1 teacher). This distribution of the languages relates fairly well to the situation at the Finnish school. Most of the teachers ($n=62$) taught at lower secondary school (grades 7–9), 47 teachers taught at upper secondary school (grades 10–12), and 40 teachers taught at primary school (grades 1–6). 25 teachers taught in adult education. Many teachers thus taught not only at one school level.

C. Data Analysis

In this article, data analysis focuses on the quantitative data (responses to the 115 Likert-scale statements). The respondents were asked to rate the 115 statements on a four-point rating scale (1 = not true [does not happen in my classes]; 2 = slightly true; 3 = considerably true; 4 = fully true). The 115 items describing the FL teaching and studying in the classroom were analyzed with reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha) for producing reliable summary variables. The reliability analysis revealed that some of the original summary variables needed some adjustments. Five items were not included in any of the subscales owing to decreasing impact on Cronbach's alphas. Based on the theoretical framework of the questionnaire, 20 summary variables were extracted from the 115 items. In the end, the label of each summary variable was decided by interpreting the content of the summary variable into a meaningful whole (see Table 1).

In the process of summary variable creation, cluster analysis was also used to reveal the major approaches to FL teaching. Cluster analysis is an exploratory tool that can be used to reveal natural groupings within the respondents and each cluster can be considered as a teacher group with similar preferences in FL teaching. In the end, the meaning and content were decided by interpreting the content of the summary variables into a meaningful whole. Only the statistically-significant differences ($p < .05$) between the groups are reported with the exception of the summary variable of use of textbook, which is interesting because the order of importance is quite large between the clusters. We tried several cluster analyses with several different numbers of clusters ending to a two-cluster solution. The preferences and differences between the groups can be studied and compared by using the means and standard deviations of the summary variables in each group (see Tables 2–6).

IV. RESULTS

A. Approaches to FL Teaching

The preliminary results are first discussed on the basis of the 20 summary variables. These 20 summary variables relate to how the Finnish FL teachers see their teaching and their students' studying in their own FL classrooms. The descriptive analyses of the summary variables with the number of items, internal consistency (Cronbach's α), scale means (M), standard deviations (SD), and minimum/maximum values per variable are presented in Table 1. Comparing the means of the summary variables enables to see which activities the teachers see to be most/least common in their classroom. Comparing the standard deviations in the summary variables enables to study where the teachers differ most in their teaching.

TABLE 1.
THE RELIABILITIES OF THE SUMMARY VARIABLES: THE NUMBER OF ITEMS, INTERNAL CONSISTENCY (CRONBACH'S ALPHA), MEANS (M), STANDARD DEVIATIONS (SD) AND MINIMUM/MAXIMUM VALUES PER VARIABLE (N=147).

Summary variable	n of items	Cronbach's α	M	SD	Min./Max.
1 Teacher-centeredness	8	.69	2.82	0.39	1.5/3.8
2 Student-centeredness	12	.79	2.69	0.34	1.6/3.7
3 Student as a participant	12	.74	2.13	0.34	1.3/3.1
4 Teacher using target language	6	.81	2.53	0.50	1.5/4.0
5 Student using target language	7	.71	2.76	0.40	1.6/3.9
6 Encouragement in using target language	3	.81	3.39	0.54	2.0/4.0
7 Communicative oral tasks	3	.74	2.96	0.53	2.0/4.0
8 Communicative written tasks	2	.58	2.56	0.52	1.5/4.0
9 Real-life tasks	3	.69	2.89	0.49	1.7/4.0
10 Communicative grammar tasks	3	.65	2.63	0.53	1.3/4.0
11 Non-communicative tasks	2	.69	2.26	0.55	1.0/4.0
12 Collective creation of discussion	4	.77	2.26	0.54	1.0/4.0
13 Peer scaffolding	4	.83	2.95	0.53	2.0/4.0
14 Use of textbook	4	.79	2.98	0.52	1.5/4.0
15 Use of own tasks	3	.74	2.51	0.67	1.0/4.0
16 Use of authentic materials	7	.76	2.05	0.47	1.1/3.7
17 Use of ICTs	5	.77	2.09	0.55	1.0/3.8
18 Integration of language and culture	9	.90	2.66	0.57	1.3/4.0
19 Mentoring in study skills	6	.75	2.42	0.48	1.5/4.0
20 Differentiation	7	.73	2.47	0.44	1.3/3.7

Note: The descriptors for means (M) in the analysis are as follows:

1 = not true (does not happen in my classes); 2 = slightly true; 3 = considerably true; 4 = fully true.

The reliability of all the summary variables seen in the light of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) is distinctly high. The internal consistency of the 20 summary variables is at least .69 with only two exceptions: communicative grammar tasks (.65) and communicative written tasks (.58). Integration of language and culture has the highest reliability (.90), followed by peer scaffolding (.83), teacher using target language (.81) and encouragement in using target language (.81).

In general, the Finnish FL teachers claim that they encourage their students to use the target language considerably (M = 3.39), and that they use considerably textbooks (M = 2.98), communicative oral tasks (M = 2.96) and real-life tasks (M = 2.89). Further, a fair amount of peer scaffolding (M = 2.95) takes place in their classrooms according to the teachers. Use of authentic material (M = 2.05) and use of ICT (M = 2.09) gain the lowest means in teaching practices as evaluated by the teachers. The Finnish FL teachers in this study seem to follow the principles of communicative language teaching (CLT) most in terms of use of communicative oral tasks (M = 2.96) and real-life tasks (M = 2.89). Additionally, they encourage their students to use the target language (M = 3.39). Conflicting results concerning the principles of CLT are instead the following: teacher-centeredness is quite considerable (M = 2.82); the students' role as participants is slightly true (M = 2.13) and the teachers do not use the target language much (M = 2.53). It is also a conflicting result that despite quite considerable use of real-life tasks (M = 2.89), using authentic material is very low (M = 2.05). Furthermore, the considerable use of textbooks (M = 2.98) raises a question about the communicativeness of the used textbooks. It is also to be noted that the FL teachers in this study differ the most in using their own tasks (SD = 0.67) and integrating language and culture (SD = 0.55), which are encouraged activities in CLT. The teachers differ the least in their teaching concerning student-centeredness (SD = 0.34) and students as participants (SD = 0.34), whose summary variables have rather low means and thus point to a non-communicative approach to FL teaching.

It is obvious that not all Finnish FL teachers have the same preferences. After summary variable creation we used cluster analysis to reveal the hidden teacher groups and to gain more perspective on different FL teaching approaches. A K-means cluster analysis with a two-cluster solution was conducted. The final centers of the two clusters were named as a context-dependent cluster and a context-independent cluster. In the following analysis the main summary variables and their emphasis on either cluster are described (Table 2).

TABLE 2.
THE MEANS AND MEAN DIFFERENCES OF THE SUMMARY VARIABLES IN A TWO-CLUSTER SOLUTION.

Summary variable	Context-dependent teaching M	Context-independent teaching M	Mean difference	Order Difference
Use of own tasks	2.93	2.16	0.77	-9
Integration of language and culture	3.01	2.37	0.64	-6
Encouragement in using target language	3.69	3.13	0.56	0
Collective creation of discussion	2.56	2	0.56	-1
Use of ICT	2.4	1.85	0.55	-2
Mentoring in study skills	2.68	2.2	0.48	-1
Use of authentic materials	2.32	1.84	0.48	-2
Peer scaffolding	3.19	2.72	0.47	-3
Communicative oral tasks	3.19	2.75	0.44	-2
Real-life tasks	3.12	2.68	0.44	-2
Teacher using target language	2.74	2.32	0.42	-1
Communicative grammar tasks	2.83	2.43	0.4	1
Communicative written tasks	2.73	2.4	0.33	3
Differentiation	2.65	2.32	0.33	1
Student using target language	2.92	2.6	0.32	2
Student as a participant	2.28	1.98	0.3	1
Teacher-centeredness	3.07	2.83	0.24	2
Student-centeredness	2.81	2.6	0.21	3
Use of textbook	2.93	2.99	-0.06	6
Non-communicative tasks	2.12	2.39	-0.27	9

In the cluster classification (Table 2), 60 teachers were classified as context-dependent teachers and 71 as context-independent teachers (16 teachers who did not evaluate all items were omitted from the analysis). The means of the two clusters were statistically significant ($p < .05$) except for the use of textbooks ($t = -.602$, $df = 129$, $p = .548$). In general, the context-dependent FL teachers had a higher mean in most summary variables. The only exceptions were the summary variables of non-communicative tasks and use of textbooks, in which the context-independent teachers had, understandably, a higher mean. However, we have to be careful when comparing means, because the two clusters of teachers may have used different scales in their evaluations. Thus, in Table 2 also the order differences of the two clusters of teachers are presented. Of the 20 summary variables, only 4 have radically different order differences. In the following presentation, we look more closely into the 4 summary variables with the largest order differences to reveal the practices and pedagogical choices of the context-dependent and context-independent teachers.

B. Context-dependent Approach to FL Teaching

Use of own tasks ($\alpha = .742$). The largest difference on the mean (.77) and the order of the summary variables (-9) was in use of own tasks for the two teacher clusters (Table 2). The context-dependent teachers design tasks themselves more than the context-independent teachers, if the teaching material does not meet their requirements (Table 3).

TABLE 3.
THE MEAN VALUES OF THE VARIABLES IN THE SUMMARY VARIABLE USE OF OWN TASKS
OF THE TWO TEACHER CLUSTERS.

Teaching approach	Context-dependent teaching M (SD)	Context-independent teaching M (SD)
I plan communicative tasks myself, if there isn't any in the textbook	3.13 (.81)	2.2 (.67)
I plan tasks myself to meet my requirements	3.00 (.84)	2.17 (.63)
I change textbook tasks to meet my requirements	2.67 (.75)	2.13 (.72)

As we can see in Table 3, the largest difference is in the variable 'I plan communicative tasks myself, if there isn't any in the textbook'. Designing own tasks is clearly related to the communicative context and content of the tasks. This result highlights the fact that the teachers see the importance of communication in FL classrooms. Communication means sharing content. When people are communicating, they exchange information, ideas, emotions or motives. Sharing means communality in the classroom. The context-dependent teachers specify that if there are no communicative tasks in the textbook, they prepare them themselves. The more active the interaction and the communication in the classroom are, the more opportunities there are also for an enhanced Zone of Proximal Development. When teachers and students have a lot of shared context and content in the study and learning environment, teaching can have a deeper impact on the students. The context-independent FL teachers do not consider communication so important in their classrooms. If language is seen as a code and language proficiency as language knowledge and if language learning is seen individually mediated, the shared study and learning environment may not be as important.

The statement 'I change textbook tasks to meet my requirement' has the smallest mean difference between the teacher clusters. The context-independent teachers seem to design fewer tasks themselves in general. When FL learning is seen as an individual skill, focusing on the textbook is understandable. A FL textbook may offer a complete learning platform for individual learning. The context-dependent FL teachers may ignore the textbook tasks completely and more easily, if they do not meet their requirements.

Integration of language and culture ($\alpha = .903$). The context-dependent FL teachers emphasized the cultural dimension of language and communication more than the context-independent teachers. The mean difference between the two teacher clusters was .64 and the order of the summary variable for the two teacher clusters was (-6). To be able to evaluate the importance of this difference, we present the variables that are included in the summary variable and the mean differences of the variables in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
THE MEAN VALUES OF THE VARIABLES IN THE SUMMARY VARIABLE INTEGRATION OF LANGUAGE AND CULTURE
OF THE TWO TEACHER CLUSTERS.

<i>Teaching approach</i>	<i>Context-dependent teaching M(SD)</i>	<i>Context-independent teaching M(SD)</i>
I emphasize also the non-verbal communication of the target language in my teaching	2.73 (.78)	1.97 (.63)
I emphasize the communication styles of the target culture in my teaching	3.15 (.66)	2.45 (.65)
I help the students to interpret the target language speaker and consider his/her cultural background	2.62 (.83)	1.94 (.79)
I connect a lot of cultural exchange material in my teaching	2.82 (.75)	2.14 (.68)
The cultural styles of the target language communication are a part of my teaching	3.33 (.60)	2.72 (.78)
I think I have skills to teach communication between cultures	2.92 (.65)	2.32 (.73)
Communication between cultures is a part of my teaching	2.97 (.76)	2.38 (.72)
I help the students to see the cultural ties of the native and target language	3.07 (.66)	2.48 (.58)
The culture of the target country is a part of my teaching	3.47 (.68)	2.96 (.69)

The largest difference between context dependent and context-independent teaching (.76) was in the variable ‘I emphasize also the non-verbal communication of the target language in my teaching’. The context-dependent FL teachers emphasized non-verbal communication more. Communication, producing shared content, is again central. Non-verbal communication is highly culture-related and an integral part of face-to-face communication. Therefore in order to be able to participate in this kind of communication and to interpret other interlocutors, that is, to be an intercultural speaker, the students also need to be aware of and practice non-verbal communication in the target language.

The context-dependent FL teachers emphasized the communication styles of the target culture more (difference .70) than the context-independent teachers. The same language and words are likely to mean different things in different communication cultures. Expressions used and interpretations made always depend on the communication context and the communication culture of the speaker and the interpreter. The context-independent teachers may concentrate more on the linguistic competences, like grammar and vocabulary. Perhaps they do not even consider that using “correct” language carries a different message in different contexts.

Helping the students to interpret the target language speakers and consider their background was more important for the context-dependent teachers than for the context-independent teachers (difference .68). This tendency related to a lot of cultural exchange material in teaching (difference .68). In context-dependent teaching, the study and learning environment is richer with cultural styles of the target language communication (difference .61). The context-dependent teachers think that they have the skills to teach communication between cultures (difference .60) and, consequently, communication between cultures is a part of their teaching (difference .59).

The context-independent teachers had a lower mean on all the variables of integration of language and culture. Cultural and contextual aspects of the target language and communication are clearly less important to them. Considering language as culture-independent means to discard the communication culture of the target language and the communication context. For these teachers, there seems to be only one correct and right way to use the target language. Interestingly, language tests are often prepared for measuring independent and correct linguistic competences, although the cultural aspects may blur the correctness. Next we will take a closer look at context-independent teaching.

C. Context-independent Approach to FL Teaching

Non-communicative tasks ($\alpha = .687$). The mean for all teachers in the summary variable of non-communicative tasks was low ($M = 2.26$). Usually the teachers do not seem to value these tasks highly. However, it may be no surprise that the context-independent teachers preferred non-communicative tasks more than context-dependent teachers (difference .27). A more detailed description of the summary variable can be seen in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
THE MEAN VALUES OF THE VARIABLES IN THE SUMMARY VARIABLE NON-COMMUNICATIVE TASKS
OF THE TWO TEACHER CLUSTERS.

<i>Teaching approach</i>	<i>Context-dependent teaching M (SD)</i>	<i>Context-independent teaching M (SD)</i>
The students do vocabulary tasks, in which they practice words without communication context	2.1 (.66)	2.3 (.60)
The students do grammar tasks, in which they practice grammatical structures without communication context	2.13 (.60)	2.49 (.61)

In context-independent FL teaching the students did more vocabulary tasks, in which they practice words without communication context, than in context-dependent teaching (difference .20). This makes sense. The context-independent teachers may consider that general context-free vocabulary helps the students to communicate and become understood in all kinds of contexts. The defined and “correct” vocabulary is also easy to evaluate and the students’ progress is easier to test.

The context-independent teachers tended to give more grammar tasks, in which the students practice grammatical structures without communication context, than the context-dependent teachers (difference .36). This was hardly surprising either. The context-independent teachers may perceive grammar structures as the correct ones in any communication context. Then it is a sensible pedagogical procedure to isolate the grammatical structures into general rules that should be applied to the whole specter of language use. The context-independent teacher may perceive teaching according to a traditional FL teaching method in the same way as some of the classical piano teachers: You need to know the theory and practice scales; only after the basic toolbox is adopted can the rules be effectively broken.

Use of textbooks ($\alpha = .788$). The mean difference (.06) of the context-dependent and context-independent FL teachers in the summary variable of use of textbooks is very small and not statistically significant. However, the context-independent teachers ranked this summary variable 4 places higher in order than the context-dependent teachers. The reason for this difference in ranking but not in mean is worth considering. We could argue that both teacher types used textbook as much, but there may still be important aspects of their teaching styles uncovered. To evaluate the summary variable more closely, we present the items in Table 6.

TABLE 6.
THE MEAN VALUES OF THE VARIABLES IN THE SUMMARY VARIABLE USE OF TEXTBOOKS
OF THE TWO TEACHER CLUSTERS.

<i>Teaching approach</i>	<i>Context-dependent teaching M (SD)</i>	<i>Context-independent teaching M (SD)</i>
I use a textbook	3.60 (.59)	3.62 (.54)
There are communicative tasks in the textbooks I use	3.03 (.78)	2.97 (.65)
The textbooks meet my requirements for communication	2.57 (.70)	2.69 (.73)
Textbook tasks meet my requirements	2.53 (.75)	2.68 (.67)

The differences between the two teacher clusters concerning the summary variable of use of textbooks are almost non-existent and none of them is statistically significant. Either the teachers used the same textbooks and evaluated them in the same way or both teacher groups had found textbooks to suit their needs. Our conclusion is that both teacher clusters use textbooks a lot. The teachers seemed fairly satisfied with the textbooks they used and reported to have found a good number of communicative tasks in them. This raises, however, some doubt, as several studies (e.g. Kaukonen, 2010) indicate that communicative tasks are not very common in Finnish FL textbooks. Why was the ranking different but not the mean? Did the teacher groups have different evaluation criteria? This remains to be answered in a follow-up study.

V. CONCLUSION

In general, this study indicates that the Finnish FL teachers use textbooks extensively. The teachers claimed that they firmly encourage their students to use the target language in the classroom and that they use communicative oral tasks. On the other hand, it was found out that the students did not use the target language as much as they were encouraged to do and that their role as participants was low. Further, the teachers claimed that they use real-life tasks quite considerably. Nevertheless, it turned out that using authentic materials and ICT was limited. These contradictory research findings call for further research.

Two different kinds of approaches to FL teaching were identified in the cluster analysis: a context-dependent approach and a context-independent approach. The teachers following the context-dependent approach tended to favor communicative and real-life tasks and they claimed that they design their own tasks if the textbook should not meet their requirements. The teachers favoring a context-independent approach prioritized more non-communicative vocabulary and grammar tasks. According to the order differences, the context-independent teachers preferred using textbooks more than the context-dependent teachers, but the mean difference did not quite support this result.

The survey does not necessary describe what really happens in the FL classroom, even though the teachers were asked to describe their classroom practices and their students’ studying in relation to the 115 items. The teachers may

not be fully aware of what is going on in their classrooms, which would mean that the survey reflects teachers' beliefs more than reality. The results may thus describe the beliefs or hopes of the FL teachers. Whatever the situation, the results are in line with the ways the respondents wanted to describe their teaching. It can be concluded that teaching and studying in the context-dependent FL teachers' classrooms followed more the principles of CLT than in the context-independent teachers' classrooms. The context-independent teachers' lower means indicate that the statements did meet less their approach to teaching and their students' studying.

In the final analysis, one could ask whether the FL teachers should be more context-dependent or more context-independent. One way to find answers to this question could be to test the students' foreign language skills in communication, which is the primary target of FL teaching today. Which of these two approaches might contribute to leading to more beneficial and productive results? Perhaps the question could be posed like this: Are language teachers expected to isolate their students' language competencies in order to be able to objectively measure their individual skills or, on the other hand, would it be educationally more appropriate to engage language students in more socially-oriented interactional activities, so as to reveal their real potential for participating in and coping with future real-life communicative challenges in multicultural environments?

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Invest in What Energizes Students to Learn: Investigating Students' Attitude towards Debate in the Foreign Language Classroom

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Abstract—Debate has noticeably been penetrating our educational practice the last decades. Many studies have revealed many benefits of debate, including sharpening up debaters' critical and analytical thinking, and deepening their understanding of the issues being debated. Debate has also been deemed as an effective pedagogical tool, for critical thinking and for L1 and L2 language development. Its effectiveness has been mainly ascribed to its ability to integrate the four language skills, stimulate learners to be active and engage them in interactive activities that entail working collaboratively to negotiate meaning. In many studies students acclaimed debate as fun and enjoyable. This study investigated the factors that underlie the 44 participants' (belonging to 2 groups) positive attitude towards debate as an instructional tool in the foreign language classroom. The data collection was triangulated consisting of a questionnaire and interviews. The study has revealed that the factors that positively shape the participants' favourable attitude towards debate are: *active participation, challenge, teamwork, fun, critical thinking, language proficiency and debate vs coursebook*. The *independent samples t-test* showed that both groups extended the same relevance to these factors in shaping their attitudes towards debate with the exception of critical thinking factor. However, the comparison between males and females revealed a number of significant differences.

Index Terms—terms, debate, attitude, foreign language teaching, pedagogical tool

I. INTRODUCTION

Debate is an inherent part of our life. We are constantly involved in attempts to convince others and to influence their views and decisions. Debate occurs everywhere, at home, at school and in meetings. Debate can be formal, like in parliaments or informal like between friends. Debate enhances debaters' communication skills. In the context of the increasing importance of communicating knowledge effectively and of the social and political debate, it is imperative to have strong communication skills (Akerman & Neale, 2011). Studies have shown that people with strong communication skills find their way quickly to leadership and promotion at work (Snider, 2008). Debating skills are even extolled as indispensable ingredients for success in all walks of life. In other words "Debating creates the skills you need for success wherever your life may lead you" (Snider, 2008, p. xiv).

Debate is an important tool for an enriching learning experience (Lieb, 2007), and using it as a teaching/learning approach brings a lot of benefits to learners (Zare & Othman, 2013). It offers teachers the chance to engage their students in a variety of activities that inspire students to explain, justify, convince and counter. Also, debate does not only help students deepen their comprehension of the issue/topic in question and foster their critical thinking abilities, but it helps them enhance their language proficiency as well (Zare & Othman, 2013). Moreover, debate enables teachers to involve students in an engaging and cooperative learning process that facilitates the interaction of students with each other and with the content as well.

Students enjoy debating (Kennedy, 2009). Many other studies have reported students' liking for debate and their preference of this pedagogical tool over other tools (see the literature review). It goes without saying that students lend their support to every activity they experience as enjoyable. What enjoyable is, fires students with enthusiasm and makes them love learning. Not surprisingly, the activities that students experience as fun bring the best out of them. What is more, what fun is, holds students' attention and safeguards it from distraction.

This study tries to uncover the factors that make students admire debate. The theoretical framework that underlies the hypothesis of this study stems from the literature and a small-scale exploratory qualitative study. In short, this study attempts to address the following questions:

- What are the factors that shape students' attitude towards debate?

- How do these factors differ between males and females?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Debate is “the process of inquiry and advocacy, a way of arriving at a reasoned judgment on a proposition” (Freeley & Steinberg, 2008, p. 4). Debating involves a process of considering different viewpoints and making a judgment (Goodwin, 2003; Kennedy, 2007, 2009). Debate can function as a performance as well as a method that conveys ideas and arguments; it is a communication event in which the mode of operation can be oral or written (Snider & Schnurer, 2006). Snider and Schnurer (2006) maintain that the use of debate as a teaching method dates back to Ancient Greek and Roman philosophers. They mentioned that Confucius and other Chinese philosophers wrote famous treatises that characterized debate as a valuable method of learning. Importantly, one of the characteristics of debate is that it involves and promotes critical thinking.

Critical thinking is “thinking about how you think” (Rybold, 2006, p. 74). In our modern time critical thinking is a necessity since we are continuously snowed under information. Worthen and Pack (1992) maintain that the ability to evaluate information critically is a must-have for every person. They added that when students are stimulated to think critically, they will be better prepared to cope with the future and its complexities. Moreover, Rashtchi and Sadraeimanesh (2011) note that “practicing critical thinking changes the learners from passive receivers of the new materials into critical thinkers” (p. 386).

In-class debate is a vital instructional tool that promotes critical thinking (Rashtchi & Sadraeimanesh, 2011). In this connection, Nisbett (2003) argues that “debate is an important educational tool for learning analytic thinking skills and for forcing self-conscious reflection on the validity of one’s ideas” (p. 210). Worthen and Pack (1992) and Bellon (2000) even advocate for the initiation of debate within school and college curriculum since it is a viable means of teaching critical thinking and promoting learning. Bellon (2000) states in this regard that “those of us who have witnessed the power of debate to enhance learning and motivate students are becoming advocates of instituting debate across the entire college curriculum” (p. 161).

Debate-like activities can also enhance disciplinary learning. Goodwin (2003) says that both teaching experience and empirical research have proved that debate helps students develop content mastery. Accordingly, Bellon (2000) argues that if students are not given a chance to debate about important concepts they get in class, they will not be able to “develop deep or mature understandings of course content” (p. 172).

Students gain a lot of benefits when teachers use instructional strategies that invite active engagement (Doody & Condon, 2012). In-class debates do attain the goal of active learning (Kennedy, 2007, 2009). Active learning is any activity that engages students in a classroom other than listening passively to an instructor (Faust & Paulson, 1998). Bellon (2000) maintains that cognitive research shows that successful classrooms are interactive whereas students learn less when being forced into passive roles or practices. Furthermore, debate helps students to cultivate an open-minded acceptance of various views on a given topic (Kennedy, 2007).

Effective learning entails engaging students’ “attitudes, feelings, preferences and values” (Omeliheva & Avdeyeva, 2008, p. 604). Debate as a teaching method may do this job as it is claimed to be “an excellent form of active learning” (Fallahi & Haney, 2007, p. 83). Engaging students actively in the learning process necessitates creating opportunities in which they can communicate verbally (Bellon, 2000). In-class debates create these opportunities and are effective since they facilitate the process of taking students to “a new level of skill or learning desired by the instructor” (Firmin, Vaughn & Dye, 2007, p. 20). They are also effective because they encourage students to learn (Alford & Surdu, 2002; Jugdev, Markowski & Mengel, 2004).

In-class debates benefit the whole class and not only the enthusiastic and excellent students. This benefit extends even to the passive students (Stewart & Pleisch, 1998). Stewart and Pleisch (1998), reported that their teaching practice revealed that passive students enjoy working on language tasks, undertaking research and writing papers for debates. Warner and Bruschke (2001) compare this benefit that touches every student in the debating process to a gym class. In the gym class, all students benefit from some exposure to physical fitness.

In-class debate has also been characterized as an effective FL pedagogical tool as it has ability to furnish students with a chance to take part in a learning process that involves practising the four major skills of language (Alasmari & Ahmed, 2013; Lieb, 2007; Rybold, 2006; Snider & Schnurer, 2006; Zare & Othman, 2013). Zare and Othman (2013) contend that in-class debate facilitates access to linguistic input and output. In addition to speaking, debate can provide ESL/EFL students with an opportunity to promote critical reading through researching the topics of debate, critical listening by listening to each team’s opposing arguments and trying to locate weaknesses in them, and writing as debaters take notes and prepare argumentative speeches. Indeed, the fact that the debate process engages the practice of the four skills that hone debaters’ language proficiency testifies to its richness and comprehensiveness as an L2/FL pedagogical tool. However, the debate community has not produced enough research that demonstrates that participating in debate cultivates the debaters’ language proficiency (Omeliheva & Avdeyeva, 2008). The very few works being published on debating for EFL/ESL learners have mainly only focused on the format and procedures of debating (Zare & Othman, 2013).

Debate empowers students to intellectually challenge and outperform each other in their arguments and the way they frame them. Debaters competitively push each other to the limit. In other words, “the competitive process pushes

students to excel” (Rowland, 1995, p. 108). In such a competition students sharpen up their reasoning abilities and language proficiency (Lieb, 2007). Mitchell (1998) contends that “... contest round competition is a powerful motivating force that draws in novices and pushes advanced debaters to dizzying heights of professional and academic excellence” (p. 50).

Furthermore, the environment being created in debate is conducive to collaborative working and learning. In debate students work collaboratively to settle down the issues being raised by the resolutions in question. By so doing, students foster communicative and cooperative skills and discern the importance of conjoint effort in creating successful learning. In their study, Fallahi and Haney (2007) reported that “a total of 80% experienced a feeling of group accomplishment or teamwork during the debate, and 64% preferred working with a team rather than working alone” (p. 86).

Importantly, students also support and value the use debate as a teaching method (Alford & Surdu, 2002; Kennedy, 2009). Stewart & Pleisch (1998) reported that their students consistently approved debate with a rate above 80% as “the best/most interesting course activity” in their course surveys between 1994 and 1998. They also pointed out that not even one student in four years recommended to exclude debate from the course. Khan, Omar, Babar and Toh (2012) conducted a study on students of Health Economics in which the participants were divided in two groups of active debaters and non-active debaters. The participants’ perception about debate as a teaching tool was evaluated with a structured questionnaire before and after the debates. In addition to the increase in their knowledge of the topics being discussed, the active debaters also reported an increase in their interest in debate as well. In another study, Kennedy (2009), pointed out that the majority of the participants in five debates spoke favourably of these debates and even mentioned that they would consider using debate as an instructional tool. Hill (1982) also reported that *enjoyment/fun* was among the most frequently advanced motivating motive for participating in debate. In a similar vein, a number of other studies reported that the students who took part in the debate activities described it as *fun* and *educational* (Alford & Surdu, 2002; Fallahi & Haney, 2007; Omelicheva & Avdeyeva, 2008; van de Woude, Janssen & Sanders, 2011).

Also, Teachers who employed debate in the class hold a positive attitude towards this tool. Jiménez, Perdiguerro and Suárez (2011) reported that the teachers who experimented with debate in the Industrial classes were positive about this tool. They characterized the experience as motivating and rewarding. However, students’ attitude towards debate also suffers from little research. It is important to gain a comprehensive insight into the underlying factors that generate and sustain this positive attitude. Park, Kier, and Jugdev (2001) state in this regard “... further research is needed on this teaching strategy, not only in terms of faculty perceptions and experiences, but also in terms of student perceptions and experiences” (p. 14).

Hill (1982) pioneered the study of what motivates students to debate. In his study in which he used a questionnaire, he asked debaters to list in order of importance the reasons that accurately describe their motivation for being involved in debate. From this study six categories emerged: *educational*, *social*, *competitive*, *career preparation*, *miscellaneous* and *financial*. Wood and Rowland-Morin (1989) replicated the study of Hill using a five point Likert scale questionnaire. Jones (1994) points out that Hill’s as well as Wood and Rowland-Morin’s studies were restricted by the methodology in that the categories of the former were based on truncated and non-developed answers while the latter was based on a Likert scale which does not allow for an in-depth response that accounts for the importance of the given reasons. With these methodological restrictions in mind, Jones (1994) replicated the study of Hill in an attempt to accurately locate the specific reasons for the motivation behind debaters’ behaviour. This methodological refinement and study replication are crucial in Jones’ eyes to justify debate as a worthwhile activity. Jones adopted a qualitative approach by using interviews and field research as a source of data. 98 debaters were observed and interviewed at six intercollegiate debate tournaments. After analysing and coding the content, 5 primary categories: *cerebral*, *competition*, *heuristic*, *social*, and *miscellaneous*, in addition to one secondary category: *intellectual reinforcement* emerged.

Hill, Wood and Rowland, and Jones’ studies explored only the factors that account for L1 debaters’ liking for debate. These studies, moreover, did not investigate the differences in males and females’ perceptions. This study endeavours to dig up these factors in the L2/FL context and investigate how they are conceptualized by males as well as females, since a number of studies have shown that gender is a relevant variable in the perception of foreign language learning. For example, Aldosari (2014) concludes that males and females differ in their motivation and attitude towards foreign language learning. Siebert (2003) also found a number of significant differences in beliefs among males and females with regards to FL learning and strategy use.

This study sets out to answer the following research questions:

- What are the factors that shape students’ attitude towards debate?
- How do these factors differ between males and females?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 44 Dutch students belonging to two classes at a secondary school in Rotterdam: a lower secondary class group (third grade) consisting of 25 students, including 12 males and 13 females (aged 14-16), and an upper secondary class group (fifth grade) consisting of 19 students including 7 males and 12 females (aged 16-19). The first group was studying English at B1 level and the second group at B2 level. Both groups got three English

sessions of 50 minutes a week by the first author. During this study one session was dedicated to debate, and in the other two sessions the subjects received regular lessons based on the coursebook. The subjects participated in ten debates of different formats.

B. Educational Treatment

Before asking the students to fill out the questionnaire and take part in the interviews, the following steps were taken:

1. Preparing for the debate

As homework, the students were required to brainstorm a list of controversial resolutions that interest them and submit them. Each student was required to hand in two resolutions. The resolutions were gathered, ordered on a list and submitted to the vote. The students were asked to mark the resolutions they eagerly like to debate and the ones they don't. Accordingly, a final list was made. This list included resolutions like: *Abortion should be banned, students should wear uniforms*, etc.

The students were informed about the topics that would be discussed at least one week in advance so that they could prepare and research the resolutions of the debate. The exception was when the *debate format 4* was employed. In that case, the students were informed of the resolutions on the day of the debate. To guarantee a smooth and effective flow of the debate, the debaters had to research both sides of each issue, and to make sure that the students made the necessary preparation, they were asked to submit their preparatory notes.

2. Performance of the debates

Prior to each debate regardless of its format, the whole class was divided in teams of three to four students to have a warming-up debate about the topic(s) in hand. This took approximately 5 minutes. After that, the students were engaged in debates of different formats. In each debate lesson, one debate format was used. Because of the class size of the first group (25 students) and time constraint (50 min.), it was difficult to involve every student in the *debate format 2* in one session. The students who were not debating were asked to take notes of their classmates' performance.

Because there is principally no right or wrong way of having debates (Snider & Schnurer, 2006), the following debate formats were selected because they ensure equal and effective involvement of as many students as possible, and they pique students' interest to eagerly and actively participate in the debates:

Debate format 1

The class is split up into two teams. One team is affirmative while the other is negative. Students are free to choose which side they want to defend. To assure everyone of an equal opportunity to speak, cards are used. Each student receives three cards. Each time a student talks, s/he has to hand in one card.

Debate format 2

This debate format involves two teams (affirmative and negative) of two speakers. The debate starts with each speaker holding a constructive speech of 1 minute. After that, both teams get a short break to prepare a rebuttal which they present together in 1 minute. The debate ends with the speakers facing each other in the grand cross fire (questioning period).

Debate format 3

This debate format involves two debaters. One debater is in the affirmative side and the other in the negative. Each debater gets an opportunity to voice their argument, rebut and cross-examine their opponent. The debaters get one minute time in each round.

Debate format 4

This debate format does not differ much from the previous one. The class is divided into pairs. The teacher randomly assigns topics (from a box) to each pair. The debaters get five minutes to prepare and write down any notes they wish to use during the debates. A coin is flipped and the winner of the flip decides which side s/he wants to defend. Each debater gets a chance to present their argument, rebut and cross-examine their opponent. The debaters get 30 seconds time in each round.

C. Data Collection

To map the underlying factors that motivate students to debate, triangulation was used as a data collection method. In addition to a questionnaire, interviews were used to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings. In this connection, Griffie (2012) argues that "questionnaires represent a data collection process that is considered 'a mile wide and an inch deep,' as opposed to interview data which might be described as 'an inch wide and a mile deep'" (p. 139).

To generate and specify the critical concepts which should be addressed by the questionnaire, a small-scale exploratory qualitative study was carried out in the form of a series of focus group interviews and one-to-one interviews. "Such a design is effective in improving the content representation of the survey and thus the internal validity of the study" (Dörnyei, 2010, p. 110). It is noteworthy that a number of items were modelled on the *attitude, fun, challenge*, and *critical thinking* scales of Jones (1994) and Gardner (1985).

The questionnaire was piloted with a group of 18 students almost similar to the target sample. The obtained data were submitted to item analysis using SPSS to check whether the internal consistency of each construct was larger than the 0.7 threshold (see Dörnyei, 2010). The internal reliability of the constructs ranged from .74 to .85. This means that the items in each construct were internally consistent. This guaranteed that the questionnaire did not contain any glitches that could jeopardize the quality of the questionnaire in the final administration. It is important to note that after the

piloting phase, the factor of *language proficiency* emerged as a potential factor which could positively influence the participants' attitude towards debate. This factor was included in the final questionnaire.

TABLE 1:
DEFINITIONS OF THE 8 CONSTRUCTS OF THE UNDERLYING FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE STUDENTS'
ATTITUDE TOWARDS DEBATE USED IN THE CURRENT STUDY.

Attitude	Attitude towards debate.
Fun	Pleasure gained from debating.
Active participation	Active involvement in the learning process rather than passively absorbing Information.
Critical Thinking	Thinking critically to find strong arguments to outperform the opposing team/debater and locate flaws in their arguments.
Challenge	The challenge being posed by debating and by convincing classmates.
Teamwork	Working collaboratively during debates.
Language proficiency	Influence of debate on language proficiency.
Debate vs Coursebook	The attractiveness of debate as opposed to working with coursebooks.

D. Procedure

The questionnaire, which consisted of 40 items, addressed 8 constructs of the underlying motivating factors to debate (see table 1). The participants were asked to rate each item on a five-point Likert scale: 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree and 5= strongly agree. The higher score the respondents got in the constructs composing the underlying factors of debating, the more it was indicated that these constructs contributed to the motivation to debate.

Before piloting the questionnaire, 9 students were recruited around the age of the participants to go through its items and indicate whether they were straightforward and easy to understand with the least possible cognitive effort. The 9 students who attended and participated in a number of debates were also asked to check whether they could think up more items which would represent other (missing) factors. They all assured that all the potential factors they could think of were in the questionnaire. The items of the questionnaire were randomly ordered to avoid frustrating the respondents with the repetitive content. Besides, the wording of some items was reversed to prevent bias response.

For the interview, 10 students (8 females and 2 males) agreed to participate. A semi-structured format was used. To make the participants feel at ease and tackle the issue of status of inequality between the first author (teacher) and the participants, group interview was opted for. The participants were interviewed in a group of two or three in a classroom. The interviews lasted approximately 20 minutes. They ended once the researcher felt all aspects of the questions in interest were exhausted. At the beginning of the interview, the participants were informed of the purpose of the research and interview.

IV. RESULTS

A. Quantitative Analysis

TABLE 2:
THE INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF THE CONSTRUCTS

Constructs	Number of items	Cronbach' alpha
Attitude	5	.80
Fun	5	.80
Active participation	5	.85
Critical Thinking	5	.83
Challenge	5	.70
Teamwork	5	.88
Debate vs Coursebook	5	.97
Language proficiency	4	.76

Table 2 illustrates the internal reliability of the scales which was calculated through *Cronbach's Alpha* coefficient. The internal consistency met expectations in all scales with the exception of *the language proficiency* scale which did not reach the .70 threshold (remember this scale was not piloted). Some fine-tuning was then needed. With the deletion of item 22 the internal consistency raised to .76. This was the only necessary modification since the internal consistency of the other scales exceeded the threshold, ranging from .70 to .97. This signifies that the items of each scale are strongly interrelated and thus measure the same underlying constructs.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THIRD GRADE AND FIFTH GRADE GROUPS

Constructs	Group	N	Mean	SD
Attitude	Group 1*	25	3.97	.66
	Group 2**	19	3.77	.53
Fun	Group 1	25	4.06	.62
	Group 2	19	3.90	.42
Active participation	Group 1	25	4.01	.70
	Group 2	19	3.64	.60
Critical thinking	Group 1	25	4.08	.68
	Group 2	19	3.50	.61
Challenge	Group 1	25	3.93	.74
	Group 2	19	3.65	.42
Teamwork	Group 1	25	3.82	.67
	Group 2	19	3.61	.83
Debate vs. coursebook	Group 1	25	4.48	.73
	Group 2	19	4.07	.87
Language proficiency	Group 1	25	3.53	.74
	Group 2	19	3.65	.70

*third grade

** fifth grade

As table 3 shows, the mean scores of all constructs is above 3. It ranges from 3.58 to 4.30. This indicates that the participants perceived all the constructs as playing a role in generating the positive attitude they hold towards debate. This fact is espoused by a *one sample T-test* which showed that all mean scores on all scales deviate significantly from the scale center. This means that the participants acknowledged the importance of all factors in instilling a favourable attitude into them about debate.

As table 3 also reveals, the *coursebook vs debate* factor was rated as the highest influential factor in both groups, with an average mean of 4.48 in group 1 and 4.07 in group 2. The fun factor was also rated highly in both groups. It was rated as the third influential factor in group 1 and as second in group 2. Strikingly, the critical thinking factor was rated as the second influential factor in group 1, while it was rated as the least influential factor in group 2.

The *language proficiency* scale was not highly rated by both groups. Item 36 in this scale which states *I like debate because it is important for my writing skill* was the lowest rated item. Its deletion will substantially raise the mean score of the scale. Prior to most debate, students were asked to hand in a *debate preparation form* (as homework) in which they had to write among other things a constructive speech. Getting a writing task as homework is not what students generally like. Because of this, students probably associated this item with homework and rated it low, thereby affecting the mean score of the whole scale. The mean scores of the other constructs are very close. This means that the participants attached the same importance to these factors in influencing their attitude towards debate.

To compare the group scores for each construct, an *independent-samples test* was conducted. As table 4 demonstrates, only the *critical thinking* construct has a Sig. (2 tailed) value above the required cut-off of .05. This means that there is no statistically significant difference in the means of other constructs. In other words, the respondents in both groups more or less attached the same importance to these constructs. The Sig. (2 tailed) value for the *critical thinking* construct (.007) reveals that there is a significant difference in the scores of group 1 ($M = 4.08$, $SD = .68$) and group 2 ($M = 3.50$, $SD = .61$; $t(42) = 2.86$, $p < .05$). The difference in the mean scores is 0.58 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from .16 to .97. The eta squared statistic (.16) indicates a large effect size (see Cohen, 1988).

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST BETWEEN THIRD GRADE AND FIFTH GRADE GROUPS

Constructs	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Attitude	1.06	42	.294
Fun	.95	42	.346
Active participation	1.84	42	.072
Critical thinking	2.86	42	.007
Challenge	1.48	42	.146
Teamwork	.93	42	.355
Coursebook	1.66	42	.103
Language proficiency	-.57	42	.566

To compare males' and females' perception of the factors in question, an *independent samples t-test* was conducted. This test showed that females found debate more fun than males $M_{(males)} = 3.8$ ($SD .62$), $M_{(females)} = 4.2$ ($SD .42$); $t(42) = -2.5$, $p < .05$. Also, females attached more importance to the *active participation* $M_{(males)} = 3.6$ ($SD .65$), $M_{(females)} = 4.0$ ($SD .65$); $t(42) = -2.6$, $p < .05$ and *challenge* factors than males $M_{(males)} = 3.6$ ($SD .70$), $M_{(females)} = 4.0$ ($SD .53$); $t(42) = -2.2$, $p < .05$. Interestingly, males extended more importance to the *critical thinking* factor than females $M_{(males)} = 4.0$ ($SD .82$), $M_{(females)} = 3.6$ ($SD .57$); $t(42) = -1.9$, $p < .05$.

B. Qualitative Analysis

To read between the lines of the questionnaire and dig deep in it, interviews with ten participants were conducted. In these interviews, the participants were confronted with the potential factors that may shape their attitude towards debate.

Debate is fun. All the participants in the interviews extolled debates and stated that they liked them and would certainly participate in them once the opportunity arises. Interestingly, some participants even advocated for the use of debate in other subjects like German, Dutch and Biology. Still, some argued that debating in French and German is not sensible at the moment because their current command of these languages is not good enough to stage adequate debates. One participant even expressed readiness to join a debate club and participate in debate competitions.

Active participation. Debates may create a fertile ground for active engagement in the lesson through providing students with the opportunity to explain, clarify, analyze, synthesize and rebut. The participants appreciated this quality of debate. One participant said that she liked debate because it facilitated active participation in the learning process rather than passively absorbing the lesson material. It was also pointed out that debate was preferred because “everyone is stimulated to participate” and that “everyone is engaged and gets something out of it”.

Critical thinking. In the interviews, all the participants praised debate for pushing them to think critically and analytically. One participant said “it is pleasant to think critically to prove **why** your arguments are ok and the ones of your opponents aren’t”. Another said: “I like debate because it makes you reflect”.

Challenge. Debate may pose an interesting challenge to students as one participant contended. That challenge is a source of enjoyment was also corroborated by the study of Williams (2006) in which he concluded that “[students] liked being challenged and they thought that challenge did lead to enhanced learning and enjoyment” (p. 9-10). Williams (2006) also concluded that “to really be challenging [teachers] needed to include higher order thinking skills, for example a need to evaluate or justify a statement or action or to manipulate information before applying knowledge to a problem” (p. 8). This conclusion is in line with this study since debate, as has been argued before, cultivates high order thinking skills, and the participants reported that they enjoyed this challenge. Interestingly, some participants also reported enjoying the challenge of trying to outshine their classmates in the way they framed arguments.

Teamwork. Debate may facilitate teamwork through creating an environment which is conducive to working collaboratively. The participants recognized and confirmed this merit of debate and acknowledged its influence on their attitude towards it. One participant said “it was fun to work together to prepare arguments and rebuttals [during the debate]”. Also a number of participants said that they learnt from each other in the debate: “you learn words from each other. I was impressed by the expression ‘*up to...*’ [which a classmate used]”.

Debate vs coursebook. In the eyes of the participants, debate is an interesting teaching tool that has the ability to pique their interest, arouse their curiosity and make them experience fun with learning unlike coursebooks which are boring and fail to infuse lessons with effectiveness and students with enthusiasm. One participant said that this factor is the most important factor that accounts for her liking for debate. She also said “I prefer debate over coursebooks because coursebooks lack the ingredients that make debate interesting”. Another one said “coursebooks are not challenging [unlike debate]”.

Language proficiency. The participants in general believe in the power of debate in honing their four language skills. One participant said “you practice all the skills at the same time”. When asked whether the factor of language proficiency is an ingredient that makes them like debate, all the interviewees answered in the affirmative. One further confirmed this by saying “you practice the [four] skills in a fun way [in the debate]”.

At the end of the interviews, the participants were also asked if they could think up other potential factors that fire them about debate, they unanimously said that they could not think of any factors beyond what has been discussed. They all underscored the completeness of the factors being confronted with. The participants were also given a chance to discuss what they did not like about participating in the debates. Many of the participants expressed discomfort with speaking in front of the class, especially when they were straining and struggling to find the suitable words. However, some other participants praised the role of debate in bolstering their self-confidence in public speaking. One participant said in this regard “debate lessens the anxiety of public speaking”.

V. CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The participants’ responses in the questionnaire revealed that the positive attitude that students have towards debate is shaped by the factors of *active participation*, *challenge*, *teamwork*, *fun*, *critical thinking*, *language proficiency* and *debate vs coursebook*. That is to say, the results revealed that the participants recognized the contribution of all the factors in question to their appreciation of debate. The mean scores, which significantly deviated from the scale center, espouse this, a fact that corroborates that the participants extend relevance to all the factors. This is also confirmed by the participants in the interviews when they were confronted with the factors underlying the variables of the questionnaire and asked to indicate whether all these factors contributed to their positive perception of debate. They unanimously pointed out that each factor plays its bit in influencing their attitude towards debate.

The *independent samples t-test* revealed that the third grade group as well as the fifth grade group attached the same importance to all factors with the exception of the *critical thinking* factor. However, a comparison of males’ and females’ perception showed that females attached more value to the factors of *fun*, *active participation* and *challenge* than males. Yet males valued the *critical thinking* factor more than females.

To make the learning process successful, teachers should invest in the pedagogical tools that students admire and make them experience fun with learning. This study has revealed that students acclaim debate as an interesting teaching tool that energizes them to participate in a rich and engaging learning process. Therefore, debate as a teaching tool should get a place in the pedagogy of ESL/EFL teaching.

Given the small sample size of the study, the ability to generalize its findings to all ESL/EFL students is restricted. Therefore, further research is needed to confirm and maybe uncover other factors that have not been identified in this study. It could also be interesting to ask students to prioritize the factors, and then analyze the order in which they were listed. Further research is also needed to further explore the pedagogical benefits of debate and their implications for the pedagogy of foreign language teaching.

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Challenges of Teaching Chinese in Australian Schools: Lesson from Beginning Teacher-researchers

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Abstract—Chinese has been taught as a foreign language in Australian schools based on the recognition of economic and social importance of China to Australia. However, Chinese language teaching in Australian schools conducted by teachers who are native speakers of Chinese is perceived as low in quality and inefficient to meet non-background speakers' needs. As a result, there is a high drop-out rate of non-background learners in Chinese subject. This qualitative investigation explores the issue of inefficient Chinese language teaching in Australian schools by reviewing the challenges native-speaking Chinese language teachers encountered in real classrooms. Based on this understanding, Chinese language teacher education may be adapted to enhance teachers' capability to satisfy non-background speakers' needs and perform effectively in Australian classroom.

Index Terms—foreign language teaching, languages other than English (LOTE), language teacher education, language policy

I. CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHING IN AUSTRALIA

Recognizing the growing impact of China in the world, more foreigners are learning Chinese to increase their access to people in China, which creates a 'Chinese fever' worldwide (Scrimgeour, 2014). School-based Chinese language education has been promoted in recent years in the context of *Melbourne Declaration on Educational goals for Young Australians* and the National Asian Languages and Studies in Schools Program (NALSSP) of Rudd government. In 2008, *Melbourne Declaration* stresses that "Australians need to become 'Asia literate', engaging and building strong relationships with Asia" (Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, 2008, p. 4). NALSSP initiative aims at significantly increase the number of high school graduates' with proficiency in Asian languages (Scarino, et al., 2011). It is one of the Australian Government's aspirations that by the end of 2020, at least 12% of Year 12 Australian students should be fluent in Chinese, Japanese, Indonesian or Korean (Asia Education Foundation, 2008). In 2008, 92931 students in Australian were studying Chinese (Sturak & Naughten, 2010). Victoria is the state with the largest number of students studying Chinese (Sturak & Naughten, 2010). The number of students enrolled in Chinese programs in New South Wales is estimated to be more than 20000. However, students' achievement in Chinese language learning was unsatisfactory. A high drop-out rate has been observed in NSW as well as other states. It is found that 94% of students enrolled in Chinese programs choose to quit Chinese before Year 11 (Orton, 2008). In NSW in 2011, out of 72, 391 Year 12 students who participated in HSC test, only 1,091 (1.5%) students studies Chinese (Herscovitch, 2012). The achievement of non-Chinese background learners is particularly low (Scarino et al., 2011; Scrimgeour, 2012). The students who stayed with Chinese programs are mostly first language speakers of Chinese (Asia Education Foundation, 2008; DEEWR, 2010). In this sense, the current state of Chinese language teaching is described as "teaching Chinese to Chinese" (Orton, 2008, p. 4). Confronted with these facts, retention of non-background Chinese language learners has been regarded as the first priority for achieving the aspirational goal in 2020 (Asia Education Foundation, 2008; DEEWR, 2010).

II. SHORTAGE OF HIGH QUALITY TEACHER

It is maintained that teachers play an important role in retaining students in Chinese language classroom and reducing high drop-out rate of Chinese learning. As stated by Lo Bianco (2009, p. 28) in his study of second language learning in Australian schools "good teaching is the single most important controllable variable in successful language learning...". Nevertheless, there seems to be a shortage of high quality Chinese language teachers in Australia (Asia Education Foundation, 2008; DEEWR, 2010; McKay, 2000; Orton, 2008; Sturak & Naughten, 2010). The number of new graduating Chinese teachers from Australian universities per year is less than twenty in each state of Australian (Orton, 2008). Since it is difficult for English-speaking teachers to develop desired level of proficiency in Chinese in terms of phonology, grammar, vocabulary and written characters, about 90% of Chinese language teachers employed in Australian schools are native speakers of Chinese (Orton, 2008; Sturak & Naughten, 2010). These native speaking

teachers have often been criticized as inadequately prepared to teach Chinese in Australian classrooms even though some of them are trained in Australian universities (Asia Education Foundation, 2008; DEEWR, 2010). A qualitative study of Chinese student-teachers' practicum experience in Australian schools by Scrimgeour (2010) identified five major challenges native-speaking teachers confronted in Australian classroom including unfamiliarity with Australian culture of learning, low levels of learner motivation, responsibility to engage learners, inability to see language learning from the learner's perspective and low proficiency in English. The current study by reviewing some classroom-based research intends to further enrich understanding about challenges native-speaking teachers face when teaching Chinese in Australian classroom.

III. THIS STUDY

In response to federal government's increasing attention to Asia literacy education in Australia, a partnership between NSW Department of Education and Communities-Western Sydney Office, Ningbo Municipal Bureau of Education and University of Western Sydney was initiated to promote Chinese language and culture in western Sydney region. Known as Research-Oriented, School-Engaged Teacher Education (ROSETE), this program recruits volunteers from China to teach Chinese in western Sydney schools and to undertake classroom-based research at the same time. As these volunteers are teaching and doing research on their own teaching at the same time, they are considered as teacher-researchers in this program. In the past few years, 35 university graduates from China have worked as teacher-researchers in ROSETE program to support Chinese language teaching in western Sydney region and have produced significant amount of classroom-based research on teaching Chinese in local public schools. Most of these classroom-based researches are qualitative investigations of volunteers' own classroom practice and professional development with the common goal of improving Chinese language teaching effectiveness. While studying their professional development, the volunteers documented challenges they encountered in teaching Chinese as a foreign language in Australian schools.

A. *Metasynthesis*

This article is a qualitative metasynthesis of the major challenges reported in the volunteers' classroom-based research. Qualitative metasynthesis involves analyzing, synthesizing and interpreting findings from different qualitative studies to identify common themes (Major & Savin-Baden, 2010). Such re-interpretation of existing findings contributes to a refined understanding of a particular event (Thorne et al., 2004). The metasynthesis in the current study attempts to understand the major challenges for the ROSETE volunteers to teach in Australian schools by analyzing, synthesizing and interpreting findings of their classroom-based research.

B. *Data Collection*

All the ROSETE volunteers wrote theses based their classroom-based research to obtain a Master of Education (Honours) at the university. Therefore, their classroom-based research was collected through the university's publicly available thesis repository, using the terms "Chinese language teacher" and "beginning Mandarin teacher". By reading the abstracts, 22 theses were identified as relevant to ROSETE program. One thesis which is a discourse analysis of language policy with no focus on classroom practice was excluded from the current study. Hence, 21 theses were finally included in the current metasynthesis (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
LIST OF THESES INCLUDED

Name	Year	Title
Hongwei Chen	2011	A Chinese beginning teacher's professional identity transformation: An auto-ethnographic study
Yi Chen	2011	Assessment for Learning: Enhancing activities to learn Mandarin
Xiaowen Huang	2011	A 'self-study' of a Chinese teacher-researcher's practice of transnational knowledge exchange: Stimulating students' Mandarin learning in Australia
Ye Li	2010	Constructing the identity of a Mandarin teacher in Australia: A narrative self-study
Qian Liu	2012	A path to professional knowledge and identity building: Self-study of a native Chinese language two teacher in Western Sydney schools
Wenlu Qiu	2013	The impact of beginning Mandarin teachers' knowledge on primary students' classroom engagement in western Sydney schools
Jingjing Weng	2010	Magic moments: A second language teacher's zone of professional development
Ting Wu	2010	Teacher engagement in second language (L2) classrooms: Teacher-as-researcher
Jing Yuan	2011	Interest-based language teaching: Stimulating Australian students' interest in learning Mandarin
Minmin Zhang	2010	A bilingual second language teacher teaching bilingually: A self-study
Xijun Mao	2010	An investigation into appreciative approaches to pedagogy: The perspective of a volunteer teacher researcher in language classrooms in NSW public schools
Xinxin Xu	2010	Environmental education as a cross-curriculum perspective in teaching Mandarin: Implications for environmental worldview
Wenyuan Zhang	2010	Journey to the west-Reading communicative language teaching in Australia
Jiadong Liao	2011	Knowledge in practice: A grounded theory approach to constructing beginning Mandarin teachers' use of the communicative language teaching approach
Ji Ma	2011	The implementation of culture tasks in teaching Chinese to Australian high school beginners
Shuyan Mao	2011	Teaching Hanzi to non-native speakers of Chinese
Yi Weng	2011	Exploring the funds of knowledge in the Chinese community in Australia for Mandarin teaching and learning in schools
Ying Zhang	2011	Reading respect in Australian schooling: A Chinese perspective
Luhua Huo	2012	The impact of visual pedagogy on students' learning of Hanyu: A case study of a western Sydney public school
Zhou Lan	2013	Scaffolding Chinese teaching and learning
Xinyu Yu	2012	Popular culture and engagement in teaching Mandarin: An action research project

C. Data Analysis

Three stages of data analysis were employed in the current study. The first stage is to select relevant narrative about challenges in teaching from the large amount of texts in each thesis using holistic coding. As a time-saving approach for preparing massive amount of data for more detailed analysis, holistic coding "grasp basic themes or issues in the data by absorbing them as a whole rather than by analysing them line by line" (Dey, 1993, p. 104). The second stage employs descriptive coding which summarizes basic topics of the narratives selected in the first stage in short phrases. Then, at the third stage, focused coding was applied to organize the descriptive codes into themes. All the themes are discussed in the following section one by one.

IV. FINDINGS

A. Different Educational Culture

Teachers often bring with them a set of beliefs and understanding about teaching that are shaped by their own experiences as students (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Watzke, 2007; Richardson, 1996). As students previously nurtured in Chinese education systems, the teacher-researchers' belief about teaching is profoundly influenced by Chinese educational culture. However, as reflected in their theses, drawing upon these beliefs to teach Australian students turns out to be unproductive. H. Chen (2011) mentioned that the dignity of teachers and teaching is an important part of traditional Chinese educational philosophy. In Chinese schools, teachers have absolute authority in the classroom and students' respect and obedience to teachers are taken for granted. Without experiencing such teacher authority and respect and obedience from students in Australian classroom, H. Chen (2011) found it challenging to teach in Australia. As other local beginning teachers in schools in western Sydney region, ROSETE teacher-researchers had issues with managing students' behavior problems. However, what makes these Chinese-educated teachers' situation worse was that they did not expect behavior problem before entering Australian classroom due to their belief in teacher authority and students' respect for teachers as the norm.

How could they be so rude! I was really shocked and disappointed. Why they not listened to me, just as my authority was totally ruined. Don't the teachers enjoy their authority naturally and students must respect teacher and follow the teachers' instruction? (Liu, 2012, p. 103)

However, after I started teaching, I experienced a—reality shock! Not only could I not organise effective group work, I could not control or discipline the class and could not stimulate my students to learn Mandarin. (Li, 2010, p. 6).

On the next day I entered the class of Mifeng HS, where I was going to work as a volunteer. There I received a "shock".....It seems normal to eat and drink during class. Their way of sitting and standing is very relaxed, there is even one laying on the floor, I cannot describe the situation with words. (Huang, 2011, p. 77)

As shown in the excerpts above, teacher-researchers felt 'shocked' when they found that high level of teacher authority and students' obedience do not come automatically in Australian classroom as in Chinese classroom. Students' behavior problems negatively affected teacher-researchers' capability to promote student learning in different ways. One of the most important impacts is that students' disruptive behaviors caused negative emotions in teachers and reduced teacher engagement.

I began to dislike the naughty boys who always talked and disturbed the other students. After this lesson, I realised that my feelings and my emotional engagement in the class and towards the students were changing. I felt nervous and I was reluctant to teach in the high school (Wu, 2010, p. 160)

Students made noise, moved, and even stood beside the window to talk to people outside. I was so frightened. How could Australian students be like this? ... I was so tired and depressed. My voice was mute after this lesson. I was so sad that I had only one thing in mind: I want to go back to China; I cannot stay if it's always like this. My tears were nearly coming out. (Li, 2010, p. 115)

W. Zhang (2010) pointed out that student's behavior problems made her reluctant to use student-centered pedagogy such as CLT for which students' self-regulation is the prerequisite. To avoid the risk of classroom being out of control, she adopted more teacher-centred approach instead.

Chinese students' obedient behavior is also to some extent due to the fact that they are self-motivated for exams (Li, 2004a). The exam-oriented educational culture in China is described by Huang (2011) as follows:

[exams] function as a standard for ensuring equal competition and a mechanism to externally motivate "slow students" to catch up, and to provide "good students" with a sense of success. A Chinese Suyu can be used here to interpret this situation.....it literally means "exam, exam, exam, teachers" magic weapon; score, score, score, students "life roots.".....This Suyu captures the importance of examinations for Chinese students and teachers, indicating students and teachers' different interests in engagement with examinations and their attitude towards them. Examination is an extrinsic motivator, playing an important role in stimulating students' learning and in directing teachers' work. (Huang, 2011, p. 100)

As most students are mostly self-motivated for exams, Chinese teachers usually put less effort on motivating students but focus more on academic work. Conversely, in Australian educational culture, students do not have exams as frequently as students in China and teachers pose negative attitudes towards exams, as observed by the teacher-researcher:

At that time, DET was about to hold an examination and acquire the exam results from schools. All teachers again objected to it. They said that it is not right to prepare students for tests. Finally, all staff voted for a decision to send a letter to present their opinion to DET, and they were going to give out newsletters to parents at the school gate. (Huang, 2011, p. 99)

Without recognizing the difference in educational culture in terms of exams, teacher-researchers tend to assume that Australian students are self-motivated as Chinese students and teaching involves merely academic work. It is only when they realize that exam is not a valid external motivator for most Australian students that they started to acknowledge motivating students as an essential part of teaching in Australian schools.

Chinese educational culture and Australian educational culture are also different in terms of asking and answering questions in the classroom. Being educated in Chinese schools, Weng (2010) developed the belief that during the lesson, students are supposed to respond to teachers' questions with perfect answers rather than frequently asking questions to interrupt teachers. From her perspective, giving wrong answers is associated with losing face and asking questions is considered as weakness in learning. Holding these beliefs, Weng (2010) felt uncomfortable with being frequently interrupted by students' questions in Australian classroom.

The teacher-researchers were also bothered by the reality that in Australia, all teachers have to teach without official textbook. Coming from China where teaching and learning of all school subjects and assessments are organized according to a set of official textbooks used national wide, H. Chen (2011) was not prepared to teach Chinese without textbook. Consequently, the absence of official textbook for Chinese subject in Australia causes the her concern. In contrast to Chinese educational culture which attaches greater importance to memorizing information from textbooks and quantity of knowledge, Australian educational culture values the interest of learning. Li (2010) found it hard to internalize such philosophy of teaching and learning:

I thought learning and playing were difficult to integrate: fun learning reduced the amount of knowledge that students could learn. There is always a conflict between my two minds.....On one hand, I tried to adapt to teaching that values fun learning. On the other side, I was still the person who focused on learning results and knowledge feeding. I did not believe that students who learned with fun could gain as much knowledge as they did with —serious teaching. (Li, 2010, p. 120)

Instead of following certain textbooks, Australian education emphasize on the role of hands-on activities for developing students' deep understanding about knowledge. Teachers in Australia are expected to design classroom activities themselves by drawing upon ideas and materials from various sources. The requirement for teachers' to design activities is perceived as another challenge for the teacher-researcher.

B. *Unmotivated Learners*

In some regions of Sydney, students with Chinese background take up a large population of local schools. Schools in these regions also provide Chinese language programs. Chinese classroom in these schools are different from Chinese classroom in western Sydney regions in that the former is mostly consisted of background/first language learners while the latter mostly includes non-background learners. Unlike non-background learners in western Sydney regions, background/first language learners demonstrated more positive behavior in Chinese class:

I recorded my reflections about the Mandarin lessons I observed in these schools, which were mostly located in Chinese-Australian communities. Through this observation, I thought that Australian students had a self-initiated and motivated attitude towards Mandarin learning....Many students are Chinese-Australian..... students are free to have free discussion with their groups, and few of them were chatting about irrelevant topics.... (Huang, 2011, p. 77)

The different behaviors of background/first language learners and non-background learners can be explained by their different levels of motivation towards Chinese language learning. From the perspective of H. Chen (2011), closely related to non-background students' disruptive and off-task behaviors in Chinese classroom is their lack of motivation for Chinese language learning. Unlike background/first language learner who has access to Chinese-speaking community, non-background learners learn Chinese without being supported by a Chinese-speaking environment. As a consequence, learners have fewer opportunities to test out what they have learnt, which in turn affects their motivation. This problem may also be explained in the light of Fishman's (1972) concept of *domains* of language use. *Domains* are the institutional contexts which determine people's language choice (Adams, Matu & Ongarora, 2012, p. 100; Jeffery & Mesthrie, n.d., p. 1). Home, school and work are typical examples of domains (Jeffery & Mesthrie, n.d.). Nevertheless, *domains* are not equivalent to physical settings, but are more related to the types of activities and events which language is used for (Jeffery & Mesthrie, n.d.). *Domains* are concerned with situation of language use which can be described by "who is using language to whom, how, why, when and where" (Jeffery & Mesthrie, n.d., p. 1). Even though both background learners and non-background learners communicate with teachers and peers in English, their *domains* outside school are different. Background learners of Chinese have *domains* in which Chinese can be used for communication since they may talk to family members in Chinese. For non-background learners, there is almost no *domain* outside school in which Chinese is more appropriate to use than English or their own languages. As a result, they are unmotivated to learn Chinese, which is perceived as a major challenge for teacher-researchers.

Without reinforcement by Chinese-speaking *domain*, it has been pointed out that the success of foreign language learning, as a part of the school curriculum, to a large extent depends on contextual factors including attitudes of school, local community and government towards foreign language learning (Ellis, 1996). These factors may increase learners' integrative motivation (desire to get involved in the target community) or instrumental motivation (desire to accomplish some non-interpersonal purpose such as to pass an exam or to advance a career) (Liuolienė & Metiūnienė, 2011, p. 94). In China, learning English is highly significant for students since it is a compulsory subject and the competitive advantage of good English competence is always evident in admission for leading schools and universities as well as recruitment into highly-paid jobs. The success of English education in China has often been attributed to the use of various English tests (Chang, 2008). Unlike this, in Australia, there is no such strong community and government support in the form of exam, admission criteria or employer preference to materialize the benefit of Chinese language learning and create learners' instrumental motivation. Family attitudes may act as another negative influence on non-background students' motivation for Chinese language learning. Huang (2011) found that even though Australia is becoming increasingly multicultural than before, some Anglo-Australian parents may have less favorable or even racist attitudes towards other cultures and learning other languages.

As the teacher-researchers cannot take advantage of learners' integrative motivation and instrumental motivation, they try to enhance immediate enjoyment and add extra attraction of classroom activities as an alternative to motivate students' learning. Such strategy for managing language learners' motivation is called as 'interest enhancement' (Wolters, 2003, p. 195) or 'satiation control strategies' (Dornyei, 2005, p. 113). To eliminate boredom of Chinese lesson, the teacher-researchers employed a variety of tools such as games, cultural artefacts, crafts, colouring, popular music which reflect Australian learners' preferences. Nevertheless, students' interest in games, cultural artefacts, crafts, and colouring may not be extended to the Chinese language itself. As an 'interesting' lesson may involve limited use of the target language, students may be engaged in the teacher-researchers' lesson, but were not necessarily engaged in learning the target language. As a result the teacher-researchers are faced with a conflict between enhancing interestingness of the lesson and teaching the language:

C. Insufficient Understanding about Students

Despite that as native speakers of Chinese, the teacher-researchers are highly proficient in the content, their insufficient understanding about students and its associated implication for teaching constitute a major challenge for them to function effectively in Australian classrooms. Without the same experience of learning Chinese as a foreign language, the teacher-researchers lacks understanding about the difficulties non-background learners would encounter in their learning. Consequently, they are challenged in preparing lessons tailored to students' potential errors and barriers in learning. The teacher-researchers sometimes assume non-background speakers will have the same problems as first language or background learners. Based on this assumption, the teacher-researchers taught non-background learners following the same approach as teaching Chinese as a first language, which does not satisfy non-background learners' needs. Gradually, the teacher-researchers realised that "teaching Mandarin to non-background speakers is

more than knowing the language” (M. Zhang, 2010, p. 4). As foreigners who just arrived Australia, the teacher-researchers have not yet developed a good understanding about life of local students:

However, even though I spared no effort to understand students’ life and communicated with them as much as possible, it was very hard for me to gain profound idea about their life because I didn’t have enough time both in class and after class, to understand their life experience. (Liu, 2012, p. 151)

To look for connections to introduce new knowledge to students based on their prior knowledge is challenging, because of the limited knowledge students have about China, and my limited knowledge – that is my ignorance – about their country. (Huang, 2011, p. 114)

As mentioned in the second excerpt above, insufficient understanding about students’ life creates challenges for teacher-researchers to establish connections between Chinese language learning and students’ life or to use students’ existing knowledge as the starting point for introducing new concepts. Moreover, insufficient understanding about students’ life and existing knowledge based on their life may even leads to misunderstanding about students as follows:

Today I taught numbers. [...] it went well except when I was teaching number 8. Students always say it with a trill and prolonged voice sound, and then laugh. I did not know why, they are so naughty. This student’s reaction could be taken simply as students being “naughty.” It was later, when I talked to an Australian that I learnt the pronunciation of “8” in Mandarin (bā) is basically the same as the sound sheep make in Australian English. It was then that I realised the reason why students in my class made a funny sound when I taught this number. (Huang, 2011, p. 151)

Multiculturalism is an important feature of Australia as a country. This has significant implication for teaching in Australia as teachers’ practice needs to attend to all cultures represented by students in the classroom. In this sense, teachers’ awareness of students’ various cultural backgrounds becomes an essential part of teachers’ knowledge of students which enables them to perform effectively in Australian classroom. However, with no recognition of the diversity of students’ cultural background, the teacher-researchers demonstrate a lack of inclusivity in their teaching.

Insufficient understanding about students also constrained teacher-researchers to communicate effectively with students and give clear instruction understandable by students. The use of correct language based on understanding about students is highly relevant to the production of clear teacher instruction understandable to students. Teacher-researchers’ limited knowledge about students’ literacy levels gave rise to their use of inappropriate language which could not be understood by students. For example:

However, I did not consider that they were only Yr 8 kids. Even though they could speak fluently, they could not necessarily recognise difficult words. Many words used in the story were too long, complex, and academic for them. They could not understand my language, even though I was speaking in English. (Li, 2010, p. 194)

D. Low English Competence for Teaching Purposes

As the majority of students of the teacher-researchers are beginning learners with no Chinese language background, Chinese can hardly be used as the medium of instruction for the lessons. Instead, the teacher-researchers relied on the use of English for classroom instructions. English is the first language for most of the students, but a foreign language for the teacher-researchers. Teaching their first language, Chinese, by using their foreign language, English, as the medium of instruction is not easy. Despite that all the teacher-researchers are assessed as competent users of English in internationally-recognised test such as IELTS, it does not necessarily indicate they can teach Chinese successfully with English. In classroom context, their English capability is deficient in terms of understanding expressions of young children, responding immediately and appropriately to students’ behaviour, establishing explicit criteria of work and maintaining students’ interest and concentration. Firstly, learning of English as a foreign language in China does not facilitate the teacher-researchers to understand expressions used by Australian students in their daily lives, despite that some of them are English major graduates. Poor English comprehension also restricts teacher-researchers to respond immediately to students. W. Zhang (2010) and Li (2010) reported that it takes some time for them to understand students’ message and respond accordingly. Lack of immediate response is also considered as negatively influencing their ability in disciplining students’ behaviour:

I could not immediately construct a “sharp” sentence which would make sense and stop the disruptive behaviour. I did not have confidence in the English used by Australian teachers, which I needed to manage these students’ behaviours. (Huang, 2011, p. 159)

Additionally, the teacher-researchers are also incompetent to establish explicit criteria or present the lesson in an interesting way with limited English skills, which leads to students’ confusion and loss of interest in learning Chinese.

Using English for teaching purposes demands more than what is required to attain high scores in standard English tests. From the perspective of the communicative approach, poor communicative competence can be attributed to either language comprehension or inappropriate application of language in a specific context. The ineffectiveness of communication between students and teacher-researchers lies mainly in the latter factor, specifically, undeveloped understanding about the application of English in a classroom context. There is attributed to the fact that their learning of English in China which is mainly concerned with general communication does not match their actual use of English to communicate with young children in classroom settings.

E. Time Limitation

Time is another obstacle for Chinese language teaching in Australia. Chinese language especially its written form follows a system of meaning expression which is quite different from English. Due to such difference between Chinese and English language, it is estimated that a native English-speaker needs approximately 2200 hours of study to achieve proficiency in Chinese, which is about four times more than the hours required for becoming proficient in other European languages (Orton, 2008). However, the teacher-researchers reported that time allocated for Chinese lesson in Australian schools is far from enough for teachers to yield significant students' progress in Chinese language learning:

Having a lesson for less than half an hour was difficult for me to organise in terms of a comprehensive lesson in which students could demonstrate good understanding, especially the young children. (M. Zhang, 2010, p. 117)

The time factor also hugely hindered the effect of formative assessment in promoting learning. When the teacher-researcher felt pressure from time constraints, she shortened the discussion about feedback, provided feedback before students finished their work, or transferred feedback in a teacher-centred way rather than communicating it in a way more consistent with student-centred approaches. (Y. Chen, 2010, p. 189)

As indicated in the excerpts above, limited class time constrains the teacher-researchers from implementing fully what they have planned. With limited class time, the teacher-researcher also cannot conduct effective formative assessment and provide thorough feedback accordingly to help students' understanding. Huo (2012) pointed out that learning of Chinese characters which are written form of Chinese language is compromised due to limited class time:

She believed that teaching and learning Chinese characters was a slow process. Considering the short teaching time, she made her choice to teach other components of the language such as *pinyin* and Chinese culture instead of characters. This decision allowed more content to be covered in the given time. Ayala also pointed out that she would like to teach characters if the time permitted this, which further demonstrated the influence inadequate time-allocation may have caused on character teaching. (Huo, 2012, p. 66)

F. Unsupportive School Context

The teacher-researchers consider some school contexts they experienced as unsupportive for Chinese teaching and learning. Some local teachers hold indifferent attitudes towards Chinese lessons:

Mandarin lesson was totally new and marginal subjects of this school, it was hard for me to communicate with teacher about that because they didn't understand and showed no interest in attending such a new subject. (Liu, 2012, p. 151)

The professional role of the teacher-researchers as Chinese language teacher in the school is not supported. The teacher-researchers are not accepted and recognized by the school in the same way as local teachers, which resulted in their lack of belongingness to the school and teacher community. In terms of supportive school context, mentoring is highly appreciated by teacher-researchers:

Having a mentor in school meant that I would be 'taken care of' by somebody, which reassured me in certain ways, enhanced my teaching confidence and improved my teaching practice. I did not seek emotional support from my mentor. What she provided was largely the knowledge I asked for.....Practical advice and help were exactly what I needed, such as with solving pedagogical problems; providing feedback on my teaching; organising my teaching context; introducing available resource materials; and giving me information in advance so that I could prepare. Thus, I believe that a formal mentoring relationship in schools for beginning teachers, helps them work more effectively and to have a more positive impact on students' learning. (M. Zhang, 2010, p. 166)

With the help of the supervising teacher, the beginning teacher gained specific knowledge of local students' preferences, preconceptions and the prior knowledge they brought to class. (H. Chen, 2011, p. 123)

Technically, mentors are someone that teacher-researchers can discuss their concern with and seek practical advice and help from. By providing feedback focused on teacher-researchers' specific teaching practice, mentors also help teacher-researcher rectify their misunderstanding, develop their knowledge about students and reflect on their prior belief about teaching and learning. Mentors' modelling gives beginning teachers authentic, empirically-based idea about effective teaching. Mentoring is essential for teacher-researcher to fit into local school environment also because emotionally, it provides teacher-researchers with reassurance and feeling of being "taken care of". It is maintained that coaching beginning teachers through joint lesson planning with experienced teachers is especially effective for beginning teachers to gain insight into the complexity of teaching and learn to take into account a variety of factors in decision-making (Crookes, 2003; John, 2006).

V. CONCLUSION

The review of a cohort of Chinese language teachers-researchers' classroom-based research highlighted several challenges that native-speaking Chinese language teachers encounter in Australian classroom, namely different educational culture, behaviour management, unmotivated learners, insufficient understanding about students, low English competence for teaching purposes, time limitation, and unsupportive school context. Given the fact that Chinese native speakers are the major teacher supply for school-based Chinese language education in Australian, addressing these real-classroom challenges is essential for Chinese language teaching to satisfy non-background learners' needs and thus ultimately increase their retention in Chinese programs. These challenges highlight potential areas that need to be enhanced in Chinese language teacher education and language education policy.

A. Implication for Language Teacher Education

Native speakers educated in China held belief of teaching and learning profoundly influenced by Chinese educational culture. Some of these beliefs may not be applicable to Australian teaching context. To prepare native Chinese teachers for Australian classroom, it is important to promote their reflection on the similarities and differences between educational cultures in China and Australia through teacher training. They should be provided with rich opportunities to observe local schools and compare their observations with what they have experienced in China. Native Chinese teachers should be encouraged to reflect on the applicability of their prior belief in Australian context. Teacher educators need to offer guidance to make sure that student teachers' judgement is evidence-based and free from bias and prejudice. Teacher education should also foster native Chinese teachers to adapt to local educational culture. Due to the cultural difference, Chinese teachers may need extra training and coaching in behaviour management, motivating strategies, lesson planning skills and activity design in addition to what is usually provided for local teachers. Moreover, developing Chinese teachers' understanding about local students' life experience, existing knowledge, prior learning, and typical errors and difficulties in non-background learners' learning of Chinese is of great help for Chinese teachers to satisfy local students' needs and thus improve quality of their teaching. Additionally, it should be noted that standardised English test scores which are often used to assess use of English for general or academic purposes is an invalid indicator for teachers' competence in using English for foreign language teaching purposes. Chinese teachers' knowledge in using English as a medium of instruction should be substantially developed through teacher education. For instance, this may include specific training on classroom language for organizing discussion, managing students' behaviour, and establishing explicit criteria. Furthermore, the findings of this research pointed to mentoring as a form of effective support for Chinese teachers to adapt to local culture and develop skills needed for teaching in Australian schools.

B. Implication for Language Education Policy

Findings of this research also have implications for language education policy in Australia. Firstly, learners' lack of motivation as a challenge for Chinese native teachers implies that current language education policy fails to provide enough incentives for non-background learners to learn Chinese language. Background/first language learners' motivation for Chinese language learning arises from *domains* in their life in which Chinese can be used as a communication tool. For non-background language learners who are lacking such *domains*, it is important to stimulate their learning through language education policy. One alternative is to increase non-background learners' instrumental motivation by introducing academic or employment advantages attached to Chinese language learning. Additionally, communicating with school people, parents and local community about the significance of Chinese language learning to increase contextual support for non-background learners is also an urgent need. Furthermore, considering the intrinsic difficulty of Chinese language for English speakers, time allocated for non-background learners' learning of Chinese language should be increased.

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Length of Residence and Chinese ESL Students' English Speaking Comprehensibility and Intelligibility

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Abstract—This study investigates the correlation between length of residence and learners' comprehensibility and intelligibility (namely "English speaking competence" throughout the paper) in a study abroad context. The investigator also examined the role of essential daily routines as a moderator of these correlations. Ten Chinese students who are currently studying at Northern Arizona University (NAU) were invited to participate in the research. They had different lengths of residence in the United States ranging from one year to five years. Based on Lu's (2014) study on the same group of students, the length of residence in English immersive environment should be positively correlated to comprehensibility and intelligibility and only slightly correlated to accentedness. The investigator of this study collected the amount of time each spends on nine critical daily life activities in a regular semester. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to demonstrate the relationship between English speaking competence and the time devoted to each of the nine activities. Follow-up interviews were conducted to each participant to qualitatively reinforce and verify the statistical results. The principal investigator (PI) of the study provides a recommended time planning to engage specific activities in an English-as-second-language (ESL) context improve Chinese ESL students' English speaking in terms of comprehensibility and intelligibility.

Index Terms—comprehensibility, intelligibility, length of residence, correlation, ESL

I. INTRODUCTION

Oral communication is always the first encounter for language learners to acquire a new language and improve their oral communication capability. Globalization promotes English to be a world Lingua Franca (ELF) and an increasing number of CHSs come to the USA to pursue higher education degrees. As of 2013, there are more than 230,000 Chinese students enrolled in U.S. universities, which means the number of Chinese students is almost the entire population of city of Madison in Wisconsin and four times larger than the population of Flagstaff, Arizona. Of all the international students in the USA, 28.7 percent of them are from China (Ministry of Education of China). Most of CHSs and even their parents believe an immersive way of English learning will not only help them improve their oral English capability but also learn their major discipline in a more effective, efficient and internationalized way (Ministry of Education of China). Therefore, a study abroad research is necessary to assist Chinese students even other international students to improve their English in an English immersive environment.

Language learning in a study abroad context is a new research field with linguistic emphases for second language acquisition (SLA) researchers. This research study is strongly related to the correlation research between length of residence in an immersive language environment and ESL speaking competence (i.e. comprehensibility and intelligibility). The project was developed and discussed on the two following research questions.

1. What activities in the language contact profile will potentially improve Chinese ESL students' English speaking competence in their daily life routine while they are studying abroad and interacting with American English native speakers?
2. How long should an ESL student devote into the critical activities to effectively improve their English speaking competence in a study abroad context?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The empirical study of linguistic aspect of study abroad started from the research of pragmatics and cross-cultural language learning (Kasper & Rose, 1999). Freed (1998, p.32) stated "since the late 1960s a gradually increasing literature has emerged which addresses the general topic of the linguistic impact of various types of study abroad experiences". Numerous previous literatures examined that ESL students could significantly develop their semantic judgment, comprehension speed, pragmatic knowledge and socio-pragmatic competence in an English immersive environment when study abroad (Taguchi, 2008; Youn, 2009; Kanagy, 1999; Kasper, 2001).

It is important to construct an operationalized measurement to evaluate Chinese ESL students' speech. Derwing and Munro (1997) as well as Kennedy and Trofimovich (2008) have provided the three factors as measurements of speech perception – comprehensibility intelligibility and accentedness. By far, there was an influential in-depth study

investigated by Derwing and Munro (1997), which was related to evaluate ESL speakers' English speaking quality. The study, focusing on L2 English learners' oral practice, first mentioned that using foreign accent, comprehensibility and intelligibility as three important measurements to evaluate Mandarin Chinese NSs who use English as foreign language (EFL). In the research, Munro and Derwing introduced the method of using Pearson correlation test to calculate if there are correlations between these three important factors. Munro and Derwing claimed that although the strength of a foreign accent is correlated with perceived comprehensibility and intelligibility, a strong foreign accent does not necessarily reduce the comprehensibility or intelligibility of L2 speech.

Kennedy and Trofimovich's (2008) study investigated how NSs' experience and semantic context (e.g. NSs with extensive experience interacting with NNSs have high possibility to comprehend NNSs' articulation with low intelligibility in different contexts) influence measures of intelligibility, comprehensibility and accentedness of NNSs' speech. They found out that NSs' background such as experience of talking to NNSs influenced their rating of NNSs' speech by using these three measurements. That is, NSs with more experience understood more NNSs' speech than NSs with less experience, but they did not rate it differently in comprehensibility. Additionally, Kennedy and Trofimovich clarified the specific and explicit meanings of the three terms, which laid the theoretical foundation of the present study. The term "intelligibility" emphasizes the clearness of EFL speakers' articulation. "Comprehensibility" focuses on how understandable EFL speakers' speech is. "Accentedness" is the degree of foreign accent perceived by NSs (Kennedy & Trofimovich, 2008).

Kang (2008) suggested native speakers can be a reliable source to evaluate ESL students' speech and a rating scale can be established for native raters to evaluate ESL participants' speech based on the three criterions proposed by Derwing and Munro (1997) and Kennedy and Trofimovich (2008).

Based on the standardized measurements for ESL students' speaking competence and the ideas of rating L2 oral performance in English by native speakers' perception (Kang, 2008), Lu's (2014) study demonstrated the positive correlation between the length of residence in an English immersive environment and English speaking comprehensibility as well as the positive correlation between length of residence and English speaking intelligibility by using the idea of evaluating perceived speech in the three factors (Derwing & Munro, 1997; Kennedy & Trofimovich, 2008). Lu also showed the weak positive correlation between the length of residence and accentedness of ESL students' speech. The findings suggested that some activities or linguistic interactions in ESL students' daily life unconsciously influence students' English speaking competence. The positive influence enhancing students' English speaking is possibly from the aspects of comprehensive input, interaction with oral corrective feedback and so on, which is motivating the PI to investigate their daily life time arrangements in details to find out what the critical linguistic interactions with native speakers are potentially enhancing their English speaking competence.

In terms of investigating ESL students' language using and learning experience or history, Freed, Dewey, Segalowitz and Halter (2004, p. 349-350) developed a language contact profile (LCP) quantitatively synthesizing demographics, life style and language using frequency, which inspired the current research to apply LCP into the study to examine Chinese ESL students' English use at Northern Arizona University. The PI modified Freed et al.'s (2004) LCP into a concise table breaking down the section "language using frequency" to "academic hours" and "social interaction hours" as a survey to investigate the participants' life style of English communication.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants in this study were all Chinese students currently studying at Northern Arizona University (NAU). There are plenty of variables influencing participants' oral proficiency level, so in this case, the Chinese students' background was controlled by two measurable factors – the TOEFL oral scores that they used to apply for the first American academic institution and their lengths of stay in the USA. In total, ten Chinese students were selected for this study. They had different lengths of stay in the U.S. ranging from one to five years. They were divided into five groups, with two similar lengths of stay forming one group. The ten students' were asked to submit their TOEFL oral scores used to apply for the first American academic institution that they attended to the PI as a proof to secure that they had similar proficiency levels before they came to the USA. Therefore, their progress with oral English should be made after they came to the USA. The ten students' original TOEFL scores varied from 18 to 20 when they first came to the USA. Additionally, the ten participants were from different colleges or schools at NAU so as to remove the bias of the PI. The PI used the case numbers as pseudonyms for confidentiality. Students' related information for the study had been collected in Table 1.

TABLE 1
THE TEN CHINESE STUDENTS' RELATED INFORMATION FOR THE INVESTIGATION

	Early TOEFL iBT Oral Score/30 Points Scale	Length of Stay in the USA/year(s)	Current College at NAU
Case 1	19	1	Franke College of Business
Case 2	20	1	Franke College of Business
Case 3	19	1	College of Arts and Letters
Case 4	20	2	College of Arts and Letters
Case 5	21	3	College of Performing and Fine Arts
Case 6	20	3	College of Performing and Fine Arts
Case 7	21	4	College of Engineering and Science
Case 8	21	4	College of Engineering and Science
Case 9	22	5	College of Hotel and Restaurant Management
Case 10	21	5	College of Arts and Letters

B. Rationale

Study abroad in the United States provides an immersive language environment for ESL Chinese students. In Lu's (2014) study, there were ten Chinese ESL students who have been studying in the United States for different lengths, ranging from one year to five years. The participants were selected from the PI's acquaintance and they were different major programs at NAU. Since the previous literature have statistically demonstrated positive correlation between the length of residence and the comprehensibility as well as the positive correlation between length of residence and intelligibility, it is necessary to pinpoint the specific daily activities help increasing L2 speakers' comprehensibility and intelligibility. In this current research study, the PI named the scores of comprehensibility and intelligibility as "English speaking competence scores" for later use. Then, the same group of ten participants was invited to fill out the survey about their time arrangement to use English as their second language in a regular academic week. This survey is constituted by an instruction paragraph and a table investigating the length participant communicating in English in different contexts and registers. As it is shown in Table 2, there are nine scenarios investigated in the questionnaire.

TABLE 2
SURVEY FOR DATA COLLECTION/LANGUAGE CONTACT PROFILE

Items Investigated			Number of Hours (hrs)
Academic Hours	Class participation	Lectures	
		Smaller Sessions	
	Off-class academic communication		
Social Interaction Hours	Native speaker roommate chatting		
	Physical Education Service and/or club activities interaction		
	Hanging out for parties/dining/shopping with native speakers		
	Watching Anglophone movies/TV shows/YouTube videos		
	Telephone chatting/video chatting with native speakers		
	Religious Service using English		

The nine life settings generally covered most of the daily life situations in the study abroad context in which participants might have to communicate in English. To make the investigation more accurate, the PI asked the ten participants to respond to the survey based on their time arrangement of their last academic semester (i.e. spring 2014) because Lu's (2014) study was conducted in spring 2014. The data of "number of hours" using English in their lives should be reliable and representative because nobody of them was in a graduating semester when they might have unusually less credit hours in their academic times than any other semesters. In order to calculate the time slots more accurately, the data have been specified to one digit after the decimal (i.e. timing data in this study are round up to half an hour).

After each participant finished the survey, a follow-up interview was conducted to look into specifications of their response. Three sets of questions were delivered to the ten participants:

1. Is your life style consistent? How long have you kept your life style like which you responded in the survey?
2. To what extent you think you are an extroverted person or an introverted person? Rate yourself from 1 to 10. "1" refers to the extreme introverted characteristics and "10" stands for the extreme extroverted characteristics.
3. Do you have any additional time which is not been mentioned on the survey?

The three sets of questions are designed to qualitatively reinforce the survey and each set has different purposes. The first set of questions is trying to pinpoint if the time arrangement of using English is consistent. It is highly possible that ESL students might be subjective to have more exposure of authentic language communication in their daily lives as their language speaking competence developing and improving. It is also considerably probable that ESL students' speaking proficiency increase by having consistent authentic language exposure in their own ways of life. These two circumstances mentioned above have completely reversed casual logical lines to the research topic. The two situations could be named "hypothesis A" and "hypothesis B" respectively. In hypothesis A, students life style was like what they responded in the survey because their speaking English was improving. In this case, their life style was not consistent so their speaking competence was not directly associated with what they had reflected according to the survey. Thus, the developing English speaking proficiency caused more time of English using. In hypothesis B, it was the consistent ways

of life that provided them stable lengths of English using time. Therefore, their English speaking competence scores increase because the certain life styles reflected on the survey. In other words, the immersive language environment positively influenced the English speaking competence scores. The second set of questions was used to investigate the ten participants' personality, which may be potentially relevant to the development of English speaking competence. The third question was asked to cover the miscellaneous time arrangement of participants' life.

C. Data Analysis

Having obtained the data of English using hours, the PI utilized SPSS 22 and the instruction of statistics for applied linguistics (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991) to calculate Pearson correlation coefficient between the English-using time slots in every scenario among the nine situations and their English speaking competence scores (i.e. native speakers perceived scores of comprehensibility and intelligibility). Thereupon, two tables of correlation matrixes can be presented to respectively show the inter-correlations between the competence scores and the nine kinds of English-using times and interrelationships between the nine times. In this research study, the independent variable is participants' English speaking competence scores and the dependent variables are the nine different English using hours. After observing the correlation coefficients, it is apt to figure out which scenarios of social or academic life might potentially strengthen the English speaking comprehensibility and intelligibility in an immersive language environment. When combining the follow-up interview, the PI could rationally get the inter-correlation between English speaking competence, way of life and personal characteristics of participants

IV. RESULTS

A. Descriptive Statistics

TABLE 3
TABLE OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE LANGUAGE CONTACT PROFILE

	Lec_T	SSs_T	Off_T	RM_T	PE_T	HO_T	V_T	Tele_T	Religious_T	Additional_T
N Valid	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
Mean	4.65	6.30	5.90	5.20	1.50	3.55	6.80	1.15	0.00	0.85
Std. Error of Mean	1.81	1.26	2.00	2.53	0.45	1.23	0.57	0.45	0.00	0.85
Median	2.25 ^a	6.50 ^a	4.33 ^a	1.50 ^a	1.50 ^a	2.00 ^a	6.50 ^a	0.67 ^a	0.00 ^a	0.85 ^a
Mode	0.00	2.00 ^b	2.00 ^b	0.00	0.00 ^b	0.00	6.00 ^b	0.00	0.00	0.00
Std. Deviation	5.73	3.97	6.31	8.00	1.43	3.90	1.80	1.42	0.00	2.69
Variance	32.78	15.79	39.88	63.96	2.06	15.25	3.23	2.00	0.00	7.23
Skewness	1.08	-0.02	1.59	1.99	0.28	0.71	0.39	1.16		3.16
Std. Error of Skewness	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69
Kurtosis	0.05	-1.72	1.99	4.10	-1.00	-1.22	-0.10	0.31		10.00
Std. Error of Kurtosis	1.33	1.33	1.33	1.33	1.33	1.33	1.33	1.33	1.33	1.33
Range	16.00	11.00	20.00	25.00	4.00	10.00	6.00	4.00	0.00	8.50
Minimum	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	4.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Maximum	16.00	12.00	20.00	25.00	4.00	10.00	10.00	4.00	0.00	8.50
Sum	46.50	63.00	59.00	52.00	15.00	35.50	68.00	11.50	0.00	8.50

Note. All data in the table is significant at 0.05 level and all statistics has been round up to two digits after the decimal. The subscript "a" denotes calculated from grouped data while "b" denotes multiple modes exist and the smallest value is shown. The shaded cell shows the kurtosis value of "religious hours" cannot be calculated in this case. "Lec_T" refers to the weekly lecture hours. "SSs_T" refers to the weekly hours of smaller sessions. "Off_T" refers to the weekly hours of off-class academic. "RM_T" refers to the weekly hours of roommate chatting. "PE_T" refers to the weekly hours attending P.E. classes. "HO_T" refers to the weekly hours of hanging out with native speakers. "V_T" refers to the weekly hours of internet Anglophone videos affinity. "Tele_T" refers to the weekly hours of Anglophone television programs affinity. "Religious_T" refers to the weekly hours of religious service.

According to Hatch & Lazaraton (1991), a normal distribution can be judged by calculating $-1.96 \leq \frac{\text{skewness}}{\text{stand error of skewness}} \leq 1.96$. That is, if a fraction can be clustered between -1.96 and 1.96 in the inequality above, it is reasonable to state that this dataset is statistically normally distributed.

Table 3 shows all English contact hours in the nine scenarios and miscellaneous scenarios. Among these data, the video watching time is normally distributed with skewness of 0.39 and standard error of skewness of 0.69. Also, the time attending smaller session can be counted as statistical normal distribution with skewness -0.02 and standard error of skewness of 0.69. By observing the corresponded histograms in Appendix A, the reported hours of the rest seven scenarios along with miscellaneous scenarios are positively skewed to different extent, demonstrating the fact that most of the ten participants did not spend much time in routine English contacts. According to the mean scores, the English video watching time has a mean of 6.80 and the time of attending smaller session has a mean of 6.30. These two activities obviously took the most time among the nine scenarios of English contact. In terms of standard deviation,

video watching time has a standard deviation of 1.80, which demonstrates that students' time devotion in English video watching deviates the least. On the contrary, the hours of roommate chatting deviate the most with a standard deviation of 8.00.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF COMPREHENSIBILITY, INTELLIGIBILITY AND PERSONALITY

	Comp	Intel	Char
N Valid	10.00	10.00	10.00
Missing	0.00	0.00	0.00
Mean	8.35	7.50	6.60
Std. Error of Mean	0.37	0.44	0.60
Median	8.67 ^a	7.50 ^a	6.67 ^a
Mode	9.00	7.00 ^b	4.00 ^b
Std. Deviation	1.16	1.39	1.90
Variance	1.34	1.94	3.60
Skewness	-0.69	-0.08	-0.13
Std. Error of Skewness	0.69	0.69	0.69
Kurtosis	-0.42	0.59	-1.44
Std. Error of Kurtosis	1.33	1.33	1.33
Range	3.50	5.00	5.00
Minimum	6.50	5.00	4.00
Maximum	10.00	10.00	9.00
Sum	83.50	75.00	66.00

Note. All data in the table is significant at 0.05 level and all statistics has been round up to two digits after the decimal. The subscript “a” denotes calculated from grouped data while “b” denotes multiple modes exist and the smallest value is shown. “Comp” refers to comprehensibility. “Intel” refers to intelligibility. “Char” represents “characteristics” or “participants’ personality” in this case.

Table 4 displays the descriptive statistics of these ten participants’ comprehensibility, intelligibility and personality. The three groups of data are normally distributed based on the histogram of observation in Appendix B and statistical calculations.

B. Correlational Statistics

TABLE 5
CORRELATION MATRIX OF ENGLISH SPEAKING COMPETENCE SCORES AND TIME ARRANGEMENT

	Comprehensibility (c)	Intelligibility (i)
Lecture Hours (Lec)	**-.086	*-0.73
Smaller Session (SSs)	**0.77	0.38
Off-Class Academic (Off)	0.01	0.34
Roommate Chat (RM)	0.33	0.35
P.E. (PE)	0.39	0.28
Hang Out (HO)	*0.73	*0.75
Videos (V)	*0.67	0.42
Telephone (Tele)	0.29	*0.66
Religious Service (Rel)	N/A	N/A

Note. * indicates that correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** indicates that correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

N/A indicates that the data cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

The labels (i.e. abbreviations) are specified in the parentheses in the first column.

The arrangement order of the nine scenarios in the table corresponds to the sequence of the language contact profile.

The general p value of this research study is $p \leq 0.05$ so all the data that are significant at 0.01 level should be undoubtedly significant at 0.05 significant level in this study. By observing Table 5, seven pairs of significant correlations stand out to show the L2 speakers’ English speaking competence is strongly associated with the time they spent in lecture classes (r_{c-Lec} and r_{i-Lec}), smaller sessions (r_{c-SSs}), entertainments (r_{c-HO} , r_{i-HO} and r_{c-V}) (i.e., hanging out with native speakers and watching English videos or movies) and English telephone communication (r_{i-Tele}). According to Table 5, the “lecture hours” is negatively correlated to comprehensibility and intelligibility but it is unreasonable to state that more lectures students take, the less comprehensible and intelligible their speech would be. A follow-up interview should be conducted to explain this negative correlation qualitatively. Also, the strength of correlations (r^2) can be calculated and placed in a descending order below.

Comprehensibility-related correlation strengths: $r_{c-Lec}^2 > r_{c-SSs}^2 > r_{c-HO}^2 > r_{c-V}^2$

Intelligibility-related correlation strengths: $r_{i-HO}^2 > r_{i-Lec}^2 > r_{i-Tele}^2$

The coefficient of “religious service” does not exist because all participants put 0 in this item so SPSS regards the variable as a constant.

Compared to Table 5, Table 6 more specifically reveals how much the nine scenarios correlate to each other in terms of the length of time students spent on. The nine scenarios lay out horizontally and vertically in the columns of the table. The values inside the table display the inter-correlations between the nine scenarios.

TABLE 6
THE CORRELATION MATRIX OF INTER-CORRELATION BETWEEN THE NINE SCENARIOS

	Lecture Hours	Smaller Session	Off-Class Academic	Roommate Chat	PE	Hang Out	Videos	Tele	Religious Service
Lecture Hours	1.00	** -0.77	-0.05	-0.19	-0.40	-0.60	-0.61	-0.16	-0.16
Smaller Session	** -0.77	1.00	-0.03	0.45	0.40	0.43	* 0.72	0.10	N/A
Off-Class Academic	-0.05	-0.03	1.00	0.67	0.52	-0.08	0.20	0.53	N/A
Roommate Chat	-0.19	0.45	* 0.67	1.00	0.52	0.30	0.60	0.64	N/A
PE	-0.40	0.40	0.52	0.52	1.00	0.23	** 0.78	-0.07	N/A
Hang Out	-0.60	0.43	-0.08	0.30	0.23	1.00	0.60	0.41	N/A
Videos	-0.61	* 0.72	0.20	0.60	** 0.78	0.60	1.00	0.09	N/A
Tele	-0.16	0.10	0.53	* 0.64	-0.07	0.41	0.09	1.00	N/A
Religious Service	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	1.00

Note. * indicates that correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** indicates that correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

N/A indicates that the data cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

The nature of symmetry of correlation matrixes determines it is only necessary to investigate the shaded half of the table and check their correlation coefficients. There are five pairs of correlations which are strongly correlated to each other at the $p \leq 0.05$ significant level. Among them, $r_{\text{Lec-SSs}} = -0.77 < 0$, while $r_{\text{SSs-V}} = 0.72 > 0$, $r_{\text{Off-RM}} = 0.67 > 0$, $r_{\text{RM-Tele}} = 0.64 > 0$ and $r_{\text{PE-V}} = 0.78 > 0$. The strengths of correlations (r^2) are placed in a descending order below.

$$r_{\text{PE-V}}^2 > r_{\text{Lec-SSs}}^2 > r_{\text{SSs-V}}^2 > r_{\text{Off-RM}}^2 > r_{\text{RM-Tele}}^2$$

TABLE 7
TEN PARTICIPANTS ENGLISH SPEAKING COMPETENCE SCORES AND THE CHARACTERISTICS SELF-EVLATION

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7	Case 8	Case 9	Case 10
Comprehensibility	6.5	6.5	9.0	7.5	8.5	8.5	9.0	9.0	10.0	9.0
Intelligibility	6.0	5.0	7.5	8.5	7.0	7.0	7.5	8.0	10.0	8.5
Characteristics	5.0	4.0	4.0	6.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	9.0	9.0	8.0

Note. Comprehensibility and intelligibility range from 1 to 10 and higher scores represent higher English speaking competence. All the data are round up to one digit after the decimal.

From Table 7, we can see the general tendency showing the fact that as scores of comprehensibility and intelligibility increase, the characteristic scores increase correspondingly. In order to visualize the tendency, Figure 1, a line chart, is composed based on the data shown in Table 7.

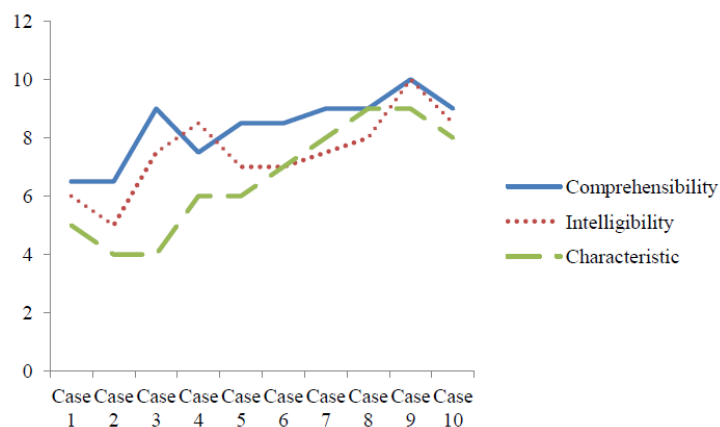


Figure 1. Line plot displaying tendency of comprehensibility, intelligibility and characteristics.

TABLE 8
THE CORRELATION MATRIX OF COMPREHENSIBILITY, INTELLIGIBILITY AND CHARACTERISTICS

	Comprehensibility	Intelligibility	Characteristics
Comprehensibility	1.00	** 0.79	* 0.70
Intelligibility	** 0.79	1.00	0.71
Characteristics	* 0.70	0.71	1.00

Note. * indicates that correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** indicates that correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 8 verifies that the degree of characteristics positively correlates to comprehensibility and intelligibility, which is also depicted in Figure 1.

TABLE 9
THE FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS SUMMARY

	Key Words in Self-Report Texts	Hypothesis Fit In	Miscellaneous Hours
Case 1	"consistent"	B	N/A
Case 2	"consistent"	B	N/A
Case 3	"consistent and stable"	B	N/A
Case 4	"consistent"	B	N/A
Case 5	"consistent"	B	N/A
Case 6	"almost consistent"	B	N/A
Case 7	"consistent in academic semesters"	B	N/A
Case 8	"mostly consistent"	B	N/A
Case 9	"stable after coming to the States"	B	N/A
Case 10	"stable and consistent"	B	8.5 hours of teaching

Note. The "key words" were excerpted from their interviews. N/A indicates that the participants claimed there were no additional hours using English in their daily life besides the nine scenarios.

Table 9 shows the participants' answers to question 1 and 3 for the follow-up interview. The column "key words in self-report texts" shows the critical words or terms excerpted from the interviews expressing the participants' attitude towards their personal evaluation on the relationship between life style and English speaking proficiency. Five out of ten participants directly claimed that their life styles were consistent after they came to the United States. The other five out of ten participants reported that their life styles were "almost consistent", "mostly consistent" or "consistent in a regular semester", which were regarded as "indirect claiming consistency". Therefore, it turned out to be all the participants' attitudes are supporting hypothesis B in their own cases. In this way, all the ten participants' English speaking competence gets improved mainly because of a consistent exposure in certain authentic language environment, so the internal validity of this study is supported and strengthened.

V. DISCUSSION

In terms of the descriptive statistics, the data of comprehensibility, intelligibility and personality are all normally distributed shows the validity of participant selection in this study. The participants' lengths of residence and their English speaking competence are effectively stratified.

Since all of the ten students' cases fall into the scope of hypothesis B in terms of the logical line, it is reliable to reason their English speaking competence only influenced by the input from their daily life. The following discussion will be based on hypothesis B in this study.

The strongest negative correlations cannot be only interpreted statistically. In terms of the negative correlation between "Lecture Hours" with "comprehensibility" and "intelligibility" (refer to Table 4), as well as the negative correlation between "Lecture Hours" and "Small Session Hours" (in Table 5), it is unreasonable to state that more hours students attend lecture-formed classes, less comprehensible and intelligible their speech will be. Actually, an institutional regulation at NAU resulted in this negative correlation – the higher grade a student is, the less lecture-formed classes the student will attend (i.e. the more small sessions the student will attend as the student's degree progress moving on). So the discussion excluded these two negative correlations caused by institutional reasons, not caused by individual preference. Other correlations reveal that attending academic small sessions, hanging out with native English speakers and watching Anglophone movies and other videos with entertainment purposes positively related to ESL students' English speaking comprehensibility dramatically. Hanging out with native speakers and making phone calls with native speakers have positive correlation with English speaking intelligibility. These activities could be beneficial to English speaking intelligibility.

Kennedy and Trofimovich (2008) defined that the term "comprehensibility" focuses on how understandable EFL speakers' speech is and "intelligibility" emphasizes the clearness of EFL speakers' articulation. Therefore, it is apt to categorize these nine scenarios into three types based on the impact to ESL speakers. The first type is the activities with considerably large amount of input or mono-directional input, such as "attending lectures" "watching English videos or movies with entertainment purposes" and "religious service". The second type is the activities requiring high-quality output and appropriate feedbacks, such as "attending small sessions" "off-class academic discussion" and "making phone calls with native speakers". The third type is those activities involving interactions, consisting of "roommate chatting with native speakers" "attending physical education classes" and "hanging out with native speakers". The correlation strength comparison: $r^2_{i-HO} > r^2_{i-Lec} > r^2_{i-Tele}$ clearly reveals that the second-type activities requiring high-quality English output positively correlates to ESL speakers speaking intelligibility possibly because these activities provide adequate speaking opportunities to have their articulation and pronunciations practiced. The third type of activities also strongly related to ESL students' intelligibility because students can get instant feedback from native English-speaking interlocutors so that their wrong or inaccurate articulations can be corrected in a specific context, which is good for ESL speakers to improve intelligibility, with "lecture hours" excluded due to the negative correlation, "hanging out with native speakers" and "making phone calls with native speakers" contribute the most to build L2 speakers English speaking intelligibility. The first type, then, features intensive English input, strengthening ESL speakers' comprehensibility.

In Table 5, the significant positive correlation between “roommate chatting” and “native speaker telephone chatting” ($r_{RM-Tele} = 0.64$) verifies the more talkative ESL speakers are, the more language speaking/using opportunities the speakers may obtain. The reasonable linguistic inference behind the strong positive correlation between “watching English videos and movies” and “attending small sessions” ($r_{V-SSs} = 0.72$) could be that a comprehensive input in an English immersive environment can potentially improve the English speaking competence in daily life.

Figure 1 and Table 7 shows the strong and obvious positive correlation between an extroverted personality and the English speaking competence scores (comprehensibility and intelligibility). The results implies that ESL students, who tend to be extroverted, are more easy to improve their English speaking competence in an English immersive environment because more opportunities of authentic English exposure will be created by actively fitting themselves in the native English speakers community.

VI. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

According to the results and discussion above, it is apt to conclude that the length of residence positively correlates to Chinese ESL students’ English speaking competence in terms of comprehensibility as well as intelligibility. That is, the longer a Chinese ESL student stays in an English immersive environment, the more possibilities the student will improve English speaking competence. The ESL students’ general life style of using English was broken down to nine model scenarios according to the language contact profile, which comprehensively improve the ten participants’ English speaking by offering comprehensive input, corrective feedback and requiring ESL speakers’ output.

Some specific time devotions are all positively related to ESL speakers’ English speaking comprehensibility and intelligibility. “Attending small sessions”, “hanging out with native speakers” and “watching English movies and videos with entertainment purpose” are positively correlated to ESL speakers improve comprehensibility. “Hanging out with native speakers” and “making phone calls with native speakers” might help ESL students’ intelligibility.

An explicit implication of descriptive and correlational statistics is that all Chinese ESL students devote relatively more time on attending smaller sessions and watching English videos online and the two are positively correlated with comprehensibility and intelligibility. Besides that, more implicit pedagogical implication can be presented.

The conclusion of this research study pedagogically implies that ESL instructors may fully use these critical activities to enhance English speaking competence. In ESL speaking classrooms, more task-based activities related to “attending small sessions”, “hanging out with native speakers”, “making phone calls with native speakers” and “watching English movies and videos with entertainment purpose” could be introduced and stimulated to let students practice English speaking in these contexts. The ways of implementation can be varied, such as scenario introducing by video clips, reciprocal practicing in small groups, backing-up practice by making friends with native English speakers in real life and recording videos mocking conversations in these scenarios, etc.

Importantly, the research study implies an effective immersive language learning strategy in study abroad context based on the statistics. The implication is aimed to answer the questions below.

1. Are extroverted people easier to improve English speaking competence in the United States?
2. Is participating social interactions when study abroad the only indispensable way to improve English speaking?
3. How many hours are needed to devote to social interactions with native speakers to improve English speaking?

TABLE 10
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE FOUR CRITICAL ACTIVITIES

	Attending small sessions (SSs)	Hanging out with native speakers (HO)	Watching English videos and movies (V)	Making phone calls with native speakers (Tele)
N	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
Range	11.00	10.00	6.00	4.00
Minimum	1.00	0.00	4.00	0.00
Maximum	12.00	10.00	10.00	4.00
Mean	6.30	3.55	6.80	1.15
SD	3.97	3.90	1.80	1.42
Skewness	-0.03	0.71	0.39	1.16
Kurtosis	-1.72	-1.22	-0.1	0.31

Ideally, it could be true that extroverted ESL speakers will have more chances of exposure in authentic language environment than introverted people, so extroverted students might be easier to improve English speaking competence in an English immersive environment.

Then, statistics in Table 10 provides a quantitatively detailed perspective to answer the question about effective time planning when study abroad. The positive correlations between English speaking competence scores and the four critical activities reasonably prove that more time devotion in these four activities, the better comprehensibility and intelligibility of ESL speakers’ speech will be. Among the four activities, the ten participants’ time devotions varied the most on SSs and HO ($SD_{SSs} = 3.97$, $Range_{SSs} = 11$; $SD_{HO} = 3.90$, $Range_{HO} = 10$). The time devotions varied less on V and Tele ($SD_V = 1.8$, $SD_{Tele} = 1.42$). The data of skewness of SSs and V are near “0”, so the data (the time that the ten students spent on the two activities) are almost normally distributed. Therefore, the mean scores of the two activities could be the most appropriate time devotions for these two activities. So the PI recommend that “SSs = 6.30

hours/week” and “ $V = 6.80$ hours/week” may be a minimal effective time planning for effectively improving English speaking competence for ESL speakers. In terms of Tele, the data are distributed in a slightly positive skewness, so the recommended time should be slightly less than the mean ($Mean_{Tele} = 1.15$). Also considering that most Chinese students do not have adequate chances to make phone calls with English native speakers, excepting contacting customer services, the PI recommend Tele = approximate 1 hour/week to practice telephone English speaking register and to potentially improve intelligibility. The data distribution of HO shows similar pattern with the data distribution of Tele, but HO have a larger kurtosis and SD than Tele. Thus, a reasonable analysis is that the time planning for hanging out with native speakers could be influenced more by individual differences, more specifically, personal characteristics. So the recommended time planning for hanging out with native speakers would be around two to three hours (minimum < recommended time < mean). Considering the time availability of an academic semester, the time for hanging out could be arranged during the weekend.

To summarize the recommended time planning for the four critical activities, the data of conclusion are presented in Table 11.

TABLE 11
RECOMMENDED HOURS FOR EFFECTIVELY IMPROVING ENGLISH SPEAKING COMPETENCE IN AN ESL CONTEXT

	Attending small sessions	Hanging out with native speakers	Watching English videos and movies	Making phone calls with native speakers
Time Recommended [Hour(s)]	6.30	2.00 to 3.00	6.80	approximate 1.00

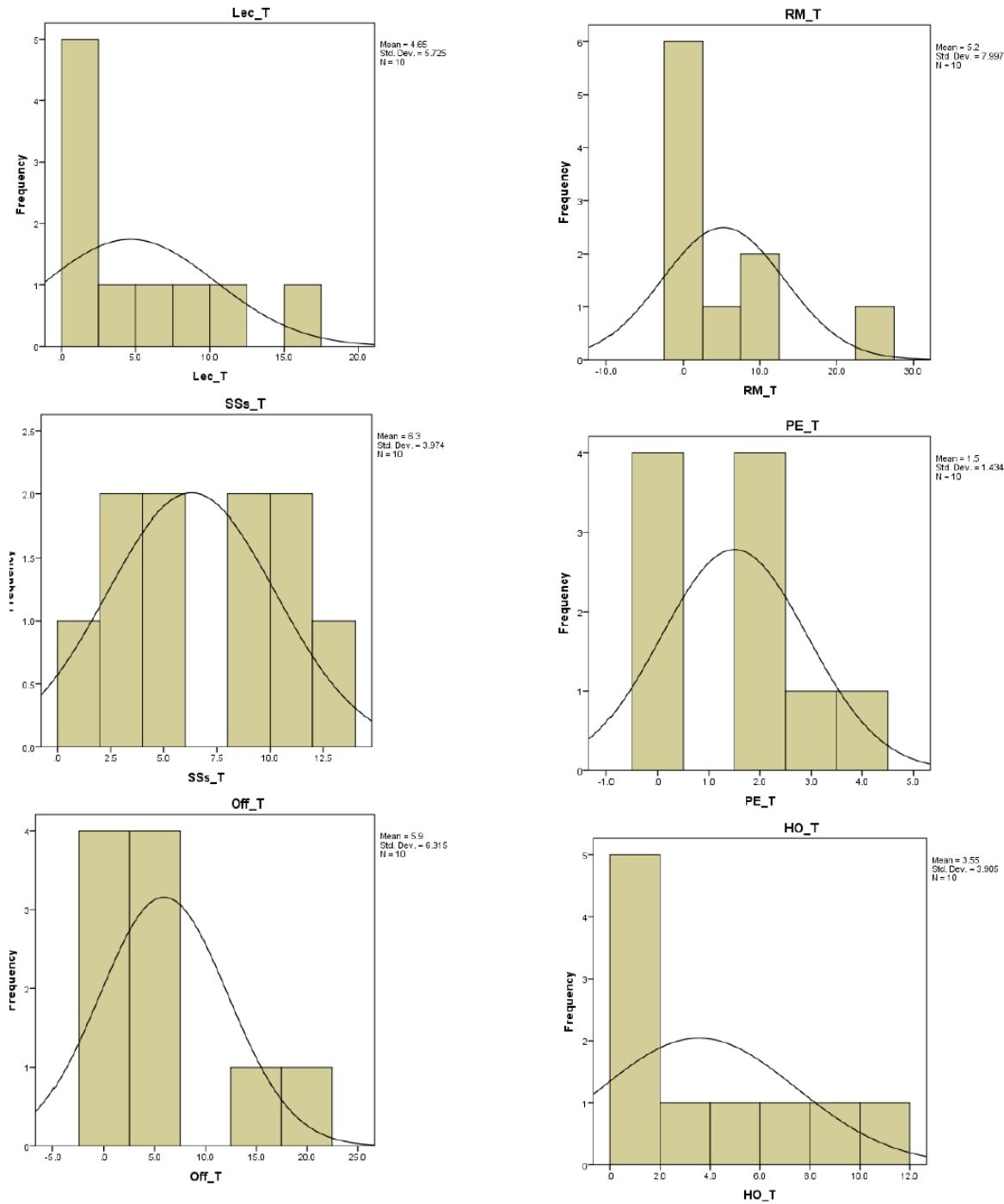
Note. All the data is round up to two digits after the decimal and measured in hour(s) in Table 11.

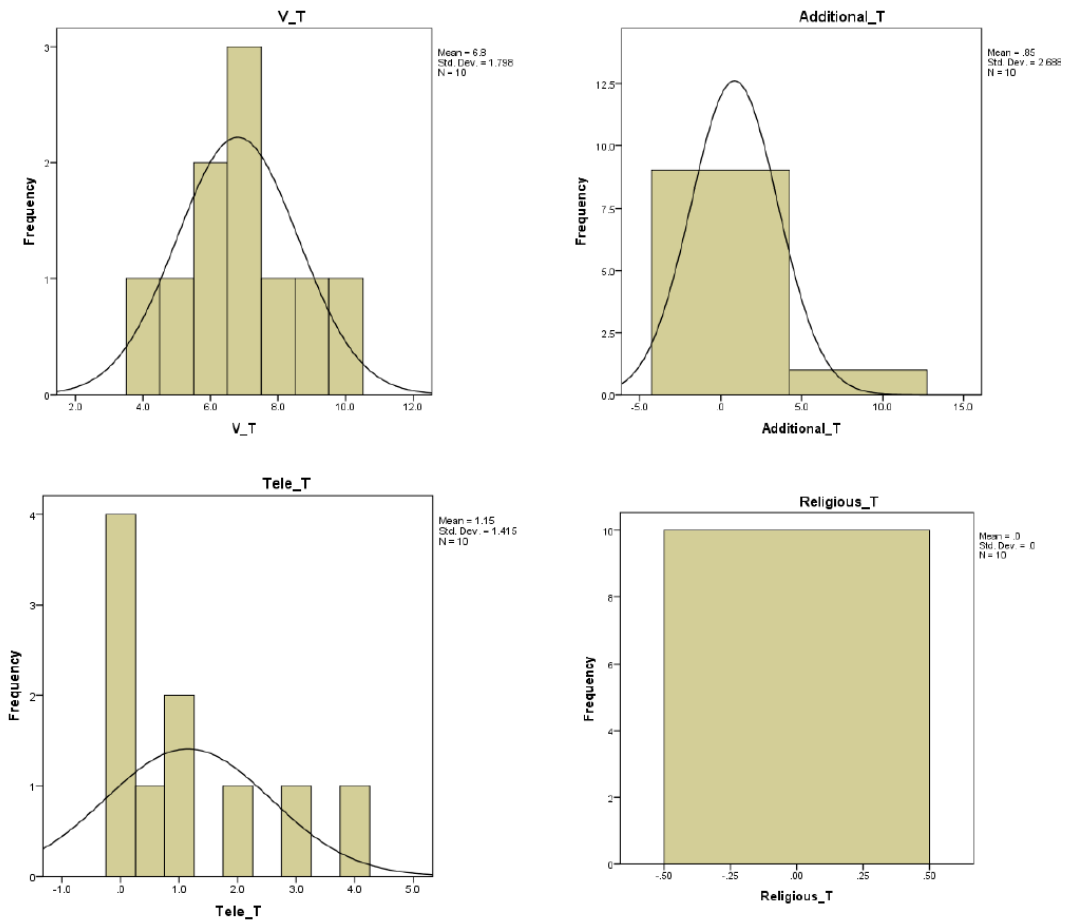
VII. LIMITATION

The research study is possibly limited by the sample size. Even though the participants were widely selected from the PI's acquaintance from different colleges of NAU, they cannot represent the entire Chinese ESL population in Arizona, or even the United States. This study can be a pilot study for larger sample size and the investigation can be carried on in the similar way. Also, there should have been an objective and reliable measurement to evaluate ESL students' personality (extroverted and introverted) rather than self-reporting, because self-reporting is a completely subjective approach which might potentially influence the internal validity of the study. In addition, the correlational statistics cannot demonstrate the causal relationship among these variables in this study, so future studies could apply other statistical methods testing causation to test these variables in a new scope.

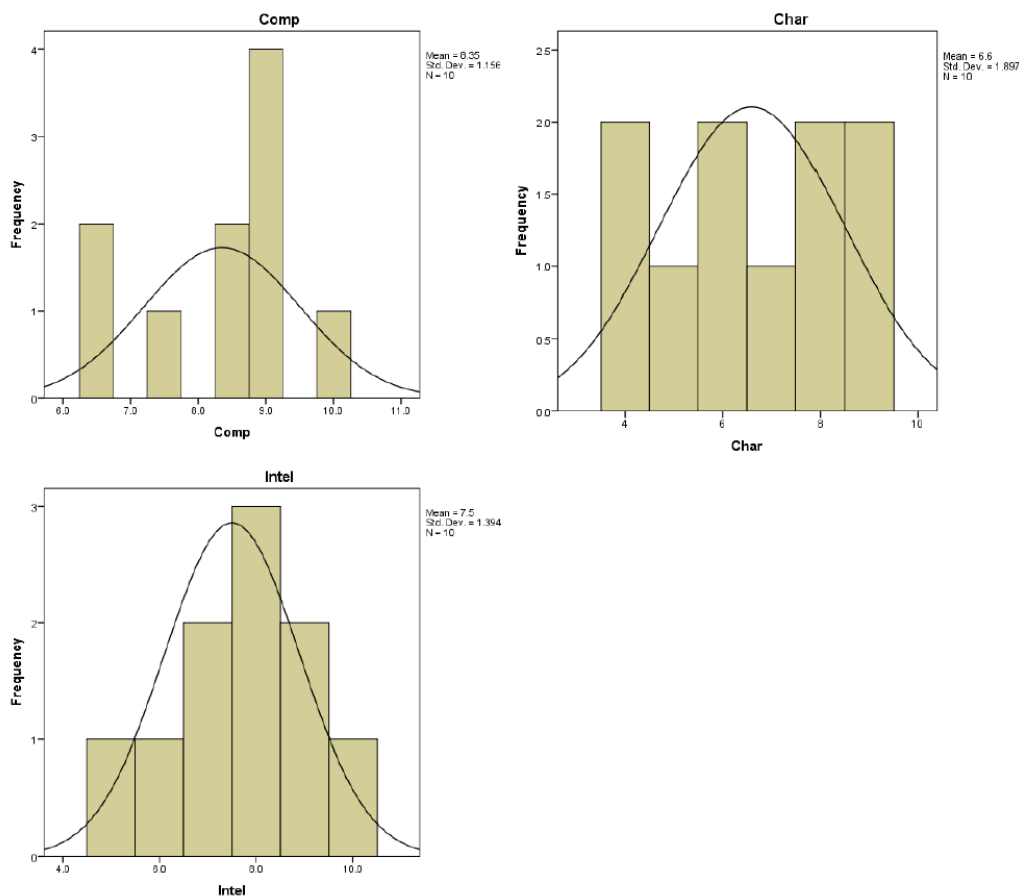
Eventually, the recommended hours should be only used for referential purpose. A follow-up empirical study can be conducted to pre-test and post-test the influence and effect of the time planning in an English immersive environment. Students should be categorized into a control group and an experimental group to see if there is a significant improvement on their English speaking competence in terms of comprehensibility and intelligibility. The idea could be practiced only to verify the influence of in-class instruction time and the English speaking competence because the off-class interactions are hard to control in an experimental environment.

APPENDIX A. HISTOGRAMS WITH NORMAL CURVES OF CONTACT HOURS IN THE NINE SCENARIOS AND MISCELLANEOUS SCENARIOS





APPENDIX B. HISTOGRAMS WITH NORMAL CURVES OF COMPREHENSIBILITY, INTELLIGIBILITY AND CHARACTERISTICS



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In the Labyrinth of Research: Critiquing Research Studies Conducted in Contrasting Paradigms

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Abstract—With the growing diversity of ideas related to complex research paradigms, multiple methodologies, and emerging theoretical frameworks underpinning various research studies, research appears an increasingly difficult terrain. The seemingly complex nature of research is not only daunting for the fledglings, but also challenging for more experienced researchers. The current paper is an attempt to offer reader-friendly guidance for a deep and critical reading of research studies conducted in major research paradigms. In part one, the paper presents brief definitions of major research paradigms and relevant key terminology, which is, in part two, followed by fairly detailed critiques of two research studies conducted in contrasting paradigms.

Index Terms—research, paradigms, critique, methodology, educational, research, studies, motivation, ELT, TESOL

I. INTRODUCTION

For the fledglings in the field of educational and social research, and sometimes even for experienced researchers, the vast array of research paradigms and approaches is no less than a bewildering labyrinth (Hammersley, 2012). More often than not, the growing diversity of ideas related to complex research paradigms, multiple methodologies, and emerging theoretical frameworks underpinning research studies, conducted by researchers from various schools of thought, baffles less experienced researchers. As a result, the philosophical underpinnings of research studies, which are so vital for deep understanding of the outcome of any research endeavour, are overlooked or disregarded. Hence, the current paper is an attempt to offer some exemplars of deep and critical reading of research studies conducted in contrasting paradigms. In Section II, for basic background knowledge, the paper offers a brief overview of major research paradigms and related key terminology (also see appendix 1); whereas, in Section III, detailed critiques of two major research studies conducted in contrasting paradigms are presented.

II. OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH PARADIGMS AND KEY TERMINOLOGY

(This section is adapted from my previous work: For a detailed paper on research paradigms and key research terminology see Hussain et al, 2013)

A. Interpretive Paradigm

The interpretive research seeks to understand values, beliefs and meanings of social phenomena and thereby extracts *Verstehen* or an empathetic understanding of human social activities and experiences (Smith & Heshsius, 1986). Interpretivists believe in the inseparability of understanding from interpretation. They see all social research as interpretive because all such research is guided by the researcher's desire to understand (and interpret) social reality. Interpretive paradigm assumes that there are no facts, only interpretations (Bhattacharya, 2008). Therefore, it aims to explore individuals' perceptions, share their meanings and develop insights about the observed cases (Bryman, 2008; Grix, 2010).

B. Positivist Paradigm

Positivism has been the most dominant paradigm of last century. It epitomizes the 'dualism' concept of mind and matter as separate entities. It comprises theories that view *reality* as independent of the observer. It also excludes all non-empirical concerns from its preview (Cohen et al. 2007; Grix, 2010). Positivist researchers assume that the world is stable and organized and their job is to measure data, process information and propose the most suitable solution to the identified problems. They also believe that there is only one universally acknowledged and best solution to every problem.

C. Critical Paradigm

Critical research aims at emancipating people by transforming their social, political, and cultural contexts (Alwan, 2007). Researchers working in this paradigm desire for a change that shakes the social institutions and power structures, and thereby leads to equality and justice in society (Carspecken, 2008; Crotty, 2003). They challenge the existing social order and cultural practices in favour of the underprivileged, and they often take an activist stance – with action as a goal of research (Habermas, 1984) – that can be both confrontational and interventionist. In practice, the researchers'

roles are to be transformative intellectuals who liberate people from their historical, mental, emotional and social situations (Crotty, 2003; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Critical paradigm considers reality as tangible and composed of historically situated structures (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The epistemological stance of critical paradigm is *subjectivist* (Crotty, 2003; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This paradigm claims that knowledge is derived from social context where values are established and encouraged, and human perception is value-laden and based on prejudice.

D. *Ontology and Epistemology*

According to Cohen et al (2007, p.7), the ontological assumptions constitute the first set of assumptions in research 'which concern the very nature or essence of the social phenomena being investigated' and the epistemological assumptions consist of the second set of assumptions and concern 'the very base of knowledge - its nature and forms, how it can be acquired and how it can be communicated to human beings'. In a nutshell, *Ontology* defines nature of reality and what is true, and *Epistemology* comprises theory of knowledge and ways of finding out what is true (Ernest, 1994).

E. *Methodology and Methods*

Methodology is the philosophy underlying the procedures and principles in a particular field of inquiry (Crotty, 2003). It refers to general principles which underscore how I investigate the social world and how I demonstrate that the knowledge generated is valid. *Methodology* depends on ontological and epistemological assumptions about the nature of reality and the best ways of gaining access to that reality. There are differences based on methodological characteristics, procedures and techniques. These differences affect the way each approach treats data and the data collection procedures (Cohen et al., 2007). On the other hand, research *methods* refer to more practical issues of choosing an appropriate research design to answer a research question, and then designing and adapting instruments to generate data (Cohen et al, 2007). In other words, research methods are the 'techniques or procedures used to [collect,] collate and analyze data' (Blaikie, 2000, p. 8, as quoted in Grix, 2010).

III. CRITIQUES OF RESEARCH STUDIES CONDUCTED IN CONTRASTING PARADIGMS

In this section, I have presented detailed critiques of two major research studies in the field of TESOL.

A. *Study 1: A Critique of a Research Conducted in the Interpretive Paradigm*

Research Study Reference: Lamb, M. (2004). Integrative Motivation in a Globalizing World, *System* 32(1), 3 -19.

A). *Paradigmatic Nature of the Study*

This research study is conducted in the domain of interpretive research, which is highlighted at different places in the research report: the following quotes, '*by generating a combination of quantitative and qualitative data, I hope to be able to uncover ... learners own interpretations of their experiences*', '*the sociocultural context of this study*', '*I attempt to take a reflexive stance*' (Lamb, 2004, p. 7), '*an ethnographer researcher*' (Lamb, 2004, p. 12), and the researcher's use of first person throughout the research report, amply testify that this study is an example of interpretive research.

B). *Ontology*

The researcher, of this study, believed that reality was multi-layered and complex (Cohen et al, 2007) and a single phenomenon had multiple interpretations. That's why; he considered interpretive approach more suitable for the phenomena which were 'context-dependent' (Lamb, 2004, p. 7) with a belief that individual behavior was determined by the experience gained out of one's direct interaction with the phenomena. It ruled out any kind of objective external reality (Dash, 2005).

C). *Epistemology*

The epistemology of the researcher was derived from the interpretive tradition. He viewed knowledge as subjective and sought to find out how individuals interpret phenomena (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992 cited in Alwan, 2007).

The researcher says, 'I hope to be able to uncover ... learners own interpretations of their experiences' (Lamb, 2004, p. 7), which shows that the researcher believes in the subjectivity of knowledge and the multiple layers of interpretation (Bryman, 2008). Therefore, the researcher has to be *empathetic* to the different layers of interpretation so as to successfully identify with feelings, motives and thoughts of individuals participating in the research.

D). *Abstract*

The abstract gives a brief summary of the whole research study. First, it succinctly states the objectives, research question, and the methods used for data collection. Then, it gives slightly elaborate details of the research findings, its implications and conclusion. The main thesis of the study is well worded in the abstract, which highlights the fact that English is losing its association with the English culture and is fast becoming a global language. The researcher was indeed successful in crafting a comprehensive abstract of this research report.

E). *Introduction*

This research study was conducted on 'the language learning attitudes and motivation of first-year pupils in an urban junior high school in a provincial capital on the Indonesian island of Sumatra' (Lamb, 2004, p. 4). The researcher had worked at the research site for several years. The school was located in an area of town where government officials and

academics lived, and it fell into the category of a well-resourced, high achieving state school. The study was delimited to the school mentioned above. The sample comprised 219 first year students. The researcher gathered information on the given topic through a questionnaire, interviews, class observations, and meetings with the teachers and students who were engaged in the process of teaching/learning English at the Indonesian school.

F). Literature Review

In this research report, the researcher has not used a separate heading for literature review rather he has merged it with the introduction. Prima facie, the literature review seems a bit brief, but it is quite concise and to-the-point. The researcher has, in fact, given more space to the discussion of results and their implications. He has furnished an excellent overview of the available literature in the relevant areas. The literature review is quite comprehensive and well-focused with 28 references in this section. The reference list catalogues 43 citations in total at the end.

G). Research Questions

The researcher has not stated the research questions or problem statement very explicitly. Instead, he has explained in 'The study' (p. 5) section the nature and aims of the research:

1- He investigated the language learning attitudes and motivation of first year pupils in an urban high school in Indonesia. He also aimed at exploring the validity of the theory propounded by Gardner in 1950's regarding integrative motivation.

2- In a longitudinal study, he aimed to track the changes in motivation and identify factors related to those changes over a period of two years.

3- He wanted to explore the relationship between the learners' words and actions in terms of motivation inside and outside the classroom.

H). Methodology and Collection of Data

In line with interpretive paradigm the researcher has employed a mixed method approach for a two-year longitudinal study. He has used both quantitative and qualitative research tools for data collection, which include a questionnaire survey of almost 219 first year students, two observation of and semi structured interviews with a 'focal group' of 12 individual learners, and interviews with eight English teachers. For the questionnaire survey, he has used a three point Likert scale to focus on each of the following issues: the experience of learning English, the importance of English, liking for learning English and favorite activities in the class.

These data collection tools have widened the breadth and scope of the research because in questionnaires, sometimes, the questions are not properly communicated to the respondents, and they do not capture the full range of responses, hence, distorting the actual findings of the research. Whereas, interview sessions with learners, aiming at their goals and role models, may help understand the true import of their motivation to learn English and also deepen the overall understanding gained through results of questionnaires. Therefore, a mixed model approach may enhance reliability of research and dispel doubts in the mind of a researcher.

I). Results and Discussion

The results of the research study question the nature of 'integrativeness'. Most of the students involved in this research showed a keen interest in learning the English language as they perceived it a major source of success in their coming years. Their motivation primarily had an instrumental orientation i.e. to be able to use English in their jobs, careers, business activities and technological developments.

The results of the study strongly support the contention (contrary to Gardner's contention) that the 'term [integrative motivation] may not so much be related to any actual, or metaphorical, *integration* into an L2 community as to some more basic *identification process* within the individual's self-concept' (Dornyei & Csiz  , 2002, p. 454, cited in Lamb, 2004). The results also question the role of integrative motivation in individual's long term achievement in language. Hence, the concept whether learners have a favorable attitude towards the English speaking culture may also go out of favour with the emergence of English as an international language. Moreover, the findings throw light on the issue that integrative and instrumental motivational orientations are difficult to be distinguished as separate concepts as different personal, social, and educational activities and aspirations are associated with each other and with English as an integral part of the globalization process. In sum, the research concludes that needs of English language will not remain uniform in the coming years, and it may become important to gain the status of a 'world citizen' via command on English language. The researcher has explained the whole process of data analysis quite well. The documented results are well-organized, neatly sectioned and elaborately reported.

J). Implications

Several important findings of this study can be used for improvements in EFL/ ESL and further research in TESOL. Most important are the findings emphasizing that study materials and courses for English should be more embedded and contextualized in the respective cultures of the learners, rather than focusing on the native English culture. Another implication is about the long term goal of English language teaching, where a focus should be on teaching English as an additional language, in order to enable people 'to express their identity and make their voices heard' globally (Warschauer, 2000, p. 530 cited in Lamb, 2004).

K). Conclusion

The research report is well organized in the sense that after giving an introduction to the topic, with literature review embedded in the introduction, it progresses towards data collection, followed by data analysis, evaluation and

discussion of the data. Several implications of the research along with recommendations are given at the end of the research, which offer guidance to future researchers interested in research on ESL/EFL motivational orientations.

B. Study 2: A Critique of a Research Study Conducted in the Positivist Paradigm

Research Study Reference: Guilloteaux, M. J., & Dornyei, Z. (2008). Motivating Language Learners: A Classroom-Oriented Investigation of the Effects of Motivational Strategies on Student Motivation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42 (1), 55-77.

A). Paradigmatic Nature of the Study

This research study is conducted within the ambit of positivist paradigm, which will be highlighted through the analysis of its content. As a matter of fact, the following quotes from the study reflect the choice of paradigm for this research: '*intuitive appeal without empirical evidence was not enough to justify strong claims*'; '*motivational strategies be considered merely as hypotheses to be tested*'; '*the current research aims to fill the gap by providing empirical data*'; '*I set out to examine empirically...with the intention of producing generalizable results...*' (Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008, p. 56, 57, 58; and '*the inclusion of ... objective observable data*' (Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008, p. 72)

B). Ontology

The researchers, in this study, endeavored to discover the *generalizable* motivational features through a research comprising a fairly large sample of students. As Merriam (1991) argues that the positivist worldview assumes 'a single, objective reality—the world out there—that I can observe, know and measure' (p. 44), this study is based on realist ontology which also views reality as an external objective phenomenon, existing independently of human consciousness (Guba & Lincoln, 2000).

C). Epistemology

The epistemology of the researchers is clearly in line with the positivist paradigm. As objectivist epistemology relies on inquiry that is based on research questions or hypotheses, which are stated and evaluated by empirical testing, the researchers want to collect *empirical data* for gaining an objective understanding of teachers' motivational strategies and student motivation.

D). Abstract

The researchers have written a very concise abstract of their research report, which provides a comprehensive overview of the research study. It briefly describes the objectives, hypotheses tested, research sample, the methods used for data collection, findings of the research and its conclusion. The focus of this study was made clear by pointing out at the outset that literature on motivational strategies 'has little empirical evidence', and the purpose of their study was to examine the link between teachers' motivational practices and students' language learning motivation and inform the research questions through empirical data.

E). Introduction

The introduction underscores the importance of motivation in language education. The researchers consider motivation as the mainstay in the language learning process. For them, even the most brilliant learners cannot achieve long-term goal without enough motivation. The importance of motivation is no less than a suitable curriculum and good teaching practices. The introduction gives a clear idea of what this research is all about.

As a norm, the introductions in quantitative studies are written in the third person to reflect an impersonal tone, objectivity and distance between the researcher and the subject (Creswell, 2003). However, the researchers here have written this research report in the first person, 'we', which may be considered against the norms of a study that aims to utilize empirical data and generalize the results.

F). Literature Review

The researchers have merged the literature review with the introduction instead of giving it under a separate heading. They have furnished a short overview of the available relevant literature, which seems quite brief with only 13 references in this section, out of which 5 belong to one of the researchers himself. This is mainly due to lack of research in this area (only two relevant studies) and the researchers' preference for empirical research. As the purpose of literature review is to not only examine the body of relevant literature, but also offer guidelines for future research (Webster & Watson, 2002), this study has done an appreciable job by highlighting an important dimension of L 2 motivation, hitherto paid little attention in the field.

G). Methodology and Collection of Data

This research is mainly grounded in the quantitative research methods which utilize extensive numerical data to test the hypotheses or inform the research questions. Positivist researchers employ the principles of demonstration, verification and causal links between the bits of information used (Dash, 2005). This study entails a correlational research design where an important aim of data collection is to determine whether, and to what degree, a relationship exists between two or more variables (Gay, 1995). Hence, the study design seems a good choice as there is a need to discover or clarify relationships in the research context.

The researchers have used three specially designed instruments: a questionnaire to measure the situation-specific motivational behaviours of 1381 students, a 'highly structured observation scheme' called the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) to assess 27 language teachers' motivational teaching practices, and a post-lesson teacher evaluation scale for a posthoc evaluation of teachers' behaviour. A quantitative approach to data analysis has been utilized, and inferential statistical procedures are used to inform the research questions. The research explores

relationships that exist among variables, mainly teachers' motivational strategies and their effect on EFL learners' motivational behaviours. The researchers have taken a large sample with the intention to produce statistically significant results. The demographic details of the target group (27 Korean teachers and 1,381 students in 40 classes) are provided. The research design of the study, with its aim to acquire generalizable results, seems suitable in this context. Moreover, the data collection procedures are explained in great detail.

H). Data analysis and Results

Like normative quantitative studies, the results of this study are supposed to be generalised. The researchers have expertly used statistical procedures for data analysis. They entered the numeric data into an SPSS data file for further processing of the results. Undoubtedly, the study is important in its scope and use of quantitative methods of assessing the practice and impact of using motivational strategies. Nevertheless, it is difficult to gain an objective understanding of motivational strategies and behaviours by using only the quantitative data, as the statistical figures need to be textually interpreted by the researchers. The study is substantial in a way that it tests two hypotheses: the association between the teacher's motivational strategies and the students' motivational behaviours, and that students' opinion about the language course has an impact on their attitude towards learning tasks.

The researchers admit it is not possible to establish causal links in a correlational study, therefore, a claim, that teachers' motivational practices increased students' motivation, cannot be conveniently made. However, an alternative explanation can be given: a demotivated student can demotivate a teacher and vice versa.

The findings of this study furnish some fresh ideas for future planning in the field of English language teaching. First, it offers empirical evidence suggesting that teachers' consciousness of different motivational strategies must be raised, and it should be used as an instructional tool in order to strengthen the teaching and learning process. Second, it provides an observation instrument to be utilized for teachers' motivational training modules. Third, it brings home the fact that language teaching in a motivating manner is a possibility. Finally, it suggests that teachers' motivational strategies can make language learning more stimulating and enjoyable for learners.

This study seems to answer the research questions raised in this regard. On top of that, it highlights four important areas for further investigation in language learning motivation.

I). Limitations of the Study

'Perfection is not of this world', and there is always room for further improvement and growth. No matter how carefully crafted a research design may be, there is always a likelihood of some imperfections and limitations. The study under discussion also has certain limitations: first, any conclusions drawn on the basis of inference from the data could be misleading and erroneous. Second, the researchers might have neglected some ethical principles as there is no detail of any ethical considerations as regards the students, although there is a mention of the teachers' agreement and the schools principals' permission.

J). Conclusion

This was an important research project in the area of language learning motivation. It was indeed well-planned and well-written. The reporting of the data got a bit complex due to the use of statistical procedures, which could be somewhat difficult for a novice researcher to comprehend. Overall, it was executed with finesse paving way for further research in the field of L 2 motivation. Therefore, this research should be considered a significant contribution to the body of knowledge on L 2 motivation.

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APPENDIX. CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH PARADIGMS (GEPHART, 1999)

	POSITIVISM	INTERPRETIVISM	CRITICAL THEORY
ASSUMPTIONS	Objective world which science can 'mirror' with privileged knowledge	Inter-subjective world which science can represent with concepts of concepts of actors; social construction of reality	Material world of structured contradictions and/or exploitation which can be objectively known only by removing tacit ideological biases
KEY FOCUS or IDEAS	Search for contextual and organizational variables which cause organizational actions	Search for patterns of meaning	Search for disguised contradictions hidden by ideology; open spaces for previously silenced voices
KEY THEORIES IN PARADIGM	Contingency theory; systems theory; population ecology; transaction cost economics of organizing; dustbowl empiricism	Symbolic interaction; ethno-methodology; phenomenology; hermeneutics	Marxism; critical theory; 'radical' perspectives PM: post-structuralism; postmodernism; deconstructionism; semiotics
KEY FIGURES	Lorsch and Lawrence; Hannan and Freeman; Oliver Williamson	Goffman; Garfinkel, Schutz; Van Maanen, David Silverman	Marx; Habermas; Offe
GOAL OF PARADIGM	Uncover truth and facts as quantitatively specified relations among variables	Describe meanings, understand members' definitions of the situation, examine how objective realities are produced	Uncover hidden interests; expose contradictions; enable more informed consciousness; displace ideology with scientific insights; change
NATURE OF KNOWLEDGE or FORM OF THEORY	Verified hypotheses involving valid, reliable and precisely measured variables	Abstract descriptions of meanings and members= definitions of situations produced in natural contexts	Structural or historical insights revealing contradictions
CRITERIA FOR ASSESSING RESEARCH	Prediction=Explanation Rigor; internal & external validity, reliability	Trustworthiness Authenticity	Theoretical consistency Historical insights Transcendent interpretations Basis for action, change potential and mobilization
UNIT OF ANALYSIS	The variable	Meaning; symbolic act	Contradictions, incidents of exploitation PM: the sign
RESEARCH METHODS and TYPE(S) OF ANALYSIS	Experiments; questionnaires; secondary data analysis; quantitatively coded documents Quantitative: regression; Likert scaling; structural equation modeling Qualitative: grounded theory testing	Ethnography; participant observation; interviews; conversational analysis; grounded theory development Case studies; conversational and textual analysis; expansion analysis	Field research, historical analysis, dialectical analysis PM: deconstruction, textual analysis

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On Situating the Plausibility of Functionalism in SLA: A Discursive Look

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Abstract—Functionalists argue that society has to be considered as a system of interconnected parts. The basic idea of this approach to functionalism is that grammars are driven to become more efficient semiotic systems. Put another way, to functionalists, language is a specific faculty that imposes the output (grammar). The paper concentrates on the functional aspects of language learning and expatiates on the main tenets of functionalism from a discursive look.

Index Terms—functionalism, generativism, genre, interdiscursivity, intertextuality

I. INTRODUCTION

The approaches contributing to an external focus on second language acquisition (hereafter SLA) are classified within functionalism, which dates back to the early twentieth century and has its roots in the Prague School of Eastern Europe (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). As to Mehrgan (2012), the Prague linguistic conception has two designations. First of all, it is structural. Put differently, what this school of linguistics introduces is "the problem of structure, the problem of how language is shaped, and how its parts are related to each other" (Mehrgan, 2012, p. 37). Second, the Prague linguistics is also functional. The Prague functional linguistics inspired by de Saussure (1916, cited in Maftoon & Shakouri, 2012) pinpoints that "grammar is not autonomous" (p. 17). In other words, "language is a system of which all parts can and must be considered as synchronically interdependent" (Maftoon & Shakouri, 2012, p. 17). In functionalist approaches to SLA, it is argued that the great variety of interlanguage forms produced by second language learners cannot be interpreted unless attention is paid to the speech acts and to the ways they exploit the social, physical, and discourse context to help them make meaning (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Functionalists, in contrast with generativists, almost exclusively focus on performance and actually have very little to say about competence—the underlying linguistic system. To functionalists, the idea of competence is not necessarily at issue. In effect, it is the context which plays a pivotal role. Meanwhile, to functionalists, the communicative situation motivates, constrains, or otherwise determines grammatical structure (Nichols, 1984). Along the same line, functionalism can be defined as the belief that "the forms of natural languages are created, governed, constrained, acquired and used in the service of communicative functions" (Bates & MacWhinney, 1982). To a functionalist, the grammar of a language is described in the form of system networks, not as an inventory of structures. Although structure is a pivotal part of the description, it is interpreted as the outward form of language rather than as the defining characteristic of language. The paper, henceforth, is an attempt to have a discursive look at the plausibility of functionalism in SLA.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Recently, the importance of making appropriate linguistic choices in the path of SLA stirred debate within SLA circles. According to Verschueren (1999, cited in Wu, 2011), using language involves making linguistic choices either consciously or unconsciously, either for language external or internal reasons. These choices are made not only by language producers but also by interpreters (WU, 2011). Second language learners make these choices on the basis of highly flexible principle which, in contrast with rules, can be violated. In the paper, we are not going to explore how choices are made, but to pave the way in order to judge the plausibility of functional approaches to language acquisition if practitioners are supposed to study the faculty of language in an outward context. Overall, there are three functional approaches that have tremendous influence on SLA: (1) systemic linguistics, (2) functional typology, and (3) function-to-form mapping.

A. Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth SFL) put forward by Halliday (1994) pays attention to how the speakers generate utterances and texts to convey their intended meanings. Put another way, SFL views language as a social semiotic, a resource people use to accomplish their purposes by expressing meanings in context. "The value of a theory" as to Halliday (1985), "lies in the use that can be made of it, and as Chapelle (1998) puts forth, to Halliday, a theory of language is essentially consumer oriented. Along the same line, Mitchell and Myles (2004) maintain systemic linguistics analyses language in terms of the interrelated systems of choices that are available for expressing meaning. The term systemic refers to the view of language as a network of systems. It connotes that the linchpin of language in linguistic description is a system rather than a structure, and language, per se, is the systematic resource for expressing meaning in context. In fact, functional linguistics, according to Halliday (1985), is the study of how people exchange meanings through the use of language.

Put simply, SFL holds that the use of language determines the form. In other words, function almost always determines the form. In the support of the idea, we could refer to Verschueren's (1987) linguistic adaptation theory. According to Verschueren, using language involves making linguistic choices, either consciously or unconsciously for language-internal or language-external reasons. In fact, language users are obliged to make on-the-spot choices once they enter the dynamic process of establishing effective communication. The quality of the choices they make is not the result of a mere *linguistic variability* or *negotiability*, but in turn utilizing the two mentioned along with the most crucial factor as *linguistic adaptability*. Such adaptation must exist in order to approach points of satisfaction for communicative needs just because both language producers, and at the same time, language interpreters affect the quality of the choices being made. According to Verschueren, language is adaptable. Adaptation operates not only at all levels of linguistic structuring, but also in all forms of language use. In sum, the process of adaptation is interdiscursive. Accordingly, the functioning of interdiscursivity as the process of adaptation to three variables of the *physical*, *social*, and *mental world* is not that much of an easy practice. Of course, the first two adaptation variables as *physical* and *social* can be viewed as passive, since either complexities of the physical reality or conventions and expectations of the social world are known as the language users' external factors. The third phase of adaptation which is to the mental world could be best referred to as the *active* functioning of interdiscursivity; this is mainly because it is rooted in the unveiled psychological and internal layers of the communicators' inner feelings, motives and emotions.

In this regard, when it is claimed that in SFL, the use of language determines the form, it is the form at the service of meaning. Meanwhile, the meaning is expressed through three metafunctions: ideational, textual, and contextual. That is, language is metafunctionally organized. All the three metafunctions are reflected in a huge system network, which specifies all the meaning potentials (Lin & Peng, 2006). A network is made up by a number of the so-called systems, each consisting of a set of semantic features (Lin & Peng, 2006). The usefulness of the system networks lies primarily in their ability to provide functional rather than structural descriptions (Mattheiessen & Bateman, 1991). Lin and Peng (2006), along the same line, hold "to generate an utterance, the system network is traversed, certain semantic features are selected, and the relevant realization rules are fired" (p. 331). Lin and Peng go on to hold that based on SFG, children gradually acquire a full system, and by using it they can produce a large number of sentences.

Essentially what language learners acquire, in Halliday's view, is not a system of rules which govern language structure, but rather meaning potential: "What the speaker/hearer can, not what he knows" (Mitchel & Myles, 2004, p. 54). To Halliday, the process of acquisition consists of "mastering certain basic functions of language and developing a meaning potential for each" (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p. 54). Thus, language acquisition is learning how to express meanings. As Chapelle (1998) claims this perspective subordinates the acquisition of linguistic structure, recognizing the learners can express meanings using a variety of analyzed and unanalyzed pieces of the lexicogrammar.

B. Functional Typology

Functional typology is based on the comparative study of a wide range of the world's languages. It is an orientation to linguistics, sometimes called Greenbergian approach attributed to Greenberg (1966)—the founder of modern typology (Campbell, 2001). This approach is called *functional* because analysis integrates considerations of language structure, meaning, and use (Mitchel & Myles, 2004), and *typological* because it attempts to explain the patterns through appeal to language function in cross-linguistic comparison (Campbell, 2001). In order to take a good grasp of the function of a language, there should exist the notion of genre analysis in a more comprehensive fashion. Traditional genre (analysis) has focused on genres as texts—analyzing their prototypical structural or textual features. More recent genre analysis has also focused on genres as rhetoric—as social actions designed to perform certain speech acts or engage audiences in social contexts (Dean, 2008, cited in Beach, 2011). The recent definition of genre analysis is more in line with the objectives of the functionalist view. In fact, genre analysis is best considered a literacy tool exclusively designed to empower students identify and analyze the fixed patterns in both text and social genres. Utilizing such tool would help students digest not only the prototypical structural features of various texts and social events, but at the same time how genres are applied rhetorically in its real sense, in order to engage others and how they get adapted to employ various genres or create them effectively.

Along the same line, Campbell (2001) asserts languages can be typologized according to almost any linguistic trait, and indeed classifications based on widely varied attributes have been proposed in the history of linguistics. Typological study has contributed to the understanding of many concepts of grammar and of how they interact with one another, how they function, and how they are distributed in the world's languages. Typological research also

incorporates many assumptions about how languages can change (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). There is an attempt to account for developmental stages of L2 acquisition, for why some L2 constructions are more or less difficult than others for learners to acquire. A particularly important concept which is tied to these accounts is markedness (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Greenberg (1966) assigning the designations “marked” and “unmarked” to opposing structural entities asserts that there is a consistently asymmetric relationship in term of distribution and/or syntagmatic structure and/or paradigmatic complexity. Meanwhile, Mitchell and Myles (2004) assert:

the notion of markedness deals with whether any specific feature of a language is “marked” or “unmarked.” A feature is “unmarked” if it occurs more frequently than a contrasting element in the same category, if it is less complex structurally or conceptually, or if it is more “normal” or “expected” along some other dimension. The concept applies to all levels of linguistic analysis. (p. 57).

An important point to help understand the concept of markedness as “a polysemous term in linguistics” (Haspelmath, 2005, p. 3) is that “markedness relations are not fixed, but rather depend on the language-internal evaluation of the terms of an opposition” (Battistella 1990, cited in Jin, 2008, p. 298). In a rough comparison, once comparing two related forms as one marked and the other unmarked in one language, what was considered as marked form might be known as unmarked in another language. For instance, the nominative case is unmarked form in Russia, while it is regarded as marked form in English.

C. Function-to-form Mapping

A basic concept from function-to-form look is that acquisition of both L1 and L2 involves a process of grammaticalization. Basic to work on grammaticalization is the concept of *cline*. Cline has both historical and synchronic implications:

From a historical perspective, a cline is conceptualized as a natural “pathway” along which forms evolve; a schema which models the development of forms. Synchronically, a cline can be thought of as a “continuum”: an arrangement of forms along an imaginary line at one end which is a fuller form of some kind, perhaps “lexical,” and at the opposite a compacted and reduced form, perhaps “grammatical”. (Hopper & Traugott, 2003, p. 6)

The term cline is a metaphor for the empirical observation. From the point of view of change, “forms do not shift abruptly from one category to another, but go through a series of small transitions, transitions that tend to be similar in type across languages” (Hopper & Traugott, 2003, p. 6). On a word, as to Hopper and Traugott, a cline is both diachronic and synchronic, putting an emphasis on the fact that grammaticalization is a panchronic phenomenon. In other words, “many grammatical forms are hybrids between old and new forms, reflecting both synchronic and diachronic processes” (Ariel, 2008, p. 254).

Michel and Myles (2004) elucidates such shift in this way that a grammatical function (e.g., the expression of past time) is first conveyed by shared extralinguistic knowledge and inferencing based on the context of discourse, then by a lexical word (such as *yesterday*), and only later by a grammatical marker (such as the suffix *-ed*). For example, if you ask a beginning learner of English what he did the day before he might say *I play soccer*, relying on context to convey the meaning of past time; a somewhat more advanced learner might say *Yesterday I play soccer*, using an adverb to convey the meaning of past; and a still more advanced learner might say *I played soccer*, using the grammatical inflection *-ed* (Mitchel & Myles, 2004).

D. Functionalism Rooted in Interdiscursivity

In order to better digest the deep meaning of functionalism, one should have a shallow understanding of the notion of interdiscursivity. The term interdiscursivity is a fuzzy notion which might be mistaken by the term intertextuality as the border line is so tricky. Bhatia (2008) provides a through distinction between the two notions of intertextuality and interdiscursivity. Intertextuality deals with the interrelationships within and across texts focusing primarily on text-internal properties, while interactions within and across genres involving text-external resources are termed interdiscursivity. In fact, interdiscursivity refers to the mixing of diverse genres discourses or styles associated with institutional and social meanings in a single text (Wu, 2011).

Generally speaking, intertextuality is the phenomenon that other surrounding texts are overtly drawn upon within a single text. This task is performed usually via explicit surface features namely as quotations and citations. In such sense, almost all texts are considered intertextual, for they utilize the elements of the other texts. From functionalist perspective, these two notions of intertextuality and interdiscursivity have great in common. In the same line, interdiscursivity operates on a totally different fashion as it refers to how a text is constituted by an amalgamation of other language conventions (genres, discourses and styles). Some scholars have preferred to use the term ‘*generic intertextuality*’ instead of interdiscursivity; nevertheless, these two terminologies do not necessarily have the same connotations. This is highlighted in the sense that the term indiscursivity does not always refer to the combination of different genres.

The notion of interdiscursivity discussed above, is mainly grounded on Bakhtin’s (1981, 1986) notions of heteroglossia and dialogicality. Heteroglossia holds that any text is a mixture of the speaker’s own voice and the voices of other people. In better words, the voices of other people act as the hidden beacon lights which guide the stream flow of the speaker’s voice. This concept is exactly what functionalism has always pointed at. Bakhtin’s definition of heteroglossia was very primary. Later on, heteroglossia was recontextualized and modified by Fairclough (1992) as

interdiscursivity. However the latter, dialogicality, connotes that all texts and utterances are dialogic in nature and might be understood and digested against the background of other texts. What is unique to any produced texts or utterances is the thought consolidated in the mind of the writer or speaker. Otherwise, the produced texts or utterances are considered as the implicit/explicit elements of other sources being reformulated in one's style. Once the elements of other language conventions are left untouched or in some cases, the elements of other genres, discourses and styles are skillfully manipulated in a new fashion; then the notion of interdiscursivity could be spotlighted. Thus, in real-life application, when being looked upon away from functionalist perspectives, these two notions should be distinguished. In simple, dialogicality is the especial property of human beings since human beings are semiotic animal, whereas interdiscursivity is the property of text and utterances, the notion which takes dialogicality into consideration systematically. So, dialogicality covers a broader scope and is embraces the general principle of language use, discourse and cognition; hence, interdiscursivity is considered as a relatively exclusive linguistic phenomenon. Furthermore, these two notions are the two sides of a single continuum but with different mode of application. Dialogicality is most applicable and familiar in the analysis of the literature, arts and scholarly texts, in which we could discuss not only the dialogical relations within a given text or piece of art or music, but also the dialogue between generations of texts and authors (artists, composers, etc.). On the contrary, interdiscursivity is generally applicable to both literary and nonliterary texts, and focuses on the dialogical relations between various language conventions in close relation to certain social preferences or ideological importance. Since, in reality, there exist the combination of literary and nonliterary texts and utterances, the notion of interdiscursivity has a lot in common with functionalist points of view, as the language use determines language form.

E. Functionalism and Constitutive Intertextuality

The emphasis in functionalism is over the notion of language use which plays a pivotal role over the language forms, i.e., the language use determines the language form. If one takes a deep look over the concept of intertextuality, it is somehow the inner layers of the texts which carry the potentiality of the stratifications of the notion of interdiscursivity. The term interdiscursivity coined by Fairclough (1992) is respected as an account for the overreaching concept of intertextuality. As definition goes, 'intertextuality' is defined as the property of texts that utilize full of other texts. Fairclough, further, defines two types of intertextuality: "manifest" intertextuality and "constitutive" intertextuality. Once the elements of one text or utterance exist explicitly in another text or utterance, and such task is implemented skillfully through techniques of discourse representation, presupposition, negation, metadiscourse, and/or irony, the outcome would be best regarded as the manifest intertextuality. *Constitutive intertextuality*, on the contrary, refers to the mixing configuration of discourse conventions such as genres, activity types, and styles in association with various kinds of discourse. Later, Fairclough introduces the new terminology as interdiscursivity to substitute constitutive intertextuality.

There exists a common belief among several scholars (e.g., Kristeva, 1985) that from intertextuality point of view, there is a mutual relation between history and a text. The insertion of text into history (society) and at the same time, the insertion of history into texts (utterances) is an ongoing cumulative process, identical in nature. Functionalism puts a huge emphasis on the notion of language use rather than language forms, and indicates that the language use determines the language forms in which the language use are manifested. What we are deriving here at is that the cumulative process of intertextuality has two impact namely as the *instant* impact and the *delayed* impact. The instant impact deals with surviving the situation through the appropriate language use, whereas the delayed one deal with the permanent changes establishes via the repetition of an utterance in different situations as the result of language use.

F. Functionalism and Critical Genre Analysis

Once the notion of critical genre analysis evolves, one of the most prominent features is the classification performed by Bonini(2010). In his works which were mainly inspired in Fairclough (2003) and Bhatia (2008), Bonini broadens the study scope of genre and discourse by offering a creative conceptual model Bonini (2010) comes up with a three-layer dimension as a) *social structure* –as an abstract entity (like the church, economics, social classes, etc.) comprising a set of possibilities of social practices and genres, and giving rise to one/more discourses; b) *discourse* – the representation of views of the world, identities and relationships which reproduces and at the same time constitutes the social structure, the social practice and thus their genres; and c) *genre* – a set of typical actions of textualization, text production and comprehension, which performs at least one social practice within various possible relational chains, carrying out then the discourse and the social structure. Even in the three classifications done by Bonini (2010), the language use is seen as the backbone of the classification, and that is exactly the aim and focus of functionalists.

What is prevalent in the Bonini's (2010) work is the notion that out of the mutual relation of social practices and genres, there may outburst a plethora of relationships, namely as that of *hypergeneric* (genres in relation to other genres, composing a higher genre or a rich genre), *mediatic* (genres in relation to the mediation unit that makes them circulate in society), *systemic* (genres in relation to other genres, creating a specific social routine), and *community* (genres in relation to other genres, according to the distribution of roles within the discourse community). Among the above classification, the notion of rich genre is an eye-catching one that is of high importance. The richness of genre is a gradual process which is known as the main product of language use. From functionalism perspective, it is so vivid that through the manifestation of language use in accordance with a particular situation, the richness of language form and

functions take place. In the same line, as language is the manifestation of culture, the issue of cultural maturity and richness is embedded in the proper genre development through the passage of time, the issue which is beyond the scope of this paper.

III. CONCLUSION

In order for effective communication to take place and at the same time, satisfying the communicative needs of the real life situations, the language users should move beyond their souls and decide critically on each and every word they utter. They must observe both themselves as the producers, and the interpreters of the scenery. It should be highlighted here that every bits of internal and external clues counts. As Hymes (1971, cited in Maftoon & Shakouri, 2012) asserts that language is not just a private affair; in fact, it is socially constructed. Socially constructed in the sense that every moment of the real-life settings of the acts and utterances, is the manifestation of the amalgamation of various on-the-spot decisions being made which are at the service of effective communications. Once the equilibrium is distorted, there would happen a conflict of ideas in either sides of the effective communication.

In a nutshell, effective communication is the starting point, but what makes an effective communication a stable one, and in the same line results in the richness of a particular genre is the exact notion of language use. The richness of a particular genre is a loop mainly stirred by the language use. From functionalist perspective, what makes a particular genre acceptable and reliable is the supremacy of language use over language form.

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The Relationship between Critical Thinking and Language Learning Strategies of EFL Learners

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Abstract—Critical thinking (CT) is being increasingly discussed in language learning and teaching. Discussions around CT are particularly influencing English for Academic Purposes (EAP) which the teachers' aim for the students is to help them learn all of the skills necessary to succeed in the university career. Accordingly, the study mainly surveys the effect of receiving critical thinking trainings on degree students through the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) program. Participants of the study included 256 freshmen students from four departments at a leading university in China. The experiment group studied EAP, while the control group studied General English within one academic semester. In addition to CT assessment, the two groups were also compared in regards with Language Learning Strategy (LLS). The significant contribution of the study might be to reveal the possible relationship between CT and LLS. The results and discussions would be conducive for language practitioners and administrators.

Index Terms—language learning strategies, critical thinking, EAP, Chinese students

I. INTRODUCTION

This section is first focused on a short background on the two key elements of the research which are critical thinking and language learning strategies followed by a conceptual framework intending to convey the importance of the study.

A. Background

“Critical thinking (CT) has been long viewed as a skill for a lifetime of complicated choices which individuals have to make in their personal, academic and social lives. In this fast-paced and ever-changing world we live in, CT is not a mere luxury; it has been considered by many scholars a basic survival skill (Facione and Facione, 1996). Philosophers of education contend that CT is the fundamental goal of learning and particularly central to higher education (Paul, 1987; Ennis, 1996). A shift has occurred from viewing learning primarily as rote training to conceptualizing learning as a constantly evolving process of discovering, questioning, and reformulating hypotheses (Pennycook, 1994). CT skills have also increasingly gained attention in research related to student achievement and attitudes and a diverse body of educational research has reported the importance of promoting higher-order thinking skills and the positive influence of CT on learners' achievement in EFL contexts” (Hashemi & Ghanizadeh 2012).

“Teaching for critical thinking is an important goal of modern education, as it equips students with the competency necessary to reason about social affairs in a rapidly changing world. To develop such competency, students must go beyond absorbing textbook knowledge and learn to build up skills involved in judging information, evaluating alternative evidence and arguing with solid reasons. These skills in critical thinking are not only vital for students to perform well in school, but also needed in future workplaces, social and interpersonal contexts where sound decisions are to be made carefully and independently on a daily basis. The importance being accorded to critical thinking is now a worldwide phenomenon. In education reports of countries such as the United States, United Kingdom and Australia, critical thinking has been listed as a key area to be cultivated and assessed in higher education” (Ku & Ho, 2009)

In the recent decades more emphasis has been put on the learners and learning rather than the teachers and teaching. Simultaneously, in the area of second language acquisition research, attention from the language learning products shifted to that of the language learning process. Accordingly, in the language proficiency models, LLS considered as the most significant component. “All language learners use language learning strategies consciously or unconsciously when processing new information and performing tasks in language learning process. In order to enhance students' learning, it is suggested to use specific language learning strategies. A number of factors may affect the choice of language learning strategies among the learners such as motivation, age, nationality, career choice, gender, learning style, and critical thinking. Critical thinking improves memory because we engage more closely with ideas. Notwithstanding the emphasis on the ability to think critically, it is a vital necessity for the citizens of the current century. Second language researchers noticed the importance of various learning strategies when they were investigating into 'good language learner' in 1970s. The results indicated that high degree of language aptitude and motivation are not the only effective factors influencing the ultimate success of language learners. In fact, the learner's success is due to their own active and creative participation in the learning process by the use of specific individualized learning techniques named learning strategies. In a sense, Naiman et al. (1978) found that 'good language learner' is in need of such strategies” (Nikoopour, Farsani, & Nasiri, 2011).

B. Conceptual Framework

Due to the increasing necessity of applying critical thinking skills within the academic and social contexts, and also the presumption that better language learners use the higher and diverse extent of language learning strategies, I will survey and assess the critical thinking of students to see to what extent it can affect the choice of language learning strategies among undergraduate students. Besides, by selecting participants from the two groups of EAP and General English students, the effect of receiving and not receiving critical thinking trainings on their critical thinking and the choice of language learning strategies would be surveyed. EAP students are supposed to receive critical thinking trainings, but General English students do not necessarily require critical thinking skills to fulfill the requirements of the course. It is probable to extend the result of this research to the other languages.

Plenty of studies have been conducted so far in the two areas of critical thinking and language learning and teaching, and language learning strategies and language learning and teaching. But the gap is that almost none of them have yet surveyed the relationship between LLS and critical thinking.

As to the fact that critical thinking is a must in education system, and also in EFL or ESL contexts, comprehensive studies have been performed in different perspectives to shed the light. Considering that critical thinking has a direct positive effect on language education, and also that a better language learner is the one who uses a higher variety of strategies in learning the language, why should not this relationship be assessed? That is to say, it is proved by the extensive studies that the better language learners are more critical and strategic in language learning. Therefore as illustrated in Figure 1, the main question to be answered is “Is there any relationship between critical thinking skills and the use of language learning strategies?”.

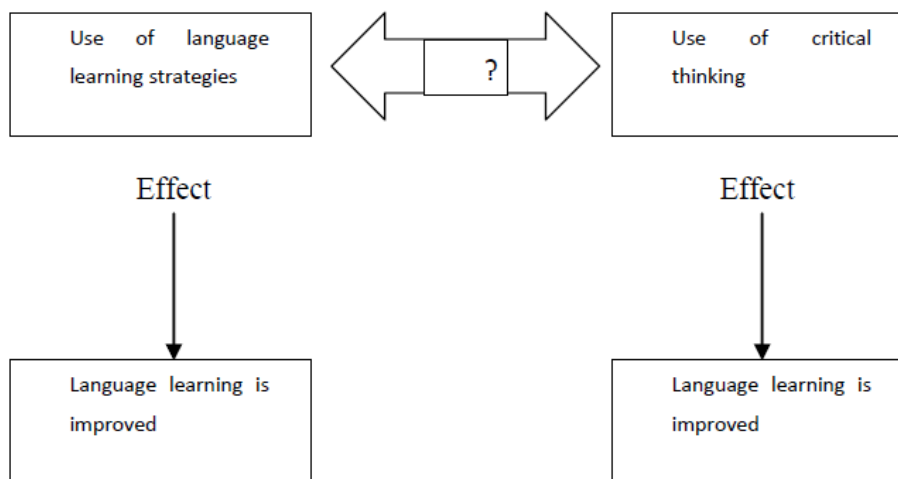


Fig. 1. Relationship between critical thinking and LLS

In addition, the other significance of the study would be studying the quality of language teaching and learning in China by emphasizing the role of critical thinking. In the recent decades that the importance of critical thinking in education system has gained a lot of attention, Chinese education system has been paying attention to this very significant issue especially in the leading universities. This research is trying to obtain results to confirm whether applying critical thinking trainings in China's EFL context would be effective and beneficial (Figure 2). The implications will be of significant importance for policy makers, English language learners and English language teachers.

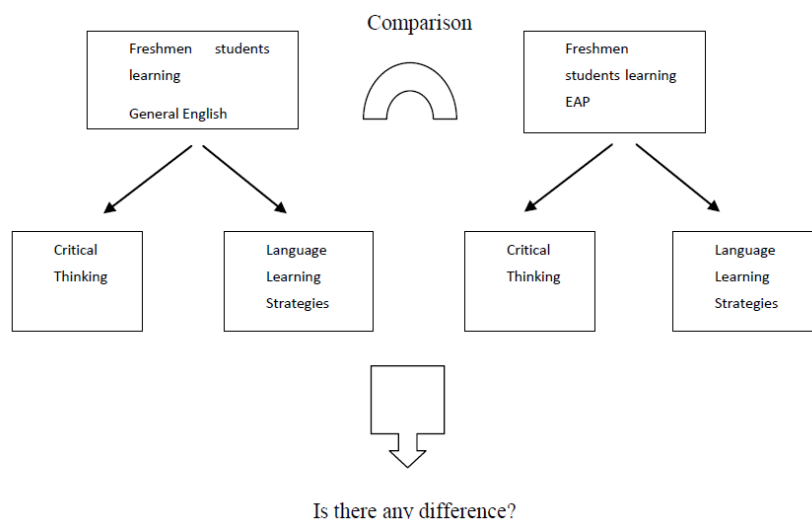


Fig. 2. Comparing CT and LLS of EAP and general English students

Last but not least, as it is already proven that those language learners with high usage of language learning strategies can obtain the higher language proficiency, what is the situation in China? Is it also true for language learners learning English in a leading university? (Figure 3)

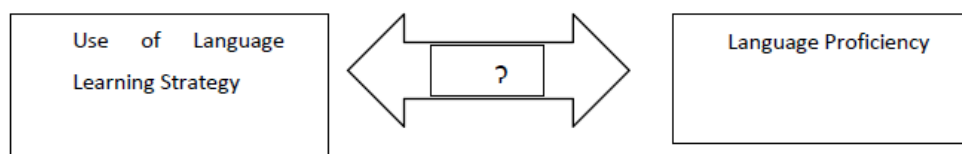


Fig. 3. Relationship between LLS and English language proficiency

Research questions

1. Do the students who receive critical thinking trainings think more critically?
2. Are the students who receive critical thinking trainings more strategic in language learning?
3. What is the relationship, if any, between the students' language proficiency and the language learning strategies used in learning the language?
4. What is the relationship, if any, between critical thinking skills and the use of language learning strategies?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this part is to survey and evaluate relevant studies on critical thinking and language learning strategies. Important concepts of critical thinking are defined first and then I will go on to an introduction to definition and relevant literature. Secondly, literature review on language learning strategies is provided.

A. Critical Thinking and Language Learning

As the working definition, critical thinking is considered to be the application of cognitive strategies that promote the presumable desirable output. It is goal-oriented, purposeful, and reasoned. It is a mentality that is responsible for problems solving, inferences formulation, likelihoods' calculation and decision making. Critical thinkers are able to apply such skills in the appropriate ways, without hesitation, and often intentionally, depending on the available settings.

The application of critical thinking for teaching and learning foreign languages is a new area of investigation. Critical thinking pedagogies are underpinned by the theory of critical language awareness. This theory explains the role of the learners' cognitive and metacognitive domains in developing his awareness of the new language and the world around him (Fairclough, 1999). In Europe, some researchers and educational bodies have incorporated critical thinking into foreign language classrooms. For instance, in UK schools, the National Curriculum NC introduced thinking skills into Modern Foreign Language classrooms (MFL), and it was found that teaching students to think can help them to communicate in the new language, to produce various types of spoken and written language and to demonstrate creativity in using the foreign language. In addition, it has been found that thinking skills can facilitate language learning, as in the case of drawing inferences from unfamiliar language items and reflecting on links between languages (Lin & Mackay, 2004). Such incorporation of thinking skills could develop learners' awareness of their progress and develop language autonomy (Lin and Mackay, *ibid.*).

B. Language Learning Strategies and Language Learning

“Research in the field of learning strategies has defined language learning strategies as ... strategies that contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and (which) affect learning directly (Rubin, 1987, p. 23). Oxford (1990) further described language learning strategies as steps taken to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) viewed learning strategies as the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information (p. 1). Holec (1981) argued that learning strategies can foster learners’ autonomy in language learning. Strategies can also assist learners in promoting their own achievement in language proficiency (Green and Oxford, 1995; O’Malley et al., 1985; Oxford, 1990; Politzer, 1983). Learning strategies, therefore, not only help learners become efficient in learning and using a language, but also contribute to increasing learners’ self-directed learning” (Hong-Nam & Leavell 2006).

C. The Relationship between Critical Thinking and Language Learning Strategies

Literature on the relationship between critical thinking and language learning strategies is not much. However, a number of studies have been conducted so far.

In a study conducted by Nikoopour, Jahanbakhsh et. al. (2011), they surveyed the relationship between CT and the use of LLS by the Iranian language learners. Their findings reveal a significant correlation between some direct and indirect LLS such as cognitive, meta-cognitive, and social with critical thinking, while no relationship was discovered between CT and memory, compensation and affective strategies.

In another study by Ku, Kelly Y. L. & Ho, Irene T. (2009), they aimed at examining the role of meta-cognitive strategies in critical thinking. Based on the findings “good critical thinkers” are more active in meta-cognitive activities.

D. The Role of Critical Thinking in English for Academic Purposes

“Critical thinking is a concept that professors and students alike believe is a fundamental defining concept of a Western university education (Barnett, 1997), but how they define it and subsequently teach or learn is as disjointed as the theories involved in the debate on critical thinking (Phillips and Bond, 2004). Moreover, critical thinking is increasingly being discussed in higher education and consequently invoking discussions in language teaching. This is especially affecting English for Academic Purpose (EAP) language learning settings, where the goal of the instructor is to insure that their students will have acquired or learned all of the skills necessary to succeed in their university career. Thus, influencing researchers in language learning to examine critical thinking, to consider where it belongs in their curriculum and whether teaching critical thinking skills implicitly or explicitly is one of the best methods that might help their students across the disciplines.

As to the Sustained Content-based teaching approach (Pally, 2001), for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) the definition of critical thinking is divided into two sections: analytical thinking and critical thinking.

1) Analytical thinking

- a) Grasping the claims or perspectives of readings and lectures
- b) Understanding the methods of proof used to support those claims/perspectives
- c) Synthesizing claims and support from a range of sources

2) Critical thinking

- a) Noting the social, economic and political contexts of claims and support
- b) Questioning or challenging them
- c) Evaluating them
- d) Using one's understanding, synthesis, and questions as a basis for formulating ideas of one's own
- e) Presenting (orally and in writing) ideas/positions of one's own using appropriate rhetorical conventions” (Paul, 1987).

According to the given theoretical background and the discussions on the possibility of correlation between CT and LLS on the one hand, and LLS and language proficiency on the other, in the next section I will provide a methodology for assessing the mentioned correlations.

III. METHODS

A. Participants

The target participants of the study consisted of 256 freshmen students enrolled at a leading in China. A cluster sampling procedure that represents the University population by level (freshman) and stream (Optical Engineering, Biological Engineering, Computer Sciences and Economics) was used. “Representative course sections were selected. The best way was to approach students in university-English courses, which groups students from different streams and levels” (El Hassan & Madhum 2007).

The selected students were all learning English as the foreign language attending two separate courses namely English for General Students (control) and English for Academic Purposes (experiment) with class size of 30 to 40 students. English is usually taught as the mandatory foreign language subject in China among the non-English major undergraduate students. The students receive 4-hour English instruction a week.

B. Instrument

To conduct the present study, two instruments were employed: WGCTA (Watson Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal) and the Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).

The 80-item Watson Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal is used to assess the participants' critical thinking. CTA measures the important abilities involved in critical thinking. The 50-item test of Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), Oxford, is administered to assess the students' use of language learning strategies.

C. Procedure

To gather the required data, upon the end of one academic semester (17 academic weeks), the researcher compared two groups of EAP and General English students from four different departments to survey the difference in their critical thinking skills. Therefore, two types of tests were administered among students majoring Optical Engineering, Biological Engineering, Computer Science and Economics in a leading university of China. Initially, the university classes consisting of the freshmen students were selected. On different occasions two types of tests were taken.

D. Analysis

The quantitative data collected from the two mentioned tests (WGCTA & SILL) were analysed together with the qualitative evidences and information of this study or other studies and the final conclusions was drawn accordingly.

To answer the first and second questions of this study, independent sample T-test was conducted to survey the differences between EAP and General English students in terms of their criticality and strategy. For the last two questions, to assess the relationship between the students' language score and LLS, and between LLS and critical thinking, Pearson Correlation procedure was performed.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Aim of the following section is to render the results of assessing the research variables; and to analyse them for the sake of answering the four research questions presented below.

A. CT Assessment

Based on the results reflected in Chart 1, it is evident that students who have received EAP trainings outperformed the students who have not received such instructions. Actually because EAP course integrates the elements of critical thinking with English education, the students who receive such trainings will do better in terms of critical thinking. Critical thinking is a desirable curricular outcome in EAP program and the data collected from the freshmen students majoring Biological Engineering, Economics, Optical Engineering and Computer Sciences indicates the improvement in students' critical thinking. Mean scores of EAP and General English students, except those majoring Biological Engineering, shows a little significant difference, but this does not indicate the inferiority of the EAP instruction in compare with General English instruction. The reason would be many; First, the students' age (almost 19) and the lack of previous critical thinking education, and second, a short-time in receiving EAP instructions (17 weeks). The normal EAP program in the leading universities of China is one year. It might be probable that after a whole program the students' critical thinking shows significance. Anyway as critical thinking is the key to academic performance (Pally, 2001) the necessity of improving the critical thinking abilities is undeniable.

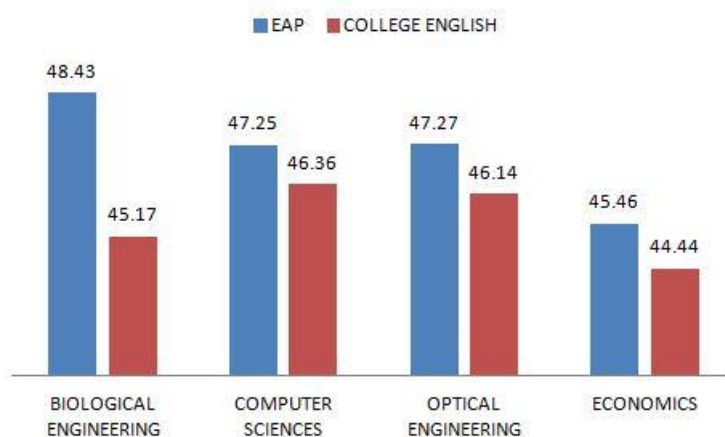


Chart 1. Comparison between CT of EAP and General English students

B. LLS Assessment

Comparing to General English students, the EAP students who have received the critical thinking training for 17 academic weeks showed higher scores in their language learning strategy. However due to some reasons the difference in students' LLS score is not significant. The reason would be the lack of appropriate critical thinking background

which prevents students from improving. Also the students seem to lack the awareness of using different language learning strategies. The steady explicit critical thinking trainings together with raising the students' awareness toward using the variety of LLS could help. Language learning strategies are being used highly frequently by higher level students (Carol Griffiths, 2003). As a result EAP promotes students' critical thinking which ends in increasing the LLS use. Accordingly, those students with higher use of LLS are proved to be the better language learners.

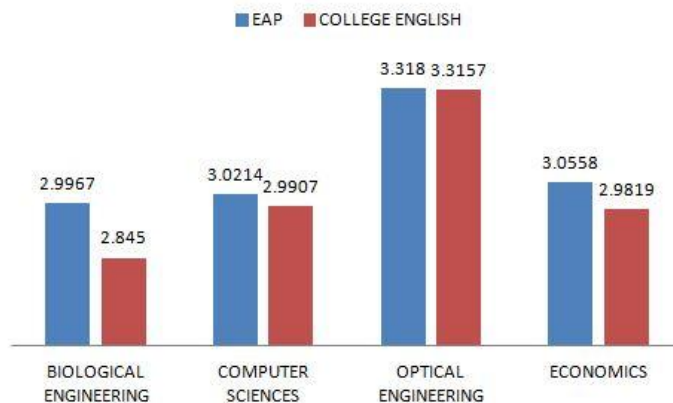


Chart 2. Comparison between LLS of EAP and General English students

C. LLS and Language Proficiency

Table1 summarizes the correlation between the score for speaking and listening and the number of language learning strategies used in learning the language. Accordingly there is a high correlation between the said variables. It proves the positive relationship between the LLS score and language score which support the findings of many ESL/EFL researchers. The test could have properly evaluated the students' language score. In other words, the high correlation between the students' listening and speaking scores and their LLS scores which implies that those students with higher use of LLS could achieve better language learning results.

TABLE 1
SUMMARY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SPEAKING AND LISTENING SCORE AND LLS – ECONOMICS AND ENGINEERING GROUP (N: 54)

	STA	STB	STC	STD	STE	STF	TOTAL
Sig	.129	.001*	.034*	.005*	.649	.134	.003*
Pearson Correlation	.209	.428	.289	.374	.063	.207	.398

Based on the research findings reflected in the below summary table as to the correlation between score for English reading and writing and the LLS score, we may conclude that a positive correlation exists. However by observing at each individual sig. it is presumed that the correlation is weak. It means the language test could not properly assess the students' reading and writing level. The students with higher LLS score might have not obtained the better score or vice versa.

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WRITING AND READING SCORE AND LLS – BIOLOGICAL ENGINEERING AND COMPUTER GROUPS (N: 58)

	STA	STB	STC	STD	STE	STF	TOTAL
Sig	.881	.057*	.838	.604	.490	.111	.204
Pearson Correlation	-.020	.252	-.027*	.070	.093	.211	.169

D. LLS and CT

The result of correlation tests between the critical thinking score of students and their language learning strategy score signifies a positive significant relationship. Further to the table 3, the answer to the last research question would be "yes". Therefore, students with the higher critical thinking ability will use more variety of strategies in learning the language. As a result, to compare with those students who use less variety of language learning strategies, their learning is better promoted.

TABLE 3
SUMMARY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CT AND LLS (N: 256)

	STA	STB	STC	STD	STE	STF	TOTAL (2-TAILED)	TOTAL (1-TAILED)
Sig	.880	.051*	.095	.275	.480	.276	.083	.041 *
Pearson Correlation	-.009	.122	.105	.068	.044*	.069	.109	.109

It is drawn from the results that the EAP program at a leading university in China had CT as its teaching's component and at the end of the program, the participants managed to improve their criticality. Further, the correlation between CT and LLS showed to be positive (p value is .041*).

V. CONCLUSION

This study supports the idea of teaching critical thinking within the EFL contexts. It proposes that successful language learners are those with higher critical thinking abilities. One important influence of applying critical thinking in ESL/EFL contexts would be the higher use of language learning strategies. Thereupon, the more language learning strategies used on learning the language, the better language learning will result.

Referring to the data analysis, performed on the data collected from the two questionnaires of LLS and Critical Thinking, the effect of critical thinking trainings through EAP course has been proved to be positive and the students who studied EAP course within one semester seemed to use higher LLS. The reason that the use of LLS does not show significance between EAP students and General English students might be due to the insufficient students' awareness toward LLS.

Furthermore, this study proves the positive relationship between the students' language score and the LLS use. For the speaking and listening examination, the positive correlation was significant, but for the reading and writing examination the positive correlation was weak which would be due to the test itself. Besides, the correlation between critical thinking abilities and the use of language learning strategies also proved to be positive.

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Communicative Language Teaching in EFL University Context: Challenges for Teachers

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Abstract—The tenet of this study was to investigate the challenges hindering a proper implementation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in EFL university context. There have been opposing views on feasibility of implementing CLT in EFL context. Some researchers (Incecay & Incecay 2009; Bax 2003) have preferred the significance of learners' needs and adoption of traditional methods of language teaching. However, there is much research on adopting CLT in EFL context (Coskun 2011; Richards 2006; Sauvignon 2002; Murphy 2000; Littlewood 1981; Hymes 1971). In Saudi Arabia, one of the objectives of teaching English is to enable the students to achieve communicative competence but teachers face a lot of difficulties in exploiting the content using CLT approach. A questionnaire (Ozsevik, 2010) was adapted to gather the data from 100 teachers (male and female) at Taif University English Language Centre regarding the challenges they are facing in creating a CLT environment. The results revealed that the teachers were confronted with various challenges relating to teachers, students, education system, and CLT. The important findings included lack of CLT training, problems in accessing CLT resources, low-proficiency of students, lack of motivation among students, examination system and instruments to assess communicative competence of the students.

Index Terms—communicative language teaching, EFL University context, English teaching in Saudi Arabia

I. INTRODUCTION

There are three broad aims in language learning which are social, artistic (literary), and philosophical. Social aim considers language as a form of social behaviour and communication, artistic aim treats language as a form of creativity, and appreciation of creative activity and creativity itself, and philosophical aim demands training in analytic techniques (Kelly, 1969 p.396 quoted by Robert, 2004 p.2).

To ensure achieving these aims, numerous approaches and methods in teaching of English as foreign or second language were conceived, but the most prominent were grammatical and communicative approaches. The grammatical approach is based on linguistics or grammatical forms which are “combined to form grammatical sentences” (Canale 1980, p. 1). Whereas, the communicative approach is based on functions helping students “to know and emphasizes the ways in which particular grammatical forms may be used to express these functions appropriately” (ibid). Communicative approach was introduced in 1970s for teaching English as a second language (ESL) to cope with the “needs of the immigrants in English speaking countries but with the passage of time the communicative approach was experimented in non-native countries to provide better and life-like opportunities to the English language learners” (Canale 1980, p. 1).

Communicative approach or Communicative language teaching (CLT) is based on theory of language as communication emphasising greatly on using the target language by the learners in a variety of contexts and on learning language functions. In other words, successful learning of a foreign language means how well learners have developed their communicative skills or competence which means an ability to apply knowledge of a language with adequate proficiency to communicate. Since its inception, CLT is best considered as an approach rather than a method (Richards & Rogers, 1986) and has served as a major source of influence on language teaching practice around the world. Rogers (2001) suggests that an approach represent language teaching philosophies can be interpreted and applied in a variety of different ways in the classroom. CLT “highlights the fundamentally communicative properties of language, [where] classrooms [are] increasingly characterized by authenticity, real-world simulation, and meaningful tasks and it attempts to go beyond purely grammatical and discourse elements in communication and probe the nature of social, cultural, [and] pragmatic features of language” (ibid).

The pivotal concept in CLT is communicative competence which includes knowledge of “what to say and how to say it appropriately based on the situation, the participants, and their roles and intentions” (Ozsevik 2010, p. 27). In such situations, a teacher’s role in the classroom is of utmost importance. They should be a “model for correct speech and writing” and help “produce plenty of error free sentences” (Richards 2006 p. 5). Also, they should create an environment where students feel comfortable working in a group or pair, rather than “relying on the teacher for a model” (ibid). A teacher’s role is of a facilitator, guide and co-learner. Learners are provided with an autonomous environment to help them to influence and take control of their learning.

In Saudi Arabia, English is a compulsory component of curricular scheme of study at school and university levels. Though the universities have adopted activity based syllabus to enable the students to communicate within and outside

the classroom fluently and effectively, much research concludes that the students are not performing well as they should be (Zahid, 2014; Farooq, 2012; Al-Seghayer 2011; Khan, 2011). Despite having a communicative syllabus, experienced teachers and facilities, poor performance of the students needs to be investigated. This research aims at finding out the problems in exploiting the study materials and creating a learning environment, and to suggest measures to improve the situation.

Research Question

1. What difficulties and challenges do the teachers face in adopting CLT?
2. What are the challenges caused by students in implementing CLT in the classroom?
3. Is the education system in Saudi Arabia helpful in implementing CLT?
4. How can CLT be applied in the classroom to enhance language skills of the students?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Communicative language teaching, introduced in 1970s, is regarded as an approach to language teaching and it is based on a theory that primary function of language use is communication (Richards & Rodgers 2001). CLT is considered as a major invention and the most prevailing approach in English language teaching since its inception (Savignon, 1972; Habermas, 1970; Hymes, 1971; Jakobovits, 1970). The basic concept of CLT is to develop students' communicative competence (Hymes, 1971) by providing real-life situations that initiate communication. CLT needs authentic input of language use and requires providing opportunities for the students to use the language in a real life context. It also entails the use of wide materials and the employment of highly qualified teachers to manage the creative classroom potentials (Sun & Cheng, 2000)

CLT is a reaction to the traditional approach in language teaching which emphasizes rote learning and "structurally (grammatically) sequenced curricula" (Brown, 2007, p. 47). In CLT environment learning takes place "through the process of struggling to communicate" (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, in Brown, 2007, p. 49).

The basic concept in CLT is communicative competence. It is the ability to understand and apply appropriate behavior in a social context, and at the same time it involves learner's active participation in producing the target language. (Celce-Murcia, Dornyei & Thurrell, 1997; Canale, 1980; Hymes, 1972). Communicative competence includes linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, and discourse competence. Linguistic competence means knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, sociolinguistic is the ability to initiate, contribute and end a conversation in a consistent and coherent manner, and discourse competence is the ability to communicate effectively without any problems and breakdowns (Savignon, 2002, pp. 8-9).

Brown (2007, pp. 46-47) enlists seven characteristics of CLT which are: Focus on communicative competence intertwining the organizational and pragmatic aspects of the language, learner's engagement meaningful use of the language through an effective relationship between form and function, focus on fluency rather than accuracy, appropriate feedback from teacher on students' errors, equipping the students with skills necessary to communicate in real life contexts, making the students autonomous to develop their language skills beyond the classroom, encouraging the students to construct meaning through interaction with others, and engaging students in the learning process through learner-centred, cooperative and collaborative activities.

In a classroom, CLT environment can be established if a teacher considers culture of the target language as an important aspect of teaching and learning. Students are expected to acquire accurate forms of the target language and its usage in various social situations in the target language setting to convey appropriate, coherent, and strategically-effective meanings for the native speakers. To achieve such objectives, authentic materials are used to represent the reality of native speaker language use. That is why CLT is not considered as a method but rather as an approach in which a variety of methods and techniques may be applied instead of restricting to one model or authority (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

A. Teachers' Role in CLT Classroom

CLT, being a learner-centred approach, modifies the roles of teacher and students in a language classroom as compared to traditional approaches. In CLT, a teacher is not merely a teacher and a learner just a learner. In a traditional classroom, a teacher is the dominating authority whereas in CLT, s/he is a facilitator and a learner is a participant, and through communicative activities they create knowledge in a collaborative environment in classroom. The teacher facilitates the communication process between the students in the class and between students and the text and activities. The teacher also acts as a co-learner and researcher to contribute in terms of the nature of learning and organizational capacities (Breen & Candlin, 1980, p. 99). Thus, a teacher adopts CLT to produce and use authentic teaching materials according to the needs of the learners. S/he is a motivator as well and provides the learners with a comfortable classroom environment for language learning. Further, CLT discourages teacher controlled drills, quiz based on memorized materials, as well as focus and explanation of forms of English.

A teacher hence, in a CLT environment has multiple roles to act, and according to Harmer (2001), a teacher is an organizer of classroom activities, assessor of learner errors, participant in organized activities, prompter to encourage the learners, a source of language and knowledge, and an instructor to train learners on language skills. These roles, sometimes, confuses the teachers in their expectations, practices, and reaction to CLT. At the same time, however, these

roles encourage other teachers to select or develop their own materials by providing learners with a range of communicative tasks (Savignon, 1983)

Deckert (2004) thinks that CLT requires teachers with low profile role, pair and group work, problem solving activities, use of authentic material, interaction on real-life topics, and teaching of four language skills. Thompson (1996, p. 14) also recommends the reconsideration of old concepts regarding language teaching held by teachers based on their experiences and compare them with the new developments and possibilities for better pedagogical gains. In recent approaches to ESL/EFL, new developments have been made focusing on cognitive aspects of L2 motivation. Such trends resulted in new motivational constructs like "self-efficacy, self-determination, and those of extrinsic and intrinsic motivations, and expectancy of success, etc." (ibid). Teachers utilize motivational techniques like group work in their teaching to enhance positive L2 learning goals and beliefs.

B. ELT in the Current Context of Study

Much research conducted in the context of teaching and learning English in the Arab world suggests that it has not produced the desired results (Zahid, Farooq & Gulzar, 2012; Al-Jarf, 2008; Rababah, 2003). In this regard, Al-Hazmi (2006) similarly reported that "language teaching in the Arab world is dominated by a traditional, top-down, textbook-oriented, teacher-led methodology." (p. 38).

English in Saudi Arabia is influenced by "political, religious, social, and economic overtones and is a topic of heated debate", though, there is an opposition to English language questioning its "validity and contributes to a shift in the language to suit local beliefs and practices", (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014, p.128). Being an international language, English has acquired a privileged status in Saudi Arabia by government and community (Hajailan, 2003, p. 01) and it is used as a means of communication, commerce and trade, diplomacy, tourism, and as a medium of teaching learning in higher education" (Liton, 2013 p.19).

In the Saudi context, the government has taken various steps including introducing English as medium of instruction in technical and higher education, establishing language labs, teacher training, curriculum development according to modern line to ensure learning English for communication purposes. On the other hand, the level of achievement in learning English is not encouraging as it should be. Alshumaimeri (cited in Rahman and Alhaisoni (2013, p. 114) argue that "teachers have pointed out that students leave the secondary stage without the ability to carry out a short conversation." After learning English for many years, the students have achieved little in terms of language proficiency, and making a large number of students and teachers waste their time and energy. According to the researcher's involvement with the context, the situation remains the same to a large extent currently.

C. Relevant Studies

Anderson (1993) conducted a research on difficulties relating to CLT in China and found the following challenges: Insufficient number of teachers practicing CLT, mismatch between CLT's goals and the students' expectations, and difficulties in evaluating students' performance. Valdes and Jhones (1991) pointed out teachers' low proficiency in English and difficulties in designing courses to meet the students' real needs as major challenges in implementing CLT in Cuba. In the Greek context, Karavas-Doukas (1996) conducted a research on teachers' attitudes towards CLT and concluded that the teachers were inclined towards traditional methods besides having a CLT based curriculum. He opined that either the teachers didn't understand the basic principles of the CLT or they didn't want to implement CLT in their classrooms. Li (1998) conducted a research on South Korean teachers' to find out their perception of CLT in EFL environments. Li found similar student-related difficulties such as: (a) low English proficiency, (b) little motivation for communicative competence, and (c) resistance to class participation. Similarly, Choi (1999) mentioned discrepancies in the Korean context between teachers' perception about CLT and their teachers' practices. Yang and Cheung (2003) conducted a study on secondary school English language teachers in Hong Kong and found that the teachers face challenges in using CLT due to the constraints like large classroom size, lack of training in communicative techniques, and mistaking any group work for communicative teaching.

Therefore, unlike traditional approaches, Hu (2002, p.95-96) suggests that CLT project student centeredness and create more interactive environment in the classroom. In this regard, Liu (2005) conducted a research on the issue of CLT in Taiwan and concluded that the teachers face problems in practicing CLT in their classroom due to grammar based examination. Inceciy and Inceciy (2009) conducted a research on the effectiveness of CLT in Turkey and found that aligning the CLT activities with the traditional approach had a positive effect on the learning of EFL learners. As such, much research conducted on the implementation of CLT EFL settings mostly focused on teacher-related challenges while conducting CLT activities in the classroom. At the same time, it demonstrates a disparity in teachers' beliefs regarding CLT concepts and their practices in the classroom. Such misconceptions are based on lack of communicative competence, large classes, and traditional grammatical knowledge and its teaching. (Richards 2006; Sakui, 2004; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Thompson, 1996; Burnaby & Sun, 1989).

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A quantitative method employing questionnaires was adapted (Ozsevik 2010) to gather data from English language teachers. The questionnaire consisted of four parts: Teacher-related difficulties and challenges, student-related

difficulties and challenges, difficulties and challenges related to educational system, and CLT-related difficulties and challenges. The questionnaire was modified for the current study. The sample consisted of 100 EFL teachers (50 males and 50 females) at the Taif University English Language Centre.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data collected through a questionnaire was tabulated in percentile. The discussion has been divided into four parts; difficulties and challenges relating to teachers, students, education system, and CLT itself.

A. Teacher-related Challenges

The first part of the questionnaire reflects the EFL teachers' opinions regarding the challenges they face in their classroom in implementing CLT. Responses from both genders revealed three main aspects: Awareness, CLT training and resources, and native context. See Table 1 below.

TABLE 1:
TEACHER-RELATED DIFFICULTIES AND CHALLENGES

Statements	Major challenge		Challenge		Mild challenge		Not a challenge	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1. Teachers have misconceptions about CLT.	20	14	48	42	20	10	12	34
2. Teachers lack appropriate use of English in context.	20	29	48	12	24	21	8	38
3. Teachers lack the knowledge about the English culture.	12	0	32	24	35	18	21	58
4. Teachers have little time to develop materials for communicative activities.	7	7	45	48	40	36	8	9
5. Teachers have fewer resources for communicative material development.	22	35	45	26	28	28	5	11
6. Teachers lack training about CLT approach.	28	12	51	21	19	48	2	19
7. There are few opportunities for teachers to get CLT training.	28	0	40	42	26	40	6	18
8. Teachers lack access to authentic materials such as newspapers, magazines, movies etc.	33	14	46	4	14	29	7	53

Firstly, 'teachers have misconceptions about CLT' has been considered a challenge by most of the teachers (45%), but at the same time, a reasonable number of female teachers (34%) didn't think it was a challenge. As the idea of CLT was conceived in ESL context in 1970s and initial materials were designed keeping in view the needs of the immigrants living in English speaking counties, it may have created certain misconceptions regarding the implementation of CLT in EFL contexts. These misconceptions, according to Thompson (1996), were teaching of no grammar, teaching only speaking, pair work means role play, and expecting too much from the teacher. Thompson provided the reasons for the misconception about CLT which were the teachers' unwillingness to re-evaluate their beliefs and practices when they described that CLT norms demanded an unrealistically superhuman teacher. After clarifying these misconceptions, Thompson suggests that in CLT environment teachers are induced with new incentives instead of repeating the same every year and the enjoy their work. (p. 14).

According to the present study results, the second set of challenges that teachers are facing in adopting CLT have vital aspects as reflected through their responses regarding CLT training and resources. EFL teachers may lack training about CLT (51% male as a challenge and 48% female as a mild challenge), and there are less opportunities of training about CLT (41% both male and female teachers as a challenge, but 40% female EFL teachers consider it as a mild challenge). Professional development is an effective part of any educational system as it assimilates educational policies, culture, and modern trends. In this survey, the majority of EFL teachers mentioned that they lacked training and there were less opportunities of training to implement CLT in EFL context despite the in-house continuous professional development programs. However, Khan (2011, p.73) argues that "They think that this is an academic embarrassment to take part in any training program"; It's obligatory for a teacher to update his knowledge, potential and skills through continuous professional development to keep abreast with the advancement in the field of education, language teaching, use of technology in an educational environment. In the ear of technology, the world has become a global village, and one can pursue relevant courses from anywhere and anyway (Khan, 2011 p.73).

Respondents also reported that there are fewer resources for communicative materials development (45% male as a challenge and 35% female as a major challenge), and they have little time to develop materials for communicative activities (46% both as a challenge). In this regard, Thompson (1996) suggests that that it is difficult to adopt CLT when the study materials available are uncommunicative, but nowadays one can find books based on CLT with activities providing teaches guideline to carry out them in their classroom. (p. 14).

Thirdly, the current results showed that there was a huge discrepancy in opinions between male and female respondents regarding the lack of appropriate use of English in context (48% male as a challenge but 38% female think it not a challenge), lack of knowledge about English culture (35% male as a mild challenge but 58% female as not a challenge), and access to authentic materials (46% male as a challenge but 53% female as not a challenge). Male EFL teachers reported these aspects as challenges, whereas the female EFL teachers rated them as not a challenge. This reflects that female EFL teachers in Saudi universities may have an edge on their counterparts in their awareness, access,

and commitment in adopting CLT. Breen and Candlin (1980) suggested that the primary role of a CLT teacher is “to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between them and the various activities and texts” (p. 99). Hence, an EFL teacher needs to reach a benchmark level of English proficiency to understand and communicate the depth of subject knowledge besides having skills to impart it in an effective and efficient manner, making his/her students use the target language for communication.

Regarding teacher-related difficulties and challenges, there are various studies that reflect interpret the current study results in terms of mismatch in teachers’ beliefs about CLT and their practices, and issues relating to language competency, planning skills, training in CLT, material development, etc. (e.g. Li 1998; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). Li (1998) further commented that most of the teachers are already over-burdened whereas CLT demands some additional work on the part of teachers which they can’t manage. Therefore, “lack of time for and lack of expertise in developing communicative materials” had been the major constraints for teachers (Li 1998, p.689). In Saudi Arabia however, creating a cohesive group of EFL students might be a challenge due to several reasons. One of the reasons may be the curriculum itself since the teachers may feel that they may not be able to cover the required syllabus on time so they “switch to use the Grammar-Translation Method” (Al-Maini, 2006). As a result, “it decreases the opportunities of interaction in the classroom” (Alrabai 2011, p. 260).

B. Student-related Challenges

The second section of the questionnaire discusses student-related difficulties and challenges. The majority of EFL teachers agreed to such items as less confident and less prepared (68%), passive style of learning (56%), resistance of participating in communicative activities (62%), lack of motivation (62% male as a challenge and 45% female as a mild challenge), and low-level proficiency (50%) as challenges in their classrooms. See Table 2 below.

TABLE 2:
STUDENT-RELATED DIFFICULTIES AND CHALLENGES

Statements		Major challenge		Challenge		Mild challenge		Not a challenge	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
9.	Students have low-level English proficiency.	35	37	48	52	12	8	5	3
10.	Students have a passive style of learning.	25	34	58	55	14	9	3	2
11.	Students are less confident and less prepared for CLT.	18	22	68	67	12	7	2	4
12.	Students resist participating in communicative class activities.	29	6	52	72	14	18	5	4
13.	Students lack motivation for developing communicative competence.	11	17	62	28	23	45	4	10

In the present study context, though activity-based syllabus has been designed keeping in view the students' needs, the EFL teachers face several problems in executing it in its true sense. According to Javid (2014), these problems include students’ low proficiency in English language, lack of interest in learning English, EFL anxiety, over-crowded classes, and lack of technological support. It has been observed that “more than 70% of the students are usually placed in lower levels as they mostly lack motivation” (Shah & Al-Bargi, 2013 p.477). Arabic being the native language is used by the Saudis at home, workplace and institutions so “there is a bleak chance to learn English through day-to-day interaction” (Khan, 2011 p.1249). Sometimes it becomes difficult for the subject teacher to encourage some enthusiastic students to use the target language due to those students who are not very good in English, or at least hesitant to use English in and outside the classroom (Khan, 2011, p.69). Khan (2011, p. 1248) argues that the students are not producing results as desired despite having “a sound planning, purposive curriculum, suitable textbooks, qualified teachers and effective administration” and traditional way of teaching English at school level. Also, in most of Saudi universities, classroom instruction is teacher-centred instead of student-centred (Al-Shehri, 2004) and EFL classes are usually over-crowded with more than 50 students in each class (Al-Mohanna, 2010). This may have largely contributed to students’ passive style of learning. At the same time, low-level of proficiency may also lead to less confident and less prepared students. Therefore, it becomes difficult for EFL teachers to practice CLT in their classroom, and thus they tend to stick to the traditional way of teaching.

As the language is used for expressing meaning, interaction, and communication, students’ needs should be given priority. To meet the students L2 needs, Brown argued (as cited in Richards (2006, p.4) that learning in CLT be seen as resulting from “interaction between learner and language user, collaborative creation of meaning, meaningful and purposeful interaction through language, attending to feedback provided by peers and teacher, attaining to input and trying to incorporate new forms into developing output, and risk taking and experimenting with the language.

C. Policy-related Challenges

In the third part of the questionnaire, teachers expressed their opinion regarding various difficulties and challenges caused by the prevailing education system as shown in Table 3 below. Female EFL teachers were concerned about the shortage of AV aids in the classroom (63%) and large classes (46%) as major challenges in effective use of CLT in their classrooms. Male EFL teachers also considered the shortage of AV aids (52%) as a challenge. Lack of materials for communicative activities was another difficulty reported by EFL teachers (44%) as a challenge. Further, existing examination system was reported as unsuitable for CLT as expressed by 47% of teachers.

TABLE 3:
DIFFICULTIES AND CHALLENGES RELATED TO THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Statements	Major challenge		Challenge		Mild challenge		Not a challenge	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
14. There is a lack of enough support from administration.	13	5	38	27	42	53	7	15
15. Traditional view on teachers' and students' role is not compatible with CLT.	12	7	44	38	40	46	4	9
16. Classes are too large for the effective use of CLT.	25	46	33	38	30	9	12	7
17. Lack of material for communicative activities	18	21	45	43	29	28	8	8
18. CLT is unsuitable for existing examination system in Saudi Arabia.	13	7	41	55	39	20	7	18
19. The existing syllabus is not suitable for communicative activities.	9	7	34	14	46	30	11	49
20. Classrooms are not equipped with AV aids.	21	63	52	18	22	14	5	5

In the current study findings however, there is a little disparity among males' responses (46% as a mild challenge) and females' responses (49% as not a challenge) regarding the suitability of existing syllabus for communicative activities. The reason may be the huge budget allocated by the Saudi Government in the field of education and especially English language learning. Curricula have been redesigned and updated by the experts at university level to meet the international standards of foreign/second language education.

Findings of several previous studies align with present study findings. Li (1998) found that the large classes and grammar-based examination were the main difficulties faced in the educational system. In the same vein, Liton (2013) collected data through questionnaires from a total of 25 EFL teachers at renowned Saudi universities. The research results revealed that the EFL classroom is not conducive to task-based language teaching practice due to large class size (100-140). Alrabai (2011) also conducted a research at KAU and concluded that "overcrowded classes are also a challenge for teachers to introduce CLT activities in their classes" (p.276). Such constraints emerge as consequences of the current policies enacted by the education system, and which may not be overcome unless a serious initiative is taken by the top officials of the educational system.

D. CLT-related Challenges

Table 4 below shows the results of the last part of the questionnaire. Respondents were asked about CLT-related difficulties and challenges.

TABLE 4:
CLT-RELATED DIFFICULTIES AND CHALLENGES

Statements	Major challenge		Challenge		Mild challenge		Not a challenge	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
21. There is a lack of effective and efficient instruments to assess communicative competence.	22	24	48	43	22	22	8	11
22. CLT doesn't take into account the differences between EFL and ESL teaching contexts.	13	6	24	38	53	44	10	12
23. Western educational assumptions are not suitable within local context.	12	8	45	21	32	45	11	26
24. CLT needs specific materials for teaching.	15	7	37	51	36	33	12	9
25. CLT lack assessment instruments in local context.	16	5	44	49	31	40	9	6

The present study results report that 51% female and 37% male respondents think that implementing CLT is a challenge due to the need for specific materials for teaching. Therefore, it might be difficult to adopt CLT when the study materials available are uncommunicative. Nowadays, a lot of CLT based textbooks are available in the market with activities and teacher book which can be adopted by teachers for use in their classroom.

Regarding the non-suitability of western educational assumptions in the local context, male EFL teachers (45%) consider it as a challenge, whereas females (45%) opine it as a mild challenge. It can be argued that the very idea of CLT was conceived and developed in Europe and its application may be a challenge for language teachers in EFL contexts. However, there is a persistent need to understand the discrepancy between theory and practice, demanding more positivity on the side of EFL teachers' views about the feasibility of CLT.

They also expressed lack of effective and efficient assessment instruments (male 48%; female 43%) to assess communicative competence of the students in local context (male 44%; female 49%) as challenges.

Similar CLT-related challenges have been identified by Li (1998) in South Korean context as well. Searching for proper resolutions, Alptekin (2002) suggests that the learners may be engaged in discourse more effectively if the language is localized to create real communicative behavior realizing English as an international language.

Based on the current study context circumstances, findings of the present study stress several recommendations for CLT to be implemented effectively in the Saudi EFL university classrooms. First, EFL teachers need to undertake ongoing CLT training that emphasizes hands-on workshops that develops EFL teachers' skills on the various aspects of CLT. Also, there has to be a wide access to resources, teaching aids in the classroom. Though its policy related, another important factor for CLT to work out is to lower the number of students in classes and to facilitate the process of setting goals with students.

In order for these implementations to be put into practice, a top-bottom initiative needs to be taken starting from policy-making level. This initiative may essentially include the following procedures: First, EFL curriculum needs to be restructured in terms of time allowance for extra task-based activities that enable students to get involved in the learning process more effectively. Second, EFL instructors should undertake ongoing professional development to refresh their experiences and keep them abreast with current trends in the field. The overcrowded classes were assumed to be one of the largest obstacles that hindered the implementation of CLT in EFL university context. Third therefore, a critical structural rearrangement of students' numbers in classes has to be seriously considered. In the same vein, the forth emphasis should be placed on the classroom setting, making it a more appealing and accommodating environment for the implementation of learner-based activities. This includes equipping classrooms with sufficient technology-enhanced tools such as data shows, access to network and computers, and dynamic tables for flexible group activities.

V. CONCLUSION

The present research focused on investigating the difficulties and challenges that the EFL teachers encounter while implementing CLT in their classrooms. Challenges to implementing CLT were stranded as relating to such aspects as teachers, students, education system and CLT in Saudi Arabia. Interestingly, most of the EFL teachers were in favour of using CLT in their classrooms, despite all the proclaimed challenges. Several misconceptions were found to be common amongst EFL teachers which were assumed to be developed under the influence of traditional teaching methodology. These misconceptions like 'no grammar teaching' and 'only speaking' were found to be based on lack of knowledge and exposure to CLT approach. As EFL teachers, respondents reported not having access to CLT materials and claimed not being able to prepare CLT activities for their students due to constraints like lengthy syllabi, limited time, and lack of CLT training. Regarding the student-related difficulties, passive style of learning, less confident and less prepared, lack of motivation, low-level proficiency, and resistance to participate in communicative activities' were reported as major student-related challenges to implementing CLT. Such challenges may have also emerged from the learners' needs for using English outside the classroom which, unfortunately was not always feasible. Educational system of a country plays the pivotal role in directing the students' needs and performance in a specific field. In the context of present research, the Saudi government has taken crucial measures to introduce English an international language by providing huge budget, experienced teachers, and supportive materials. However, issues such as large classes, lack of materials for communicative activities, lack of technology-enhanced aids in the classroom, and the prevailing examination system established major constraints in implementing CLT in its true spirit.

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The Application of Dynamic Assessment: Is It Worth the Effort?

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Abstract—The emergence of Dynamic Assessment (DA) has been motivated by the inadequacy of conventional static tests to provide accurate information about the individuals' learning ability. To explore the effectiveness of Dynamic Assessment and conventional methods of teaching and assessing in writing, 45 female students were studied. These individuals were randomly assigned into two groups. To understand students' problems and needs better, individuals in both groups were asked to write reflective reports which mainly focused on their writing process. Analyzing the mean scores of these groups revealed the superiority of Dynamic Assessment. The students' scores in each group were also compared prior to the implementation of the treatment and after that, using two paired t-tests. The results revealed that unlike the conventional group, those in Dynamic Assessment group had improved their writing skills significantly. Such results implicitly revealed that writing reflective reports by itself cannot have any effect on the writing abilities of individuals. Some criteria for writing, as mentioned by the individuals in their reflective reports, were categorized: grammar, content, using appropriate and effective vocabulary, organization, spelling and capitalization. Further findings and implications for future research are discussed in the paper.

Index Terms—Dynamic Assessment (DA), reflective report, writing

I. INTRODUCTION

As a basic communication skill and a means of measuring individuals' learning in second language, writing is one of the most important skills. Foreign language students are often anxious about writing, so teachers should encourage them to see the writing process as 'a means of learning' rather than 'demonstrating learning' (Hyland, 1990, p. 285).

Proponents of the process approach to writing believe that traditional assessment techniques are often incongruent with classroom writing practices (Lucas, 2007). The standardized written test given at the end of the school term is seen as particularly antithesis to the process approach to writing (Moya & O'Malley, 1994). So, writing experts have begun to explore new means. Dynamic assessment (henceforth, DA), as a new way of assessing in the field of testing, argues that important information about a person's abilities can be learned by offering assistance during the assessment itself. In fact, not only can DA provide a different picture of an individual's abilities, it can also help to develop those abilities. DA, hence, aims at the integration of assessment and instruction to promote learner development. Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) consider DA as a paradigm shift towards a new philosophy of assessment that focuses on helping individuals to develop through intervention.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Assessing Writing and Dynamic Assessment

According to Weigle (2002) "The ability to write effectively is becoming increasingly important in our global community" and as a result instruction in writing becomes more important "in both second- and foreign-language education" (p. 1). Weigle (2007) also considers assessment of student writing as an essential task for writing teachers. So, besides instruction, assessment has also gained the key role for writing teachers. In fact, teachers often feel that assessment is a central aspect of teaching that has the potential to be beneficial to both teacher and students. Ellis (2009) refers to the fact that what actually individuals are expected to do with the corrections provided for them is important. Students may simply be given back their corrected texts and then simply ignore the corrections or they may be required to pay close attention to those corrections. He believes only the second issue is effective since it makes the individuals more aware of their problems.

As Brown (2004, p. 218) notes, "the assessment of writing is no simple task". When we look back at writing assessment in the 20th century, we see a number of phenomena. These include the rise in the popularity of the so-called

'objective tests' that aimed at measuring writing ability through multiple-choice tests; the subsequent movement by writing teachers was an aim to measure writing ability through actual writing; and the next movement was towards portfolios, as a reaction to the 'one-shot' approach to essay testing. In fact, dissatisfaction towards previous approaches to writing appeared in different ways and as a result different ways of assessment and instruction were made. Testing specialists have called for a closer integration of assessment and instruction for a long time (Bachman & Cohen 1998; Lantolf & Poehner, 2007). DA is the emergence of new ways of thinking that result from an individual's engagement in activities where he or she is supported by interactions with others. It posits a qualitatively different way of thinking about assessment from how it was traditionally understood by classroom teachers and researchers (Poehner, 2008).

DA is grounded in the theory of mental development elaborated by the Russian psychologist, L. S. Vygotsky. Understanding the processes of development to help individuals overcome difficulties and to support their ongoing development is not possible through mere observation of solo performance. Instead, active collaboration with individuals simultaneously reveals the full range of their abilities and promotes their development. In educational contexts, this means that assessment – understanding learners' abilities – and instruction – supporting learner development – are integrated activities. This new pedagogical approach has come to be known as DA. Bitchener and Knoch (2008) believe that student motivation is more likely to be gained if teachers negotiate with their students about which features they will focus on, about the type of feedback that will be given and about what the students will be expected to do in response to the feedback. Based on Bitchener and Knoch's study negotiation with individuals on the type of feedback is considered as a positive point in promoting students' abilities. DA requires the examiner to mediate the examinee's performance during the assessment itself through the use of prompts, hints, and questions (Poehner, 2008). In this way, the focus of the assessment shifts from examinee's success or failure at completing a given task to an analysis of the amount and kinds of assistance they required. Matsumura and Hann (2004) have done a study on EFL writing classes. They found that it is the pivotal responsibility of the teacher to ensure effective learning by providing classroom feedback methods that are matched to students' feedback preferences.

Many studies of DA are done regarding at-risk students. Most of these studies revealed the effectiveness of this approach for these students. Schneider and Ganschow (2000), for example, suggest the potential usefulness of DA procedures in helping at-risk L2 learners, particularly those with problems arising from dyslexia. Kozulin and Garb (2002) have done a DA study on their participants' ESL reading comprehension skills. It should be noted that the goal of this mediation stage was not simply to improve learners' performance on the posttest, but to promote development.

Poehner (2009, p. 481) provided an eight-step scale for interventions based on which the teacher can mediate the learners:

1. Pause.
2. Repeat the whole phrase questioningly.
3. Repeat just the part of the sentence with the error.
4. Teacher asks, "What is wrong with that sentence?"
5. Teacher points out the incorrect word.
6. Teacher asks either/or question.
7. Teacher identifies the correct answer.
8. Teacher explains why.

B. Using Reflective Report in Dynamic Assessment (DA)

Education represents one of the primary contexts where DA has been applied (Haywood & Lidz, 2007). The researchers used different techniques in this regard. Carslon and Wiedl (1992) have developed various levels of standardized verbalization prompts designed in some cases to encourage learners to think aloud so that the researchers can better assess where the problems occur during task solution. The results of this study revealed that, the use of verbalization has been particularly successful with a variety of learners.

According to Tzuriel (2000) one of the goals in DA is to change learners' impulsive style to a reflective mode of responding, so throughout the present study it was tried to make individuals reflect on the process of their writing. Weigle (2002) believes many teachers like to have students include their reflections on the process they went through to create their final works. In many alternative ways of assessment like portfolios, this takes the form of a reflective essay, which introduces the reader to the contents of the students' writings and frequently provides insights into a student's self-assessment of his or her writing strategies and strengths and weaknesses in writing. Reflective essays have the advantage of giving students the opportunity to explain to their evaluators what they have learned and why they included certain pieces, which provide them with an opportunity to develop their self-awareness and to practice self-assessment. This practice encourages students to become more actively involved in and take responsibility for their own learning (Koegler, 2000; Rosier, 2002). Reflective report may include asking learners to present a report on how they did their writing. The learners may be asked to reflect on their performance and evaluate it or they may be asked comments on how they might improve their writing. The information which is provided for teacher in this way can help to recognize the problematic areas for each writer. It can also help to gain an insight on the mental processes of the learners.

This study explores the effectiveness of the application of DA to an L2 learning context. In this text, we are trying to find the answers to the following questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between conventional and DA methods of teaching and assessing in a narrative writing?
2. What are the areas of difficulty as reported by students in their reflective reports?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants in this study included 45 intermediate level female students who were studying in Farzane Sazan Institute in Sari. Their age ranged from 14 to 18. To check the proficiency level as well as the homogeneity of the two groups Nelson test was used by the researcher. These students were from two intact classes, with 23 individuals in the experimental group and 22 students in the comparison group. The experimental and comparison groups were randomly assigned by the researcher in this study. In the experimental group, one student was excluded because she was often absent throughout the treatment sessions.

B. Materials

The instruments used to collect data included:

- (1) A general proficiency test, Nelson 200 A, which comprised 50 multiple choice grammar and vocabulary items.
- (2) Narrative Prompts: About 100 narrative prompts were taken from the Internet by the researcher. According to Ummel-Ingram (2004) narration is more suitable to this proficiency level than other types of writing. The researcher selected eight topics for this study. Then two of these topics were randomly chosen; one as a pre-test and one as a post-test. The other six remaining topics were given to the students one by one every other session to be written at home. The students were asked to write about 150 to 200 words for each of the topics in about thirty minutes.
- (3) Reflective Report: Individuals in both groups were asked to provide their reflective reports based on their problems in writing process and what they had learned in the previous session. Reflective reports were gathered from individuals every session. On the whole, there were twelve reflective reports for each individual in this study. The researcher analyzed these reflective reports and tried to give individuals feedback based on them. The analysis of the reflective reports also aimed to find if there was any improvement in each person's writing based on writing these reports.
- (4) Rating scale: In order to score students' papers, Jacobs, Hartfleb, Hughey, and Wormuths' (1981) analytical scale was used. The important categories in this scale includes: content, organization, language use, vocabulary, and mechanics.

To ensure the reliability of the scores the students received based on the scale, two raters scored the students' papers on both pre-test and post-test. One of the raters was the researcher and the other an English Translation graduate student. The correlation coefficients between the raters for the pre-test was 0.89 and for the post-test was 0.94, using Pearson Product formula, were high enough (Hyland, 2003).

C. Procedures

Having collected the first writing of participants as the pre-test, the two groups went through different treatments of DA and conventional methods. To understand students' problems, feelings and needs better and to provide them with the best types of hints they needed, individuals in both groups were asked to write reflective reports which mainly focused on their writing process. After the treatment there was another topic to write about in the class and this was regarded as the post-test.

1. DA Group

The researcher in this group collected, corrected and selected two of the papers. To do this, she considered their reflective reports and the most obvious problems in most of the writing papers. One writing was selected as the best and one as the worst from among the written papers for the next session. The researcher typed them and brought a copy of them to class. She tried to cover the writing papers of each student at least once in the class.

After distributing the papers among the students, the researcher asked one person to read a sentence from the beginning or she herself did the task. And then asked students whether there was any problem regarding that sentence or not. To clarify how she made the treatment in this group, she recorded some parts of their speech throughout the treatment. Using the DA interventions classified by Poehner (2009), the researcher provided feedbacks throughout the treatment. This scale was ordered from the indirect types of feedback to the direct ones. When students could not correct themselves or when they couldn't get why they were wrong, the teacher felt the need to explain for the students the reasons behind each answer. To clarify the situation an example is provided below:

"I said who can called me at this time" this was a sentence in one of the writing papers. The teacher (T) asked one of the students (Ss) to read this sentence. (R and M refer to two of the students, Roya & Maryam).

R: I said who can called me at this time.

T: I said who can called me at this time?

T: PAUSE

T: I said who can called me at this time. Is it Ok?

Ss: no

Ss: can call

T: so, it is call, not called. Any other problem?

M: told

R: wondered

T: I wondered, I asked myself. I wondered who could call me at this time.

At first, the teacher repeated the sentence **questioningly** and when she didn't get any feedback from students, she repeated the whole sentence and asked students whether it was ok. The students seemed to find some problems in this sentence. So, they corrected the mistake themselves as "*can call*". This shows that their problem with using the simple form of the verbs after modal verbs like "*can*" is not deep. The teacher asked them of other possible problems. As you see, they identified the next problem without any help from the teacher. They suggested other words, one of them said "*told*" but immediately after that another one (R) suggested "*wondered*" and the teacher confirmed her. To make other students understand the point, she provided a meaning for "*wondered*" as you see above. There was also another problem here. The whole sentence is past, so students should use "*can call me*" in the past form. It seems that students didn't notice the problem, so the teacher herself corrected it while she was repeating the sentence. To make students aware of such correction, she brought some explanation for what she did, and told them it should be "*could*" because it happened in the past. She corrected the word herself because the students seemed not to notice the wrong form of the word and the researcher felt the need to explicitly correct it herself and bring the reason behind.

As you see, the teacher should not necessarily follow these steps one after the other obligatorily; the researcher may skip some steps based on the reactions of individuals in her class. But there is no change in the order. The writing papers of all individuals were read and discussed in the class the same way. The researcher kept a copy of each person's writing and reflective reports for herself in case of need for further investigation. Then she gave them back to make the students more aware of their own problems in writing based on what was discussed in the class.

The treatment with this group continued like this with all of the six topics. The researcher also discussed the problematic areas they mentioned in their reflective reports to ensure them that she paid attention to the reports.

2. Conventional Group

Individuals in this group were assigned to write about one topic at home and bring it for the next session. The teacher revised their papers, corrected their errors and gave them back in the following session. This was repeated for all sessions and the students wrote on all six topics and received feedback from the teacher on their writing papers. In providing feedback, their reflections in their reports were considered and some of their problems mentioned in their reports were also discussed in class.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section is divided into two parts. The first part offers quantitative data to answer the first research question.

The second part, the qualitative section, used the reflective reports provided by DA group together with their writing papers to see their feelings and how they progressed in their writing.

Section A: Quantitative Analysis

Part One. Descriptive Analysis of the Data and Results of the Pre-test

At first, the results of the descriptive analyses for the Nelson test and pre-test of writing are presented. The Nelson test was given to all the students in these two groups in the first session to ensure their homogeneity although they were considered as homogeneous based on the exams held in the institute at the end of each semester. The results of the descriptive analysis for the Nelson test are given in Table 1.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE NESLSON TEST PRIOR TO THE TREATMENT

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Nelson test for DA	22	24	32	28.23	2.844
Nelson test for Conventional	22	24	32	27.59	2.443
Valid N(listwise)	22				

As can be seen in this table, the mean score for these two groups, DA and conventional groups are 28.23 and 27.59, which are very close to each other. The researcher presented this table here to show their homogeneity prior to the treatment. This is also obvious by looking at the amounts observed for skewness (0.10 and 0.20) and kurtosis (1.36 and 0.85) which do not exceed +2 or -2 (Bachman, 2004). This is also revealed in the data of their writing papers which was gathered from them as pre-test. To clarify the subject more, the results of descriptive statistics concerning their pre-tests are provided in Table 2 below:

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF WRITING TEST BEFORE THE TREATMENT

	N	Minimum	maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
DA-pretest scores	22	63	83	70.95	5.79
Conventional-pretest scores	22	63	80	71.45	4.17
Valid N (listwise)	22				

As it is obvious in this table, the mean score for the pre-test of these two groups in DA and conventional groups are 70.95 and 71.45 which are very close. The scores obtained for Standard Deviation in DA and conventional groups are 5.79 and 4.17 which are near. The amounts observed for skewness (0.42 and 0.22) and kurtosis (0.7 and 0.02) do not exceed +2 and -2 (Bachman, 2004). So, these statistics can assure us of two homogeneous groups.

Although the number of students in each group was equal and so we had a balanced design, the equality of variances of the groups was assured by the help of Levene's Test. As it is obvious in the following table (Table 3), the observed amount for p (0.025) is more than the significant value of 0.05. This reveals that the two groups are equal in their variances and so the assumption of the equality of variances could be met for a parametric Independent Samples t -test.

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST RESULT FOR THE PRE-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-test Equal variances assumed	5.38	0.025	-0.22	40	0.82
Equal variances not assumed			-0.21	33.27	0.82

In Table 3 the Independent Samples t -test for the results of the pre-test is calculated. The t value found for the t -test of the pre-test with degrees of freedom of 40 for these two groups is 0.22 which is smaller than critical value of 2.02. This reveals that the null hypothesis of no difference among the two groups cannot be rejected. This can also be shown if we look at the observed amount of significance (0.82), which is more than the specified level of significance (0.05). It can be concluded that the two groups were not significantly different prior to the treatment.

Part 2. Results and Discussions for the Post-test

After giving the specified treatments to each of the two groups, the post-test was given to the students. The results of the descriptive statistics are given in Table 4.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE RESULTS OF THE WRITING TEST AFTER THE EXPERIMENT

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
DA post-test score	22	76	92	82.73	5.24
conventional post test score	22	63	86	75.05	5.90
Valid N (listwise)	22				

As it is obvious in Table 4 the mean scores for the DA and the conventional group (82.73 and 75.05) are not close anymore. It seems the two groups are not homogenous in their post-test, though the respective standard deviations for the groups (5.24 and 5.90) are still very close. Compared with the pre-test data, the mean score for DA group has increased more than that obtained from conventional group. Although the standard deviations for the two groups did not differ much from those in the pre-test, its value decreased in DA group and increased in conventional group. It shows that the variability among the students in DA reduced but its value increased for conventional group.

Quantitative Research Question 1:

The first research question addressed the effect of DA on improving writing skill of intermediate level students. To probe its corresponding null hypothesis, the researcher used an independent samples t -test to compare their mean scores after the treatment (Table 5).

TABLE 5
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE POST-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-test Equal variances assumed	.01	.91	4.46	40	.00
Equal variances not assumed			4.48	39.98	.00

The findings, (t (40) = 4.46, $p < 0.01$), show the amount observed value for t with degrees of freedom of 40 is 4.46 which is more than the critical amount of 2.7 ($p < 0.01$). So the null hypothesis of no difference between the post-tests of DA and conventional groups is rejected.

There may be so many reasons involved which led to the effective instructions in the DA group compared with the conventional group. The individuals in DA may have progressed as a result of the predetermined steps in DA through which the teacher by considering their emotions and their difficulties in writing from their own points of view provided them with suitable feedback. This way they became more conscious about their problems and they tried to remove them.

The other point is that the teacher in DA tried to consider students' emotions and the problems observed by themselves in this regard. This way they felt better and they could express their ideas in a more relaxed way through their reflective reports. They also felt better because they could express anything they liked without their friends knowing anything about. It was even more obvious for shy students who talked less in class. This way they were more relaxed in expressing their feelings.

In order to see whether writing reflective reports have any effect on improving the individuals' writing ability in these two groups, two paired t-tests were conducted.

TABLE 6
PAIRED T-TEST FOR DA

TABLE 4. TEST FOR DA								
	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 DA	-11.773	4.639	.989	-13.829	-9.716	-11.904	21	.000

The t value found for DA with degrees of freedom of 21 is 11.9 which exceed the critical value of 2.83 ($p < 0.01$). Such result reveals that writing reflective reports in this group can increase their writing abilities (Table 6).

To see whether writing reflective reports by itself can improve students' writing skills in the conventional group, another paired t-test was done which compared the mean values for pre-test and post-test of conventional group (Table 7). The t obtained value with degrees of freedom of 21 is 2.72 which is lower than its critical value (2.83, $p < 0.01$). Such result implicitly reveals that writing reflective reports by itself is not significantly effective in improving the writing abilities of students.

TABLE 7
PAIRED T-TESTS FOR CONVENTIONAL GROUP

		Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower				Upper
Pair 2	Conv	-3.591	6.185	1.319	-6.333	-.849	-2.723	21	.000

That may be because reflective reports are not effective by themselves and they should be used with some other effective methods like DA. It seems those individuals in conventional group who did not discuss their problems with the teacher in class were even less interested in writing reflective reports. Their reflective reports were shorter in the length and contained one or two sentences as if those in this group found no use in writing such reports. It seems that the individuals in DA could see more of the effect of reflective reports while those in conventional group were not aware of its use and that's why they just wrote one or two sentences to show their problems in writing.

Section B: Qualitative Analysis

In an attempt to show what actually happens as a result of this research, the following research question was posed: What are the areas of difficulty as reported by students in their reflective reports?

To answer this research question, the researcher asked students to cite their impressions and problems in writing freely in their reflective reports. The analysis of reflective reports was done just for DA group because the only group which showed progress was this group. It assumed that if students reflect on their own work while they write and also after getting the feedback from teacher in class, they will find their problematic areas in writing better. Based on subjects' reflective reports, some problematic criteria are listed here. The observed amounts for each of these criteria were calculated on the basis that these factors were mentioned at least once in individuals' reflective reports.

► Grammar

Focusing on students' reflective reports, it was revealed that almost 68.2 percent of students (15 out of 22) considered language use to be as the most important and problematic section in their writing. They expressed this in different words.

Some of them wrote in their reflective reports that:

- *It is a good idea to correct grammar mistakes.*
- *It is good at teaching grammar.*

Some others identified their problems in writing:

- *I have problem in the exchange of tense.*

► Content

Almost 63.6 percent of students (14 out of 22) considered topic as one of the important criterion in their reports.

- *Some subjects are not good and they are not exciting. So I can't write a lot.*

As you see in this sentence, the student related the topic to the length of her writing and considered it as one important factor.

It seems more advanced students paid more attention to content compared with others. In their reflective reports they asked questions regarding "how to start their writing" or "how to make the best effect on the reader from the beginning by providing a good introduction".

► Appropriate and Effective Vocabulary

It was also found that some students believed vocabulary and word selection are very important criteria in writing. 59.1 percent of students referred to vocabulary in most of their reflective reports.

- *I don't know many vocabularies. So, I can't speak or write very well.*
- *I forget words easily.*
- *I have problem in using the word. (when to use which word) I mean finding the best words.*

► **Organization**

About 27.3 percent of students regarded organization and connection of sentences as another effective factor in their writings.

► **Spelling and Capitalization**

Two other criteria referred to by students are spelling and capitalization as major factors in mechanics. Students, 22.7 percent, referred to these two in their reports.

- *When we should bring capital letters?*
- *I have problems with spelling the words.*

Students participating in DA group resorted to different criteria to define their problems in writing papers. These criteria were mainly related to the five mentioned criteria in Jacob, et al's (1981) category. It may be because of the fact that in the very first session the researcher explained these five factors and the extent they were important in their scores.

Careful observation of the data revealed that the subjects' level of language proficiency affected their selected criteria and the importance they gave to those criteria to a great extent. Although most of the students of the low and average proficiency levels were mainly obsessed with surface-level problems, those in higher levels realized that their writings should meet a wide variety of criteria, including content and organization, to be known as a good piece of writing.

Although short by themselves, reflective reports of DA were longer compared with those of conventional group. That may be because individuals in DA could see more of the effect of reflective reports while those in conventional group were not aware of its use and that's why they just wrote one or two sentences to show their problems in writing.

Overall, the findings of this very study demonstrated the effectiveness and positive value of DA in enhancing writing skills of intermediate level students. The results of this study confirmed those studies which investigated the effectiveness of DA in other skills. Kozulin and Garb (2002), for example, have done a DA study on their participants' ESL reading comprehension skills.

The result of this study also corroborated that by Poehner (2005) who has done his study on the effectiveness of applying a DA procedure to speaking. The results also confirm those of Poehner (2009) who found the effectiveness of Group-DA.

V. CONCLUSION

With regard to the highlighted importance of learning writing skill in English classes, the present study aimed at comparing two different methods of teaching and assessing writing namely, DA and conventional methods, to see if they had any effect on the students' writing proficiency. It was also an attempt to see whether the applied technique (reflective report) in these two groups had any effect on their writing proficiency. As can be seen from the results of the study, DA had priority over the other conventional method in the extent to which it helped students to improve their writing. It was also implicitly found that writing reflective report on itself cannot help individuals in improving their writing abilities. To investigate individuals' problems better, the researcher analyzed their reflective reports in DA. She found that the most important criteria from their own views were: grammar, content, vocabulary selection, organizing text, spelling and punctuation.

Based on the obtained results, DA can be applied in promoting various writing skills. Teachers should keep in mind not to treat texts as products; rather they should try to view students' writing as works in progress and provide appropriate feedback to facilitate successful revision by considering how much they need help from the teacher. So, teachers must be aware that revision alone does not guarantee positive changes in writing quality. Teachers should try to make the individuals more conscious of their problems in writing. The most important thing is that the teacher should consider every body's reaction and needs to provide them with the best type of feedback. Interested teachers can also use reflective reports to know their students' problems in writing better. This way, they can provide more appropriate feedbacks for their students. But, they should make sure that their students find some use in writing such reports. Finally, further research may address the effectiveness of DA in other skills. Finding the efficacy of Group-DA and computerized DA are also suggested as future avenues of research.

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Semantic Wave of Grammatical Metaphor: Dialogue between SFL and LCT

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Abstract—This paper is to explore the definition about the congruency and metaphoricity of Grammatical Metaphor in relation to the Semantics of Legitimation Code Theory which derives from the notion of Grammatical Metaphor and Technicality of Systemic Functional Linguistics, and further to look into relations between congruent form, metaphorical form within grammatical metaphor as process and semantic gravity and semantic density. It is concluded that the process of ideational metaphor is characterized as weakening semantic gravity and strengthening semantic density and that of interpersonal metaphor as strengthening semantic gravity and weakening semantic density. The congruent form is manifested with weak grammaticality and weak verticality and metaphorical form with strong grammaticality and verticality so as to provide a legitimate defining evidence for the definition of grammatical metaphor's congruency and metaphoricity.

Index Terms—Legitimate Code Theory, Grammatical Metaphor, semantic gravity, semantic density, semantic wave

I. INTRODUCTION

It has been 30 years since the notion of Grammatical Metaphor (hereafter GM) was proposed by Halliday, M.A.K. in the first edition of *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. Many attempts are made from different perspectives to elaborate its semantic features, systemic organizations, metaphoric variations, transferring directions and so forth (Simon-Vandenberg, A.M. et al., 2003). Hence, the development of GM explorations have undergone three stages as hold by Zhang and Dong(2014), namely, functional stage, stratificational and functional stage, and systemic stratificational and functional stage. Although GM is growing much more refined and delicate, its fundamental definition of congruency and metaphoricity still stays controversial and further clarified. "The current explorations and discussions are based mainly on within systemic functional linguistics. "New findings may be available if research on GM is undertaken from an interdisciplinary or trans-disciplinary perspective" (Zhang & Dong,2014, p.42).Therefore, based on the former relevant researches, this paper is to illustrate the semantic wave of GM within the theoretical framework of Legitimation Code Theory and intended to answer the following questions:

- (1) What is the theoretical foundation of GM's Semantic Wave?
- (2) What is the distinctive feature of GM variant?
- (3) What significance the Semantic Wave plays towards the systemic functional linguistics?

II. LEGITIMATION CODE THEORY

Bernsteinian sociology of education is keeping an interactive dialogue with Systemic Functional Linguistics (hereafter, SFL), which bridges a way to interdisciplinary research between SFL and sociology of education. SFL, particularly, is regarding its counterpart as the theoretical evidence. Bernstein puts forward such linguistic notions as code and knowledge structure which are under fierce focus within researching field of SFL researchers (Halliday, 1978; Hasan, 2005, 2009; Martin, 2011; Painter, 1999; Hood, 2011; Zhang, 2011; Tang, 2014). Bernstein (1990) believes that code is a set of mediating principles, tacitly selecting and integrating relevant meanings, realizing forms and involving contexts. Code is at gaze for its semantic features and orientations and he establishes a dichotomy of codes, that is, restricted code and elaborated code. From linguistic level of predicting possibilities of speaker organizing his meaning with syntactic elements, restricted code is much more probable in linguistic forms than elaborated code (Bernstein, 1971/2003).

Grounding on the code theory, Bernstein divides discourse into horizontal discourse, which refers to concrete, segmentally organized structures, dependent on specific context, and vertical discourse, which refers to coherent, explicitly systematic organizations of hierarchical structures. Vertical discourse is in turn divided into horizontal knowledge structure and hierarchical knowledge structures which differentiates knowledge of natural science from that of human science.

With reference to Bernstein and Bourdieu, sociologist of education Karl Maton constructed the Legitimation Code

Theory (hereafter LCT) which entails five items of legitimation codes, respectively defined by the Autonomy, Density, Specialization, Temporality and Semantics. Of them, this paper is to simply focus on the Semantics of LCT in close relation to SFL. The Semantics of LCT is mainly concerned with the regularity of semantic changes manifested through language in order to provide theoretical evidence for exploring cumulative construction of knowledge. However, this principle of Semantics derives itself from the notion of GM in SFL. Maton (2011, p.65) has ever stated that “this dimension comes from contacts with systemic functional linguistics, particularly, the notion of grammatical metaphor and technicality”. In other words, the Semantics in LCT in fact stays in rapport with the basic principles of semantic functions of SFL, which is concerned with the constellations of meaning potential within a semantic system on the part of social behavior. Enabling constellations of Semantics maps the relation realized between context and text, which thus corresponds to that between congruent form and metaphoric form in GM. As a result, the Semantics of LCT sets up new dimension for GM to probe into its working definition and intrinsic systemic properties.

III. GM

As a resource of expanding semantic potential, GM is manifested into two different representations at the level of lexicogrammatical level: congruent form versus metaphorical form. Of them, congruent form is the prototypical unmarked natural realization, whereas metaphorical form is unprototypical marked unnatural realization (Halliday, 1985, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, 2014). At different stages, Halliday has ever elaborated the markedness, stratum, function of GM in terms of probabilistic and systemic principles, emphasizing the systemic syndrome and metaphorical classification of 13 forms (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999).

A. *The Defining Dimension of GM*

In terms of the definition of GM, two dimensions can be concluded to define GM: the one is to approach from form to meaning as far as the meaning and system of congruent form and grammatical form are concerned; highlighting that form is to realize meaning. The other is to approach from meaning to form as far as the structure and meaning of congruent and grammatical form are concerned; highlighting that meaning is to select form. It is apparent that GM is not a notion of form but that of meaning; GM is not only an evolving product of evolution, but also an evolving process. Therefore, GM is defined in SFL from top-down direction, that is to say, it is approached from semantic level to lexicogrammatical realization and further involve the phonological expressions. However, it is possible to explore upward from form since phonological expressions manifest the semantic junctions of meaning potential. It is controversial that GM is variety of form or meaning (He, 2008). Form is the realization of meaning because semantic junctions provide semogenesis environment for form. In other word, meaning is the content while form is instance. In this way it could be that one form may be realizing two meaning potentials. On the other hand, approaching from form also seems to conform to the fuzzy definition of GM because one domain of wording may be realized within two semantic domains.

B. *The Definition of Congruent Form and Metaphorical Form*

In SFL, to define GM has to involve the process of semantic evolution between congruent semantic domain and metaphorical semantic domain. The semantic dimension between congruent form and metaphorical form is elaborated from such aspects as semantic agnation, transgrammatical semantic shift, semantic junction, semantic coupling and so forth (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999), therefore, such intrinsic features as probability, rank scale, systemcity and markedness are naturally taken as the visible criteria to define the distinctions between congruent form and metaphorical form. In this way, the semantic features of two semantic domains are realized respectively as sequence, figure, element at semantic level and they are in turn realized as clause complex, clause, group (phrase), word, phoneme (morpheme) at lexicogrammatical level. When sequence is realized as clause complex, figure as clause, element as group or phrase, semantic potential is realized correspondingly at each level as a result of congruent form; when a mismatch occurs between semantic stratum and lexicogrammatical stratum, metaphorical form is brought forth as a result of sequence realized as clause, figure as group or phrase, element as word. The mismatch between shift of semantic potential and textual instantiation originated from the tension between semantic stratum and lexicogrammatical stratum in the process of evolution, which enables meaning potential to make different choices, leads to the loss or add-up of information and gives rise to metaphoric discourse or text.

C. *Discussion*

It is taken for granted that the congruent form in SFL has been defined as the prototypical and unmarked representation of meaning potential and the metaphorical form as the unprototypical and marked form. It is true that the definition of GM has been made a probabilistic manifestation, but it is still common sense lexicogrammatically and lack of an explicitly specified definition, which causes many doubts and controversies within or outside functional linguistics, e.g. Fawcett (2006), Hou (2008). Zhu (2006) claims that GM stays still under controversy for its inexplicit definition and Zhang and Dong (2014, p.41) hold that the meaning of process that congruent form and metaphorical form evolve are determined not by their linguistic features but in terms of the linguistically realized features of contextual variables.

IV. SEMANTIC GRAVITY AND SEMANTIC DENSITY

In terms of LCT, social behaviors and practices are constructed into semantic structures by Semantics which further conceptualizes their organizing principles in codes consisting of semantic gravity and semantic density. Semantic gravity refers to the degree meaning is related to its context, thus the stronger the gravity becomes, the more dependent meaning is on its context; the weaker the gravity turns, the less dependent meanings is on its context. By contrast, semantic density refers to the degree meaning is condensed in the social-cultural behavior. The stronger the density becomes, more meaning are condensed; the weaker the density turns, less meaning are condensed.

Semantic gravity and semantic density describe the relation the meaning potential of various social-cultural semiotics in their social-cultural behaviors bears with its semantic features as well as its context, and different context and semantic relations are manifested as different semantic waves. Maton (2013, 2014) draws three different semantic profiles as follows:

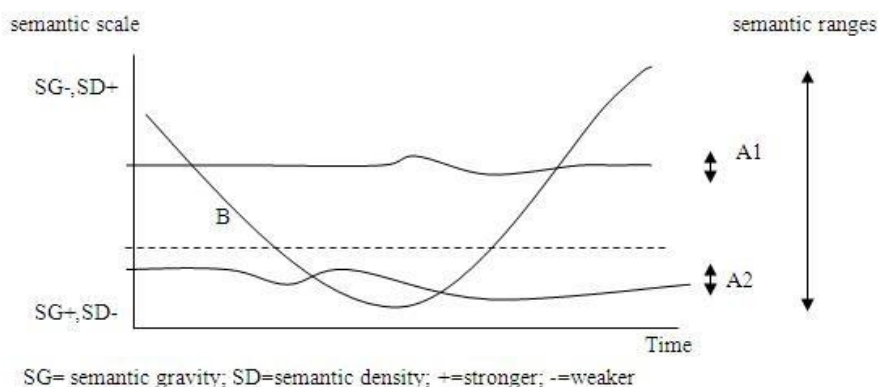


Figure 1 Semantic Wave and Semantic Profile

The vertical axis refers to the semantic scale and horizontal axis means the time line. It is represented as SG+ when semantic gravity strengthens and SG- when weakening. When semantic density strengthens, it is represented as SD+ and SD- when it is weakening semantic density. Thus, when semantic density is strengthening, semantic gravity is weakening and vice versa. They are manifested as moving naturally within two poles between SG+/SD- and SG-/SD+. In this way, the semantic wave of linguistic behavior is moving up and down within the two poles as time passes by.

As the Figure1 above demonstrates, meaning potential of A1 could be regarded as moving on a certain scale and manifesting a limited semantic range, characterized of strong semantic density and weak semantic gravity (SD+, SG-) and reflecting less dependence on its context. Comparatively, meaning potential of A2 could be taken as stronger semantic gravity and weaker semantic density with higher dependence on its context. Compared with A1 and A2, B manifests its regularity of change in sharp turns, semantic gravity from weakening to strengthening and then weakening while semantic density from strengthening to weakening and then strengthening, which illustrates its strong dependency their meaning shows upon context.

A. The Gravity and Density of GM

The semantics of LCT is closely related to the context of situation where GM is construed and enacted. Therefore, the semantic gravity and semantic density can be applied to elaborate the contextual features the congruent form and metaphorical form give rise to, and also help to provide support for the definition of GM. See the following examples:

- (1) We saw them arrive at the top of mountain on the fifth day.
- (2) The fifth day saw them arrive at the top of mountain.
- (3) Their arrival at the top of mountain occurs on the fifth day.

In terms of grammatical features of congruent form and metaphorical form within the framework of SFL, example (1) is the congruent form, whereas example (2) and (3) are metaphorical forms. The distinctions of them lie in the realization of grammatical syndrome, particularly, the circumstantial element *the fifth day* and the process group *arrive at*. As we know, the element of grammatical metaphor in example(2) lies in the subject *the fifth day* which is congruently construed as the circumstance of temporality in the clause, which is in this manner against the common sense that in the mental process participant *sensor* should be normally as nominal group rather than temporal circumstance. In example(3), the element of grammatical metaphor lies in the abstract nominal group *their arrival* which is nominalised as participant realizing the semantic junction of process and participant and at the same time, the change of process type also co-occurs. It seems impossible to make a further differentiation on the degree of metaphoricity of the three examples above within current SFL.

However, in combination with the notion of Semantics in LCT as illustrated above, the semantic gravity and semantic density of the three examples can be taken to see which one is closer to the congruent form or metaphorical form. In example (1), no any uncommon sense elements occur to the clausal participants, process groups or circumstantial elements, therefore, its semantic gravity is strongest and semantic density is lowest which can be represented as

SG+,SD-; in example (2), any metaphorical elements do not occur either except the participant which should have been nominal in common sense instead of temporal circumstance. "In vertical discourse, the classification and composition of uncommon sense relies on entities" (Martin, 2007, p.53). Here it can be seen that some decrease of semantic gravity happens to example (2) but no change co-occurs to its semantic density, which can be represented as SG↓,SD-; in example(3), due to some co-occurrence of nominalised elements and process types which lead to add-up of clausal information, the semantic gravity is weakened more sharply and semantic density strengthens more highly, which can be represented as SG-,SD+.

Please see the following three daily texts chosen at random on line, one is Chinese and others are translated into English by online translating tools of Baidu and Youdao:

原文：如果我是科学家，我一定会去了解恐龙的生活，去观看恐龙的世界，去探求它们灭亡的原因，为人类的生存发展提供借鉴。

Yuan weng: ru guo wo shi kexuejia,wo yi ding hui qu le jie konglong de shenghuo, qu guankan konglong shijie, qu tanqiu tamen miewang de yuanyin, wei renlei de shengcun fazhan tigong jiejian.

Text 1. (Baidu) If I were a scientist, I will① go to the understanding of dinosaur life, to see the dinosaur world, causes to ②find they perish (to find the causes they perish), and provide reference for human survival and development.

Text 2. (Youdao) If I were a scientist, I would have to③ understand what the dinosaur life is, to see a world of dinosaurs, to ④explore the cause of their destruction, serve as a reference for human survival and development.

In comparison with differences in each target text, it can be found out in underlined parts that line ①in text 1 is material process, with logical structure of grammatical metaphor and postmodifier; line ③ in text 2 is mental process, with embedding projection which is accordingly closer to congruent form because its semantic gravity is stronger and semantic density weaker. Line ② in text 2 meets with grammatical mistakes which should be corrected into realizing material process with embedding structure for logical relation as shown in bracket. Similarly, line ④ is also material process, with logical relation of nominalization and postmodifier. Comparatively, line ② is closer to congruent form for its stronger semantic gravity and weaker semantic density, namely, SG+, SD-. It is thus concluded that the relation between GM and its semantic gravity and semantic density is interpreted as follows:

(1) The clause is inclining to the congruent form when its semantic gravity is strengthened and semantic density weakened;

(2) The clause is more inclining to Metaphorical form when its semantic gravity is weakened and semantic density strengthened.

Thus, it can be concluded that the semantic wave of semantic gravity and semantic density realises, in full force as it is, the features of context and meaning potential where GM occurs.

B. Semantic Density, Gravity and GM

It is true that Karl Maton (2011) has ever mentioned that the notion of semantic wave derives from the relevant notions of GM and Technicality in SFL, particularly the GM, no detailed interpretation has ever been made to describe or elaborate in details the specific relation between semantic wave and GM. In terms of semantic gravity and semantic density within semantic wave, it can be seen that the notion of semantic gravity in fact deals with the relations of GM from semantic stratum to contextual stratum; the notion of semantic density deals with the relation of GM between lexicogrammatical stratum and phonological (graphological) stratum. As far as ideational metaphor and interpersonal metaphor in GM are concerned, ideational metaphor is congruently realized as downgrading shift in rank-scale from semantic sequence to figure to element (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p.719); that is to say, the wording process to realize the choice of meaning potential is manifesting in a top-down rank shift from clause complex to clause to group or phrase till word, characterizing of nominalised process. The metaphorical process of nominalization is actually a dynamic process of discursive choices meaning potential makes, with information loss or add-up discursively. In other word, it is a dynamic decontextualising and recontextualising process of semantic density strengthening consistently and semantic gravity weakening gradually. By contrast, the wording process of interpersonal metaphor is manifesting in an opposite direction, with a general trend of down-up rank shift, namely, from a word to group or phrase to clause, for example, *perhaps---may—I think—it is possible* (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). The upward process of interpersonal process is to expand its interpersonal system through adding up more specific meaning potentials as a result of specifying the interlocutor's orientation to subjective or objective appraisal, implicit or explicit stance, and so on. In the process the interpersonal variant is as a matter of fact reducing to its context, with weakened semantic gravity and strengthened semantic density. It is a dynamic process of recontextualisation and decontextualisation. In a word, ideational metaphor is realized as a semantic wave of SG-,SD+ while interpersonal metaphor is realized as a semantic wave of SG+,SD-.

C. Verticality, Grammaticality and GM

Halliday (1989) has ever pointed out that the distinctive organizing principle of spoken and written discourse lies in the aspects of grammatical complexity of spoken discourse and semantic density of written discourse. Martin (2013) has ever explored the knowledge as semantic meaning and defines the potential by which technical discourse strengthened

semantic density as power words, knowledge to construe grammatical metaphor as power grammar. Power words and power grammar reflect the features of power and relationship between the power and vertical sequence within which the semantic gravity and density construct a metaphorical process.

Bernstein divides discourse into horizontal discourse and vertical discourse. Vertical discourse is further divided into horizontal knowledge structure and hierarchical knowledge structure, in order to interpret the verticality and grammaticality of knowledge structure. In Bernsteinian sense, discourse and knowledge structure are at the same level of interface. Verticality (Maton & Muller, 2007, p.26) refers to “the degree to which the development of a knowledge structure is characterized by the integration and subsumption of knowledge into more overarching and generalizing propositions”. The grammaticality highlights the role played by what Bernstein terms the strength of ‘grammar’ or degree to which forms of knowledge exhibit ‘an explicit conceptual syntax capable of “relatively” precise empirical descriptions and/or of generating formal modeling of empirical relations’ (Muller, 1999, p.164). Moreover, “the notion of GM in SFL is an essential part for exploring vertical knowledge structure” (Zhang & Qing, 2010, p.15). For Bernstein, a fundamental distinction between what he called horizontal and vertical discourse is that the latter is integrated at the level of meanings allowing decontextualisation, the former at the level of (culturally specialized) segments binding the language to context (Muller, 2007). In his contrast between ‘everyday’ and ‘scientific’ taxonomies, Martin makes the same point. Muller holds that horizontal discourse realizes weak grammaticality of ordinal features; vertical discourse manifests a strong grammaticality of integrative features. Starting from the perspective of SFL, vertical discourse is closely related to GM to the extent that the uncommon sense organization of participants in vertical discourse depends on grammatical metaphor. If no grammatical metaphor, then no verticality occurs. That is to say, congruent form is weak in grammaticality and lower in verticality, whereas metaphorical form is strong in grammaticality and high in verticality. In other word, the lower in verticality and weak in grammaticality a text is manifesting, the more probable it is for congruent form to shift toward its metaphorical form; the higher in verticality and stronger in grammaticality, the less probable it is for metaphorical form to be shifted towards its congruent form, which leads to decontextualisation and recontextualisation simultaneously.

If V is to symbolize verticality, V+ and V- represent strong in verticality and weak in verticality respectively; G is to symbolize grammaticality, G+ and G- represent strong in grammaticality and weak in grammaticality respectively, CF refers to congruent form and MF refers to metaphorical form, a figure of relation between GM and discourse structure can be made clear as follows:

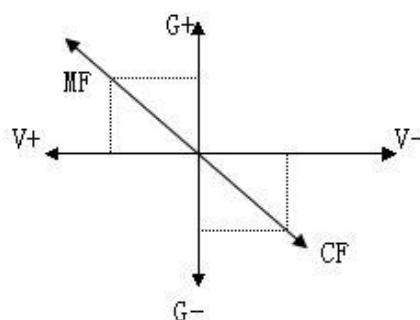


Figure 2 Grammaticality, Verticality and GM

It can be seen that the congruent form of SG+/SD- is easy to stand in a horizontal order with other segmental discourse structures for its weakness in grammaticality, however, without the power word of strengthening semantic density, it is of little probability to vertically integrate congruent form with other congruent forms into a metaphorical form at the level of lexicogrammatical stratum, namely, the transcategorization of the congruent to its metaphorical but a horizontal order of meaning potential at the lexicogrammatical stratum, which thus only leads to simple and prototypical horizontal discourse features in forming our commonsense knowledge. On the other hand, the metaphorical form of SG-/SD+ is hard to stand in a horizontal order with other congruent for metaphorical forms for its strong grammaticality. With semantically dense power words, the last access for integrating metaphorical form with other discourse forms can only be achieved through semantic integration or junction which leads to occurrence of metaphoricalised process and manifestation of inexplicit vertical discourse features and uncommon sense technicalised knowledge. Therefore, “who he is unable to use GM is excluded out of hierarchical knowledge structures and horizontal knowledge structures” (Maton, 2007, p.54-55).

V. CONCLUSION

This paper is to explore the definition about the congruency and metaphoricity of Grammatical Metaphor in relation to the Semantics of Legitimation Code Theory which derives from the notion of Grammatical Metaphor and Technicality of Systemic Functional Linguistics, and to look into relations between congruent form and metaphorical form within grammatical metaphor as process and semantic gravity and semantic density. It is concluded that the process of ideational metaphor is characterized as weakening semantic gravity and strengthening semantic density and

that of interpersonal metaphor as strengthening semantic gravity and weakening semantic density. The congruent form is manifesting with weak grammaticality and weak verticality, and metaphorical form with strong grammaticality and verticality so as to provide a legitimate defining evidence for the definition of grammatical metaphor's congruency and metaphoricity. Thus, the dialogue between SFL and Bernsteinian educational sociology provides the theoretical foundation for GM and semantic wave which turns back to maintain the ongoing dialogue between SFL and LCT at present.

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The Retention of Sinrilik Values in Teaching Local Language and Literature of Makassar

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Abstract—This study was conducted using descriptive research method-ex post facto. The use of descriptive methods used to observe directly empirical data contained within the field. While the ex post facto method used as the reason that the empirical data that has been observed in the oral literature of sinrilik documents. The values found in literature of sinrilik studied and classified into four parts: 1) the value of religion, 2) the value of ethics, 3) the value of education, 4) the value of aesthetic. The values contained in sinrilik certainly have a function to determine the character of ethnic community of Bugis Makassar. Values is exactly what will be taught to students can be presented as the form of special subjects that local content, and it can be applied to all subjects in school or outside of school. In addition, human values contain are also several strategies that can be adopted by the government and the community to defense values in oral literature. The strategy is a strategy intended direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategy is a strategy that can be done by the government in determine of a) Inventory and documentation b) Sinrilik as local content subjects in school c) development of the sinrilik perpetrators d) seminar on regional culture. While the indirect strategy is the strategy undertaken by the community include a) sinrilik inheritance, b) provide advice through sinrilik stories, c) broadcasting through media, d) involvement producer.

Index Terms—retention, Sinrilik values, teaching of the local language and literature, local content

I. INTRODUCTION

Sinrilik classified rhythmic prose in the oral literature of Makassar. Sinrilik is a story that was delivered in poetic and rhythmic, and played by an expert or a storyteller named Pasinrilik. In the narrative Sinrilik, a pasinrilik using musical instrument of kesok-kesok as suite.

Literature of Sinrilik is one of the cultural assets owned by the people of Makassar that has been passed down to hereditary. Makassar ethnic as owners' culture of sinrilik as a large tribe in South Sulawesi spread over several districts and cities. Sinrilik narration literary work is rich in character values that can be used as an example, not only teach about goodness and badness but also give a natural emphasis on positive character will be embedded in Makassar young generation, in particular, and the Indonesian in general. Of course, it can be a reference in the teaching of narrative literature values for the teaching of language and literature in the area of Makassar. Therefore, it is necessary to preservation efforts in the form of maintenance and development. It is necessary because one of the dimensions is quite serious in today's era of cultural globalization is the issue of retention values of the characters that exist in the culture of ethnic Bugis Makassar. However, in its development, narrative literature Sinrilik was left by the Makassar society itself, due to the advancement of science, technology, and modern art is increasingly varied.

Observing trends and attitudes towards its own culture, as described earlier, then there must be a step retention strategy must be taken to retain these values in order not to become extinct.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Literary Theory

In general, the theory is a scientific or systematic knowledge system which establishes the relationship between the adjustment patterns observed symptoms. The theory contains a description of the concept or the general laws of an object of knowledge of a particular viewpoint. A theory can be logically deduced and verified or disproved their validity

on the object or the observed symptoms. Literature is a creative activity. While literary theory, literary criticism and literary history are a branch of literature. Literature is divided into oral literature and written literature.

Oral Literature

Oral literature is part of a tradition that developed within the community who uses the language as the main medium. This oral literature first emerged and developed within the community rather than written literature. In daily life, this genre is usually spoken by a mother to her child, a storyteller to the audience, the teacher to the student or fellow members from the community to be hereditary. Oral literature also called folk literature, as it emerged and developed in the midst of ordinary people.

Oral Literature of Sinrilik

This section discusses an overview of oral literature of Sinrilik, which is based on a referral from a variety of sources. Sinrilik as one type of oral literature of Makassar developed in the ethnic community of Makassar society.

Sinrilik classified rhythmic prose in Makassar oral literature. Sinrilik is a story that was delivered in poetic and rhythmic, and played by an expert or a storyteller called Pasinrilik. In the narrative Sinrilik, a Pasinrilik using musical instrument kesok-kesok as suite. Sinrilik is an oral narrative tradition in the cultural repertoire of ethnic communities Makassar this present. However, its development is considered very slow.

According to Mangemba (in Lewa, 1996: 21), initially Sinrilik known as Kesok-kesok or Kerek-kerek Gallang. Kesok-kesok is a kind of fiddle with two strings were swiped. The strings usually use a stringed violin, but sometimes using a wire of telephone. The tool used to swipe made of horse tail feathers.

Opinions on Sinrilik forward some experts. Matthes (1885: 777) in his book *Makassarsch Nederlandsch Woodenboek* explains the meaning of Sinrilik is "Sinrilik bepald sinrilika, sort van gedicht byvergelijken med het mal. N. B. wanner zulk een sinrilik alnuodig gelezen, niet gezongen wordd, noemtmen die lalakung" (Sinrilik in some form of Sinrilika, a kind of poetry, can be likened to poetry in Malay. (NB if Sinrilik just read only and not sang, it is called Lalakung).

Parawansa, et al. (1992: 1-20) defines Sinrilik as arranged in a poetic story is told, perhaps more appropriately called sung / chanted by an expert, and it is typically accompanied by a musical instrument kesok-kesok similar fiddle.

The same meaning expressed Mangemba (cited in Lewa, 1996: 22) who argued that Sinrilik is a story that is arranged in a poetic or lyrics-prose, told (sung) by an expert (puppeteer in Javanese) and accompanied by a tool swiped, the named kesok-kesok (fiddle).

Basang and Salmah Djirong (1997: 71) suggested the definition of Sinrilik is as a kind of language. Rhythmic which depicts the ups and downs in the face of life and the challenges of life and the struggle and heroism. Therefore, sinrilik sung to the musical accompaniment of kesok-kesok (fiddle) and not accompanied kesok-kesok (fiddle).

Teaching of the local language and literature

In the field of teaching methods is planned to present the material thoroughly with a systematic sequence based approach or a specific approach. If the approach is philosophical or axiom, then the method is the implementation or how to implementing of learning, in this case the process of language learning. The learning technic is the way of teachers to deliver the teaching materials has been arranged based on methods and approaches that have been teachers prepared.

a. school-based curriculum

Curriculum consists of national content and local content. Curriculum is realized in the form of the school-based curriculum and explanation.

National Content

Curriculum at the national level consists of subjects in group A, group B, specifically for SMA / MA / SMK / MAK added with group C (specialization), including counseling and extracurricular education compulsory scouting.

Local Content

Local content developed by the provincial government or district / city in accordance with its authority and / or education units can take the form of study materials to excellence and wisdom of the area which becomes (1) subjects of the group B; and / or (2) independent subjects in group B as local content subjects in terms of integration cannot be done.

b. Local Content

In the Minister of Education and Culture No. 79 in 2014 On Local Content, stated that the Local content was the study material or subjects in the educational unit that contains the content and process of learning about potential and local uniqueness.

Local content is the material study or subjects in the educational unit that contains the content and process of learning about potential and local uniqueness. It is intended to form the students to understanding of the advantages and wisdom in their area.

c. The language and literature of Makassar as a subject of local content

Permendiknas No. 22, in 2006 explains that the curriculum is developed based on the characteristics of learners, local conditions, and levels and types of education without distinction of religion, race, culture and customs, as well as socio-economic status and gender. The curriculum includes the substance of the charge components required curriculum, local content, and self-development in an integrated manner, as well as linkages and arranged in a meaningful and

appropriate continuity between the substances. The policy indicates that the local content to support, strengthen, and enrich the national education goals and objectives of basic education. Thus, the inclusion of regional languages, including the language and literature of Makassar as local content management should be improved in order to become a regional language regional asset that can contribute to regional development.

Value

Literary work is considered to have something of value, something that has a high value and very valuable (Mangunwijaya cited in Ansari 2007: 54). Values that literary works are as varied as religious values, moral, philosophical, social values, education value and so on. Sinrilik oral literature as ethnic production of Makassar also acts as a medium with a set of useful content value or benefit for the owner. Sinrilik oral literature contains expressions of cultural values that has a set of ideas, thoughts, outlook on life, moral devices, rules of life, rule of law, and so on.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Types of the Research

This study was conducted using descriptive research method-ex post facto. The use of descriptive methods used to observe directly empirical data contained within the field. While the ex post facto method used as the reason that the empirical data that has been observed in the oral literature of sinrilik documents.

B. The Research Focus

Restrictions on the scope of the research conducted as a guide in conducting research that done well and directed. The scopes of this study are described as follows. Sinrilik is classified as types of oral literature. Typically, oral literature is spoken of mouth. However, along with the development and progress of science and technology, especially information and communication technology has transformed many oral traditions to written tradition. Similarly, oral literature Sinrilik has undergone a transformation. Sinrilik oral literature has been documented in the form of transcription and translation of written texts. In that regard, this study only examines one Sinrilik text manuscript, which has been transcribed and translated, the text Sinrilik of Datumuseng; however, the narrative tradition of oral literature Sinrilik simply be observed and recorded to determine the oral literature Sinrilik intact.

This study included a content analysis study, for attempting to reveal the content (message) communication (in this case a literary text communication). In addition, according to Endarwara (2003: 83), the purpose of the content analysis study is to reveal and describe things related to the content of the form, function and value of a particular culture.

C. Glossaries

In order to avoid errors in understanding a concept or term used in this study, researchers need to restrict the following key terms:

1. The retention is an effort to develop the local culture so that it can actualize itself in the global context.
2. The value is the result of the assessment/judgment "good or not" toward something that is then used as the primary reason for doing or not doing something.
3. Oral tradition is a tradition spoken word of mouth that belongs to a society that contains ideas, beliefs, norms, system/thought and view of life as an expression of cultural values.
4. Sinrilik is one of the oral literatures of Makassar in the form of prose and literary arts that is spoken by storyteller called Pasinrilik.
5. Teaching is a system or a process of teaching students that are planned, implemented, and evaluated systematically so that the students can attain learning objectives actively, and effectively.
6. The local language and literature of Makassar is the subject of local content. It is the curriculum activities to develop competencies of four regional and language skills aspects of literature which are adjusted the characteristic of the area, potential and development prospects of the region. The area of excellence of the material that is not classified into existing subjects.

D. Research Design

According to the paradigm used, this research has the characteristics that belong types of qualitative research. It is based on the consideration that some methodological principles in relation to the presence of researchers, research location, data sources, data collection procedures, research instruments, data analysis, and checking the validity of the data in line with the characteristics of qualitative research design are as follows. First, the presence of researchers it is desirable so that they can interact totally in understanding the realities of the utterance of Sinrilik. Second, the utterance of Sinrilik is considered natural setting because the phenomenon of form, function and value of oral literature in Sinrilik is observed in the natural context of the ethnic communities in Makassar. Third, Sinrilik is seen as a primary data source and the researchers as the major instrument in hermeneutics can understand the text of the Sinrilik story. Fourth, data analysis was conducted inductively. Fifth, sampling technique was purposive sampling. Sixth, the meaning becomes the primary concern having regard to the value and specificity of local ethnic communities of Makassar. Seventh, research results were negotiated with the competent experts.

E. Data Sources

This research has two types of source data, namely oral data and written data. Oral data are in the form of statements, attitudes, and the view of informants from Pasinrilik containing the essence of the oral literature of Sinrilik. These data provide (a) creative process of Pasinrilik; (b) the factors of storytelling; (c) vision, mission, and conception embraced by Pasinrilik; and (d) the socio-cultural background, religious beliefs, and Pasinrilik view of life. In the meantime, there have been obtained information about the statements, attitudes, and the views of informants from the younger generation in terms of the existence of the oral literature of Sinrilik, especially the development of the oral literature of the Sinrilik in the future. Information has been obtained regarding the statements, attitudes, and the view of informants from artists in terms of the utterance of Sinrilik from time to time, especially the strategy of preservation and retention of Sinrilik for public life of Makassar ethnic.

The written data is in the form of a Word, phrase, sentence, or paragraph containing the form, function and meaning of Sinrilik. The written data source in the form of text stories Sinrilik is obtained from the results of research, namely the text of Datumuseng story. Matthes, B.F. (1860) conducted this research. *Makassaarsche Chrestomathie*. Amsterdam: C. A. Spin & Zoon.

F. Research Instrument

The main instrument is the researchers of this study. Researchers were actively recording and observing the procession of Sinrilik performance along with the aspects involved. In addition, the researchers were interviewing informants, and reviewing various documents, as well as performing data analysis. In conducting such activities, the researchers used video recorder, tape recorder, data analysis, indicators, data collection instruments, data analysis, and structured interview format.

G. Data Collection Techniques

This study uses four data collection techniques, namely (1) the recording, (2) observation, interview, (3) and (4) the study of the document.

H. Examination of the Validity of the Data

Triangulation was done in this study is a data validation based on the results of data analysis done researchers. Experts who were competent in the oral literature of Makassar, namely, should be qualified: like to have adequate knowledge and experience in the fields of language, literature, and culture of Makassar; as academics who teach the language, literature, and culture of Makassar; as a researcher in the fields of language, literature, and culture of Makassar; and as a practitioner in the fields of language, literature, and culture of Makassar.

I. Data Analysis Techniques

Data analysis research activities carried out through the four stages of activity, namely (a) data collection, (b) the reduction of data, (c) the presentation of the data, and (d) a false assertion/verification data. Although the fourth stage that has different activities, the process is interlinked between one another.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Cultural Values in Literature Sinrilik

From the results of the study that the author did, sinrilik many literary works contain the character values that can be set within a minimal model, not just preached about the virtues and vices but also give emphasis naturally about positive character to be implanted in the younger generation of Bugis Makassar in Indonesia, in particular, and the nation in General. It certainly could be a reference to teaching the value of oral tradition in the teaching of language and literature in the area of Makassar. Human values can be in the form of religious values, compassion, honesty, compassion, tolerance, discipline, hard work, creative, independent, curiosity, spirit of nationhood, love of the fatherland, to appreciate the achievements, expectations, devotion, suffering, consciousness and others. Of some value, there will be classified into four parts. (1) Religious values and beliefs, (2) ethical values (3) the value of education, (4) esthetic value. Following his work on and explanation of the proposed outcome assessment, achievement and an explanation of the four values that are contained in the text of a literary work sinrilik.

1. Religious values and beliefs

Religious values or beliefs are attitudes and behaviors that are shared or, which is believed by some in the community to interact with nature and its surroundings, evidenced by a submissive attitude in conducting religious teachings, which are adhered, tolerant of another religious worship; practice and life get along well with other religions. Religious values or beliefs are present in the text of the story in the paper the oral sinrilik relating to the application of various principles and concepts of the teachings of Islam. This belief or religious values can be either the attitude, behavior, thoughts or viewpoints of ethnic Bugis Makassar community, which is based on the principles and concepts of the teachings of Islam. As it has known to Bugis Makassar that communities the majority of adherents of the religion of Islam. Principles and concepts of the teachings of Islam which are reflected in the text of the story sinrilik. It can be traced in the dialog of the character in the story and expose the author that describes the behavior, attitudes, viewpoints and thoughts related to the principles and concepts of the teachings of Islam. Based on the results of the study and

interpretation of the text of the story *sinrilik* who examined found data that describes the value of religion or belief. The values are then classified into two (1) believe there is a God (there is no God but Allah), (2) believing the power of prayer.

2. Ethical values

Ethical asset value that will be discussed is the ethical values of right and wrong. It is embraced by the community of ethnic Bugis Makassar or customs and habits that are valid in a community of Bugis Makassar analytics that can be through attitude, mindset, and Outlook on life. Those are some characters in the text of the manuscript *sinrilik* story that examined. The expression can be traced in the character's dialog, exposure to author and character or characters the character's stories that illustrate the attitude, behavior, viewpoints and thoughts related to the expression of ethical values of society ethnic Bugis Makassar. As for the value of ethics in literary text *sinrilik* relating to ethical values is classified into three parts: (1) Maintain self-esteem, (2) the attitude of the brave knight, (3) constancy holds in trust, (3) God's faithfulness to the Kingdom (Chairman).

3. Educational values

Content aspects and educational value that are in the form of advice, tips, or that must be followed in conducting the various activities of people's lives. Embodiment of human values that function for character education in the life of the community the ethnic Bugis Makassar is also reflected in the oral tradition in the literary works of text *sinrilik*. The expression can be traced in the character's dialog, exposure to author and character or characters the character's stories that illustrate the attitude, behavior, viewpoints and thoughts related to the expression of the value of public education of the ethnic Bugis Makassar. Based on the study and interpretation of the text of the third *sinrilik* who examined found the values relating to the value of education. These values include aspects that are very broad, but later was classified into three parts namely (1) the advice of parents and families, (2) giving priority to discussion for consensus, (3) dares to take responsibility.

4. Aesthetic value

Aesthetics is a branch of the philosophy of art. Although it originally assessed something beautiful from the technical aspect in the form of work, but a change of mindset within the community will also affect the assessment of beauty. For example, at the time of romanticism in France, beauty means the ability to present a grandeur. At the time of realism, beauty means the ability of presenting something in a State of what it is. At the time of the rise of the *de Stijl* in The Netherlands, beauty means the ability composes color and space and the ability of abstraction of objects. Further development was aware that beauty does not always have a specific formula. From the results of the study that the author did in the story text *sinrilik* also have aesthetic values or the beauty that can be seen from the way the use of the language as well as the message, and the mandate contained therein.

B. *Sinrilik* as a Regional Language and Literature Teaching

1. Material Religion (religious)

Religious or religious material is a regulator of the Ordinance the human relationship with God and humans with humans is also a requirement of the principles of right or wrong and gives identity to the human being as people of a religion. The material of its existence is a matter that puts human existence toward the creator to provide awareness to man as a creature of God's creation. This awareness becomes the cornerstone of a vertical relationship of man with God and horizontal relationships between man and man in line with the concept of Islamic religious tenets, namely *Habblum* and *hablumninannas minallah*.

In the literary works of religious *sinrilik*, material contained Islamic material are given *sinrilik* belongs to the ethnic Bugis Makassar community is predominantly Muslim.

a. Material Imaniah.

Imaniah is the teaching concerning faith and faithfulness to God (the concept of Islam) in which the main principle of the pronouncement of the two sentences creed's "*La Ilahailallah Muhammadarrasulullah*". Statement of faith is found in the text several times story *sinrilik* I Manakkuk. So indirectly also *sinrilik* serves as a medium of propagation or dissemination area of the religion of Islam.

b. Material Ubudiah

Ubudiah is concerned vertically between the worship of the man with God. It relates to the concept of *hablum* *ninallah* governing the relationship of man with God in the form of orders and prohibitions of Allah.

Assailemi-nne naik I Batu Daeng Maklalak I Garancing Daeng Maddatok batu kantisanna Bone, assahadakmarni-njo karaeng Allah Taala, tuntunnamo naung banngia lari anne bisenta na taena-nne kigiok ri turunganna Bantaeng.

Meaning:

Take a look at the I Batu Daeng Maklalak, Daeng Garancing I Maddatok, grindstone Bone he wishes sentences *syahadat* he says "*La Ilaha illallah, Astaghfirullah God Allah Ta'ala, tried out yesterday the whole day boat we run when we are not moving from Bantaeng.*"

The quote above is the attitude data Batu Daeng Maklalak, Daeng Garancing I Maddatok, grind Bone stone showing the unification of the omnipotence of God Allah Taala governing all occurrences of this earth. This recognition is a form of vertical relationship of a person with his God.

c. Material Muamalah

Religious concerns Muamalah horizontally between man and man. Human relationship with humans is the relationship of one individual with another individual or group by another group. In the philosophy of individual human beings, have termed the existence, and social beings are existential. As we know that human beings are social creatures that man cannot live alone thus meaning one's life will be determined by the existence of the human beings around it.

In the concept of Islamic religious tenets of human relationships and the other is called the human concept of *hablum-minannas* Minannas-form of embodiment of *hablum* built hospitality, mutual respect and have always loved peace. If man build positive relationships and the impact that will be brought about is a conducive atmosphere (safe, peace and mutual respect) rather less harmonious atmosphere such as conflicts, disputes and the partial coloring some text stories *sinrilik* studied the text of the story *sinrilik I Maddik Daeng Rimakkak* was the impact of the negative relationship between humans with other human beings.

From the results of the study that the author did then find religious functions in relation to the concept of a then classified muamalah into three, namely a). Keep your family relationships, b). Tighten strap's hospitality, c). Respect for our fellow human beings by the following description.

2. Material Culture (Cultural)

Sinrilik is a representation of the expression of the material culture of the ethnic Bugis Makassar community that describe the thoughts and minds of existing customs in Makassar. Of assessment and achievement made it a cultural function was later found to be classified into three: 1). Etiquette of entertaining guests, 2). in other regions, entering in civilization 3) tradition of reading *brazanji*.

a. etiquette of entertaining guests

A very strong tradition in the Palace is entertaining guests of honor. The intended guest was the Royal Princes of the Royal family or relatives. This tradition is a form of homage and as its efforts in establishing harmonious relations between the Royal families. In the text of the story *sinrilik* also studied in discovering customs or habits in entertaining guests. The following quote data.

...Naia rapaknamo empona karaeng bainea, nitoamani panngajai ri talang bulaeng...

Meanings:

... After King, women sit well, were treated with betel nut betel, areca bamboo shoot tip in Golden talam ...

From the above data, quote describes the veneration of the King (Queen) to the women guests who come to visit. This illustrates the attitude of a genial host the Queen of *labbakang* to his guest whom I *manakkuk* along with his entourage, who stumbled away come to find his family in order to foster a relationship of hospitality is also to meet his promise to apply his cousin who was betrothed since she was still in the womb.

b. Entering other areas of ethic

Request permission to residents of an area or when it enters its territory is required for community ethnic of Bugis Makassar. The same as if we were about to enter the House of others, of course, we ask for permission first before entering it. And if it doesn't ask for permission and enter another person, then the person found in the material of the irreverent, not even in a civilized matter as an offence and it can be put on sanctions or punishment.

In the text of the story, *sinrilik* author finds examined attitudes and the behavior of character description that describes the ethics of tapping into someone else's territory. The following quote data:

Sallo sikakdek napamari sinamperek, najempammi naung bawana butta Bantaeng natingara Lembang Cina anne ri kamma-kammaya. Napalappokmi naung marianga ri tompok rukung, napalumpaki lelana, napamarroki naik sinapang pammorasakna, anronrongi bawa binanga appakalompoi karaeng. Ka kammatongi seng ia atorang kabiasanna ri borik pakrasanganna, i lalang ri butta Luk, lalang ri butta Palakka, punna ntamak bawa binanga, na napalumpak lamkakang ri salokana, na napamarrok sinapang pammorasakna, na niasseng i rate-ngkana niak karaeng la battu, karaeng la nibattui.

Meaning:

There is no how long pause, closed the mouth of the Valley facing China now Bantaeng this. He explosion Cannon above the room, placed the child, he leveled the roar to top gun bursts up the estuary, in homage to the King, for that is the customary practice in the country, on the ground, in the land of Luk Palakka, when entering the mouth of the river. Cannon, popping up the estuary, and leveled the gun from confinement of children and in the roar of guns, that known blurted above that there was a King, who came, the King visited.

Quote the data above is a picture Of I *Manakkuk* attitude when entering Land Bantaeng. He explosion Cannon above the room, thrown children placed, her ROAR to top gun blurted wake estuaries, in homage to the King, for that is the customary practice in the country, on the ground, in the land of Luk Palakka, when entering the mouth of the river. Cannon, popping up the estuary, and leveled the gun from confinement, child and then blurted that guns were rumbling note above that there was a King, who came, the King visited.

However, it turns out the custom sound cannons and provoked a gun does not apply on the ground so that women's land King Bantaeng Bantaeng felt that what do I *Manakku* is the attitude that does not know the rules or customs. The following excerpt of anger I mother of Sitti China (Queen of 1900).

Larromi naung ayanna anrong kalenna Sitti Cina ri Bantaeng, ia kananna bela, “ pedanggang battu anjo riapa. Biseang battu kare mae na kaendek-endek kamma, nakaronjo-ronjo kamma, temangasseng mutu-mutu nikanaya anjo atorang, nikana anjo atorang, nikana pangadakang, tanasenna angkana butta nigallak Bantaeng assalak napaluppak langkanaan ri salekona.”

Meaning:

Her mother into a rage of sitti's China in 1900, he said, "the merchant from which the boat from where, so proud, so reckless, did not know the proprieties, does not know the rule named after the indigenous does not know that the land of Bantaeng, Cannon bursts sources, then he bursts of rifle and proves he's the starting coals cast from confinement.

The quote above is a picture of the attitude, I Mother of sitti's China angry due to a merchant who enters its territory without permission. Moreover, his sound cannons, rifles popping, and catapult the talisman of the brackets on the perceived attitudes do not know manners and don't understand the rules. Because actually in entering other people's territories should ask for permission first.

c. the tradition of Reading Brazanji

The tradition of reading the present politico-barzanji, praise to the Prophet Muhammad is a tradition that is as old as Islam itself. Because of this tradition, there has been during his life. This tradition was introduced that the tradition of praise to Allah this is a tradition that needs to be encouraged and preserved by his followers to be constantly obedient to God and his Messenger. (al Bajuri, 1947, p. 22).

The tradition of reading the brazanji there is also a sinrilik story on the text is examined in sinrili I Manakkuk. The following quote data.

Lekbak kananna ayana anrong kalenna I Manakkuk cakdi-cakdi, nipaului seng assuluk biseang la dongkokanna ri bawana-nne Bantaeng. Nitokong nibassik kerang nigayong nibarasanjiang, tulimi-ssuluk tuli assulukimami i pantarang pangallikang.

Meaning:

Her biological mother was finished, I Manakkuk small, directed again out of his boat ride into the estuary of Bantaeng. It was rejected with bamboo in the clean, in oars, in barzanji, keep out does not stop until it is outside the limits of the port.

Napangulu seng assuluk biseang la dongkokanna Lanra Leklenga ri Luk anrodaya n Palopo. Biseang I Lologading kayu santoana Luk lanrenna butta Bone. Tuli seng naung assuluk nitokong nipassikkirang nigayong nibarasanji.

Meanings

He points out his boat ride again. Lanra Leklenga on Luk, aruda of Palopo, boat one Lologading, the wood is as old as the world, boats from Bone, kept out again rejected with bamboo in the paddle, read berzanji.

Quote the data above is a picture of a ritual before leaving the ground of Bantaeng, towards the land of Labakkang. In a ritual that's, there's a reading of brazanji.

3. The Content of Education (Education)

As it has been discussed earlier that a literary work, including sinrilik at first was merely served as entertainment. However, along with the development of the function extends to all aspects of human life, one of which is by way of media education. In the literary work sinrilik materials will be loaded and none of the materials that is hollow. That means any materials that are believed to be by the people have something that is considered useful or helpful. Educational materials found in the mandate or advice-advice that exists in the literature.

Advice or mandates contained in sinrilik literary works studied are classified into three parts namely a) advice in the form of advice, b) Prohibition advice, c) Instruction advice.

a. Advice in the form of Advice

Advice in the form of advice is the advice that gives a clue about good and evil. Goodness and badness here surely goodness and badness according to existing rule applicable in the community and ethnic Bugis Makassar. From the third story, sinrilik terms that examined contains descriptions of attitudes and behavior of people reveal about the advice in the form of recommendations.

b. Prohibition Advice

Advice in the form of prohibition is advice on something that should not be done. Advice in the form of prohibition is certainly aiming to avoid the possibility of unwanted and already known to the possible risks caused. From the literature studied sinrilik found the attitude and behavior of people who give advice in the form of prohibition. Here is an excerpt of data.

Punna jarimo lampanu Makdik, punna sikra parurunnu, punna battuko anraik, ri parangbali, ri parang pattunggalengang. anroi bajik pammuknu lele bunduk. anroi kanang entennu ri parang bali, teako jonjong teako marenggerengge, bali tu Bone antu anak naurang to Bontotangga, joak majonjong na tumpu marengge-rengge. joak masarrang. na karaengmappattuju, najoak mallaku-laku."

Meaning:

"When you have finished your journey Makdik, if you finished your boxed, when you got there, on the battlefield, battlefield arrange your tactics, fix the stronghold on the battlefield, do you too bold, do not you too bold, not a lot of movement (too excited), opposite to Bone people, children and friends of people of Bontotangga, very brave troops and friends of people of Bontotangga, very brave troops and guards were very excited, cruel and commanding troops (sent) as well as the obedient troops carrying out orders."

Quote above data is I Manakkuk mother's advice that a ban is marked with the word "teako" which means "do not". In the above story contest I Manakkuk mother's forbidden his mother to be too bold, too excited but told to improve the tactics of war and defenses because his opponent is tough and courageous people who are also cruel to govern.

c. Instruction Advice

Advice in the form of the command is real advice should be implemented. From the literature of sinrilik studied found attitudes and behavior counseling figure illustrates a ban. Here is an excerpt of data.

Ka kananna ayana, "La nupakjari anak lampanu karaeng, lonna lekbakna parurunnu. Alleang lalo kanangku anak, turukang pangajaringku Nalassungkangko anronnu, lailaha illallah, najariangko manggenu anak, nampannu la kuajari. Pilanngeri laloi kanangku anak, turukangi pangajaringku, nutea lalo aklampai. Lompoi bombanna anak, lantangi kaekekna, ..

Meaning:

Said her mother, "Truly you prove your departure children, when completed your preparation. Children obey your words, when completed your preparation. Obey yours also children obey my advice ... you were born your mother, la ilaha illallah, you made your father a child, only this time I teach you. Listen earnest words, children, obey my advice, so that you do not leave. Large waves were children, the vortex currents, ...

4. Entertainment Content (Recreation)

Recreational function is a function of entertainment provided by a literary work. In literature sinrilik also has the function of entertainment because when playing or reading the audience will feel happy because entertained by the world's "built" by the writer in his work. Based on the contents and how to sing, sinrilik divided into two kinds: Sinrilik Bosi timurung and Pakesok-Kesok.

a. Sinrilik Bosi Timurung

Sinrilik Bositimurung is sinrilik are sung without musical accompaniment kesok-kesok. Usually sung in a deserted place at a time when people around him were sleeping soundly. Basically, Sinrilik Bositimurung has four functions, namely (a) as an expression of praise (b) as an expression of longing (c) as a picture of a person affected which makes the heart was filled with pity, and (d) as an expression of sadness.

1) As an expression of praise

In the text, there is a picture story of sinrilik Bositimurung figure attitudes and behavior is an expression of praise to the girl he loves. Here's an excerpt data.

sangkuntu mamako bulang tanatongko rammang sangrapang mamako bintoeng takalapakkang takkewek-kewek, ta taksala ri matangu, kaboyo-boyo ta makona ri atingku, mutia biliki arasigana ballaku, sulona sassanga singarak tanngabanngia baji ta tamparaka, laisik naksagalaya.

Meaning:

Cribs you do not as the clouds closed. As thou star of invisibility. Blinking. Cannot be separated from my eyes. Very beautiful, inseparable in my heart. Pearls booth lamp my house. Dawn darkness, light midnight. Good hidden, this is rarely the same trim.

Quote first data is praise someone who greatly admired woman. He likens if the woman is like a star that is blinking very beautiful that cannot get out of his sight. Her beauty is like a lamp middle of the night and no one else.

2) As an expression of longing

In the text, there is a picture story of Sinrilik Bositimurung figure attitudes and behavior is an expression of longing for the girl he loves. Here's an excerpt data.

Taenamo parekkanna (dinging palate) balianganna nakkuku majai mamu naku, kukanakkukinnu makloe monne enrong kukaenrunginnu...

Meaning:

Irreversible. (Cold stab) I missed the return. This has been much miss, I miss you already very yearning I crave you.

The above quote describes a person longing for a woman who craves. Likewise, with the second quote describes a man longing for a beautiful woman, has a round face like the moon (glowing), which is coveted. He is expecting that the woman can come back again. Because of its nostalgia is hard work (affect) his life.

3) As concerns Overview

In the text, there is a picture story of sinrilik Bositimurung figure attitudes and behavior is an expression of concern. Here's an excerpt data.

tuantaklea paleko bedeng mamorong rijajaranu sapako makmeknang ri goarinnu masino bonena tuntung lebonnu makkuring-kuring anak sitau-taunu majeknek mat a mami saribattang kamasenu nakatteangko garrinna maklebangannu makrera-reramo anak kukang ninanronu makrau-raumo balu nisorong bokonu namakpale ngasengmo anne patintinganna moncengku.

Meaning:

Silent contents where you usually crowded. Already miss your only son. Weep always a poor brother. Moreover, I will be sad you happy. Cries of orphans that you leave. Howl of widow that you leave.

The above quote is an expression of one's concern for others who have died and left children, wives are also brothers. It is obvious grief depicted in the text citations.

4) As an expression of sadness

In the text there is a picture story of sinrilik Bositimurung figure attitudes and behavior is an expression of praise to the girl he loves. Here's an excerpt data.

bonenajilino taena monne tumaklakbak makmoterang nakana pole tujamrneng beru kupasang kanasada ri anjaya allei bedeng balu nisorong bokonu nakana pole mangagang anne anjaya kutabattu nubuntuli barang nakana niak tekneku ri lino.

Meaning:

Say to anja. Take her presumably, Widows, who you leave. She said also: Why this anja. Not to come pick anja. Probably mistaken. I'm happy in the world.

The data in the above quote is an expression of sadness left behind a wife by her husband's death. Anguish caused her to lose hope for life, she hoped that would die too quickly to come so she could get together again with her beloved husband in the afterlife.

C. Strategy to Save a Literature of Sinrilik

1. Strategy to Save Directly

The central government, through the provincial government and municipal districts in the province of South Sulawesi is aware of the "threat" to the survival of an oral tradition of sinrilik as one of the cultural richness of Bugis Makassar ethnic. With the awareness of the city district government to take immediate strategy that is expected to preserve the culture in order to remain in the midst of ethnic communities Bugis Makassar as the owner of the culture. The immediate strategy is as follows:

a. Inventory and Documentation

Inventory process undertaken to assess a number of oral literature sinrilik in various areas in Makassar. Including if there are already written in the form of a text script. Then sinrilik is still a hereditary oral stories will be written in the form lontara Makassar (the goal for lontarak also remain stable). To facilitate understanding and avoid mistakes cognition will be translation into Indonesian.

Time and inventory process undertaken will take quite a long time; it is because the number of oral literature sinrilik already lost, so the solution adopted is to find informants who still memorize the sinrilik. After the inventory will be documenting oral literature sinrilik in book and CD recordings. Books and CD recordings should be deployed at various libraries in the region of South Sulawesi. It is intended that the number of library visitors will see it. By itself will appear desire to read it. The more you read, the more who know and automatically sinrilik oral literature will be sustainable.

b. Sinrilik as subjects of Muatan Lokal (Mulok) on Schools

Elementary School and Junior High School (SMP) still have subjects Muatan Lokal. Usually Muatan Lokal is always filled with both English and Local Language of Makassar but would be better if the Muatan Lokal also studied oral literature of sinrilik. It aims to introduce oral literature of sinrilik early. Introduction early will make students familiar with and have interest in this oral literature. More and more students are interested in studying the sinrilik, then sustainability sinrilik will be maintained. In addition, subjects could sinrilik packaged in a "storytelling" that will train the learners see. As the findings of the authors that sinrilik has many values will naturally form a positive character on the learner. One strategy that is quite well done by the government is requiring all schools in the area Bugis Makassar elementary school and junior high school to introduce and teach their students through Muatan Lokal subjects. This authority is in the hands of local governments and provincial if you want to see this sinrilik oral tradition is maintained and not become extinct. It is to be anticipated by the government seriously because this tradition is one of the areas of wealth and assets.

c. Guidance to the Actors of Sinrilik

The steps taken by the government for the maintenance and preservation of sinrilik oral literature as regional cultural asset that is highly prized, it is not enough merely teaching since elementary school and Junior High School just as described above. Therefore, it should be followed by measures that are very strategic and implementable at the level of the more applicable. It is particularly important as sinrilik oral literature has shown towards extinction. At some point if not done sustainable development strategies of local government and throughout the Bugis Makassar, do not rule out the possibility of oral literature will be extinct.

Provincial and local government must also demonstrate its seriousness to maintain the tradition of sinrilik oral literature in the future. The seriousness of it is not only by providing guidance to the actors sinrilik or passinrilik and also on the young people who show concern for this culture in the form of another concern as to provide facilities such as container or gathering place for actors sinrilik oral literature and young people who want to join. No less important is the provision of funds for the development of the cultural survival. It is very ironic that on the one hand the government and the public wants national culture sourced from local culture remain stable but not followed in terms of coaching and funding.

d. Seminar on Regional Culture

Seminar on the theme to save of regional culture in general has often done, either by local governments and educational institutions such as universities. Seminar specifically talking about the existence of sinrilik literature almost never used. This activity is very strategically held by inviting various elements in society, ranging from cultural, writers, scientists, bureaucrats, legislators, youth, community leaders and customs, as well as actors of pasinrilik or sinrilik. In this seminar, it is necessary to formulate strategic steps that can be done to build and maintain oral literature sinrilik.

If all elements in society as mentioned earlier, gathering then talk about the steps that need to be taken to maintain and elevate the image of local culture, as well as sinrilik oral traditions, then it will be a great strength of the people to do the 'insistence' to local governments to implement programs that give more 'breath' fresh to the preservation of culture in the region. It is where the importance of deliberation in a scientific forum that will bring forth a kind of seminar brilliant idea that can be used toward the preservation of culture.

2. Strategy to Save Indirectly

In addition to direct strategy undertaken by the government, will also outlined some indirect strategies that can be done by people who are considered to contribute to the development of oral literature sinrilik. The strategy in question is a) Inheritance sinrilik, b) Provide advice through sinrilik stories, c) The involvement of the media, and d) Involvement of the film industry.

a) Inheritance sinrilik

Sinrilik retention cannot be separated from the role of the community in general, especially the principals of sinrilik. Since the first, the role of the community in maintaining oral tradition has been implemented, although the role is still highly personal until now. However, the personal role that has contributed to the preservation sinrilik as one of the community's cultural assets ethnic Bugis Makassar. Inheritance sinrilik actually should be more widely not only in the family circle sinriliks' actors, but on the whole younger generation Bugis Makassar. However, when the author asks about it they explained that the interest of young people to study diligently and seriously on this sinrilik very little because they do not promise or not a profession that generates. It is increasingly clear that the love of the culture is to be instilled from an early age. However, this sinrilik inheritance should stay there if we want to see sinrilik still be enjoyed by future generations.

b) Provide advice through sinrilik stories

Sinrilik story is an interesting story if it is delivered in a way that is attractive as well. In addition sinrilik also contains human values that are important for life. By way of advising children through stories sinrilik expected to be more memorable that will be remembered from the advising children in the usual way. This method will indirectly contribute to the preservation of oral literature sinrilik. More and more parents are using this way to advise a child the more the child who knows about the sinrilik story and if it is done for generations, the preservation literature sinrilik would not doubt.

c) The involvement of the media

Media is one of the means that could be an alternative to maintain sinrilik literature. Both the radio and local television media in Makassar. When the authors conducted observations of some ethnic Bugis Makassar they strongly agree if there is a local radio or television would broadcast this sinrilik literature. They argue that the lack of public interest in the local culture because they seldom witnessed sinrilik literature is displayed. The more often it appears in the public sinrilik the more it will attract the attention of the public to see and enjoy the sinrilik literary work even will possibly appear interest in their hearts to be able to learn the sinrilik literature.

d) Involvement of the film industry

The involvement of the film industry can contribute greatly to the preservation of literary works of sinrilik because if sinrilik packaged in the form of the film would have been greater public interest. This has been done before another ethnic example, in India there is the story of the Mahabharata that can be enjoyed not only by the people of India but also we are there in Indonesia. So it is with the story kingdoms in Java like Mataram and Srivijaya ever raised in the form of a film. One movie that is in demand in the year 2014-2015 is the story "7 Manusia Harimau" although the producer and director of this story said the story is fictional, but the community is aware of the similarities between the names of the characters is also the name of the kingdom and the storyline is similar to oral literature which they believe to have occurred in the past. This illustrates that our society is still having an interest in the area of oral literature only with the development of science and technology (science and technology) they want a different dish and modern packaging.

V. CONCLUSION

Cultural preservation strategy is a mutual obligation between the government and society. Therefore, there should be good by the seriousness of the government in charge of the survival of a culture and by society as actors and audience culture directly or indirectly. Therefore it is important to note because the cultural problem is the problem of humanity. So that the culture (more specifically the culture of non-object) of a society can be maintained in the midst of the development of modern culture.

Based on research conducted by the author, in this study the retention strategy of sinrilik literature values in a way that has been and should have been taken by the government and the community to maintain the culture, as follows: 1) direct strategy undertaken by the government, including: (a) inventory and documentation, (b) sinrilik as subjects of Muatan Lokal (mulok) in school, c) guidance to the offender sinrilik, and (d) a seminar on regional culture. 2) Indirect strategy undertaken by the community, including: (a) inheritance sinrilik, (b) providing advice through stories sinrilik, (c) the involvement of the media, (d) the involvement of the film industry.

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Salam, was born in Pare-pare in 1963. He finished his doctoral program in Universitas Negeri Malang. Lecturer subject of Pengembangan Kurikulum dan Pengajaran, Penelitian Tindakan Kelas dan Metode Penelitian Kualitatif. Scientific Paper is Penelitian Tindakan Kelas, published in 2010 in Makassar.

The Comparative Effect of Teacher- and Peer-assessment on EFL Learners' Self-confidence

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Abstract—This research was conducted to investigate whether there is any significant difference between the impact of teacher-assessment and peer-assessment on the personality feature of self-confidence of EFL learners. To fulfill the purpose of this study 60 female students from Resalat high school in Qazvin were selected non-probabilistically using convenience sampling strategy. These students who were in two classes first take a self-confidence test of 56 items. Then both classes underwent six sessions of reading comprehension practice followed by quizzes. In one class the test papers were scored by the teacher (i.e. teacher-assessment) and in another they were scored by classmates (i.e. peer-assessment). At the end of the program, the self-confidence test was administered again. The means of pre- and post-tests of self-confidence were compared using t-test. Moreover, if the pre-tests of both classes were proved homogeneous, the results of post tests could be also compared for significance of any mean difference. Finally, the result showed that there was a significant difference between the effects of peer-assessment and teacher-assessment on EFL learners' self confidence. After comparing the effects of teacher- and peer-assessment on the participants' self-confidence peer-assessment, however, turned out to be more effective in improving the EFL learners' self-confidence than teacher-assessment.

Index Terms—teacher-assessment, peer-assessment, self-confidence

I. INTRODUCTION

Every teacher knows that his/her job entails more than just imparting education to the students. The teacher is also believed by Harris (2012) responsible for building confidence in the classroom and must create a safe learning environment where students can feel comfortable to make errors and help them to correct themselves. By being constructive and supportive, s/he can create a safe classroom where the students will be confident and comfortable in their learning. Being an assured and confident person has many benefits, in personal lives, learning, employment, career development as well as business. To be a successful person, one must have the skill of self-confidence. To be more confident, people have to somehow generate this faith or trust in their abilities. Confident people have deep faith in their future and can accurately assess their capabilities. One of the favorable goals of education should be making students to judge about their own and others' work. Assessment indicates how higher level students learn by providing the priority of all institutions (Boud, 2007). Actually, the teachers and learners try to discover the principles of making judgments according to standards of learners work. Assessment and testing have a strong effect on the lives and careers of young people. Peer assessment is the assessment of student work by other students. Peer -assessment is a favorable learning tool in education that helps teachers to gain abilities that are crucial in their working life. Peer -assessment that has an essential role to play in assessment, can also be used as an item in assessment set. It causes an immediate help in the classroom.

Teacher-learner cooperation causes assessment of instructors' capacities that are students' effects of the instructors and achievement in abilities and thoughts. While several studies have evaluated learner assessment of teaching, few studies have a comparison between teacher assessment and peer assessment. As a result, this study was conducted to better understand how teachers-assessments of students' skills and abilities compare to peer-assessment in terms of self-confidence.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Self-confidence

Self-confidence is the first step to progress, development, improvement and success. There may be people with a lot of abilities and a lot of information but unable to taste success due to not having enough self-confidence. On the

contrary, some members of the community who only possess average abilities and knowledge may have high chances to improve what they want as a consequence of managing an unfailingly true self-confidence. (Ajan Raghunathan, 2001)

Self-confidence is not actually a general feature that affects all aspects of a person's life. Typically, individuals may feel very confident in some aspects of their life while they do not feel confident at all in other areas. For development of self-confidence many factors are crucial. Parents' feelings specially in children's early years are essential to children's thinking about themselves. Parents by providing acceptance cause children to have a good belief about themselves. Children will feel incapable, if one or both parents discourage them to be an independent person or express disapproval. However, if parents encourage their children's to be an independent person and love them when they mistake, children will learn to accept themselves and become self-confident.

Surprisingly, there is no relationship between lack of self-confidence and lack of skill. Lack of self-confidence is the result of parents too much attention to their children's unrealistic beliefs or principles. In framing feeling about self, friends' influence is as important as parents and society. In college years that students re-test beliefs and develop their own personal characteristics, they are sensitive to effects of their friends. Assessment as a natural component of any teaching methods can be regarded as the origin of what happens in university studies and thus it can be suggested that teachers can spend among one third to half of their teaching time dealing with assessment issues. (Schaffer, 1991).

Assessment

Assessment and testing have an essential influence on the lives and jobs of people. Decisions taken by schools affect the values and chances of their classmates and more important are their results of examinations. When the results are used to judge about teachers and schools, they also influence students' prospects.

Peer assessment

Peer Assessment is used to decide on individual's group activity. If the learners do not support peer Assessment, this type of assessment can be difficult to perform. As students evaluating other students in peer assessment, it can provide chances for students to reply and criticize. Some papers encourage peer assessment usage and several authors have examined its validity and reliability in a number of performances such as student presentations, group activity, projects, reviews or essays handed out to the class, etc. (Billington, 1997; Topping, 2005).

Majdoddin (2010) found that peers-assessment, since it entails students in the process of assessing one another's abilities, is potentially prewired for this goal. Peer- assessment makes students to have a critical judging ability which they will take with them to their social adult life. When feedback is provided by peers through peer-assessment, scaffolding comes in to help students learn more deeply. The base of such framing is social, so it helps to the group integrity.

Teacher assessment

MannWebmasters (2011), found that in the case of teacher-assessment, teachers face assessment from the time they start training. During their training period and through the rest of their career, irrespective of whether they remain in the classroom or move into leadership positions which do not involve a formal teaching component, they continue this when they take up their first position. Assessment in some form contributes teachers throughout their careers.

To measure the improvement, the teacher will formally assess students' functions. Of course, teacher will be informally assessing their learning at other times to help them plan future teaching. They may, for example, listen to the students read or look at their work. Some schools will also use optional examines to assess students' improvement.

In some countries teacher-assessment plays an essential role. For example, in Sweden, assessment and testing is performed by teachers and indicates teacher authority in school law about which students had no right of request until fairly recently. Assessments must be performed regarding national outcomes and grading criteria. However, teachers should provide equity and justice against pressures to produce favorable goals in terms of not making themselves or the school 'look bad' by interpreting these factor for themselves and balance stress (Andersson, 2004).

To achieve outcomes that they plan and set out to improve, Self-confident people trust in their own performance. This belief needs to be realistic. Self confidence does not mean that an individual can improve anything and everything, even absurd goals. It simply means that the person will influence his own fate, a positive frame of mind and is likely to make the best use of his abilities and skills in improving positive goals.

Since assessment and self-confidence play vital role in teaching and learning process, the results of this research can help language teachers to increase students' self-confidence. Self-confidence is one of the main factors of success and this factor plays a major role in teaching and learning. In this study, the researcher is going to analyze which kind of two assessments (teacher- assessment and peer-assessment) is more important in this regard.

III. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

Since assessment and self-confidence play vital role in teaching and learning process, the results of this research can help language teachers to increase students' self-confidence. Self-confidence is one of the main factors of success and this factor plays a major role in teaching and learning. In this study, the researcher is going to analyze which kind of two assessments (teacher-assessment and peer-assessment) is more important in this regard.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTION

Is there any significant difference between the effects of teacher-assessment and peer-assessment on EFL learners' self-confidence?

V. METHOD

A. Participants

The researcher selects 60 female students from Resalat high school in Qazvin. These students who have been put accidentally by the school principal in two classes of thirty are selected non-probabilistically using convenience sampling strategy as the researcher herself conducts both classes. The participants who are by average 14 to 16 years old are in grade one in high school and are in the intermediate level of language proficiency. They will attend English class two sessions a week, each taking 90 minutes, according to the regular school schedule.

B. Study Materials

The test that is to be test-retested (for pre- and post-test purposes) in this research is an academic self-confidence questionnaire adapted from, Tan and Yates (2007). www.qu.edu.qa/students/services/scc/e-resources/self-confidence/php&www.wordpress.com. The questionnaire with 56 questions, has both positive and negative items. Negatively worded items in questionnaire indicates where subjects respond favorably or unfavorably to all items.

C. Procedure

The participants of this research are in two pre-specified groups as they have been put in two classes of thirty by the school administration. At first the pretest of self-confidence is administered to both groups and their scores are kept. In class A the teacher collects the papers and rates them in class while the students are waiting for the results. In class B after the teacher collects the papers, she draws the scoring table (which specifies marks allotted to each item and item set) on the board and asks the students to come and take a paper in blind. Now they rate the papers and their reported scores are recorded for them. After six sessions of so doing, the same test of self-confidence is administered to both classes and the variations in mean scores of the first and second administrations will be spotted and then the significance of mean differences within the groups will be verified via specific statistical tests. Additionally, a statistical test of homogeneity is going to be performed on the results of the self-confidence pre-test; if both samples are proven homogeneous then the results of the post-tests of both groups can be also compared statistically.

VI. RESULTS

Table 4.1 represents the related descriptive statistics.

TABLE 4.1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SELF-CONFIDENCE IN TWO GROUPS ON PRETEST

Group	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
Peer-assessment	30	139	69	208	160.77	155.00	139 ^a	36.482
Teacher-assessment	30	139	72	211	157.67	150.00	90 ^a	39.656

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

As can be seen in the table above, the average mean score in peer-assessment group was 160.77 with the standard deviation of 36.48, and the mean score in teacher-assessment group was 157.67 with the standard deviation of 39.65. The mean self-confidence of the two groups are not far from each other.

Table 4.2 and Table 4.3 show the self-confidence scores obtained in peer-assessment and teacher-assessment groups on pretest.

TABLE 4.2
SELF-CONFIDENCE SCORES IN PEER-ASSESSMENT ON PRETEST

Score	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
69	1	3.3	3.3	3.3
84	1	3.3	3.3	6.7
105	1	3.3	3.3	10.0
135	1	3.3	3.3	13.3
139	3	10.0	10.0	23.3
140	1	3.3	3.3	26.7
141	3	10.0	10.0	36.7
146	1	3.3	3.3	40.0
148	1	3.3	3.3	43.3
150	1	3.3	3.3	46.7
154	1	3.3	3.3	50.0
158	1	3.3	3.3	56.7
169	1	3.3	3.3	60.0
178	1	3.3	3.3	63.3
185	1	3.3	3.3	66.7
196	1	3.3	3.3	70.0
198	1	3.3	3.3	73.3
199	1	3.3	3.3	76.7
200	3	10.0	10.0	86.7
201	2	6.7	6.7	93.3
203	1	3.3	3.3	96.7
208	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

156-158VALID

TABLE 4.3.
SELF-CONFIDENCE SCORES IN TEACHER-ASSESSMENT ON PRETEST

Score	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
72	1	3.3	3.3	3.3
90	2	6.7	6.7	10.0
91	1	3.3	3.3	13.3
134	1	3.3	3.3	16.7
136	1	3.3	3.3	20.0
137	1	3.3	3.3	23.3
139	2	6.7	6.7	30.0
140	2	6.7	6.7	36.7
142	1	3.3	3.3	40.0
145	1	3.3	3.3	43.3
149	2	6.7	6.7	50.0
151	1	3.3	3.3	53.3
153	1	3.3	3.3	56.7
156	1	3.3	3.3	60.0
164	1	3.3	3.3	63.3
190	1	3.3	3.3	66.7
195	1	3.3	3.3	70.0
197	1	3.3	3.3	73.3
200	2	6.7	6.7	80.0
201	2	6.7	6.7	86.7
202	1	3.3	3.3	90.0
205	1	3.3	3.3	93.3
211	2	6.7	6.7	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

VALID151-153

To use parametric or nonparametric data analysis test, the normality distribution of the scores was tested. To check the normal distribution assumption of scores for self-confidence of the two groups, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was utilized. The results of this analysis are represented in Table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST OF NORMALITY FOR SELF-CONFIDENCE IN TWO GROUPS ON POSTTEST

Group	Mean	N	Sig.
Peer-assessment	160.77	30	.378
Teacher-assessment	157.67	350	.425

The normality test results showed insignificant Sig. of .37 and .42 for self-confidence in peer-assessment and teacher-assessment groups respectively. The Sig. for both groups are greater than selected significance, i.e. .05 ($p > \alpha$); thus it can be stated that two sets of scores have normal distribution. As a result, the parametric Independent Sample Test was applied to compare the mean self-confidence score of two groups on pretest; otherwise the nonparametric Mann Whitney U Test would be used. The results of Independent Sample Test are set forth in Table 4.5.

Levene's Test in Table 4.5 showed that the hypothesis of equal of variances is proved because p value which was .65 is greater than .05 ($P > \alpha$).

TABLE 4.5.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR COMPARING THE SELF-CONFIDENCE IN TWO GROUPS ON PRETEST

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			T-test for Equality of Means		
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.
.203	.654	.315	58	.754	3.100

T -test results revealed that there was no significant difference in self-confidence between peer-assessment and teacher-assessment groups on pretest ($t = .315$, $p = .75$), in which the t -observed was less than the t -critical of 2.00, and the Sig. was more than .05 ($p > \alpha$). Therefore, it can be concluded that the two groups are not far from each other regarding self-confidence before experiencing the treatment.

Then the self-confidence posttests of the two groups were compared. The descriptive statistics for self-confidence on posttest of the two groups are demonstrated in Table 4.6 below.

TABLE 4.6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SELF-CONFIDENCE IN TWO GROUPS ON POSTTEST

Group	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
Peer-assessment	30	149	83	232	183.63	195.00	162 ^a	37.430
Teacher-assessment	30	141	73	214	159.90	156.00	194	35.471

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

The table above demonstrates that the average mean self-confidence posttest score in peer-assessment group was 183.63 with the standard deviation of 37.43 while the mean score in teacher-assessment group was 159.90 with the standard deviation of 35.47. Participants in peer-assessment groups outperformed those in teacher-assessment group.

Table 4.7 and Table 4.8 (See pages 50, 52) show the self-confidence scores obtained in peer-assessment and teacher-assessment groups on posttest.

Inferential Analysis of the Data

To choose parametric or nonparametric data analysis test, the normality distribution of the scores was checked. To test the normal distribution assumption of scores for self-confidence on posttest of the two groups, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was used. The results of this analysis are laid in Table 4.9.

TABLE 4.7.
SELF-CONFIDENCE SCORES IN PEER-ASSESSMENT ON POSTTEST

Score	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
83	1	3.3	3.3	3.3
102	1	3.3	3.3	6.7
141	1	3.3	3.3	10.0
142	1	3.3	3.3	13.3
143	1	3.3	3.3	16.7
145	1	3.3	3.3	20.0
152	1	3.3	3.3	23.3
160	1	3.3	3.3	26.7
162	2	6.7	6.7	33.3
175	1	3.3	3.3	36.7
180	1	3.3	3.3	40.0
186	1	3.3	3.3	43.3
190	1	3.3	3.3	46.7
195	2	6.7	6.7	53.3
196	1	3.3	3.3	56.7
198	1	3.3	3.3	60.0
205	1	3.3	3.3	63.3
209	1	3.3	3.3	66.7
210	1	3.3	3.3	70.0
213	2	6.7	6.7	76.7
214	1	3.3	3.3	80.0
218	2	6.7	6.7	86.7
220	1	3.3	3.3	90.0
223	1	3.3	3.3	93.3
227	1	3.3	3.3	96.7
232	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

195valid

TABLE 4.8.
SELF-CONFIDENCE SCORES IN TEACHER-ASSESSMENT ON POSTTEST

Score	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
73	1	3.3	3.3	3.3
93	1	3.3	3.3	6.7
96	1	3.3	3.3	10.0
123	1	3.3	3.3	13.3
131	1	3.3	3.3	16.7
140	1	3.3	3.3	20.0
142	1	3.3	3.3	23.3
143	1	3.3	3.3	26.7
144	1	3.3	3.3	30.0
145	1	3.3	3.3	33.3
146	1	3.3	3.3	36.7
147	1	3.3	3.3	40.0
148	2	6.7	6.7	46.7
155	1	3.3	3.3	50.0
157	1	3.3	3.3	53.3
159	1	3.3	3.3	56.7
165	1	3.3	3.3	60.0
174	1	3.3	3.3	63.3
185	1	3.3	3.3	66.7
191	1	3.3	3.3	70.0
194	3	10.0	10.0	80.0
196	1	3.3	3.3	83.3
197	2	6.7	6.7	90.0
200	1	3.3	3.3	93.3
206	1	3.3	3.3	96.7
214	1	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	30	100.0	100.0	

155valid

TABLE 4.9.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST OF NORMALITY FOR SELF-CONFIDENCE IN TWO GROUPS ON POSTTEST

Group	Mean	N	Sig.
Peer-assessment	183.63	30	.487
Teacher-assessment	159.90	30	.571

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test found Sig. of .48 and .57 for self-confidence posttest in peer-assessment and teacher-assessment groups respectively. The Sig. for both groups are more than selected significance, i.e. .05 for this study ($p > \alpha$); consequently it can be claimed that two sets of scores are normally distributed. So, the parametric Independent Sample Test was applied to compare the mean self-confidence score of two groups on posttest; otherwise the nonparametric Mann Whitney U Test, which is a nonparametric test, would be used. Table 4.10 clarifies the results of Independent Sample Test.

Levene's Test in Table 4.10 showed that the assumption of equal of variances is supported since p value ($p = .72$) is more than .05.

TABLE 4.10.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR COMPARING THE SELF-CONFIDENCE OF TWO GROUPS ON POSTTEST

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			T-test for Equality of Means		
F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.
.125	.725	2.521	58	.014	23.733

Cheng & Warren(2005)revealed that students ,when assessing their peers' language skills had a less positive feeling, but they are not very different from the other assessment factors. Students and teachers act differently in their respective marking behaviours and the ways oral and written language skill were interpreted. While students obtained positive feedback from the peer assessment exercise, a question mark hangs over including peer assessment for both language proficiency and the other factors into the common assessment process.

According to Patri (2002) Peer-feedback on PA may contribute learners to assess their peers' proficiency if assessment factor are correctly selected after training course.

Dochy et al (2006) suggested that students' sense of responsibility will increase when they use a mixture of different new assessment forms. Topping (1998),believes that peer-assessment is a preparation in which students think about the amount, value, level, and quality of success of the outcomes of learning of peers of similar position.

In the present study, it was also found that the peer-assessment group showed improvement in their self-confidence after six sessions of peer-assessment practice, and the differences between these two groups in the degree they had improved in self-confidence was significant. In other words, the effects of the practice of peer-assessment and teacher-assessment on the self-confidence of the two groups were different in posttest.

Saito and Fujita (2004) also showed that peer-assessment is more similar to instructor's rating than other types of assessment. To justify this result, they suggested psychological criterion such as students' self-esteem, self-confidence, a cultural value of modesty, and habits of overestimating self-ability as accountable for this finding. If this suggestion of theirs is considered to be right, it appears that the present study was advantageous enough in monitoring these intervening factors. It should be noted that during the present study, the students knew that no high-stake decision was to be made on the basis of their peer- ratings, and although the students showed no self-confidence and willingness in the beginning, the participants were always supported to know that they could make it as well as a teacher or expert rater.

According to Raghunathan (2001), Self-confidence is the first step to progress, development, achievement and success. There may be people with a lot of abilities and a lot of knowledge but unable to taste success due to not having enough self-confidence. On the contrary, some members of the community who only possess average abilities and knowledge may have high chances to achieve what they want as a result of managing an unfailingly true self-confidence.

Studies show that teacher-assessment causes a sense of nervousness for the students at the end of course. It is stated that there is a sense of anxiety among students about the assessment and test. When learners are involved in the assessment process, the negative sense from learners will be removed. Students should be responsible for assessment process and do their teachers' job. (Zakian, Moradan,& Naghibi,2012,p.1)

Results of Hypothesis Testing

Independent Samples Test detected significant difference in self-confidence between peer-assessment and teacher-assessment groups on posttest ($t = 2.52$, $p = .01$), in which the t -observed was more than the t -critical of 2.00, and the Sig. was less than .05 ($p < \alpha$). Therefore, the null hypothesis of this study was rejected. Therefore, with 95% confidence, it can be claimed that there is a significant difference between the effects of peer-assessment and teacher-assessment on EFL learners' self confidence.

VII. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings indicated that teacher- and peer-assessment are indeed influential in improving the EFL learners' self-confidence. After comparing the effects of teacher- and peer-assessment on the participants' self-confidence peer-assessment, however, turned out to be more effective in improving the EFL learners' self-confidence than teacher-assessment.

Therefore, language teachers, specifically those teaching the language skills, are highly recommended that they include more educational practices such as peer-assessment in their teaching; this matter can guarantee both the learning

of the students and increasing their self-confidence and motivation which is by itself an important factor in learning too. They also need not worry about the reliability of the students' peer-ratings since learners can also get more and more accurate in assessment as any expert rater does after enough training and practice is offered.

1) peer assessment have a great contribution to make self-confidence in EFL learners. During peer assessment, students develop a better understanding of their own strengths and weaknesses, providing a broader assessment than test scores alone, becoming more responsible for their own learning, and improving the student-teacher relationship, which in turn increases their self-confidence and achievement. It does seem to be important to involve students in 'co-designing' the factor for evaluation in peer assessment. In comparison with teacher assessment students have increased engagement with learning, especially goal setting, clarifying outcomes, taking responsibility for learning, and/or increased confidence in peer assessment.

2) peer assessment students can learn the skills of what and how to assess from one another. It also can help develop students' understanding of their own requirements. Classrooms characterized by these processes will enable teachers to review their teaching in the light of student feedback. Students' understanding of achievement and how this is increased also, happens through peer assessment.

This study shows that students should receive some training in peer assessment and be familiar with the concepts and terms which are necessary for assessing themselves. So it can be inferred that contrary to traditional methods of language teaching, peer-assessment should be regarded as a day-to-day activities in classrooms and should be built into the national policies.

VIII. IMPLICATIONS

In this study that was about The Impacts of Teacher's And Peers' Assessment On EFL Learners' Self-confidence, the results showed that peers' assessment group had higher self-confidence in comparison with teacher's assessment group. It means that it is necessary for Iranian high-schoolteachers to put aside traditional methods of teaching which are teacher-centred and all assessments and evaluations are responsibility of teacher and follow more newly developed methods of teaching like peer-centred methods of teaching and let them share some responsibilities.

Self-confidence is essential for developing English competence. I think that this paper points out the importance of self-confidence in order to make peers 'more participation. all these points show that the importance of self-confidence as a vital factor in language learning and teaching should not be underestimated.

Because of importance of peer assessment policy implications should concentrate more on peer assessment rather than the creation of new or separate policies. It is clear from this review that students should be taught the skills of peer assessment .It appears that peer assessment can help to develop students' understanding of their requirements. Teachers require peer assessment issues to be further built into both initial training and continuing professional development. So, there is a need for teacher commitment to move from teacher dependent relationship in teacher assessment to interdependent relationship in peer assessment. In peer-assessment students may have more motivations to compete with their peers and impress them. So, by peer-assessment students can have more improvements in their classroom activities and show a sense of "well-being" "enjoyment" and "attainment" along with higher self-confidence in comparison with teacher- assessment.

IX. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Given the results of this study, here is a list of suggestions for further study and research based on the objectives and results of this research:

1: This study has been conducted of intermediate Iranian EFL students. Further study is required to see if teacher's and peers' assessment has any impacts on pre-intermediate and advanced Iranian EFL students' self-confidence.

2: Due to manageability and practicality issues only female students have been selected for the purpose of this study. Further study is required to see if teacher's and peers' assessment has any impacts on male EFL students' self-confidence.

3: This study is about "the impacts of teacher's-and peers'-assessment on EFL learners' self-confidence. Further study is required to see if self-assessment, teacher assessment, and peer assessment has any impacts on EFL learners' self-confidence level.

4. Further study needs to be done with a larger number of participants.

5. More representative samples of different school areas in Iran are necessary as well as comparing students with learning disabilities and students without learning disabilities.

APPENDIX A. QUESTIONNAIRE

Direction: There are 56 questions in this questionnaire. For most of the questions, different choices are offered. Please tick the one that corresponds to your opinion or write your answer down for descriptive questions

SELF-CONFIDENCE QUESTIONNAIRE TEST

No Always	No	No sometimes	Yes sometimes	Yes	YA – Yes always	
1	2	3	4	5	6	1-I can follow the lessons easily
1	2	3	4	5	6	2-I day-dream a lot in class
1	2	3	4	5	6	3-I am able to help my classmates in their schoolwork
1	2	3	4	5	6	4-I often do my homework without thinking
1	2	3	4	5	6	5-If I work hard, I think I can go to the Polytechnic or University
1	2	3	4	5	6	6-I pay attention to the teachers during lessons
1	2	3	4	5	6	7- Most of my classmates are smarter than I am
1	2	3	4	5	6	8-I study hard for my tests
1	2	3	4	5	6	9- My teachers feel that I am poor in my work
1	2	3	4	5	6	10-I am usually interested in my schoolwork
1	2	3	4	5	6	11-I often forget what I have learnt
1	2	3	4	5	6	12-I am willing to do my best to pass all the subjects
1	2	3	4	5	6	13-I get frightened when I am asked a question by the teachers
1	2	3	4	5	6	14-I often feel like quitting school
1	2	3	4	5	6	15-I am good in most of my school subjects
1	2	3	4	5	6	16- I am always waiting for the lessons to end
1	2	3	4	5	6	17- I always do poorly in tests
1	2	3	4	5	6	18-I do not give up easily when I am faced with a difficult question in my schoolwork
1	2	3	4	5	6	19-I am able to do better than my friends in most subjects
1	2	3	4	5	6	20- I am not willing to put in more effort in my schoolwork
1	2	3	4	5	6	21- I know intuitively what is right for me
1	2	3	4	5	6	22- I confide in my Self
1	2	3	4	5	6	23-I live my truth
1	2	3	4	5	6	24-I am sincere
1	2	3	4	5	6	25-I have challenged all my limiting beliefs
1	2	3	4	5	6	26-I fear nothing
1	2	3	4	5	6	27-I have a clear vision for my life
1	2	3	4	5	6	28 I make my own choices
1	2	3	4	5	6	29- I do not prevaricate
1	2	3	4	5	6	30-I do not procrastinate
1	2	3	4	5	6	31-I am the author of my own life
1	2	3	4	5	6	32-I live my destiny not my fate
1	2	3	4	5	6	33-I listen to my messages
1	2	3	4	5	6	34-I hear my messages
1	2	3	4	5	6	35-I am fulfilled by life
1	2	3	4	5	6	36-I do only what I truly value
1	2	3	4	5	6	37-I never tell others what to do
1	2	3	4	5	6	38-I never make other people wrong
1	2	3	4	5	6	39-I have no tolerations
1	2	3	4	5	6	40-I follow my path

Descriptive questions

41-Who help you, when you need it?

42-From whom do you raise questions when you do not understand information?

43-In what manner do you express your opinions, when they are inconsistent with others' opinions?

44-When do you express your opinions in the classroom?

45-When do you speak normally in a self-confident manner?

46-Where do you look at when speaking to people?

47-What do you say when asked to do something you do not want to do?

48-When do you express your feelings of anger or boredom in an appropriate manner?

Self-Report: Specific (Academic) Confidence

49- Please rate how confident you are about doing well on this test.

50 -Knowing that the average IQ score is 100 and 68% of people who take the IQ test get between 85 and 115, and 95% get between 70 and 130, what would you think your score will be?

51 - How do you think you will perform compared to students from your class?

52 - How do you think you will perform compared to high school students?

Self-Report: General Confidence

53- How confident do you feel about your math abilities?

54- How confident do you feel about your verbal abilities?

55- What do you think, when you receive a high grade on a test/paper?

56- Why do you consider yourself a smart person?

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The Gender Awareness of Oscar Wilde: Comparison between His Women Characters and Men Characters

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Abstract—Oscar Wilde has been well-known in two aspects: an aesthete and a homosexual. This paper intended to indulge in his gender awareness by the comparison between his women character depiction and men character depiction from one of his novels, *the Picture of Dorian Grey*, and three plays of his: *An Ideal Husband*, *Lady Windermere's Fan* and *Salome*. In the end, we got a conclusion that his personal life attributed to his ambiguous awareness on the women characters.

Index Terms—gender awareness, character depiction, orientation, Wilde

I. INTRODUCTION

Oscar Wilde has always been well-known in two aspects: an aesthete and a homosexual. The former brought him the high credit and the later destroyed them all. People put many labels on him: talent, acute, sarcasm and maybe deviant and pride, which one of them hardly built a whole picture of him. He has owned many fans, during alive and dead, and even Arthur Conan Doyle was said to be one of them.

He has been read, studied, discussed and criticized by those who love him and those who hate him around the world and in China as well. From the very beginning of the publication of his works, the topic on him has never been ended. Hamilton (1882) entitled him the aesthete in his book *Aestheticism Movement of Britain* and Morris (1993) further categorized his aestheticism as the eclipse of Darwinism. On the other hand, his private life has never failed to be indulged in. A film *the Trial of Oscar Wilde* was made, and Merle (1954) conducted a lot of studies on his personal lives. Walshe (2012) made a connection between his personal life and his works.

In China, the acceptance of Oscar Wilde started a little bit later. According to Zhang Jieming (2005), researches on Wilde in China experienced two periods. The first one is during the May Fourth Movement, people (Zhou Zuoren, *The Happy Prince*, 1909; Xue Qiyang, *An Ideal Husband*, 1915; Shen Xingren, *Lady Windermere's Fan*, 1919.et.al) focused on translating his works into Chinese. At the same time, they (Shen Zemin, 1921; Zhang Wentian, 1921; Chen Duxiu, 1922; Zhao Jingshen, 1922; Guo Moruo, 1925; Liang Qishi, 1928) also introduced the aestheticism to Chinese intellectuals by peeling arts from anything utilitarian. The second round began from the recent years, and researches on Oscar Wilde and his works has been lit again. Some of them put on the aestheticism only and talked about manifestations of art and beauty (Liu Maosheng, 2011), some on the collision and melting of Beauty between Wilde's work and May Fourth Movement (Sun Yixue, 2006), some on the relation between the aestheticism and his sexual orientation (He Changyi, 2007), and there are researches focusing on details, such as Wilde's consciousness of tragedy (Sun Lan, 2013), death (Qiu Meiling, 2007), adulthood in his fairy tales (Cai Xiaoyu, 2006), religion (Zhang Ting, 2006; Chen Ruihong, 2009;) and women and sex (Li Bei, 2011;). Meanwhile, researches on his word using, and translation versions have also been heated (Wu, 1999; Yi, 2000; Wang, 2008; Yuan, 2012).

In this paper, we are to discuss the gender awareness of Oscar Wilde by the comparison between his depiction on women characters and those on men character from one of his novels, *the Picture of Dorian Grey*, and three plays of his: *An Ideal Husband*, *Lady Windermere's Fan* and *Salome*. In part II a brief introduction on the ideology of Oscar Wilde is offered, in part III, the text analyses with specific steps, and at last, we offered a conclusion in part IV.

II. THE RESEARCH ON THE GENDER AWARENESS OF OSCAR WILDE

Some researchers hold that in Wilde's works, the women characters, such as Mable Chiltern in *An Ideal Husband*, Ms. Padua in *The Duchess of Padua*, Vera in *Vera*, and Sybil in *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, all represented the wave of feminism (Duan Fang, Wang Shouren, 2006). Their researches proved that Oscar Wilde's mother and his wife joined in many social activities, which, in their opinion were sure to put some impacts on him. These women characters all openly broke the social customs and strived for the independence in marriage. The feminism developed into an upsurge at the end of 19th century and Oscar Wilde was said having stood on the waves of feminism and his perspectives on

females were advanced and modernized during the “upsurge” of feminism (Yang Ni, 2006). During the period of Victorian, hierarchy was still played an important role in the social life. In the 19th century, middle class started to develop and became an essential power in the society economically and politically as well. The ugliness of the separated social classes had gradually disappeared in Wilde’s works, especially on the description of the female characters (Kerry Powell, 2001). Some researches even took the women characters masculine in his works (Zhu Xiao, 2010).

For Wilde, art is for art’s sake. “There is no such thing as a moral or an immoral book. Books are well written, or badly written. That is all.”¹ Lord Goring in *An Ideal Husband* and Lord Henry in *The Picture of Dorian Gray* were taken as his representatives to convey his own points to the world and his gender awareness to be exhibited as well.

Wilde’s oeuvre has risen sharply in the light of burgeoning lesbian and gay studies since the mid-1980. There is no doubt that his “love dare not speak its name” (Li Bei, 2011) had an impact on his regards to women. According to his education experience, it is said that Oscar Wilde had great interests in Classicism about Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome when males were the symbols of innocence, purification, and beauty (Sandulescu 1997:59). In the 16th century of Renaissance and in the 17th Western Classical, this tendency towards idolizing the ancients brought the gender awareness, too. It is such a great affection of an elder toward a younger man as Plato made the very basis of his philosophy and that you can find in the sonnets of Michelangelo and Shakespeare (Sidwell, 2008).

It is reported by Oscar Wilde’s friends and relations that he had not recognized clearly his sexual orientation even after the prison of two years (Joseph Bristow, 1997). He preferred a kind of Plato spirit and the sense of love but not about lust. It has always been discussed on his novel *The Picture of Dorian Gray* that he was a gay or he owned a homosexual love affair; however, in his letter, he said that he was not an exact gay, he just preferred the innocence of young men, which obeyed the rule of Plato but not obscene. We also could induce that he just occasionally fell in love with a person of the same gender.

There’s also analysis that Wilde is trying to describe females in a manly way (Zhu Xiao, 2010). Virginia Woolf had made the point that the values of women characters varied along with the values of narrators. (Woolf, V., 1957) The book *In A Different Voice* (Gilligan, 1982) was called “the little book that started a revolution” by the Harvard University Press in March 2012. It talks about the different thinking style of men and women. In this book, Gilligan had the similar point with Virginia Woolf and she summarized her ideas on the basis of the psychological experiments that women prefer to the sensitivity, while men prefer to the sensibility. It seems that women think less maturely, but according to her points, the measurement on women maturity is different from that on men, and they are equally important. Yet the women characters in Wilde’s works turned out to be different from what people generally accepted. They are independent, brave and strong in mind. Substantially, Wilde may attach what he thought the merits to males to his favorite women characters.

III. THE ANALYSES ON THE TEXT

This part presented how his gender awareness has been shown in those glamorous lines and what influence of his life contributed to his gender awareness.

A. *The Depiction on Women and Men Characters*

Adjectives can be divided into determining adjectives and descriptive adjectives, and the later can be further divided into qualifying adjectives and classifying adjectives (2013, Linguapress.com). Qualifying adjectives are words such as “big, nice, and complicated”, which express the passing or perceived qualities of nouns, while classifying adjectives are those such as “married, hydraulic, or unique” which express permanent qualities of nouns.

In *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, there are fifteen adjectives for “Sibyl Vane” (Page 50-90). Most of these adjectives are classifying adjectives. And in this phase, men character as Dorian was described with classifying adjectives for only 5 times. We can infer that Oscar Wilde’s recognition on these women characters’ prototypes was ambiguous: general but not specific image. Table 1 listed some adjectives used in *The Picture of Dorian Gray*.

¹ Oscar Wilde: *The Picture of Dorian Gray and Three Stories*. Page 3. Line 16-18. Signet Classics. London: the Great Britain.

TABLE 1

Names	Descriptions on women characters
Victoria	Curious; try to look picturesque but only succeeded in being untidy
Lady Brandon	peacock in everything but beauty
elder ladies	extraordinarily beautiful ; one of the loveliest creatures romantic, wonderful
Aunt Agatha	silly fads admirable good-nature and good temper, much liked by every one
Ms. Vandeleur	a perfect saint but so dreadfully dowdy charming ; paint in order to try and look young
Sibyl Vane	loveliest wonderful soul and ivory body, white certainly lovely to look at one of the loveliest creatures exquisite voice, charming self-contained; great infinite joy; transfigured with joy shallow and unworthy

When Wilde described women, metaphor was adopted a lot. Mostly he attributed different types of flowers to different types of women. Just like in *An Ideal Husband*, Mable Chiltern is thought to be an apple-blossom, from which we can peer what his favorite woman type was like. Ms. Cheverly, on the other hand, was just regarded as a violet orchid. There is nothing wrong with orchid, while the color “violet” implied the meaning of “passion”. More apparently, in *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, the hostess Sybil was always described as flowers: when she was dancing, she was like a swaying plant in water; her face was flower-like and her eyes were full of the passion of “violet”; her curves in throat was like the curves in white lily and she was like a trampled flower when she lay down on the floor; also, she was like a white rose in the silver, which was also used to describe Salome in *Salome*. “White rose in the silver mirror” was beautiful, yet out of reach. The play *Salome* was full of descriptions with erotic desires. Nevertheless, you could not find a single word concerning directly to sex. Metaphors like “White dove-like feet”, “moon in the eyes of different people” and the “shadow of white rose in the mirror of silver”, the readers definitely would grasp the core of them. When we turned our looks on how Oscar Wilde treated with men characters in his works, we took the expressions in *The Picture of Dorian Gray* for comparison (listed in table 2). The depictions on the men are all in specific with very details. How eyebrows trembles, what the curls of his nose, the color of his lips and even the quivered nostrils are all displayed in lines. The exhibitions of the men’s appearance are drawn line by line, step by step and directly shown to the readers. On the other hand, for women characters, Oscar Wilde preferred to use metaphors, especially the structure of “XX-like”. He rarely used the exact words to show the exact appearance or action of any women. What the eyes look like when it is like “forget-me not”? What a cloth exactly looks when it seems to “design in rage”? How do you know what a woman looks like when she wears a “parrot-like nose”?

TABLE 2

Body features and clothes for Male Characters	Body features and clothes for Female Characters
truculent and red-faced	serious face
in a rough shooting-coat; make a wry face	shrill voice; laugh nervously; vague forget-me-not eyes
finely curved scarlet lips,	dress as if designed in rage and put on in a tempest
frank blue eyes, crisp gold hair	nervous staccato laugh broke from her thin lips
rebellious curls; startled eyes	a placid mask of servility
his finely chiseled nostrils quivered	shrill voice
romantic, olive-colored face;	gigantic tiaras and parrot noses
low languid voice; cool, white, flowerlike hands	a small Greek head with plaited coils of dark-brown hair
cheeks flushed, a look of joy came into his eyes	long-drawn music in her voice
angry-face was flushed and cheeks burning	hoarse voice and harsh laughter
lips parted in frightened pleasure	gauze hood, pearl stomacher and pin slashed sleeves
a flush of pleasure stealing into his cheek	oval, heavy-lidded eyes
chiseled lips curled in exquisite disdain	pallid, thin-lipped
fair young face; white hands; stern eyes	moist, wine-dashed lips
dark, crescent-shaped eyebrows;	
Spectacles ;lank hair; an amused smile	
brown beard; dreamy languorous eyes	

According to Fauconnier (1994; 1997), there is a space mapping in human cognition progress written as a formula:

$$B=F(a)$$

“B” is what we think the object, while “a” is the object itself. “F” is the bridge for “a” and “B”, and it depends on how “a” will be transformed and what “B” will be. Additionally, “F” in human’s daily life is accumulated everyday in every event and affair. It also can be decided by humans’ genes directions. Therefore, “a” is the real women living in Oscar Wilde’s life. “B” is what he wrote and expressed in his novels and plays. We thus can deduce he seldom put his eyes on women, any women; therefore, he was in a kind of straitened circumstances when he depicted women. The detailed description on males revealed his sexual orientation that he observed so carefully on the “eyes, eyebrows, noses, lips, hairs” and so on. Reading these words would give you a feeling as if you touched the characters. But you never

have the same kind of sense on his women characters. You have to arouse your imagination because women were all “XX-like”. His “input” had an impact to his “output”, and that is how “a” influences “B”.

B. *The Evaluation on Women and Men Characters*

Oscar Wilde always found a representative to express his extraordinary understanding on the life in many of his plays. A dandy-like man usually talked about life, politics, philanthropy, and classes. When it goes to love, weddings, marriages, and families, a “women” would be adopted. The narration usually has little connection with the development of the plots but only critics from the overall situation.

As we aforementioned, the women characters are the reflections of his observation in his daily life or his imagination during his creation. Let’s see some examples below:

“No woman is a genius. Women are a decorative sex. They never have anything to say, but they say it charmingly.” (*The Picture of Dorian Gray*)

“Wicked women bother one. Good women bore one. This is the only difference between them.” (*Lady Windermere’s Fan*)

“How you women war against each other!”

“But women who have common sense are curiously plain, father, aren’t they? Of course I only speak from hearsay.

No woman, plain or pretty, has any common sense at all, sir. Common sense is the privilege of our sex.” (*An Ideal Husband*)

Additionally, Oscar Wilde preferred to show women’s indifferent, hypocritical and oversensitive characteristics.

Women characters always play the keys to promote the entire plot but they are not always the heroin of his story. Women characters are usually introduced by men characters, which can be given rise to the length or space in his books for women characters. When he arranged to show the personality of any women, it is not shown clearly by the women themselves, but men characters have to be lent. Here are some examples.

In *Salome*, it is obvious that the princess Salome is the focus. Her beauty was repeated over and over again by a young Syrian soldier, the Cappadocian and Herod Antipas. The Salome seems to hide behind so that we can only catch her through the eyes of men. Also, her cruelty, coldness and craziness are shown in Iokanaan’s lines.

In *An Ideal Husband*, it is Lord Goring who first gave a definition to Ms. Cheverly as “a genius in the daytime and a beauty at night”². Lord Goring and Sir Robert Chiltern are the ones who first tie the knot and at last solve the problem. Mable Chiltern’s beauty and smartness have to be shown in her self-willed attitudes towards the proposals from Tommy Trafford. Ms. Cheverly’s crafty was shown in the negotiation with Lord Goring and Sir Robert Chiltern.

In *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, Sybil’s innocent and charming personality is shown through Dorian’s sight. In Chapter three, there’s a big party for the rich middle-class and aristocratic. Many women characters are introduced from the sight of Lord Henry and narrated with his ironic tones.

However, also in *The Picture of Dorian Gray* and *An Ideal Husband*, there are paragraphs which directly tell the exact movement and thinking process of men characters such as Dorian Gray and Lord Goring.

For all, Readers can get acknowledge of these women characters through the eyes and words of men characters. This estrangement between readers and women characters is set by the author, which shows there is a piece of glass wall between the author and the women, too. The result is men characters are easily to be touched by the readers while women characters only could be hardly peered through the eyes or speeches of men characters.

IV. CONCLUSION

As analyzed all above, Oscar Wilde owns a sense of indifference to women characters for he usually use indirect ways when describing them. This general and indirect way seems to put women behind a wall so that they are untouchable. This gives rise to Oscar Wilde’s inadvertent observation on women. Oppositely, men characters are always “touchable”, which results from very careful watch on them; otherwise.

The phenomena indicate the author’s gender awareness which can be adopted by Wilde from the so-called homosexual life. In addition, the sexual orientation can be influenced in other ways, such as his education background, but whether Oscar Wilde is a gay person cannot be defined through all of these that are only reflection of his gender awareness.

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A Comprehension Treatise on Epideictic Expressions Used in the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques Speeches: A Case Study

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Abstract—The current study attempted to examine epideictic phraseology in King Abdullah Bin Abdul-Aziz's Speeches. In particular, the study aimed to identify this kind of expressions involved in the King's speeches, the types of rituals and occasions that involve more or less these expressions and the role they play in strengthening the national unity of the Saudi people. In order to achieve these goals, the researcher used quantitative and qualitative methods that classify and analyze the epideictic phraseology. A sample of (15) speeches delivered by the King over the last six months was used. The selected sample of speeches was mainly downloaded from the websites of the concerned governmental bodies. In order to classify and describe the epideictic expressions, the researcher used a content analysis checklist categorizing these epideictic expressions. The findings of the study revealed that there is a variety of epideictic expressions in King Abdullah Bin Abdul Al-Aziz's speeches. The King used different types of epideictic expressions in different occasions in order to convey a certain message to the audience. Based on the research findings, the researcher drew some conclusions.

Index Terms—epideictic, speech, discourse analysis, qualitative, quantitative data

I. INTRODUCTION

Discourse analysis considers how language, both spoken and written, work culturally and socially. It basically aims at analyzing the spoken and written texts in order to point out the meanings underlying those texts. "Discourse analysis sheds light on how speakers indicate their semantic intentions and how hearers interpret what they hear" (Johnstone, 2002, p.5). Phillips and Jorgensen (2002) say that discourse analysis is the analysis of different patterns and utterances of language used or followed by people when they get involved in various ways of social life like political discourse.

Obviously, the way language is distributed in discourse is more than merely formal. It is part of the meaning of utterances in so far as it influences the meaning-potential that can be created and exchanged. Distribution, organization, metamorphosis, functions of institutions and forms of language use in certain discourses are all the features of this level of discourse.

In recent times, there has been a strong rise of cultural and religious aspirations in political discourse around 'values', 'recognition' and 'identity'. We need to analyze a presidential speech in order to understand the principles held by the president and the historical context in which the speech was made.

The analysis of leaders and presidents speeches become important not only at the local level or for a specific community, but at the international level also because of the effects of dynamic international events on different countries and societies. The language of politicians is coded carefully in order to influence their audiences about the validity and relevance of their own messages and themes. Their speeches are very important to be analyzed since these speeches play important role in strengthening ties between the leader and the citizens, in addition to clarifying the country's attitude towards the whole international community.

This study framed with the idea that King Abdullah has a skillful use of epideictic phrases and they are closely associated with his overall political goals of holding up the Saudi values as a leading country in the Islamic and the Arab world. In addition, this study aims to demonstrate what can be understood behind these expressions and what does he want from the audience to know and believe.

A. Statement of the Problem

The analysis of the Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques speeches is gaining a great importance because of its political and religious position as a leading country in the Islamic and the Arab world as well as to its position in the international community, without forgetting the role it plays as one of the most influential countries in the world economies. For these reasons, it becomes necessary for researchers to analyze the content of the king's speeches.

Epideictic discourse is to reconnect audience with values, history and hopes that tie people together into a fellowship of humanity. Without epideictic rhetoric, a community inevitably becomes alienated from itself and falls into factionalism and reutilization. In this sense, King Abdullah Bin Abdul Al-Aziz's speeches entail a lot of epideictic

expressions, as they are mindful to the spirit and the ideals that give the Saudi community its soul and heart. Thus, the King's speeches connect the Saudi community to its origins, its essence, its hopes, its aspirations, its loyalties and its ethics.

B. Purpose of the Study

This study aims mainly at investigating the King's epideictic expressions. The researcher will go through selected speeches performed by the King within the last two years, whether written or spoken, to find out the different categories of epideictic phrases and to discuss their influence on the relationship between the King and his citizens. The study emphasizes the role of the political speech on the national unity. In addition, it reflects the King's attitude towards the Saudi people and the general attitude towards the whole world as a leader of an influential country in the international arena.

C. Research Questions

The study attempts to answer the following questions:

- 1- To what extent do King Abdullah Bin Abdul Al-Aziz's speeches include epideictic discourse that enhances rhetorical skills?
- 2- On what type of rituals and occasions are there more or less epideictic phrases in the King's speeches?
- 3- How do these kinds of epideictic expressions strengthen the national unity in the country?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Discourse Analysis

According to Stubbs (1983), discourse analysis refers mainly to "the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse" (p.25). Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with language use in social contexts, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers. This is exactly how the idea of epideictic phrases is performed by presidents and leaders. In other words, their epideictic expressions are used metaphorically in order to touch the audience feelings.

B. Political Discourse

Political discourse is considered as one of the disciplines that attract a lot of researchers in the twentieth century. A lot of theories have been developed within this area. Many researchers and linguists paid a great attention for political speech analysis. They are motivated by some factors such as attempting to understand the speakers characters and find out what is deeply inside them (Arendt, 1958). It was also to present their results and findings to the audience who also paid a great attention to know more about them. This kind of analysis has a great acceptance in publishers, newspapers and journals since. Such studies are recognized as a good material for marketing. In addition, the political discourse analysis gains a great importance because recently politics became a subject of interest for the whole society in general. This analysis is basically a linguistic matter, but it is also connected in some ways to other disciplines such as philosophy, psychology and sociology.

C. Epideictic Rhetoric

According to Aristotle, one of the three major branches of rhetoric: speech or writing that praises or blames (Gross & Kemmann, 2005). Known also as ceremonial discourse, epideictic rhetoric includes "funeral orations, obituaries, graduation and retirement speeches, letters of recommendation, and nominating speeches at political conventions" (Lausberg, 1998, p.18). Interpreted more broadly, epideictic rhetoric may also include works of literature.

According to Aristotle's conception of epideixis, "the present is the most important; for all speakers praise or blame in regard to existing qualities, but they often make use of other things, both reminding [the audience] of the past and projecting the course of the future" (Kimball, 1986, p. 22).

D. Purpose of Epideictic Rhetoric

Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca (1969) report that the purpose of an epideictic speech is to increase the intensity of adherence to values held in common by the audience and the speaker. The speaker engaged in epideictic discourse is very close to being an educator. Any society praising its own values is therefore bound to promote opportunities for epideictic speeches to be delivered at regular intervals: ceremonies commemorating past events of national concern, religious services, and eulogies of the dead and similar manifestations fostering a communion of minds.

E. Types of Epideictic Rhetoric

According to Aristotle there are three types of epideictic rhetoric, which are deliberative, forensics and epideictic rhetoric. The term epideictic comes from the Greek word epideixis which means "appropriate discourse within pedagogical or ritual texts" (Sheard, 1996, p. 65). Epideictic rhetoric is also called ceremonial discourse. The aim of

epideictic rhetoric is to praise or to blame. Some examples of epideictic rhetoric are obituaries, funeral speeches, celebrating independence anniversaries and nominating speeches at political conventions (McCormack, 2002).

F. Empirical Research

Many studies and articles have been proposed to highlight the importance of political discourse analysis. Although the literature covers a wide point of view presented by linguists, discourse analysis also covers a wide variety of theories related to epideictic phraseology.

Owen (1998) analyzed the epideictic rhetoric of President William Jefferson Clinton's Inaugural. The researcher concluded that President Clinton's Inaugural Address: (a) unified the audience and reconstituted its members as the people; (b) rehearsed shared and traditional communal values drawn from a venerated past. The Address was delivered on a ceremonial occasion; the rhetoric employed expressed the artifices of praise and blame the speaker focused on the present, yet incorporated the past and the future. Therefore, the President urged contemplation, not action.

Huda (2011) identified the conceptual metaphors that have been used by President Obama and King Abdullah of Jordan and their entailments to explore the morality models that prevail in their speeches. She found that conceptual metaphors of motion, relation, essence, war, and strength prevail in both languages. This kind of study emphasizes the role of epideictic expressions used by leaders and presidents and how presidents employ metaphorical language in their speeches.

Ortega (2013) in a study entitled "President Barack Obama and the *Commencement* of a New Perspective on Epideictic Speeches. He found out that the President used strategies that would allow him to be the embodiment of the ideologies most closely related to the audience. By doing so, President Obama was able to create a sense of identification with his audience that invited them to subscribe to his perspective on the issues explored in his speeches. According to these findings, this thesis proposes to refine the functions of presidential ceremonial rhetoric to a unique function.

In the Saudi context, few studies tackle the King's speeches. They stated that the custodian of the two holy mosques uses frequent phrases that reflect his character and they emphasized that this character must be taken as an example and we must extend our researches about it.

Based on the abovementioned literature, it can be noticed that the speeches, especially the epideictic speeches, of Arab leaders were rarely investigated while the epideictic speeches of European and American leaders were extensively examined. The researcher noticed that the epideictic speeches of the custodian of the two holy mosques are not investigated until now. So, this research attempts to fill an academic gap by examining the use of these epideictic phrases in the King's speeches.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The current research uses quantitative and qualitative methods that classify and analyze the epideictic phraseology in King Abdullah Bin Abdul-Aziz's speeches. The research design constructed, in this study, is based on the questions formulated. These questions were raised from the researcher's observation and from the literature.

B. Description of Samples

This research comprised a sample of (15) speeches made by King Abdullah Bin Abdul Al-Aziz. These speeches were delivered by the King at different national and international occasions. In addition, there were varying purposes beyond the delivery of such speeches. This variety was considered while selecting the sample of speeches in order to get a more comprehensive insight on the epideictic expressions used by the King and how these expressions relate to the occasions.

The selected sample of speeches was mainly downloaded from the websites of the concerned governmental bodies such as the website of the Saudi Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the website of the King Abdul Aziz Centre for National Dialogue, and other official websites.

C. Instrumentation

In order to classify and describe the epideictic expressions used in the sample of speeches, this research used a content analysis checklist categorizing these expressions involved in the King's speeches. This checklist was compiled by the researcher based on the literature of epideictic rhetoric. Meanwhile this study used rhetorical strategies and linguistic strategies as textual analytic tools, probing implied meanings in order to identify discursive epideictic tools that appeared in the King's speeches.

Speeches were categorized according to the type of rituals or occasions. Content analysis is conducted to find out the different epideictic elements used in each type of occasion or ritual. The significance of epideictic phraseology is discussed in the sense how such rhetorical elements contribute to bringing connection and ties to the Saudi community and how they foster the bonds between the leadership and the people. In addition, the researcher examined, to what extent, the use of epideictic terms can connect the Saudi community to its origins, its hopes and its ethics.

D. Data Analysis

In order to collect sufficient data for the study, samples of the King's speeches were taken from various sources from the internet, in English. The tools for collecting data, in this study, were survey and observation. The data was firstly investigated and done with selecting and collecting sentences or phrases containing epideictic terms.

E. Procedures of Applying the Materials and Instruments

The procedure for the study was as follows:

1. Collecting and classifying data: Reading and collecting speeches made by the King as many as possible from sources that have been mentioned.
2. Sorting out the data: Taking notes and classifying the data of epideictic categories (hospitality, future concerns, unity, the positive feelings towards Arab people, taking responsibility, seeking more cooperation etc.).
3. Analyzing data: Pointing out the epideictic expression and its intended meaning as well as the occasion in which the speech is delivered.
4. The main data analysis techniques, used in this research, are frequency count and percentage.

IV. RESULTS

In order to answer these questions, the researcher collected the data from the sources mentioned in the abovementioned part. The researcher categorized the epideictic phrases involved in the King's speeches into different categories and sorted them out according to the occasions in which such speeches are delivered. The goal here is to identify what are the epideictic phrases and what are the occasions in which such phrases are delivered. Table 1 presents the research results according to the abovementioned categorization.

TABLE 1.
EPIDEICTIC PHRASES INVOLVED IN KING ABDULLAH BIN ABDUL AL-AZIZ'S SPEECHES

Category of epideictic expressions	The epideictic expression	Intended meaning	The expression in Arabic	The expression in English	Occasion
The King hospitality	You are welcome in your second home	You are so welcomed	أرحب بكم في بلدكم الثاني	I welcome you in KSA	Speech in Al-Janadriyah Festival
Future concerns	the future of the nation	Take precautions against future threats	ما يشكل تهديدا على مستقبل الأمة	violations pose a threat to the future of the nation	King's speech on human rights
The Islamic world unity	The heart of one man	we are one nation as long as we are united	ما دمنا على قلب رجل واحد	as far as we are united	The annual reception for heads of Islamic countries, Hajj missions
The importance of Makkah	prophetic land, cradle of revelation	The start of Islam	ارض الرسالة ومهبط الوحي	This land was the start of Islam and revelation of the Quran	The annual reception for heads of Islamic countries, Hajj missions
Emphasizing the soldiers' role	The voice of their sacrifices	We still realize their sacrifices	لا زال صوت تضحياتهم	We have seen and continue to see the results of their sacrifices	Speech to the commanders of military sectors in Hajj 1434
Emphasizing the soldiers' sacrifices	martyrs of duty	Soldiers who died in duty	شهداء الواجب	Soldiers who scarifies their lives	to the commanders of military in Hajj 1434
Serving Muslims around the world		It's an honor to serve Muslims who came for Hajj	شرفها الله بخدمة حجاج بيت الله الحرام	Serving the pilgrims	Speech to the commanders of military Sectors in Hajj 1434
The Palestinian occupation	The violation of Palestinian rights	We are against any violation against Palestinians	والانتهاكات المستمرة لأبسط الحقوق الإنسانية والسياسية لشعب فلسطين	The violation by Israel against the Palestinians	Speech to the commanders of military Sectors in Hajj 1434
Positive feelings toward Arab people	Qatari people	He call them brothers because we consider them brothers	الإخوة الأشقاء في قطر	Our brothers in Qatar	Arab Summit in Doha
Taking responsibility	Let us deal with our unstable situation	Let's have solutions for the challenges we face	التعامل مع واقعا المضطرب	Dealing with unstable situation in the Arab world	Arab Summit in Doha
Taking action in crises	The situation can't be justified	You can't justify what's happening in Syria	الحدث أكبر من أن تبرره الأسباب	The situation in Syria can't be acceptable for any reason	Speech on Saudi television regarding Syria
Standing and supporting Arab world			المملكة تقف تجاه مسؤوليتها التاريخية نحو أشقائها		Speech on Saudi television regarding Syria
Seeking more cooperation	Take a step toward unity	He suggests the GCC countries become a union	أن نتجاوز مرحلة التعاون إلى مرحلة الاتحاد	Let's move from a cooperation to form GCC union	A speech in the 32 GCC Summit

Nationalistic attitude of the King	Saudi people don't accept anything other than moderation	The Saudi community is a moderate and avoid extremism in religion	الوسطية المعتدلة	Moderate community	Speech on Eid Al-Fitr
Against terrorism	Aberrant Ideologies that must be fought because it's the most dangerous thing we could face	Aberrant ideologies that affect on people thoughts and mentalities	الفكر المنحرف	Aberrant ideologies	Speech on Eid Al-Fitr
Praising the Saudi people	You were the main support for me	What the country reaches is because of your support	وكنتم عوناً لي بعد الله	You have supported me	Speech on the national budget for 2012
Stressing strong bond between the leader and Saudi community	brothers and sisters	He considers himself and all citizens as one family	إخواني، أيها الإخوة والأخوات	Dear brothers and sisters	Speech on Holy Month of Ramadan
Faithfulness and gratitude to Allah	after we put our trust in Allah	He believes that we can't rely on only ourselves	بعد التوكل على الله	put our full trust in Allah	Speech on Shoura's fourth year for the fourth session
Praising the prophet Mohamed Peace be upon him	Through the instructor of all mankind	He shows the role of the prophet in teaching people	مُعلم البشرية	instructor of all mankind	Speech on Eid Al-Fitr
Women in Saudi Arabia	The woman is my mother , sister , wife and daughter	He emphasizes the truth that women can't be neglected in any way	المرأة هي أختي وأمي وزوجتي وبنتي	The woman is my mother , sister , wife and daughter	Interview with BBC
The importance of Saudi Arabia in the Islamic world	Muslims love this country	He shows that all Muslims love this country because of the two holy mosques	تهوي إليه قلوب المسلمين	Muslims love this country because of the two holy mosques	Speech on Eid Al-Fitr

From the abovementioned table, it can be said that there is a variety of epideictic expressions in King Abdullah Bin Abdul Al-Aziz's speeches. The King used different types of expressions in different occasions in order to convey a certain message to the audience. There are (21) epideictic forms that can be distinguished in the King's speeches. These forms are categorized as per the purpose they are intended to convey.

TABLE 2.
OCCASIONS OF EPIDEICTIC PHRASES

S	Occasion	Frequency	Percentage
1	Hajj missions	6	28.5%
2	Eid Al-Fitr	4	19%
3	Arab summits	3	14%
4	National budget	1	4.7%
5	Interviews	2	9.5%
6	Shoura sessions	2	9.5%
7	Ramadan	1	4.7%
8	Festivals	1	4.7%
9	Human rights	1	4.7%
	Total	21	100%

From table 2, it can be deduced that the epideictic phrases in the King's speeches are categorized in nine different occasions. Among the (21) epideictic expressions, (28.5%) of these expressions were delivered in Hajj missions, (19%) were used in Eid Al-Fitr occasion, (14%) were employed in Arab summits, (4.7%) were set up in the occasion of national budget, (9.5%) were involved in interviews, (9.5%) were utilized in Shoura sessions, (4.7%) were exploited in Ramadan, (4.7%) were invested in festivals, and (4.7%) were carried out in human rights occasions.

TABLE 3.
CATEGORIES OF EPIDEICTIC PHRASES

S	Occasion	Frequency	Percentage
1	Hospitality	1	4.7%
2	Future concerns	1	4.7%
3	Islamic unity	4	19%
4	Supporting Arabs	3	14%
5	Responsibility	2	9.5%
6	Nationalistic attitude	3	14%
7	Terrorism & occupation	2	9.5%
8	Praising	2	9.5%
9	National bonds	3	14%
	Total	21	100%

From table 3, it can be mentioned that the epideictic phrases in the Kings' speeches are compiled in nine different groups. Among the (21) epideictic expressions, (4.7%) of the expressions were used to express hospitality of the King, (4.7%) of the expressions were introduced to express future concerns, (19%) of the expressions described the Islamic unity, (14%) of the expressions referred to the support for Arabs, (9.5%) of the expressions revealed the responsibility, (14%) of the expressions expressed the King's nationalistic attitude, (9.5%) of the expressions pointed out the refusal of terrorism and occupation, (9.5%) of the expressions involved praising, and (14%) of the expressions stressed national bonds.

Firstly, the King uses an epideictic expression of hospitality in order to welcome the guests in Al-Janadriyah festival. He is welcoming the visitors of the festival in their second home by saying "you are welcome in your second home". Also, the King employs another variety of epideictic expressions that denotes the future concerns in his speech on human rights. By the same token, he puts into words his future concerns over the future of the nation by saying "violations pose a threat to the future of the nation".

Secondly and thanks to the use of the epideictic phrase, the King stressed the Islamic world unity at the annual reception for heads of Islamic countries, Hajj Missions. He also used expressions of unity by saying "the heart of one man". In a similar speech, he uttered the importance of Makah by saying "prophetic land, cradle of revelation".

In other occasions of different nature, the King emphasized the soldiers' role in his speech to the commanders of military sectors in Hajj 1434 by saying "the voice of their sacrifices". In a similar occasion, he confirmed the soldiers' sacrifices by calling them "the martyrs of duty".

In his speech on Hajj season, the King resorted to the use of a typical epideictic form to denote serving Muslims around the world by saying "serving the pilgrims". On the same occasion, he included another epideictic phrase to point out the Palestinian occupation and refuse the occupation by saying "the violation of Palestinian rights".

Furthermore, the King expressed positive feelings toward Arab people in the Arab summit in Doha. He employed a specific expression "our brothers in Qatar" to convey the feelings of brotherhood towards the Qatari people. On the same occasion, he expressed taking responsibility during the Arab summit in Doha by saying "let us deal with our unstable situation".

On the other hand, the King in his speech on Saudi television about Syria has opted for another type of epideictic expressions to convey the message of taking action in crises by saying "the situation can't be justified". In the same way, the King expressed discursively the way of standing and supporting the Arab world by saying "the kingdom bears its historical responsibility towards its brothers". In the occasion of the thirty two GCC summit, the King adopted an epideictic speech for seeking more cooperation by using the expression "take a step toward unity".

In his speech on Eid Al-Fitr, the King resorted to the use of an epideictic phrase praising the prophet Mohammad (PBUH) by saying "through the instructor of all mankind". In the same occasion, he alluded to the importance of Saudi Arabia in the Islamic world by saying "Muslims love this country". Finally, in an interview with the BBC, the King emphasized epideictically the status of the Saudi woman in the kingdom by saying "the woman is my mother, sister, wife, and daughter".

V. DISCUSSION

The King's usage of epideictic phrases to imply national values and accountabilities agrees with many scholars who reported that epideictic rhetoric is used in order to emphasize the shared values and principles (e.g. Condit, 1985; Hauser, 1999, and Perelman and Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969). Furthermore, the King has exceeded the traditional functions of epideictic rhetoric by extending its function to encompass the functions of expressing hospitality, future concerns, stressing unity, emphasizing the soldiers role and sacrifice, refusing occupation, showing positive feelings towards Arab people, supporting the Arab world, seeking more cooperation, expressing national attitude, refusing terrorism, stressing strong bonds between Saudi people and the leader and showing the importance of Saudi Arabia in the Islamic world.

On the other hand, the epideictic phrases were used less in occasions such as Al-Janadriyah festival, human rights occasion, national budget occasion, and Shoura council sessions. This difference in using epideictic phrases is attributed to the nature of the occasions themselves. The national and religious occasions, especially regular occasions, need more assertions of support, praise, calls for cooperation, calls for unity, etc. This matches with what Condit (1985) reported that the epideictic speech expresses and recreates identity by expressing and restructuring the symbolic repertoire around special events, places, persons, or times. She explained that the content of epideictic speeches tend to be relatively non-controversial and to focus on universal values.

The King made a strategic use of language in associating words with negative connotation with the path of terrorism and occupation, while associating words with positive connotation, or typically well accepted, with the path of unity and cooperation. This use of epideictic expressions allows orators to address their ideas to the community. For that reason, the formality of epideictic speeches requires speakers to discard their typical robes and to wear, literally, a different kind of gown.

Furthermore, the epideictic expressions used in the King's speeches play a significant role in strengthening the bonds between the Saudi community and the Saudi leadership. Also, such speeches call for cooperation, unity, and support between the Saudi people and the Arab nation in the general sense.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the research results, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. Epideictic expressions are used to perform many functions beyond praise and blame. Epideictic expressions are used to stress unity, cooperation, refusal of terrorism and occupation, expressing gratitude etc.
2. Epideictic expressions are used in different occasions whether religious, national, and political occasions. They serve different functions as per the intent behind the occasion.
3. Epideictic expressions have a role in strengthening the national identity and enhancing the bonds of unity and brotherhood. Also, epideictic devices are vital in promoting the shared values and responsibility.
4. Achieving absolute consensus is, of course, never possible while the goal of achieving some sense of collective understanding is assumed in most definitions of epideixis. Therefore, epideictic expression potentially works both to reinforce and to transform the community through creating a shared vision, even as it acknowledges the difference that ultimately creates the potential and the need for change.

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A Brief Overview of Critical Discourse Analysis in Relation to Gender Studies in English Language Textbooks

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Abstract—This study was an attempt to provide a brief synopsis of the literature of CDA; the sketch of which are seven parts: *Critical Discourse Analysis: Theoretical Definitions; Major Approaches to CDA; Ideology; Language, Gender and Education; Textbooks; Sexism* as well as *Experimental Research on Gender in ELT Textbooks*. Hence, a general definition and background knowledge of CDA was represented along with the major approaches as well as on the related issues closely related to this study, i.e. ideology, sexism and textbooks as well as *Experimental Research on Gender in ELT Textbooks*.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, gender, sexism, ideology, Member Resources (MR), textbooks

I. CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: THEORETICAL DEFINITIONS

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is an academic research paradigm aiming to investigate “the power relations, ideological manipulations, and hegemony” (Rahimi & Sahragard, 2007, p.1). CDA indicates what has been formerly known as critical linguistics (CL) (Wodak, 2002) which emerged in the late 1970s (Fowler and Kress, 1979). Critical theory provides a critical perspective or attitude towards society (Rahimi & Sahragard, 2007). Fairclough (1995a) defines critical theory as “any theory concerned with critique of ideology and the effects of domination” (p.20).

CDA embarks on deciphering and demystifying both “opaque and transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control” (Wodak, 2007, pp.208-209). Wodak (2001) points out that “CDA sees language as ‘social practice’ (p. 1), and considers the context of language use to be crucial (Weiss and Wodak, 2003). She assumes three concepts of critique, power, history and ideology as indispensable elements in all CDA.

Widdowson (2007) argues that CDA is “particularly concerned (and concerned about) the use (abuse) of language for exercise of socio-political power” (p.70). In other words, critical discourse analysis (CDA) investigates socio-political values and norms. It means that this school scrutinizes not only ideational assumptions but also ideological aspects (Widdowson, 2007). Hence, he assumes CDA as an analytical research method discovering traces of ideological bias in written or spoken texts and campaigning against the ideology as well as beliefs of the ruling system that tries to legitimize their control, power and domination. Accordingly, CDA critically scrutinizes the ideas and assumptions taken for granted trying to keep the status quo. To state the matter differently, CDA investigates the ideas, assumptions or ideologies trying to sustain the inequality and bias between the elites and non-elites and campaigns against these ideas and assumptions (Widdowson, 2007).

Halliday’s systemic functional linguistics that views language as a social phenomenon is central in practicing any CDA (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999; Fairclough, 2001a; Fairclough, 1995a; Fairclough, 1995b; Hodge & Kress, 1993). Accordingly, viewing language as a social event is the first assumption of CDA. The second main assumption of CDA is related to the speaker’s selections of vocabulary as well as grammar that based on Fowler and Kress (1979) is “principled and systematic” (p.188). Fowler and Kress (1979) state that “relation between form and content is not arbitrary or conventional, but... form signifies content” (p.88). It means that the kinds of selections—whether grammatical or lexical—are ideologically-based. In other words, language is a social phenomenon that is laden by ideologies.

Wodak (2001) elaborates that the main purpose of CDA is revealing “the opacities in discourse which contribute to the exercise, maintenance, or reproduction of unequal relations of power” (p.258). It means that the ambiguous utterances are elucidated in order to uncover the unequal power structures governing the society. Based on Bell and Garret (1998), CDA is not only a school but includes a range of approaches. Moreover, Van Dijk (1998) emphasizes that CDA is not “a unitary theoretical framework or a specific direction” (p.353).

Norman Fairclough, Ruth Wodak, and Teun Van Dijk comprise the main scholars in the domain of CDA. Fairclough presents a systemic functional linguistic perspective; Van Dijk a text linguistic and cognitive linguistic; and Wodak interactional studies (Blommaert, 2005).

II. MAJOR APPROACHES TO CDA

Different approaches have been introduced in conducting CDA research. Among different approaches, the ones that belong to Norman Fairclough, Teun Van Dijk, and Ruth Wodak have got the most popularity. Whereas, Fairclough's approach is based on "Halliday's multifunctional linguistic theory and Foucault's order of discourse" (Meyer, 2001, p. 15); Wodak's along with Van Dijk's approaches have resorted to a "socio-cognitive" theory. What is crucial in all CDA approaches is the mediation between language and society (Meyer, 2001, p. 15).

A. Norman Fairclough: Discourse as Social Practice

Norman Fairclough is one of the most influential researchers in the domain of CDA taking a specific middle range theory based on Halliday's systemic functional linguistics theory which denotes a "pragmatic, problem-oriented approach" (Meyer, 2001, p. 28). Based on Meyer (2001), Fairclough emphasizes on "social conflict in the Marxist tradition and tries to detect its linguistic manifestations in discourse in particular elements of dominance, difference and resistance" (p.22). Fairclough assumes a semiotic element for every social practice that is composed of dialectically related elements of "productive activity, the means of production, social relations, social identities, cultural values, consciousness and semiosis" (Fairclough, 2001b, p.122).

In Fairclough's view, CDA is the "analysis of the dialectical relationships between semiosis (including language) and other elements of social practices" (Fairclough, 2001b, p.123). Genres and styles are the constituted elements composed of "these semiotic aspects of social practice" (Meyer, 2001, p. 22).

Fairclough (2001b) suggests the following steps in conducting CDA:

- Focus upon a specific social problem which has semiotic aspect; go outside the text and describe the problem and identify its semiotic aspect.
 - Identify the dominant styles, genres, discourses constituting this semiotic aspect.
 - Consider the range of difference and diversity in styles, genres, discourses within this aspect.
 - Identify the resistance against the colonization processes executed by the dominant styles, genres and discourses.
- (p. 125)

Fairclough (2001a) called his particular method *critical language study (CLS)* and depicted it as "a contribution to the general raising of consciousness of exploitive social relations, through focusing upon language" (p.4). Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) consider CDA as an analytical approach that "brings social science and linguistics...together within a single theoretical and analytical framework, setting up a dialogue between them" (p.6). Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) is the base for most CDA approaches including Fairclough's CLS (Fairclough, 2001a). Moreover, Foucault's concept of *orders of discourse*, Gramsci's concept of *hegemony* and Habermas' concept of *colonization of discourse* are the theories that comprise the foundations of CLS (Fairclough, 2001a).

Based on Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999), CDA is an approach that may theorize transformations and create "awareness of what is, how it has come to be, and what it might become, on the basis of what people may be able to make and remake their lives" (p. 113). They argued that

CDA of a communicative interaction sets out to show that the semiotic and linguistic features of the interaction are systematically connected with what is going on what is going socially, and what is going on socially is indeed going on partly or wholly semiotically or linguistically. Put differently, CDA systematically charts relations of transformation between the symbolic and non-symbolic, between discourse and the non-discursive (Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999, p.113).

In analyzing any communicative event, CLS considers three simultaneous focuses: text, discourse practice and socio-cultural practice (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999). Fairclough's method is similar to Van Dijk's model which is composed of three components of *discourse*, *sociocognition* and *social analysis* (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999). The difference between Fairclough's and Van Dijk's models lies in the second part; in other words, Van Dijk assumes "social cognition and mental models as mediating between discourse and the society" (Fairclough, 1995b, p. 59), but Fairclough (2001a) considers discourse practice as the part which mediates between the other two parts.

Fairclough (1995a, pp.132-3) presents CDA in this way:

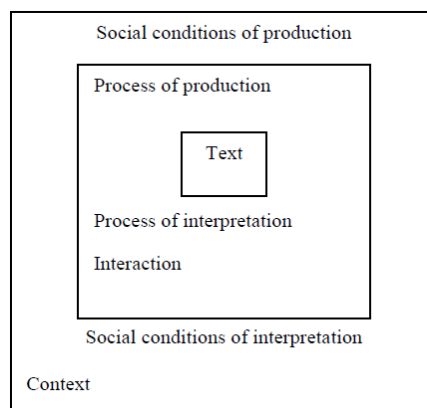
By 'critical' discourse analysis I mean discourse analysis which aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between a) discursive practices, events and texts, and b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations by power and struggles over power; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony.

Fairclough (1989, pp.14-15) assumes power, ideology, and language as a unitary system. He states:

The gist of my position is that language connects with the social through being the primary domain of ideology, and through being a site of, and a stake in, struggles of power.

In a nutshell, Fairclough's framework consists of three sections of "whatness", "howness", and "whyness". Whatness refers to the description, howness to the interpretation and whyness to the explanation. Fairclough's (2001a) analytical model is based on Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) that is composed of some "critical social theorists, such as Foucault (i.e. concept of orders of discourse), Gramsci (i.e. concept of hegemony), and Habermas (i.e. concept of colonization of discourse)", etc. Fairclough's model presented in following has three dimensions of "text",

“*interpretation*”, and “*context*”. His approach assumes a dialectical relationship between language and other social elements. It means that there is an oscillation between text, interpretation, and context. A “text” is just a part of discourse. It means that “text”—whether spoken or written—is the product of process, and the process has two dimensions of production and interpretation. In other words, “text” is the “product” of the “process of production”, and the “resource” of the “process of interpretation” (Fairclough, 2001a, p.21). Discourse analysis regards the “formal properties of a text” as “traces in the productive process” and as “cues in the process of interpretation” (Fairclough, 2001a, p.21). Fairclough emphasizes on the interaction of text and “members resources (MR)”. MR are composed of three subcategories of “social situation or immediate social environment”, “social institution”, and “the society”.



Fairclough (2001a, p.21)

Fairclough's (2001a) approach, that is known as *critical language study (CLS)*, emphasizes on the concealed relation, i.e. the links between language, power and ideology. CLS aims to emancipate hidden social relationships in such a way that clarifies how linguistic components control or decide the way their disguised elements will develop by or result in the system of the social relationships (Fairclough, 2001a). CLS has taken language as a social practice for granted based on Sociolinguistics findings (Fairclough, 2001a).

CLS stresses that focusing on comprehension leads to the fact that in interpreting any utterance everyone not only needs to decode the utterance but also to match the properties of any utterance with what is stored in the long-term memory (Fairclough, 2001a). What is stored in the long-term memory represents prototypes that are known as *member resources (MR)*. MR refers to a set of things as: “the shape of words, the grammatical forms of sentences, the typical structure of a narrative, the properties of types of objects and person, the expected sequence of events in a particular situation type, etc.” (Fairclough, 2001a, p.9). For Fairclough, comprehension is the result of interaction between MR and utterances since MR “are socially determined and ideologically shaped” (Fairclough, 2001a, p. 9) and it is influential in maintaining power relations (Fairclough, 2001a, p.9). Moreover, the processes of communication, both production and comprehension should be taken into account since these processes comprise a crucial base in comprehending the relations exist between language, power and ideology (Fairclough, 2001a).

CLS views language as a kind of social practice in which the features of discourse are specified by social conditions (Fairclough, 2001a). In other words, CLS treats discourse as “a form of social practice” that is glossed by Fairclough (2001a). Fairclough's statement implies that language constitutes a part of the society; it also denotes that language “is a social process” as well as “a socially conditioned process” which is formed by the non-linguistic part of the society (Fairclough, 2001a, pp.18-19).

Fairclough argues that the relationships existing between language and society are internal and dialectical; thus, language is woven in the society and is a part of it. It means that the way people speak, listen, read, or write is dictated by social issues, even in the situations in which people claim they keep their individualities (Fairclough, 2001a). It is worth mentioning that language is not only reflected and expressed by the social issues, but it also reflects and expresses social processes and practices (Fairclough, 2001a). It should be noted that language and society do not compose equal facets of a single whole but society comprises the single whole that language is a part of it (Fairclough, 2001a).

In order to understand CDA in Fairclough's view, it is crucial to have a vivid picture of the concept of discourse in Fairclough's three-dimensional model. Discourse refers to the whole process of communication (Fairclough, 2001a). This process pertains to “*process of production*” as well as “*process of interpretation*” (Fairclough, 2001a). Text comprises the product and resource of these two processes respectively (Fairclough, 2001a). Accordingly, discourse analysis is something more than text analysis. In other words, the formal features of the text are viewed as the *traces* and *cues* of these two processes respectively (Fairclough, 2001a). Furthermore, an interaction between text and *member resources* is the chief characteristic of the “*process of production*” as well as “*process of interpretation*” (Fairclough, 2001a).

In addition to these processes, an account of the way in which these processes are socially determined should be provided (Fairclough, 2001a). Hence, MR has two facets; on the one hand, it has a cognitive origin in the sense that it is

shaped in the head of the speakers; on the other hand, they are shaped by social issues (Fairclough, 2001a). People incorporate socially produced practices, i.e. MR and make use of them to take part in discourse as a social practice (Fairclough, 2001a).

Likewise, discourse entangles social conditions that pertain to “*social conditions of production*” and “*social conditions of interpretation*” (Fairclough, 2001a, p.20). These conditions have a connection with “three levels of social organization, [i.e.] the immediate social environment, the social institution, and society” (Fairclough, 2001a, p.20). Accordingly, social conditions determine the MR people resort to, in production or interpretation, and these MR dictate “the way in which texts are produced and interpreted” (Fairclough, 2001a, p.21). Thus, CLS emphasizes that since language is a social phenomenon, analysis of the text, processes of production and interpretation, as well as the relationship between texts, processes and their social conditions should be considered (Fairclough, 2001a).

B. Teun Van Dijk: A Socio-cognitive Model

Van Dijk (1988a) is well-known for his analyses of news discourse in the way that his analyses involve both textual and structural analyses of media discourse, and analysis as well as explanations “at the production and reception or comprehension level” (Boyd Barrett, 1994). Accordingly, Van Dijk is well known as a media discourse analyst.

Teun Van Dijk sees CDA from a socio-psychological perspective. The theory of his approach is a framework of systematizing “phenomena of social reality” (Meyer, 2001, p. 21). He has presented a triad relationship between discourse, cognition, and society. His definition of discourse denotes “a communicative event, including conversational interaction, written text, as well as associated gestures, facework, typographical layout, images, and any other semiotic or multimedia dimension of signification” (Van Dijk, 2001). Van Dijk (2001) sets out a socio-cognitive theory in which linguistics understood “in broad structural-functional sense” (p. 97).

The cognitive-psychology has been introduced by Van Dijk as “a form of specific kind of mental model, as stored in episodic memory—the part of long term memory in which people store their personal experiences” (Van Dijk, 2001, p. p. 112).

The concept of context models—“mental representations of the structures of the communicative situation discursively relevant for a participant” (Meyer, 2001, p.21)—is introduced by Van Dijk. These mental models serve to “control the pragmatic part of discourse” (Van Dijk 2001, p. 112). Three kinds of social representations have been recognized in understanding discourse in Van Dijk’s framework: (personal, group and cultural) knowledge, attitudes, and ideologies (Van Dijk, 2001).

Hence, Van Dijk’s (2001) approach at analyzing ideologies is conducted in three levels of social, cognitive and discourse analysis. Cognitive part of Van Dijk’s approach distinguishes his approach from other approaches in CDA (Van Dijk, 2001). In this approach, socio-cognition is the mediation between society and discourse. Socio-cognition includes social cognition as well as personal cognition (Van Dijk, 2001).

Moreover, Van Dijk presents ideology as “the overall, abstract, mental systems that organize... socially-shared attitudes” (Van Dijk, 1995, p.18). Furthermore, Van Dijk’s model is based on making transparent ideological dichotomy of Us-Them. In achieving this purpose, he emphasizes on these categories:

- ▶ Examining historical, political or social context of the discourse as well as examining the main participants;
- ▶ Investigating the relations of power as well as conflicts existing in groups;
- ▶ Recognizing positive as well as negative attitudes towards Us and Them;
- ▶ Stating clearly and precisely presupposition as well as Implicatures
- ▶ Scrutinizing lexical selections as well as grammar to underscore or de-emphasize the opinions of “polarized groups” (Van Dijk, 2008, p.61).

C. Ruth Wodak: Sociological and Historical Model

Ruth Wodak has introduced “the most linguistically-oriented” models in CDA (Meyer, 2001, p.21). Ruth Wodak along with Reisigl (2001) presents a particular theory regarding CDA (Meyer, 2001). Their model assumes discourse “as a complex bundle of simultaneous and sequential interrelated linguistic acts, which manifest themselves within and across the social fields of action as thematically interrelated semiotic, oral or written tokens, very often as “texts”, that belong to specific semiotic types, i.e. genres” (Wodak, 2001, p.66).

Effectively, Wodak has presented a discourse historical model in which “the connections between fields of action (Grinith, 1996), genres, discourses and texts are described and modeled” (Meyer, 2001, p. 22). The focus of discourse historical approach is on politics. It seems that Wodak’s approach presents a kind of pragmatic perspective.

Wodak calls her model as *discourse sociolinguistics* which is rooted in “Sociolinguistics in the Bernsteinian tradition as well as the ideas of Frankfurt school, especially those of Jürgen Habermas” (Wodak, 2001, p. 7). Courts, schools and hospitals, as well as sexism, racism and anti-sexism are the institutional settings and social issues that attracted Wodak. Accordingly, Wodak developed her specific approach called “*discourse historical method*” (Wodak, 2001). Wodak’s model differentiation lies in the term of historical.

Wodak (2001) considers language as social processes and interaction which involve three points that can be summarized as power and ideologies, historical, and interpretation; these points comprise the main features of Wodak’s (2001) approach. Term *historical* in Wodak’s model is similar to Fairclough’s intertextuality (Wodak, 2001). Wodak and Ludwig (1999) insist on the fact that “the right interpretation does not exist; a hermeneutic approach is necessary”

(Wodak, 2001). It means that the interpretation that readers or listeners may make of a communicative event is different that, based on Fairclough (2001a), depends on their MR that are “socially determined and ideologically shaped” (p. 9).

III. IDEOLOGY IN CDA

The coherent set of social and power-related norms and values dominated in a society comprises ideology. It is proposed that this is the dominant group that has the right to determine assumptions and beliefs regarding social roles in a society (Ho, 2009). Ideologies undertake the process of “naturalization” to realize into the fundamental facts of the society (Ho, 2009). These two concepts, i.e. “ideology” and “naturalization” are some issues related to CDA (Ho, 2009). In addition, naturalization conceals the fact that ideologies present a choice of the presentation of things. It does not mean that these naturalized facts are the only way of representing things and there are other alternatives, too (Cameron, 2001). Hence, in dealing with ideologies, CDA is an analytical research method that critically analyzes these natural and innate beliefs (Ho, 2009).

It is worth emphasizing that CDA framework is not a new paradigm in which the relation between language and ideology is emphasized. In fact, Sapir and Whorf’s (1956) theory of “linguistic determinism” was the beginning of the hypothesis that states the relationships between ideology and language (Sapir, 1929). Edward Sapire and Benjamin Whorf firstly introduced the theory of *linguistic determinism*—a theory that states that the social reality that people achieve is directed by the language they are communicating (Weatherall, 2002). In other words, it is argued that the theory of the impact of sexist language on thought and behavior is driven from Sapire and Whorf’s hypothesis. Accordingly, language expresses, perpetuates, and establishes gender and even causes sexism as a social reality in the society (Weatherall, 2002).

The emergence of the concept of “ideology” begins with the work of Karl Marx. In *The German Ideology*, Marx along with Engels presents ideology as “the production of ideas, of conceptions, of consciousness”, all things that “men say, imagine, conceive” thus “politics, laws, morality, religion, metaphysics, etc.” comprise these things (Marx & Engels, 1962, p.47). In terms of Rahimi and Sahragard (2007), Marx regards five indispensable components in discussion of ideology as: “naturalization”, “historicization”, “externalization”, “particularization”, and “enthymemes” (p.13).

Apparently, Volosinov (1973) had presented the first linguistic theory of ideology as “class struggle the dialectic of signs and” (p.17). Thompson (1990) depicts ideology as “social forms and processes within which and by means of which, symbolic forms circulate in the social world” (p. vii). In other words, Thompson considers different ideologies as various ways in which varieties of symbolic forms construct and convey different meanings. CDA defines ideology as a significant way for providing and maintaining “unequal power relations” (Wodak, 2007); especially, it concerns with “the ways in which language mediates ideology in a variety of social institutions” (Wodak, 2002, p.8 & Wodak, 2007, p.209). Contrary to the fact that different scholars have presented diverse definitions for ideology, CDA aims to “create awareness in agents of how they are deceived about their own needs and interests (Wodak, 2007). Therefore, one of the main objectives of CDA is to elucidate discourses by recourse to clarifying the ideologies behind different discourses in particular contexts (Wodak, 2007).

Hodge and Kress (1993) identify two kinds of ideology: “political ideology” and “global or neural ideology”. Hodge and Kress (1993) are among the ones who have introduced a model in investigating ideology. Their model presents a “syntagmatic” one, consisting of some assumptions in regard to the interaction of language, thought, ideology and a classification system. This model has two parts: actionals, i.e. transactive vs. non-transactive and relationals, i.e. equative vs. attributive (Hodge & Kress, 1993).

Hodge and Kress (1993) define ideology as:

A systematically organized presentation of reality. The application of different euphemistic or derogatory terms leads to different presentations of realities and therefore ideologies (p. 15).

Understanding the concepts of critical and ideology is fundamental in conducting any CDA. CDA concerns about power and control as well as intertextuality and contextualization (Rahimi & Sahragard, 2007). In CDA, power means differences and the consequences of these differences in social structures; and so, language provides a means for challenging power—for example grammatical forms or persons’ control of genre are contributed to some forms of power (Rahimi & Sahragard, 2007). It means that “discourses are ideological; accordingly the selected signs in any discourse are ideologically laden” (Rahimi & Sahragard, 2007). Fairclough (1995a) views “ideology” as:

Ideologies are not unalterable, sticky or unitary structures, rather, they are malleable substances prone to different arenas of interest and the social forces involved (p.17).

It seems that Fairclough (1995a) regards consciousness of the role language plays in relation to dominance as a crucial aim of language education. He states that ideological structures are formed by power relations. In fact, ideologies are particular molds of thinking and actions that form people’s understanding of the world around them (Fairclough, 1995a). He states that the unequal power relationships existing between social classes, women and men, as well as between ethnic or cultural majorities and minorities are the result of discursive practices. He assumes power as fulfilling two functions; on the one hand, it is influential as in advertising, politics, media and culture, on the other hand, it is instrumental as used in law, education, business and management—either overtly or covertly. According to Rahimi and Sahragard (2007):

Ideological structures are those slanting (biased) ruling ideas that become a part of people's common senses, while they serve as the assumptions of a particular class and usually the ruling class (p. 19).

Generally, review of literature stresses that the main assumption of CDA that makes this analytical research different from other text analysis approaches lies in the potential of this approach in demystifying the ideological assumptions hidden in the text.

IV. LANGUAGE, GENDER, AND EDUCATION

Language is a means to reflect as well as challenge social positions of females and males (Weatherall, 2002). Gender, social class, age, ethnicity, education, etc. are among the factors contributed to the social classification that is one of the measures which determines the language people use (Muto-Humphrey, 2005). Ansary and Babaii (2003) argue that language is a means to transmit different attitudes, values and norms, though it is considered as a neutral communicative instrument; accordingly, it is not unpredictable that language plays a crucial role in reinforcing or even forming attitudes and values of a society.

Language is a crucial factor in communicative events, by which our ideas and feelings about the world around us are conceptualized. It is evident that the relationship between language, thought and reality is not so clear and straightforward (Mineshima, 2008). In this regard, Ansary and Babaii (2003) argue that language plays a crucial role in establishing social relationships with other individuals living in the society. They continue that sex differences shed light on the sociolinguistic aspects of life that is reflected in the language of each community. The literature review upholds that although language has a demanding role in the socialization of children, at the same time, language has a significant role in perpetuating and conveying gender bias implicitly or explicitly (Ansary & Babaii, 2003).

One of the fundamental thrusts of *Sociolinguistics* is the relationship between language and gender. Attention to the relationships between language and gender as a domain of study emerged during the 1960s and 1970s with three books: *Male/Female Language* (M.R. Key), *Language and Women's Place* (R. Lakoff), and *Difference and Dominance* (Thorne & Henley).

Gender is a contextual-dependent concept that contributes various linguistic strategies to males and females (Bell, McCarthy & McNamara, 2006). "*Gender*" depicts the roles of women and men established by the society. Each society has a particular point of view towards the roles played by women and men and has specific expectations from them (Bell et al., 2006). These expectations depend on cultural, political, economic, social and religious factors (Bell et al., 2006). Customs, law, class, ethnic background, as well as prejudices of a particular society have a certain disposition towards women and men; and these issues construct particular attitudes and behaviors towards gender. In addition, gender roles define the activities assigned to men and women on the basis of presumed differences (Bell et al., 2006).

It is culturally assumed that females and males constitute two extremes of traits. In fact, females occupy suppressed groups that incarnate negative characteristics as passiveness, weakness, dependence, and emotionality; males comprise the dominant groups with the positive characteristics such as strangeness, activity, independence, and rationality (Ho, 2009). It is apparent that these tags to females and males are not natural and inherent, but are socially and culturally constructed and supported (Ho, 2009).

Montgomery (1995) remarks that the differences observed between females and males are affected by different factors particularly linguistic and sociological ones. Whereas, linguistic factors deal with lexical and grammatical choices which differ between females and males, sociological factors shed light on cultural, environmental, ethical, and social alternatives (Montgomery, 1995). In fact, Gender, power, and opportunity as the social systems are interwoven with cultural and historical processes, thus tradition has a determining role on construction of these systems. It is apparent that the way in which tradition develops over time is an essential factor in maintaining or modifying these systems in any society (Gouveia, 2005).

There are two concepts which deal with gender; one is "*gender representation*" and the other "*gender bias*". "*Gender representation*" refers to the way in which gender is portrayed, but "*gender bias*" sheds light on the unfair treatment to one gender by under-representation comparing the opposite gender (Mineshima, 2008; Gouvias, 2005).

In forming gender, identity, educational processes, and relations play a crucial role (Özdoğan, Aksoy, Erdoğan, & Boğaziçi, 2002). In fact, sex segregations, sex stereotypes and also discriminations are developed and reinforced through schools (Özdoğan, et al, 2002). It seems that schools play a demanding role in exaggerating the negative aspects of the gender roles in the outside world (Özdoğan, et al, 2002). Accordingly, it is crucial that each curriculum attempts to provide equal chances and opportunities for all learners which demands adjustment in using the textbooks in such a way that the gender bias is minimized as much as possible (Özdoğan, et al, 2002) since educational objectives are not achievable without considering the gender issue into account.

V. TEXTBOOKS

Textbooks are one of the sources of presenting language. Sociolinguistic usage, among other factors, occupies a significant place in presenting both males and females' roles in society as well as cultural arrangements learners are exposed to, in the textbooks (Otlowski, 2003). Accordingly, textbooks play a crucial role in signaling some messages regarding the issue of gender as well as the social roles each gender performs. In this regard, Gershuny (1977) argues

that “textbooks purporting to teach the specifics of academic discipline have concomitantly taught secondary information—gender roles and social values” (p.150).

Firestone (2000) emphasizes that textbooks are in fact political means for shaping the mental models of people through which the way that people think, act or feel regarding different phenomena including gender issues is dictated. In fact, the main purpose of the textbooks including foreign language textbooks is to guide and also to instruct children about the past as well as the idealized presentation of the past (Firestone, 2000). Moreover, textbooks are informative resources for living and behaving in every society (Firestone, 2000). In other words, textbooks provide a history of people, its relationships and even ideologies of that people (Firestone, 2000). Thus, textbooks are something more significant than names, dates, facts, but they inspire realities that are shaped (Firestone, 2000) by “the ruling system in legitimizing and preserving their dominance and preventing production of the alternative discourse” (Keshavarz and Malek, 2009, p.7).

Consequently, textbooks play a crucial role in socializing the children (Keshavarz & Malek, 2009). They have a significant role in conveying specific and distinct information about the world in order to dictate suitable and proper types of behavior. It seems that textbooks producers try to express (an idealized) reality (Keshavarz & Malek, 2009). Apparently, a conscious or unconscious gender message is transmitting through the process of production to instruction, though it is purported that these attempts are conscious. Gender message that is conveyed through textbooks or other means reflects information about the norms and values governing in the society. In addition, these conveyed messages express something about the opportunities and chances available for both females and males (Keshavarz & Malek, 2009).

It appears that understanding definitions and presentation of realities in textbooks are significant because they are reflecting aims and purposes of society and government. Accordingly, textbooks should be designed in such a way that they provide not only the elites but also the peasants as well as indigenous people (Keshavarz & Malek, 2009). Littlejohn and Windeatt’s (1988) investigation of the teaching materials shows that some materials are more or less biased in presenting class, ethnicity etc. Schau and Scott (1984), as well as Sadker, Sadker and Klein (1991) imply that gender-balanced textbooks help students to broaden their attitudes regarding gender and subsequently increase students’ motivation in learning.

Lakoff (1973) argues that all the values, norms, perspectives and attitudes that are held by a society are reflected in the language and also in the textbooks. He was interested in female’s presentation in written as well as spoken English textbooks and also the values and norms unconsciously transmitted because of this presentation. Ansary & Babaii (2003), Beebe (1998), Kanemaru (1998), Pierce (1990) and Wolfson (1989) emphasize that textbooks should present a balanced and fair representation of both genders and also the roles ascribed to them and refuse stereotyping. Textbooks are also one of the resources considered by the practitioners of (critical) discourse analysis framework. Richards and Rodgers (2001) view textbooks as the second significant element, after teacher, influencing learning.

Furthermore, Farooq (1999) argues that if a textbook neglects the actions and achievements of females or disapprove females or ascribe stereotyped roles to females and males, this textbook is sexist. Jones, Kite, and Sunderland (1997), in the same vein, discuss that a “textbook carries a unique authority which is created and maintained through its texts...these are understood as the legitimate version of a society’s sound knowledge” (p.8). Generally, it has been argued repeatedly by different researchers including Johansson and Malmström (2009) that male-dominated textbooks in which males outnumber females denote that males are more important and even are entitled to take part more actively in the classroom activities compared to females.

VI. SEXISM

The term sexism conveys different meanings, among them, the one concerned about the ways in which negative attitudes are signaled toward females are noticed (Farooq, 1999). Trudgill (1974) views sexism as an unconscious cultural bias that is expressed and reinforced by the kind of language people are taught from childhood.

Sex bias refers to the sex stereotyping that conveys significant messages regarding the norms and values specific to females and males (Chung, 2000). Sex bias presents the “reinforcement of sex stereotypes and the more or less overt discriminatory treatment of girls in schools that disadvantage girls” (Chung, 2000, p.4). Accordingly, it is proposed that sex bias impacts both females and males’ achievements in such a way that it prevents both genders in fulfillment their potentials (Chung, 2000).

Hence, sex bias is incorporated in “sex-segregated curricula in textbooks and other instructional materials” (Chung, 2000, p.4). Furthermore, this issue is embodied in the sort of the teachers’ behavior regarding learners—both females and males (Chung, 2000). In effect, Chung defines sex bias as critical sex stereotyping in which “the overt or less overt discriminatory treatment (is attributed to the) girls in schools that disadvantage girls” (p.4).

Otherwise, the studies undertaken in the US and other countries regarding sex bias showed that textbooks as well as schools, materials and even teachers’ treatment with boys or girls are laden with critical amount of sex bias. These research studies claim that sex bias influences both sexes’ performances. Four main types of sex bias were recognized by (AAUW, 1992), i.e. “i) the exclusion, or invisibility, of girls or women from textbooks, ii) sex-stereotyping, iii) the subordination of girls or women to boys and men in text, and iv) the lack of females in history books” (cited in Chung,

2000, p.4); Henley (1987) also proposes three types of sexist language: a) ignoring women, b) narrowly defining women, and c) depreciating women.

VII. EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH ON GENDER IN EFL TEXTBOOKS

Studies in the past four decades show the existence of gender bias in EFL textbooks in terms of gender representation as well as gender roles (Hartman & Judd, 1978; Jones, Kitetu, & Sunderland 1997; Bayyurt & Litosseliti, 2006; Johansson & Malmjö, 2009). Some cases of these studies are presented as follow:

Some authors investigated the content of primary schools during the years 1961 and 1962 by focusing on child-centered stories. This investigation that was called "*Dick and Jane as victims*" published in 1972 considered 14 different publishing companies. This study categorized the key terms into two main groups: "Active Mastery" and "Second Sex". "Active Mastery" composes positive themes such as "ingenuity", "cleverness", "strength", "bravery" and "heroism". "Second Sex" constitutes less positive themes such as "incompetence", "passivity", "goal construction and rehearsal for domesticity". This study concluded that the proportion of girls to boys was 1 to 4 in terms of the first category and 6 to 1 in the second category. Some other results were also found as following:

i) males appear twice as frequently as females; ii) men are featured in a variety of occupations, while most women are housewives; iii) females are represented as passive and dependent, while males are strong, assertive and active; iv) boys do not exhibit emotion; v) household chores are depicted as female chores, and vi) girls are not prized for intelligence as are boys (cited in Chung, 2000, p.5).

Graham (1975) presented a study in which five million words were taken from American children's textbooks which resulted in outnumbering of males. Porreca (1984) made a similar investigation and found that males' designations nearly always exceed from the ones of females. Carroll and Cowlitz (1994) argue that presenting males in greater number pronouns denotes the greater importance on the part of males.

Coles (1977), Nilsen (1977), as well as Peterson and Kroner (1992), in similar studies, examined sex bias in some textbooks and uphold the existence of prejudices against females. It is argued that sexist attitudes and values that are represented through textbooks is a sociolinguistic fact that learners are exposed to and it plays a crucial role in shaping perspectives and attitudes of the learners as the next generation (Stockdale, 2006).

Hartman and Judd (1978) examined 15 TESOL textbooks published during late 1960s and early 1970s and concluded that these textbooks portray females less visible comparing to males. In addition, it was concluded that females are playing the stereotyping roles along with being the subject of titles. In some studies, among them, Hellinger's (1980) "For Men Must Work, Women Must Weep: Sexism in English Textbooks used in German Schools" and Porreca (1984) "Sexism in Current ESL Textbooks" are worth mentioning. These two studies as well as most of the other studies show that males outnumbered and take a more significant and dominant status. Korean Women's Development Institute (KWDI) also developed a similar investigation in 1993 on Korean primary and secondary schools' textbooks of the fifth curriculum cycle which yielded similar results (cited in Stockdale, 2006).

Other studies in the past two decades also brought about the same results (e.g. O'Barr & Atkins, 1980; Holmes, 1986; Guy, Horvath, Vonwiller, Paisley, & Rogers, 1986; Cameron & Coates, 1988; Eckert, 1989; Tannen, 1990; Macaulay & Brice, 1994, 1997). All these studies result in similar findings, i.e. inequalities between females and males in such a way that females were treated unfairly and given a derogatory status compared to males.

Farooq (1999) investigated sexism in an EFL textbook, namely, *Oral Communication Ia: 13 Conversations* used by Japanese junior college students. He found that this textbook manifested sexism in both linguistic and non-linguistic parts in which the superiority of men were revealed in this particular textbook.

American Association of University Women (AAUW) made a study on sex bias in schools' textbooks in 1999. This study revealed more balanced and improved situation for both males and females in 1990s comparing with the one in 1970s. It seems, in this decade, women participate in a more diverse roles and activities.

Suno, Lida, and Hardy (2001) are also among the researchers who evaluated gender representation in EFL textbooks. In fact, they investigated male and female representation in five series of Japanese EFL junior high school textbooks which showed that these series are laden with gender-biased implicit messages.

Furthermore, Ansary and Babaii (2003) examined *Right Path to English I & II* in terms of sexism. Their study showed that these textbooks suffer from sexism in favor of males. Dominguez (2003), in his study, investigated sexism in *New Interchange Intro* linguistically and non-linguistically. Likewise, Dominguez' study resulted into similar findings.

In addition, Muto-Humphrey (2005) investigated *Graded Readers* in terms of gender textbooks, i.e. two versions of texts based on the same story, namely, *The Gift of Magi* by O' Hevy that is a beginner level with about 300 headwords and *The Christmas Present*, that is a lower intermediate level with 700 headwords among 55 females and 21 males. This study showed that *graded readers* doesn't consider gender balance effectively. In fact, this investigation concluded that social aspect of gender balance received little attention.

Stockdale (2006) also evaluated an EFL textbook, namely, *Impact Values* in terms of gender representation. He investigated this textbook regarding gender bias-related issues including visibility, firstness, nouns and pronouns as well as discourse roles. He brought about the same results, i.e. significant bias favoring males.

Likewise, Paivandi (2008) evaluated discrimination and intolerance in Iran's textbooks with the perspective against women and minorities. He concluded that all these textbooks are loaded with religious and ideological points of view. It seems that, this perspective implies a kind of reductionism, bias, and exclusion in which a group of people were presented as insiders—who tolerate others—and the other groups were rejected. It means that a kind of gender ideology makes differences between women and men, and the superiority of men was manifested. Furthermore, bias was also observed between minorities and majorities in terms of religious issues.

Moreover, Keshavarz and Malek (2009) investigated *ILI (Iran Language Institute) and True to Life* regarding social relations, subject positions and contents in conversations of these two series. Their study showed that these two groups of textbooks are composed of equal social status between participants in which friends, occupational and commercial positions were dominant themes. Hence, their study indicated that market issue—one representation of western economy and capitalism—is emphasized in the two series.

Johansson and Malmjö (2009), in the same vein, examined four series of *Happy, Time, What's Up?, and Wings Base Book* in terms of representation of females and males. Considering the gender bias observed in the series, they argue that gender bias in dialogues should be consciously instructed to the teachers in order to be aware of the prejudices and make any attempts in providing equal chances and opportunities.

Likewise, Nazeri (2010) made a comparative study on gender representation in conversations of ELT textbooks used in Iranian high schools and private institutes, namely *Iranian High School English Textbooks* and *Interchange series* by applying Fairclough's (1989) three-dimensional model of CDA. She discovered that the issue of gender is presented as capitalist economy in *Interchange*, whereas this issue is de-gendered or ambiguous in *Iranian High School English Textbooks*. Hence, contrary to *Interchange's* claim based on neutrality in representation on gender, the ideology of capitalist economy was revealed in these textbooks.

Esmaili (2011) also made a comparative study on gender representation between two series of *American Headway* and *Iranian High School English Textbooks* with a critical discourse analysis perspective. She revealed that the both series suffer from sexism or sex bias. In her investigation, she argued that *American Headway Series* follow a sexism attitude merged with ideology of capitalism economy; whereas, *Iranian High School English Textbooks* apparently instill culture as ideology by which females are discriminated or excluded consistently and systematically in such a way in which separation or even segregation between two genders is remained.

All in all the existence of sexism is proved in different investigated EFL textbooks. This phenomenon may boil down to the fact that ELT materials follow such a way in which learners are provided with sexist attitudes, values and norms; and unfortunately, these are women who are the victims of the sexist attitudes, perspectives and norms.

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A Study on Deep Integration of One-to-one Digital Learning into EFL Teaching

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Abstract—English Learners' initiative and enthusiasm for English learning and research are fully aroused in such active learning environment as self-exploration, multiple interaction, cooperative study, and resources sharing under the support of information technology. One-to-One Digital Learning is the innovative upgrade in education on the basis of informatization learning. Chinese formal research in this area began from one-to-one digital learning program supported by Intel Company in 2007. The paper mainly discusses theoretical basis and approaches to integrate one-to-one digital learning model into EFL teaching, which include the construction of the specific learning environment appropriate to this particular learning model, and the construction of the integrated framework composed by three stages: pre-class self-exploration study based on problems, in-class group cooperative study based on projects, and after-class reflective and deep study based on contents. One-to-one teaching is an educational practice to optimize resources and teach students in accordance with their aptitudes in the modern society. To promote deep integration of information technology into EFL teaching renders assistance in sharing high-quality English resources and constructing creative models for developing English talents.

Index Terms—one-to-one digital learning, EFL teaching, integrated framework of one-to-one digital learning in EFL teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

The rapid development of information and network technology has brought forth revolutionizing influence on Chinese education. To resolve the problems in the process of education and teaching with the assistance of information technology and to realize the deep integration of technology into education gets to become the central concept to guide the Chinese educational development. Nowadays, one-to-one digital learning represented by one student with one digital device turns to the research focus, which refers to a new learning pattern in which each student owns a computer or a smart phone connecting with teachers' computer and network to realize online teaching and learning anytime and anywhere. (Yu & Chen, 2007) Being as a brand-new educational atmosphere, one-to-one digital learning reflects the educational concept of taking the human being as the fundamental point of education. Teaching contents and learning resources should be designed and provided according to the students' specific features and individual requirements which just corresponds to Chinese traditional educational principle: **to teach students according to their aptitudes**.

In the process of EFL teaching generally involving three teaching steps of pre-class, in-class and after-class, English teachers tend to put computers, network learning platform, and smart phones into full play. At first, they should construct a one-to-one digital learning environment under the support of digital software and hardware, and network resources as well. Then, in this shared learning environment, teachers and students can interact and cooperate to conduct online test, interactive discussion, and subject exploration. One-to-one English digital learning environment, as a totally fresh environment revolving around the students, enhances the students' English learning efficiency and enriches their English class experience. Admittedly, English teachers have to reflect on their teaching contents, teaching patterns, and evaluation systems, which triggers off English teaching and learning reforms

II. THEORETICAL UNDERPINNING OF ONE-TO-ONE DIGITAL LEARNING AND ITS RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT

A. Theoretical Underpinning of One-to-one Digital Learning

Constructivism: Knowledge can be constructed by the learners who obtain resources, tools and support from peers, experts and teachers in some social and cultural background; it cannot be passed on by others. As a result, circumstances, conversation, coordination, and meaning construction constitute four major elements of constructivism. Collection and analysis of learning resources, recording and feedback of learning process, analysis and evaluation of learning results, all these learning links between teachers and students require coordination. Conversation, also called communication, is the basic form in the process of coordination. Through communication, group members can discuss how to fulfill their required learning tasks; students can get teachers' and peers' guidance and assistance. Everyone's ideas and solutions are shared by the whole learning community which is also the birth place of individual and collective intelligence.

Learning community and distributed cognition: Learning community involves from knowledge-constructing community and finally turns to a systematic learning environment. It involves community members, the common practice, the shared dialogues, the common resources and cultures. In this learning environment, learners can obtain multiple support and contribute to their own knowledge construction and increase by means of supporting others learning. The fundamental function of learning community is reflected by social consolidation (group belonging sense, collective sense, and identified sense can meet the learners' belonging requirement and promote their participation extent) and information communication (to view the problem from different perspective can develop learners' divergent thinking and reflective abilities). (Zhao, 2005) Distributed cognition refers to the fact that cognition distributes in such matters as inside and outside of individuals, environment, media, society, culture, space, and time. (Zhou & Fu, 2002) Distributed cognition stresses not only the function of the cognitive subjects, but also that of the environment. The single cognitive element cannot hold up complicated and vital digital learning environment. Only the distributed cognitive elements bringing into their common play can make learning become meaningful.

Connectivism: Connectivism Learning Theory is known as the connective view in digital age. George Siemens put forward the theory of connectivism, thinking that learning isn't one person's activity, but the process connecting special nodes and information origin. Connectivism is a complete theoretical exploration from chaos, network, complication to self-organization. Learning is a dynamic and interactive process with inter-connection. With network and prompt terminal devices, connection tends to connect any learning elements anytime. The starting point of connectivism is individual which organizes a knowledge network to set up network connection with others. The individuals extend their own tunnel through self-formed network, and enrich knowledge to construct learning conditions. (Qiu & Gao, 2010)

B. The Research Areas of One-to-one Digital Learning Home and Abroad

Many developed countries including America, Britain, Germany, and Australia have conducted practice and research concerning one-to-one digital learning programs. Such typical programs as One-to-One Computing Initiatives joined by schools of more than ten American states, Classmate PC launched by Intel Company, and Hybrid Mobile Learning initiated by London Urban University are very popular among pupils, high school students and college students. The application of one-to-one digital learning has been developed very rapidly in extent and number, and even some schools can provide the students with 24 hours use of digital devices. Although the relative research seems simple and rough for lack of abundant teaching experience, however, most of researches conclude that application of one-to-one digital learning into different areas achieves positive results, for instance, it contributes to the improvement of computer attainments and writing competence through one-to-one digital learning devices.

In 2001, China proposed the concept of E-bag. Although the concept of one-to-one digital learning in Chinese education has been delayed several years, its technological application can date back to 2002. Many information technologies were integrated into class teaching environment, such as TI, IRS, Laptop, portable learning device with PDA style. The formal research began from one-to-one digital learning program supported by Intel Company in 2007. Intel Future Education Program is a professional development plan among global teachers, which provides supporting training for teachers, helping them develop student-centered learning activities and improve students' learning abilities. This program spurred other educational institutions to develop researches and practice of one-to-one digital learning. E-bag program initiated in Shanghai in 2010 is the launch vehicle to promote nationwide one-to-one digital learning. At present, the experimental schools to participate into this teaching program has reached 100 schools in more than 20 provinces, and these numbers will be surmounted. We should keep in mind that this brand-new learning concept introduced from foreign countries, so its native integration requires a long-term process of adjustment. Our research should put more emphasis in development of learning devices and teaching resources, construction of learning environment and teachers' professional training.

C. The Educational Reform Triggered by One-to-one Digital Learning (Xu, Song, Di & Gao, 2014)

Class reform: With information technology being integrated into class teaching, our class has been changed from traditional classroom with one piece of chalk and one mouth, one blackboard and one book to network classroom with multimedia and various learning platforms, and to mobile classroom with one computer or smart phone per student. Class teaching contents and forms are changed significantly: learning resources are enriched with intelligence, digitalization, network and multimedia; learning space is stretched to social and cyber space.

Learning contents reform: The marked feature of one-to-one digital learning contents is digitalized, running in network device and environment. In this environment, textbook isn't the single teaching content, and the students can obtain various knowledge from learning objects and resources through self-study, teachers' guidance and cooperative communication. Teachers can adopt multiple approaches to enrich closed and isolated class teaching, adding to teaching contents greatly. Meanwhile, learning forms of expression are changed from linear to electronic form which arouses learners' passion for learning and promotes knowledge construction.

Teaching concept reform: One-to-one digital learning changes teaching concept from teacher-centered to students-centered, from knowledge passing on to capability training, from teachers' single technological application to common application. One-to-one plays more emphasis on self-study, cooperative and project-based study. Therefore, such teaching strategies as resources-based self-study, platform-based cooperative study, and space-based project study

should be selected preferentially. Brain Gonzalez, the global educational chief inspector of Intel, advanced Flipped Classroom, which means educators empower the students with more freedom, encouraging them to choose the most suitable way to learn new knowledge outside the classroom and to internalize knowledge inside the classroom by means of interactive communication and discussion among teachers and students.

Learning approaches reform: After constructing one-to-one digital learning environment, learning can take place anywhere so long as the network is connected, which means learning approaches are very flexible and diverse: self-exploratory study, peer-cooperative study, group-study. One-to-one digital learning put an end to traditional passive learning approach and turned to the new one of self-exploration and cooperative interaction. In other words, learners can apply digital platform and resources to conduct discussion with teachers and peers, fulfilling cooperative learning. Learning isn't confined to the regular classroom, for every student is equipped with a computing device, beginning their study anytime and anywhere according to their interests and features. This is the combination of formal and informal learning, which can enhance learners' interests and efficiency, expanding their thinking sphere.

III. CONSTRUCTION AND PRACTICAL ANALYSIS OF ONE-TO-ONE DIGITAL LEARNING MODEL INTEGRATED INTO EFL TEACHING

A. Construction of Specific Learning Environment of One-to-one Digital Learning Integrated into EFL Teaching

Learning platform: To construct the specific learning environment corresponding to one-to-one digital learning is the first priority. At first, campus learning platform for college English should be established and operated. On this platform, massive resources of preview and review concerning college English, professional English (policing English) and self-evaluation system are installed to meet the requirements of students to complete the tasks of preview and review before and after the class. Meanwhile, the students test their learning effects at any time and these digital evaluation data will become vital component of students' formative evaluation. Fig.1 and 2 are homepages of two learning platforms in our police academy; one is Virtual Policing in English (VPIE) homepage, and the other is the homepage of Cross-cultural communication and professional English training platform for policeman.

EFL Labs: To construct several EFL Labs with computing devices including teachers' and students' computers connected with network or smart phones. It is the basic infrastructure and technological support to realize one-to-one digital learning in English class. Teachers' host computer can be connected with students' devices, carrying out interactive activities. During the class, teachers and students can explore various relative resources about the new text; teachers can transfer those personalized learning materials to students' computer or smart phone.

Interactive communication space: To construct wireless network platform and interactive communication space. In their informal learning, the students can apply their mobile devices under the students' guidance to begin their individualized English learning, participating into English practical activities. Fig. 3 is English interactive activities through online learning community Sharing & Improving in QQ group.



Figure 1: Virtual Policing in English (VPIE) homepage.



Figure 2: The homepage of Cross-cultural communication and professional English training platform for the policeman

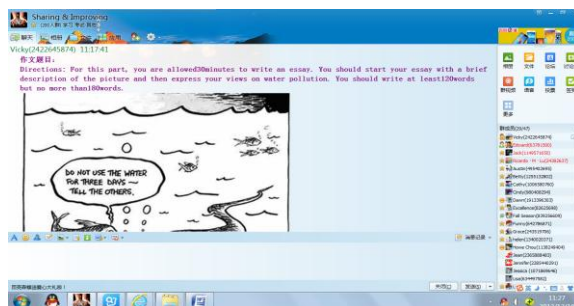


Figure 3: English composition training through Sharing & Improving Online Learning Community in English

B. Construction of Integrated Framework of One-to-one Digital Learning in EFL Teaching

The Integrated Framework of One-to-One Digital Learning in EFL Teaching includes three main stages: pre-class, in-class, and after-class. In each stage, it involves three components including technological support, learning tasks and evaluation formats.

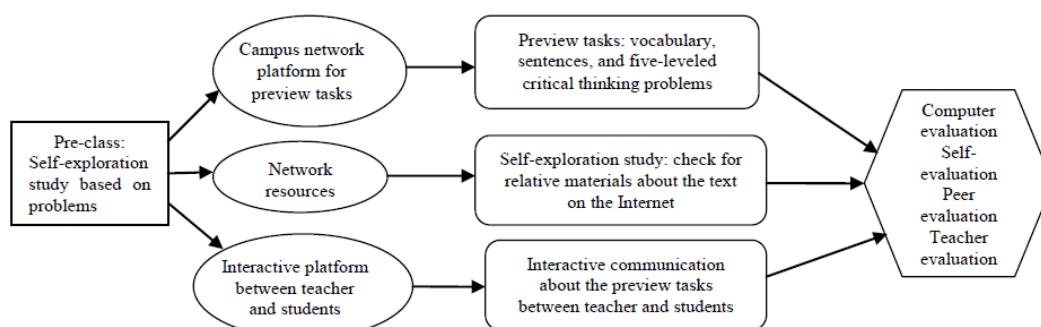


Figure 4: Pre-class self-exploration study based on problems: recourses, tasks and evaluations

Pre-class stage: In this stage, teaching objective stresses online explorative and interactive learning strategy. The students should carry out self-exploration study to seek answers for preview problems and interactive study to think the problems in different perspectives. The main technological support comes from campus network learning platform and online interactive platform. Learning tasks refer to preview vocabulary and five-levelled critical thinking problems about the text. Evaluation formats include computer evaluation, self-evaluation, teacher's evaluation and peer-evaluation.

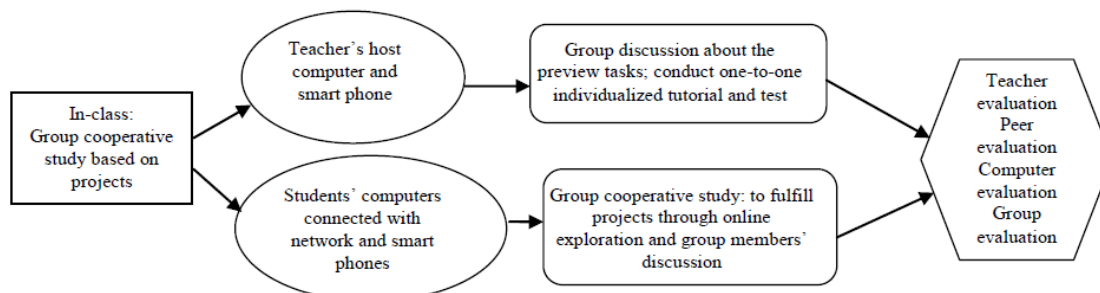


Figure 5: In-class group cooperative study based on projects: devices, activities and evaluations

In-class stage: In this stage, teaching objective stresses online cooperative and discussion learning strategy based on problems and projects among teacher and students. Teachers should guide the students to conduct discussions about the preview questions among each group members and to hold inter-group dialogues about group answers. Here, teacher can use host computer to supervise and guide the group discussions in an efficient and appropriate way, and each student can exchange ideas with his peers and ask for help from teachers simultaneously. Group discussions can also center around a concrete learning project through online free conversation and common exploration. This is a cooperative learning pattern in which students and teachers are learning partners who are willing to share their opinions and resolutions with others. The whole teaching and learning process progress smoothly under the support of network, and the evaluation task is fulfilled by four elements: teacher, peers, computer and group in order to guarantee the completeness and accuracy.

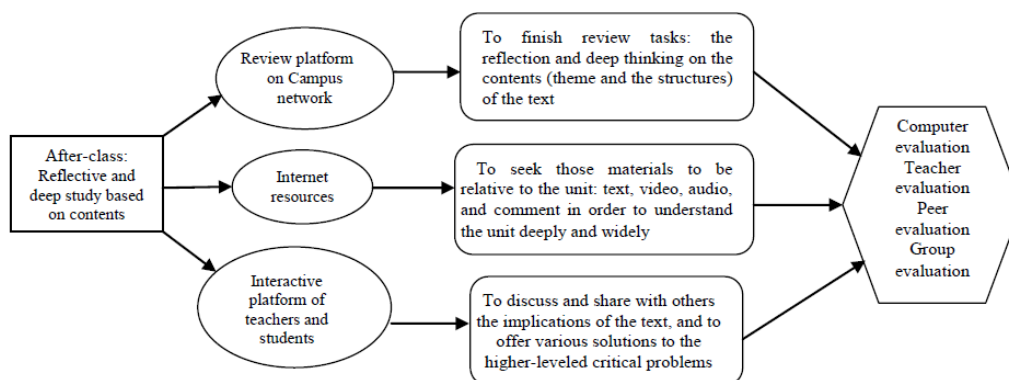


Figure 6: After-class reflective and deep study based on contents: devices, tasks and evaluations

After-class stage: In this stage, teaching objective stresses online reflective and deep study based on contents. Teacher and students fully apply review platform and interactive platform to finish not only the review tasks as to the main contents (the theme and main structures) of the text, but also the deeply-hidden implications of the text and also the higher-level critical problems in reasoning and analysis. Students seek those learning materials to be relative to the text which help understand the contents deeply including video, audio, lyrics, and book comments. Internet is a huge resources bank from which we can acquire massive knowledge and information to be applied into English learning and critical thinking. The process of reflective and deep study is vital to train the students' individualized and specific thinking abilities.

C. Practical Analysis of Integrated Framework of One-to-one Digital Learning in EFL Teaching (Qu, Shen & Zhang, 2014)

One-to-one teaching is an educational practice to optimize resources and teach students in accordance with their aptitudes in the modern educational society. (Zhang, 2014) One-to-one strategy means that every student owns a set of digital device and enjoys various platforms and resources supplied by that device, so as to learn effectively under the guidance of teachers. One-to-one teaching defines that teachers can provide one-to-one special instruction which gives consideration to not only students' learning traits but also teachers' teaching styles. Teachers can instruct the students with a definite object; students can learn knowledge with high efficiency and good results.

Design for EFL teaching contents: Students' knowledge acquisition should be selected as the core of EFL teaching contents, and meanwhile, students' improvement in foreign language ability and comprehensive cultural attainment to promote professional development should be achieved. In EFL class, teachers can begin the class with showing pictures and playing courseware to introduce the topic for discussion. Then, the students read the articles or essays relative to the topic through EFL websites and various learning devices, doing exercises of listening and reading. The students can also use online dictionary to look for the meanings of those new words and take e-notes. After finishing the preparatory tasks, the students set about understanding the main contents of the text, organizing the clear materials through online collection and self-reflection. Under one-to-one digitalized environment, textbook isn't the only teaching contents, and the students can get teaching and learning resources from multiple channels via self-study and cooperative communication guided by teachers. One-to-one digital EFL encourages students to start research-based study, self-study, and cooperative study. Through the practice, reflection and comprehensive application of various higher-level thinking activities, the students' critical thinking and application abilities are improved greatly. The presentation styles of multimodal information contributes to stirring the students' enthusiasm for learning, and inspiring them to ponder over those critical problems and participate into teaching activities. The students reconstruct learned knowledge according to their understanding by means of collection, sorting, analysis, and induction of information.

Enrichment in EFL teaching styles: The adjustment of teaching styles has direct influence on teaching effects. One-to-one digital learning environment fully reflects the collective features of practicability, knowledge and interest, stimulating initiatives from both teachers and students. EFL can be divided into three parts: in-class teaching activities guided by teacher, pre-class learning activities developed by students, and after-class practical activities centred on the new knowledge. As to in-class activities, the main teaching and learning style is group cooperation which trains the students' communicative capabilities and team spirits. This cooperation can promote mutual help and mutual learning, discussing together how to organize those known materials, which enhances the students' logical thinking and judging abilities. One-to-one digital learning environment provides broad platform for pre-class and after-class activities. Students are encouraged to write blog, reflective diary in English, to submit online composition and project paper. Those online discussion, question-answering and inter-communication have become normalized activities applied by teachers and students in their spare time. Both of teaching styles and learning strategies have been radically changed; teaching pays more attention to connect learning courses with learners' real lives, and learners' initiatives for English study make English class filled with the characteristics of individual instruction, mobile learning, and network teaching.

Improvement in EFL teaching evaluation: Teaching evaluation is a vital link in course teaching. Teachers can obtain teaching feedbacks immediately, and then revise teaching plan, supervising teaching progress in this new teaching

environment. Those learning records, personal study logs, teachers and peer review on the information platform can offer reference for adjusting learning strategies, improving learning methods, and enhancing learning efficiency. Teachers can apply the function of online exams to test the students' mastering the new knowledge before the class. According to the test results, teachers can determine their appropriate teaching contents and strategies; students can understand their learning effects and improve learning methods. Teachers and students can make evaluation on assignment, works, and achievement through online polling system or evaluation platform. For instance, teachers apply data regulating system and data processing capacity to make formative evaluation on English writing. Furthermore, teachers can devise more appropriate writing plan for different students through data statistical and analytical function of intelligent evaluation system, making more objective analysis concerning teaching effects.

In fact, one-to-one digital learning environment breaks traditional learning model: leaning is extended in time and space; students are not confined to class learning. Digital evaluation model also breaks the bonds of time, space and territory; the prompt and proper information feedback contributes to knowledge review and consolidation. The students can understand their learning status almost anywhere at any time, and understand others' learning progress and effects through online evaluation. Moreover, peer review and online discussion can lead to mutual learning and evaluation, which enriches students' thinking modes and improve their critical thinking abilities.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The educational reform that one-to-one digital learning is integrated into EFL teaching may be rated as a great contribution to EFL teaching, which changes the current bottleneck position of EFL reform completely. For a long time, Chinese EFL teaching was in the difficult position, for one thing, most of students kept silence in English class without active thinking and wide participation; for another, most of teachers adopted commonly used teaching methods with simple interpretation and repeated training. It's well-known to us that Chinese students tend not to think in critical manner, but rather, they tend to think in a middle way without direct disagreement or open discussion, which results in the shortage of creative talents with abundant critical thinking abilities. (Wei, 2014) This new combination of technology and education, however, infuses with new ideas and media into EFL teaching. Student becomes teaching subject, and teacher becomes teaching guide. With the help of network platform, students can begin learning according to their own demands to realize self-exploration study and multi-perspective interactive study. Teachers have to attach much importance to their expertise development in English and information technology. Under one-to-one digital EFL learning environment, the main target of learning is to grasp self-study ability, communicative ability, critical thinking ability, and above all, the abilities to resolve professional problems in English. To promote deep integration of information technology into EFL teaching renders assistance in sharing high-quality English resources and constructing creative model for developing English talents.

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The Nature of Metacognitive Awareness in Foreign Language Learners and Its Interaction with Creativity

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Abstract—Recent evidence suggests that second/foreign language learning and cognitive functions mutually affect each other. In pursuit of an earlier study which asserted the superiority of advanced foreign language learners over beginners in divergent thinking abilities, the present study examined another important cognitive function, i.e., metacognitive awareness in the same participants, that is, two groups of advanced English as a foreign language (EFL) learners and beginners through Schraw and Dennison's Metacognitive Awareness Inventory. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between the two groups on this measure. However, the correlation analysis showed that the two cognitive functions, i.e., creativity and metacognitive awareness, significantly correlated with each other either in advanced English as a foreign language learners or beginners. The significance of this correlation in language learning programs is further discussed.

Index Terms—metacognitive awareness, creativity, foreign language learning, bilingualism

I. INTRODUCTION

The term metacognition was initially coined by John Flavell, the father of the field, in 1978. It was first a subject of interest to developmental research; however, soon its application was expanded to areas of psychology, education, and even more recently cognitive neuroscience (Schneider, 2008). Although metacognition is a complex concept, it is simply and commonly known as “cognition about cognition” or “thinking about thinking” (Flavell, 1979; Jacob & Paris 1987), or in Kuhn and Dean's (2004) words, “... awareness and management of one's own thought...” (p. 270). From an educational perspective, it can be defined as “... the ability to reflect upon, understand, and control one's learning” (Schraw & Dennison, 1994, p.460).

The significance of this concept is realized through its wide application in different domains. While it was first introduced in the field of developmental research, it is currently a matter of great controversy in educational and clinical psychology, studies of motivation and, even more recently, in cognitive neuroscience (Shimamura, 2000 as cited in Schneider, 2008). Schneider (2008) saw the cause of this popularity in the vital role it plays in “everyday reasoning”, assessment of “scientific thinking” and “social interactions” (p. 115).

Metacognition is comprised of two major components, namely knowledge of cognition, and regulation and monitoring of cognition (Flavell, 1979; Schraw, 1998; Schraw & Moshman, 1995). Several frameworks have been developed to define the component parts of each category. For instance, Flavell (1979) primarily classified knowledge of cognition into three types: person, task, and strategy knowledge. The first one refers to general knowledge one owns about human beings' cognitive capabilities, the second one is knowledge about the nature of the task and its processing demands, and the last one indicates the strategies that may be found useful for different tasks and in different conditions. However, several other researchers have categorized this constituent of metacognition to three types of declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge (e.g. Cross & Paris, 1988; Schraw 1994; Schraw & Moshman, 1995).

Declarative knowledge (knowing “about” things) stands for knowledge about oneself as a learner and factors affecting one's performance; or according to Cross and Paris (1988), in the context of reading, it is an understanding of factors that influence reading. Procedural knowledge (knowing “how” to do things) invokes the appreciation and management of one's thinking. In other words, it is the knowledge about how the execution of strategies is possible. It is claimed that, higher degrees of procedural knowledge enhances more automatic performance, a larger variety of the strategies, and more efficient sequencing of them (Glaser & Chi, 1988; Pressley, Borkowski & Schneider, 1987). Lastly, conditional knowledge (knowing “why” and “when” aspect of cognition) represents the recognition of the reason and proper time to apply one's procedural and declarative knowledge (Garner, 1990 as cited in Schraw, 1998).

The second constituent of metacognition, i.e. regulation of cognition (also known as executive skills or processes; Flavell (1999, 2000) concerns a set of subprocesses and activities that regulate and control one's learning and thinking. The skills that are fundamental to this component of cognition are planning, monitoring, and evaluation (as cited in

Schraw 1998). Planning entails goal setting and selection of appropriate strategies before engaging in learning. “Examples include making predictions before reading, strategy sequencing, and allocating time or attention selectively before beginning a task” (p. 115). Monitoring refers to considerations of one’s learning, task performance and strategy use while engaging in an activity, e.g. self-testing while learning (Schraw & Moshman, 1995). Unlike planning that is done prior to embarking on a task, evaluation is the final assessment of learning outcomes and regulatory strategies to see if the goals are met or evaluate one’s achievement (Schraw, 1994; Schraw 1998).

There is consensus that knowledge of cognition facilitates its regulation. These components of metacognition are found to be integrated in metacognitive theories that in addition to systematizing and integrating various facets of metacognition elucidate and predict cognitive behavior (Schraw & Moshman, 1995). Metacognitive theories are of three types: tacit, informal, and formal. *Tacit theories* are constructed implicitly and gradually, and are usually far from the conscious knowledge of their theorists. They are formed in everyday interactions and can be influenced by culture. Lack of awareness of their existence or origin makes tacit theories difficult to change. On the other hand, *informal theories* have some degree of awareness but have never been structured systematically. They signify the early stages of recognition and awareness of processes that form metacognitive knowledge and can help modify and improve them. Due to lack of explicit instruction they develop gradually through social and personal experiences. Finally, *formal theories* are strongly systematized and explicit but quite rare. Awareness of some evidence to support and evaluate theories makes them reliable and progressive (Schraw, 1998).

It is strongly claimed that metacognition improves with age (Kuhn & Dean, 2004), and in everybody’s course of life moves through the same stages, that is after the construction of tacit theories in childhood they take the form of elementary informal theories that are deemed to be domain-specific, they become more advanced in their level of formalization and will finally extend to other domains through practice and self-reflection (Schraw & Moshman, 1995). Schraw (1998) discussed the relation between cognitive and metacognitive abilities. In his view, cognitive abilities are domain-specific whereas metacognitive abilities cross domain boundaries. In a similar vein, Schraw and Dennison (1994) emphasized that unlike cognitive abilities such as aptitude and domain knowledge that may constrain one’s learning, metacognitive abilities are not easily detectable.

Considering the relation between IQ and metacognitive abilities, it is acknowledged that development of metacognition is independent from IQ. Verifying this fact, Ackreman (1987) stressed the indispensable role of IQ in the early stages of learning, and its low prominence in later. Acquisition of appropriate metacognitive knowledge can mediate and compensate for differences in IQ and insufficient domain-specific knowledge. The more learners practice the acquired metacognitive knowledge, the more flexible and generalizable its application gets.

A point that is worth to be mentioned is that, the distinctive nature of metacognition makes it more lasting and general than cognitive skills that are restricted to certain domains. It is argued that high levels of domain-specific cognitive skills can facilitate the acquisition and application of metacognitive knowledge; however, it doesn’t guarantee development of metacognition (Schraw, 1998).

While the research on metacognitive development of bilinguals is in infancy, it is deemed that enhanced metalinguistic awareness which is widely observed in bilinguals can be a source of improvement in metacognitive awareness. Paris, Wasik, and Turner’s (1991) argument concerning metacognitive reading strategies verified that older and more successful readers have more comprehensive knowledge about themselves as learners and approach different genres in distinct ways, and that they use more reading strategies. Some researchers have posited since second language learning most often happens consciously and deliberately from the very beginning, it develops the capacity for conscious introspection, and its unique nature may cause noticeable awareness of cognitive processes (Hosenfeld, 1978; Vygotsky, 1962).

Vygotsky (1962) was one of the first theorists who put forward the possibility that cognitive differences between bilingual and monolingual children may be due to their superiority in metalinguistic awareness. In line with this claim, Ianco-Worrall (1972) reported that 4- to 5-year-old bilingual children realized the arbitrariness of language significantly more than their monolingual peers which is an indicator of enhanced metalinguistic awareness. Furthermore, it has been suggested that a certain level of metacognitive awareness is required for the learners to transfer their L1 strategies to their L2 (Miramontes, & Commings, 1989). Goldman, Reyes and Varnhagen (1984) and Moll, Estrada, Diaz and Lopes (1980) speculated that bilingual students can profit from instructional environments that promote and encourage access to their first language strengths, that is, the more successful second language learners are deemed to be those who find ways to make these connections on their own.

Moreover, it was suggested that metacognitive awareness can foster creative abilities. There are some theoretical links between metacognition and creativity (e.g., Naglieri & Kaufman, 2001). Several theorists have argued that metacognition is related to creative problem solving and that someone who is high in metacognitive ability should be a more creative problem solver (e.g., Boyce, Van Tassel-Baska, Burruss, Sher, & Johnson, 1997; Feldhusen & Goh, 1995; Jausovec, 1994; Davidson & Sternberg, 1998; as cited in Kaufman, Evans & Baer, 2010). Therefore, it has been argued that high metacognitive ability is associated with more creative performance, and the reverse of this link- those with low metacognitive skills generally exhibit little creativity- has also been put forward by Kruger and Dunning (1999).

Sternburg (2006) stated that, generally, creativity is to some extent measurable, it can be improved, and it is both domain-specific and domain-general. Feldhusen and Goh (1995) attributed the diversity and expanse in the scope of

creativity to the variety of the relevant interfering cognitive activities such as metacognition, critical thinking, problem solving, and decision making that affect it and must be carefully assessed. Sternberg (2006) mentioned the investment theory (Sternberg & Lubart, 1991, 1995) which he believes to be “confluence” theory (p. 87), and suggests that creativity entails the convergence of six different but intertwined resources: intellectual abilities, knowledge, thinking styles, personality, motivation, and environmental context.

Unlike creativity, metacognitive awareness has not been so widely studied by educationalists. In the scope of education, metacognitive awareness has been investigated for domain-specific purposes. For instance, concerning second language learning, researchers have examined the metacognitive strategies that learners employ in reading, writing, etc. These studies certainly are valuable in that they find ways to get through learners’ minds and help them make use of their potentialities in more effective ways. However, a question that was raised in this study concerned the impact of enhanced domain-specific metacognitive awareness on the general metacognitive capacity of the learners. Since metalinguistic awareness is partially considered as the domain-specific form of metacognitive awareness for language learners, and the evidence from previous studies suggest that bilinguals and foreign language learners have higher levels of metalinguistic awareness than beginners, the present study aimed at assessing metacognitive awareness in advanced English as a foreign language learners and beginners.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This study compared the performance of advanced learners of English as a foreign language and their early beginner counterparts on a measure of metacognitive awareness in Iran. A sample of 60 advanced English learners aged 16 to 18 (Mean=17, SD= 1.04) who had been studying English for at least six consecutive years, and 60 beginners in the same age range (Mean= 16.4, SD= 0.6) were selected. The participants were all female and took part in the research project voluntarily.

B. Materials

1. Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI)

The participants’ metacognitive awareness was measured using the Metacognitive Awareness inventory (MAI) developed by Schraw and Dennison (1994). The inventory consisted of 52 multiple choice items, reflecting two major components of knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition which were further categorized into eight subcomponents (table 2.1.). All items were written using a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. Due to the unfamiliarity of beginners with English, the Persian translation of this test was used. Schraw and Dennison (1994) reported an internal consistency ranging from 0.88 to 0.93. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient was 0.88 for both knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition, and 0.93 for the entire inventory, providing a reliable assessment of metacognitive awareness. Moreover, the Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for the present study was 0.88.

TABLE 2.1.
COMPONENTS AND SUBCOMPONENTS OF METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS INVENTORY, ADAPTED FROM SCHRAW AND DENNISON (1994)

Components	Subcomponents
Knowledge of Cognition	Declarative knowledge
	Procedural knowledge
	Conditional knowledge
Regulation of Cognition	Planning
	Information Management
	Monitoring
	Debugging
	Evaluation

2. Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT)

Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (1974) is known as the most widely used measure of creativity. It consists of four norm-referenced subscales, measuring fluency (the number of ideas and solutions), originality (the rarity of ideas), elaboration (the number of added ideas, and the ability to develop and elaborate on ideas), and flexibility (the number of different categories of relevant responses being used).

Since half of the participants did not have any knowledge of English, the Persian translation of the test was used. The validity and reliability of the Persian version are confirmed for the context of Iran by Abedi (1993). The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient of 0.85, assessed for the present study, confirmed its reliability.

III. RESULTS

A. Metacognitive Awareness

The tests of normal distribution of data, as shown in table 3.1., revealed that the data were normally distributed in the two subscales of metacognitive awareness and the total metacognitive awareness. Therefore, the parametric

independent-samples t-test was carried out to compare the performance of advanced EFL learners and beginners on measures of metacognitive awareness (table 3.2.).

TABLE 3.1.
TESTS OF NORMALITY FOR METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS AND ITS COMPONENTS

	Knowledge of cognition	Regulation of cognition	Total metacognitive awareness
No.	120	120	120
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	0.77	0.58	0.93
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.58	0.87	0.35
Skewness	-0.1	0.13	-0.02
Kurtosis	1.2	0.49	0.96

As observable in figure 3.1., the results of independent-samples t-test indicated that there was no significant difference in the performance of the advanced EFL learners ($M = 64.3$, $SD = 7.1$) and beginners ($M = 65$, $SD = 7.1$), $t(117.6) = -0.6$, $p = 0.5$, on the measure of knowledge of cognition (table 3.2.). Similarly, no significant difference was observed in the regulation of cognition between the advanced EFLs ($M = 132.7$, $SD = 13.7$) and the beginners ($M = 130.4$, $SD = 13.5$), $t(118) = 0.9$, $p = 0.4$. As it was expected from the above results, there was no significant difference between the advanced EFL learners ($M = 197$, $SD = 19.6$) and beginners ($M = 195.5$, $SD = 19.5$), $t(118) = 0.4$, $p = 0.7$, in performance on the measure of the total metacognitive awareness. The calculation of effect size also confirmed the obtained results.

TABLE 3.2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND T-TEST FOR METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS AND ITS COMPONENTS

	M	SD	df	t	Sig.	Effect size (r^2)
Knowledge of cognition			117.6	-0.6	0.5	0
Advanced EFLs	64.3	7.1				
Beginners	65	7.1				
Regulation of cognition			118	0.9	0.4	0
Advanced EFLs	132.7	13.7				
Beginners	130.4	13.5				
Total metacognitive awareness			118	0.4	0.7	0
Advanced EFLs	197	19.6				
Beginners	195.5	19.5				

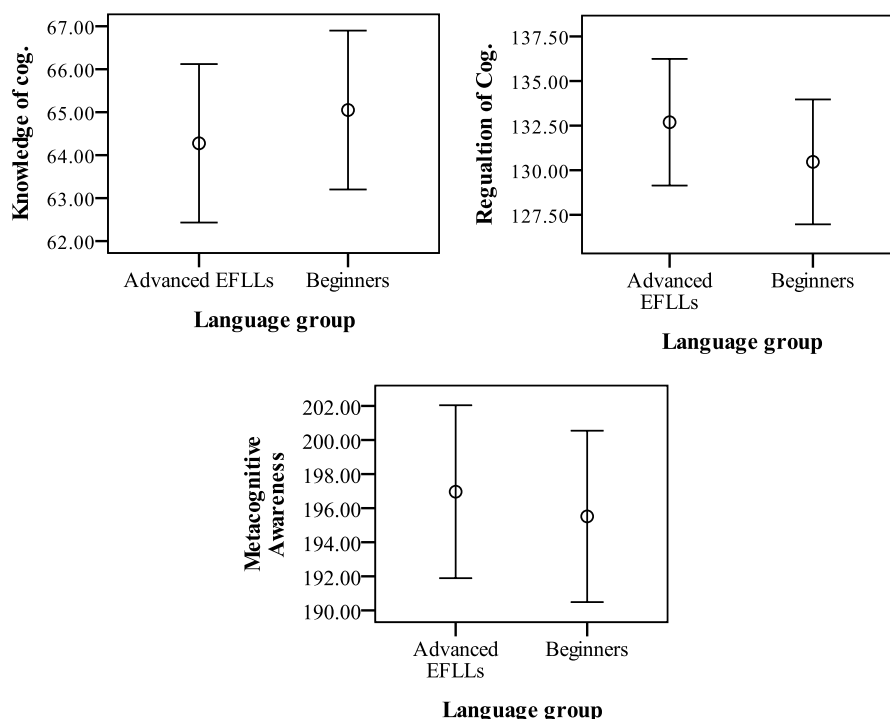


Figure 3.1. Advanced EFL learners and beginners' performance on the MAI measures of knowledge of cognition, regulation of cognition, and total metacognitive awareness, with error bars representing 95% confidence interval ($N = 120$).

B. Creativity and Metacognitive Awareness

As shown in tables 3.3. and 3.4., The Pearson correlation formula was used to examine the relationship between the total creativity and its four subscales, i.e. fluency, elaboration, flexibility and originality, and metacognitive awareness

and its two subscales, namely knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition. The most noteworthy result to be reported is that, total metacognitive awareness correlated positively with total creativity either in advanced EFL learners ($r = 0.33$, $R^2 = 0.1$, $P < 0.05$) or in beginners ($r = 0.35$, $R^2 = 0.1$, $P < 0.01$) as asserted by their moderate effect sizes.

TABLE 3.3.
PEARSON CORRELATION ANALYSIS BETWEEN METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS, CREATIVITY,
AND THEIR COMPONENTS IN ADVANCED ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS

	Knowledge of cognition		Regulation of cognition		Metacognitive awareness	
	r	R^2	r	R^2	r	R^2
Fluency	0.28*	0.07	0.34**	0.1	0.34**	0.1
Elaboration	0.2	0.04	0.22	0.04	0.23	0.05
Originality	0.28*	0.07	0.17	0.02	0.22	0.04
Flexibility	0.15	0.02	0.19	0.03	0.18	0.03
Total creativity	0.31*	0.09	0.31*	0.09	0.33*	0.1

* $P < 0.05$

** $P < 0.01$

Table3.3. shows that knowledge of cognition correlates significantly with fluency ($r = 0.28$, $R^2 = 0.07$, $P < 0.05$), originality ($r = 0.28$, $R^2 = 0.07$, $P < 0.05$), and total creativity ($r = 0.31$, $R^2 = 0.09$, $P < 0.05$) in advanced EFL learners. The moderate effect sizes calculated confirmed the existence of a significant relationship between each pair. Regulation of cognition also had a significant relationship with fluency ($r = 0.34$, $R^2 = 0.1$, $P < 0.01$) and total creativity ($r = 0.31$, $R^2 = 0.09$, $P < 0.05$) with moderate effect sizes. As it was expected from the positive correlation between fluency and both components of metacognitive awareness, a significant relationship was found between fluency and total metacognitive awareness ($r = 0.34$, $R^2 = 0.1$, $P < 0.01$).

Taking into account the above results, it can be stated that there is a significant correlation between metacognitive awareness and creativity in the advanced EFL learners.

TABLE 3.4.
PEARSON CORRELATION ANALYSIS BETWEEN METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS, CREATIVITY, AND THEIR COMPONENTS IN BEGINNERS

	Knowledge of cognition		Regulation of cognition		Metacognitive awareness	
	r	R^2	r	R^2	r	R^2
Fluency	0.27*	0.07	0.34**	0.1	0.33*	0.1
Elaboration	0.16	0.02	0.2	0.04	0.19	0.04
Originality	0.25	0.06	0.37**	0.1	0.35**	0.1
Flexibility	0.18	0.03	0.21	0.04	0.21	0.04
Total creativity	0.26*	0.07	0.37**	0.1	0.35**	0.1

* $P < 0.05$

** $P < 0.01$

The analysis also revealed that knowledge of cognition correlated significantly with fluency ($r = 0.27$, $R^2 = 0.07$, $P < 0.05$), and total creativity ($r = 0.26$, $R^2 = 0.07$, $P < 0.05$) in beginners (table3.4.). The moderate effect sizes calculated confirmed the existence of a significant relationship between each pair. Regulation of cognition also had a significant relationship with fluency ($r = 0.34$, $R^2 = 0.1$, $P < 0.01$), originality ($r = 0.37$, $R^2 = 0.1$, $P < 0.01$) and total creativity ($r = 0.37$, $R^2 = 0.1$, $P < 0.01$) with moderate effect sizes. Therefore, the positive correlation between fluency and both components of metacognitive awareness, a significant relationship was found between fluency and total metacognitive awareness ($r = 0.33$, $R^2 = 0.1$, $P < 0.05$). therefore, it can be concluded that in beginners also metacognitive awareness and creativity significantly correlate with each other.

IV. DISCUSSION

An earlier study conducted by Ghonsooly and Showqi (2012) examined creativity in two groups of beginners and advanced English as a foreign language learners and confirmed the superiority of the former. In pursuit of that study, the present paper assessed metacognitive awareness in the same participants. However, the results showed that mastering a foreign language in a classroom context has no effect on metacognitive awareness of females belonging to the age group of 16 to18.

In the scope of education, metacognitive awareness has been investigated for domain-specific purposes. For instance, concerning second language learning, researchers have examined the metacognitive strategies that learners employ in reading, writing, etc. These studies certainly are valuable in that they find ways to get through learners' minds and help them make use of their potentialities in more effective ways. However, a question that was raised in this study concerned the impact of enhanced domain-specific metacognitive awareness on the general metacognitive capacity of the learners. Since metalinguistic awareness is partially considered as the domain-specific form of metacognitive awareness for language learners, and the evidence from previous studies suggested that bilinguals and foreign language learners have higher levels of metalinguistic awareness than beginners, the metacognitive awareness was assessed in advanced English as a foreign language learners and beginners. As opposed to our expectations, there was no significant difference between the two groups in their performance on the metacognitive awareness inventory.

One explanation for this finding can be the age of the participants. Kuhn and Dean (2004) strongly claimed that metacognition improves with age, and in everybody's course of life it moves through similar stages, that is, after the construction of tacit theories in childhood they take the form of elementary informal theories that are deemed to be domain-specific, later on they become more advanced in their level of formalization and will finally extend to other domains through practice and self-reflection (Schraw & Moshman, 1995). Given that, it can be speculated that the participants in this study have constructed tacit theories, and are currently in the stage of informal theory construction. It is possible that as they grow older and more skillful in employing their second language, this domain-specific knowledge would generalize to other domains.

The above finding is justifiable by considering the foreign language learning systems that the learners in this study had experienced. Currently, few if any institutes provide learners with formal metacognitive strategies; and in addition to the learners who cannot organize their knowledge of second language as efficiently as they should, even a large number of teachers are themselves unfamiliar with this concept. However, regarding the crucial role of metacognitive awareness not only in language learning and education but also in the whole lifespan, it is of great value to make teachers familiar with the concept of metacognition so that they can provide learners with useful metacognitive awareness strategies from the early stages of language learning, and make them autonomous learners. Of course, this kind of instruction requires careful considerations, extensive research, preparation and training; however, its facilitating effects on the learning process would be awesome.

The correlation analysis between creativity and metacognitive awareness asserted the significant relationship between the total creativity and total metacognitive awareness scores in both groups, i.e., beginners and advanced English as a foreign language learners. In other words, both components of metacognitive awareness- knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition- significantly correlated with total creativity. Considering their subcomponents, in addition to the significant correlation that was observed between regulation of cognition and fluency, a strong relationship was found between knowledge of cognition and two subscales of creativity, i.e. fluency and originality in EFL learners. Regarding beginners, there was a significant correlation between knowledge of cognition and fluency. Moreover, regulation of cognition also correlated with fluency, originality and elaboration. In addition, there was a significant relationship between the total creativity and total metacognitive awareness scores in both groups.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study showed that although creativity, as a cognitive function is improved through foreign language learning, metacognitive awareness is not under its influence. As it was discussed in the previous section, this result can be attributed to different factors; however, it is of great significance to examine this function in other age groups, different levels of foreign language mastery and also among male learners.

Since one of the main components of second/foreign language mastery is deemed to be creative thinking, any attempt at improving this capacity is of great value. However, foreign language institutions have paid little attention to enhancing this aspect of cognition. One reason is that providing learners with creative tasks requires a great deal of effort and investment. Due to the fact that it is usually easier and less time-consuming for teachers to teach something directly in a class (metacognitive strategies) rather than try to bring about a subject indirectly or through complicated tasks such as those carefully designed to enhance creativity, we suggest that creativity can be improved through metacognitive awareness. Few if any teacher training courses have ever mentioned this concept, however, it is highly recommended because it can have a fixed framework which makes its teaching easier and takes less time than creative thinking tasks to be taught. Furthermore, regarding the individual differences between teachers in their ability to convey purely thought provoking tasks, introducing metacognitive awareness to the learners can lead to improvements in creative thinking ability.

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Presentation as Employability Soft Skill to ESP Learners in the English Language Institute at King Abdulaziz University

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Abstract—This paper recasts the notion of soft skills and the importance of these skills in the success of professional career to ESP learners. As a matter of fact, it offers a great deal of understanding of the concept of soft skills, employability and communication. In addition, it proposes much attention to presentation as being a communication tool to ESP learners to achieve employability in many professions. Whereas communication is the foundation for most skills, presentation acts as the tool to facilitate communication to be delivered in an appropriate way. Moreover, the paper covers a number of challenges that faces ESP learners in presentation and some effective solutions to overcome difficulties that they might encounter. While the intended aim is to get employed, the researcher argues that mastering soft skills in general and presentation in specific is essential to ESP learners to perform wonderfully in any sector. Nevertheless, it will help greatly in the production of society. By the same token, it shed lights on the most appropriate strategies approached to attain a beneficial and professional presentation every time. Finally, a suggested training program for English Language Institute (hereafter ELI) learners at King Abdul Aziz University on presentation is proposed by the researcher to help learners acquire presentation skill.

Index Terms—soft skills, employability, communication, presentation

I. INTRODUCTION

As the need to utilize the English Language is pressing and becoming really important, the need for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is urging as well. Moreover, having the minimum requirements of the language is not enough anymore. One must seek for self development in a world of challenges (Cited in:Schulz, 2008). Everyone is born with innate skills that enable her/him to manage the specific field s/he is working in; however, these skills need shaping, reshaping and refurbishing in most cases with training. In other words, is to put these skills into action so as to be productive in any society. In order to achieve success in ESP one must acquire some crucial skills especially to be employed. As a matter of fact, English language learners for general and ESP learners in particular need some skills, not only when it comes to hard (technical) skills but also, soft skills that are important to employability in order, to survive in a dynamic era of professionalism.

This paper focuses on communication skills that geared and directed to ESP learners and employees specific careers, in general and presentation in particular which they need the most. Communication skills, without a doubt is the most common and critical among other skills. Many undergraduate, graduates and even employees lack the skill to communicate effectively thought it is essential in every field with no exception. Communication skills are considered as the bases for many other soft skills as they are prerequisites in many cases, they fall into many types such as language proficiency, behavior, conversation and presentation; however, the most approached and desired one is presentation (Schulz, 2008). Unfortunately, ESP learners continually face a dilemma using this skill, which they need mostly in their professional life. The paper tackles an important topic; first, it presents and discusses the importance and definitions of soft skills and employability. Next, it highlights some of the most challenges that ESP learners encounter as a result of the lack in acquiring soft skills. Following, some solutions are proposed to overcome shortfalls in skills. Moreover, an elaboration on presentation for ESP, shedding light on the importance and significance of mastering this skill and the implications that may be applied of some of the most efficient strategies toward successfulness will be displayed. Finally, a training program is suggested by the researcher for ELI learners at King Abdul Aziz University.

II. SOFT SKILLS AND EMPLOYABILITY

To have a clear view of important notions discussed in this paper, it would be of a great help to define some key terms that are frequently used according to research papers and other resources related to the topic. First, soft skills can be defined as "those skills that influence how we interact with people". Those skills could be the ability to communicate,

have qualities of leadership, team building, career, planning, marketing, public speaking... etc (Giusti, 2008, p. 1). They depend on the context which is being applied in. In 2007, Calla Ram listed 60 types of soft skills that are valuable in work and learning domains, they include communication skills, critical and structural thinking, problem solving skills, creativity, negotiation skills, teamwork, capability, self management, cultural awareness, sociability, project manager... etc. It cannot be determined that one skill is more important than another; all in general are beneficial in career development (Schulz, 2008). Therefore, it is fair to say that communication skills also include active listening, writing, speaking and presentation where they are indeed vital. Some professions are aware of the importance of soft skills more than others. For example as Giusti mentioned that legal profession has awareness about soft skills in recent years (Giusti, 2008).

While soft skills influence learners' interaction with others, employability skills as Confederation of British Industry magazine (2013) defines it as "the skills that attribute and help people respond to the changing demands of the workplace and contribute positively to their employer's success" (Cited in: Ito, 2014). It has been noted by Andrews, Russell (2012), Burrows and Wragg (2012) that employability skills can be identified as self-management, team working, business and customer awareness, and problem solving. However, Wagner believes that there are seven employability skills which every ESP learner should be acquainted with those are: "critical thinking and problem solving, collaboration across networks and learning by influence, agility and adaptability, initiative and entrepreneurialism, effective oral and written communication, accessing, analyzing information, curiosity and imagination" (Ito, 2014, p. 2). Obviously, those skills are mostly needed for any learner with different levels of applications. Additionally, Leroux and Lafleur believe that educational industry should keep track of the changes happening in order to assist learners with new market knowledge (Leroux & Lafleur, 1995). This is true for every sector that rapidly changing; therefore, learners must be updated continuously.

A. The Importance of Soft Skills

As soft skills are important for all ESP learners whatever their specialties, they differ in the range of their importance in which what could be useful for one major might not serve in the same level to another major. The importance and necessity of soft skills are drawn from the job-market's competitiveness. It is widely known that candidates with distinct skills are more preferable for they are more productive wherever they are employed (Schulz, 2008). However, denial and ignorance of the importance of these skills will definitely result in holding one back in their professional career in the future (Giusti, 2008). Hence, such skills are usually sought by employers which make those skills an essential quality in many ESP learners and employers "as it became the tool in the global employment scenario" (Neela, 2011, p. 65). Which means that the higher the position the higher the requirements of skills and that is for the sake of development (Giusti, 2008). In other words, soft skills and career growth are interrelated as one depends directly on the other. One should identify which skill that one needs in both career and social life. Thus, having and developing these skills can empower one's self confidence to face any kind of obstacles, for one can easily show his/her strength, qualities and expertise in action.

B. Challenges ESP Learners Face in Soft Skills

Unfortunately, many ESP learners encounter several challenges where they have to work in professional environments that will most probably require "think in the spot" thing, to give presentation or communicate with native speakers. Another challenge is to have the ability to employ the knowledge and skills that they have acquired in institutions or in trainings in their workplace. The Conference Board of Canada, American Society for Training and Development, United States Office of Educational Research and Improvement have emphasized on the importance of teaching soft skills and hard skills in workplaces which is evident in the European society's criteria of employment (Leroux & Lafleur, 1995). Moreover, they have classified The Employability Skills Profile into three divisions:

1. Skills that are needed in academic context such as communication, presentations, critical thinking, problem solving skills... etc.
2. Personal Management skills such as taking personal actions, setting goals, positive attitudes and self-esteem.
3. Team Work Skills including group work, give and take, respect of others and leadership qualities (which also include presentation skill) (Leroux & Lafleur, 1995).

C. Solutions for Utilizing Skills

Therefore, it is desirable to include trainings to undergraduate ESP learners to acquire the most important soft skills that are most probably beneficial professionally which could result in better job opportunities. To enhance soft skills in ESP learners and to overcome their deficiency, some institutions offer training sessions as well as e-learning sessions. Many training of soft skills are being spread widely; nevertheless, independent courses have started to emerge for different fields (Lucs, 2014). Moreover, socialization with others is a key factor especially to improve communication competence (Schulz, 2008). Ito reported that among ESP participants, university faculty of law are in need of skills training (Ito, 2014). Proving this, Georgina mentioned that the UKCES (2009) declared that there is a lack in merging skills to meet business learners' needs (Andrews, 2012). Additionally, ESP learners need to incorporate soft skills within ESP programs to be embedded with other skills. Consequently, modification of teaching methodology must be done which will shift the attention to improve learners' abilities in the best way possible. This demands preplanning on

what skill is intended to be improved; thus, rearranging the content to support learning soft skills (Schulz, 2008). King Abdul Aziz University is one of the most qualified universities across the kingdom and worldwide; so, the university is most illegible to offer these kinds of trainings to their ESP learners and faculty members.

III. PRESENTATION

Presentation has been going through rapid changes delivering variable messages throughout the history. Its aim is to communicate effectively and efficiently presenting ideas in a more meaningful respected form. This skill is one of which can be developed and expanded with practice for it polishes ones speaking skill. It has been approached by many ESP learners, language users as TAs and professors in workshops, classrooms, and conferences as well. It develops a number of other skills along the way e.g. public speaking, negotiation and discussion abilities (Boyd, 1989).

In order to give a presentation, one must have predetermined the purpose for the presentation and have also decided on the objectives of it; such as, the reason for the presentation, the intended skills and information. Materials, audience and objective are what specify the type of presentation; for example, it might be to offer training or teaching skills or topic, and sharing information (Chiarelli & Melgar, 2001). It takes two forms; oral and written one that ESP learners need to master to achieve success in both professional and social competence (Schulz, 2008). The researcher displays presentation including training or teaching a skill or topic to ESP learners. The first step is to determine the topic and collect all needed information. Doing so, will result in self confidence as the presenter will be fully acquainted of the topic, after all s/he is the expert. As pointed by Shinn that many Americans experience difficulties in presentation because it requires a public speaking ability that is why most of them suffer from anxiety. Each presentation should contain one main idea, avoiding multiple messages which could distract the audience (Shinn, 2004). As a matter of fact, a presentation should include an introduction on the topic or skill, importance of the subject, explanation supporting it with illustrations and exercises, conclusion of the presentation and lastly suggestions on the topic. To determine the kind of presentation one must acknowledge the audience. While small groups' presentation tends to be more analytic generously providing details; on the contrary, larger groups require more general information to prevent confusion which might occur in the discussion part. In addition, many presenters do not know what to include in a presentation and what to exclude; therefore, it is ought to mention that in order to have an effective and focused presentation, one should include key points such as statistics, facts and other data. Also, it should consist of definitions of the most frequently repeated and important terms, supposing that the audience knows nothing about the subject; however, one must try to reduce the use of technical terms as to have a comprehensible presentation (Chiarelli & Melgar, 2001). A conclusion is preferable to close the session recapping main points mentioned in the presentation. This is very crucial for ESP learners for they need a summary to spotlight important ideas. Moreover, time should be managed; longer presentation sessions should be interrupted with a break. Equally important is dividing time according to the most important aspect in the presentation to the least important. Nevertheless, the participation of the audience can make the presentation lively active saving it from becoming dull and lecture like (Shinn, 2004).

Comparatively, a presenter should know his/her audience, their experiences, expectations of the presentation and prior knowledge on the subject. As Shinn mentioned that knowing more specified information about the audience such as age, gender, experience, field of expertise and profession could help in formulating a successful targeted presentation (Shinn, 2004). In this case, it is also important to realize and accept controversial points of view, attitudes and prior knowledge of the audience. A key point of perfection in presentations is practice, either in front of a mirror or in front of anybody which will result in easing any anxiety feeling. Moreover, keeping the speech in a more conversation style is more effective than in a lecture one.

By the same token presentation should also include a slide show which ought to be managed of how much information it contains. Slides are a tool that facilitates information to the audience specially to visual learners; therefore, it should not be misused by the overuse of colors (Hoffman & Mittelman, 2004). Also, using visual aids such as pictures, diagrams... etc, and technical aids such as computers, projection and display which would significantly complement and complete a presentation (Chiarelli & Melgar, 2001). Printed materials as handouts should not be given to audience; for it definitely will distract their attention and prevents them from listening which can activate their reading skills instead. Alternatively, a simple outline of the presentation with a space for notes is an effective strategy to keep learners' attention focused though out the entire time on the presenter's talk. It is normal and yet healthy for presentation for ESP learners to include a section where they can discuss and ask questions even the hostile ones for the purpose of reliability (Shinn, 2004). Furthermore, appearance, punctuation and eye contact of the presenter all are indications of strength, control and management skills over the given situation (Yang, 2010).

IV. SUGGESTED SOFT SKILL (PRESENTATION) PROGRAM FOR THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE AT KING ABDUL AZIZ UNIVERSITY

Due to some deficiency that is noticed in learners soft skills, the researcher suggests a presentation training program as a concurrent to foundation year learners who will specialize afterwards in Medicine, Engineering, Art, European Languages...etc. Lower levels start with basic abilities and strategies, whereas, advanced levels of competency should learn more complex strategies. The researcher proposes incorporating training sessions just as the LMS, which is

adopted at the same university to facilitate learning to the four levels at least twice a week. The following is the suggested program:

Program Overview Introduction

A 10-hour training-based course to teach presentation skill to undergraduates is designed. In 10 one-hour session, the course covers technical aspects of written communication, oral presentations to small and medium-sized groups, skills associated with assessing the presentations of others and providing constructive feedback are also taken care of.

Objectives of the Program

The course is based on workshop, group activities, and its general aim is to improve students' skills in presenting information both orally and in writing. By the end of the course, they are expected to have learnt the following:

- to chose a topic, plan, prepare, and present orally to the class
- to know how to lead a discussion
- to master the art of questioning and answering
- to interact with peers firstly and audience at large
- to carry out peer assessment
- to provide constructive feedback

Training 1: The First Session: Ice-breaking

This session is divided into two hours to two classes, and is targeted to level 101 learners. Their proficiency level according to the Common European framework is (A1). They are asked to present a simple presentation, avoiding complexity. The objectives of this first training are general ice-breaking and the introduction of some basic principles of writing. The ice-breaking exercise works remarkably well and can be recommended for more general use, is arranged as follows. The students and teacher are given self-adhesive labels to attach to their clothing and are asked to write on the labels their names (first names and/or nicknames and/or surnames in whatever forms they preferred) plus at least three keywords that has some special relevance to themselves (e.g. place, major and interests). The purpose of the keywords is to act as triggers for the brief conversations with strangers that are to follow. First, they discuss their personal information with the each other and then give a short talk presenting the information learnt from speaking to other peers.

Training 2: The Second Session: Short Presentation

This session is also divided into two hours to two classes, and is aimed to level 102 learners. Their proficiency level according to the Common European framework is (A2). The objectives of this training are to introduce students to the general principles of public speaking and delivering short presentations using L2. The students will be shown a commercially produced training video which illustrates some of the fundamental ideas of presentation. They are also encouraged to discuss their own views and experiences of public speaking, stage fright, and so on. Then, they will be shown the best ways of using overhead projectors, slide projectors, flip charts, and other audio-visual aids, all of which they will be encouraged to try out for themselves. They will be then given, without any prior warning, a list of general topics which support the unit of that week on which to give brief (three-minute) presentations. After selecting one topic each from the list, they spend 15 minutes preparing a talk. Teachers distribute and explain a hand-out containing a checklist for observing presentations and a sheet listing a number of feedback tips and hints. Nevertheless, the teacher keeps track of the time. At the end of the presentation, the audience should be encouraged to applaud. Then, the speaker introduces the person who is to follow, and this continued until every student in the group has spoken. At the end, the teacher leads a constructive informal discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of each presentation.

Training 3: The Third Session: Seven-minute Presentations

This session is divided into two hours to two classes as well, and is designed to suit level 103 learners. Their proficiency level according to the Common European framework is (A2-B1). The main objective of this training is to give the students more practice delivering prepared presentations in front of small groups fully using L2. The presentations are slightly longer than the first one, and the members of the audience should be encouraged to give more detailed and structured feedback. Each student should be given a copy of a useful booklet outlined presentations. Learners are required to develop a more complex form of presentations. They have the freedom to choose the topic from the taught units, and expand it with illustrations, examples, pictures and even videos. Nevertheless, a presenter should remember not to include more than one main idea to avoid confusion (Shinn, 2004).

Training 4: The Fourth Session: Pre-prepared Presentations

This session is divided into two hours to two classes, and is aimed to level 104 learners. According to the Common European framework, their proficiency level is (B1). The objectives of this final training are to give students more experience of preparing short presentations, delivering them to the class, and providing feedback on the presentations of others. In this stage, learners should be full presenters, having the confidence to utilize the L2 to serve their aims. Mastering all the above strategies, learners should present with confidence and ease. Since presentations are longer, more complex and presenters have about 10 to 12 minutes to present, they should have not less than three presentations in this last module. The teacher introduces presentation strategies by reminding students of the fundamental principles of effective presentations, including optimal use of audio-visual aids and self-monitoring of verbal and non-verbal communication. The students should be requested at the end of the previous training to prepare ten-minute presentations on academic topics of their own choosing and they have to be supplied with aids and materials. They should present in a conversational like style and comfortably accept others opinions, comments, questions or requests of others to add,

explain or justify a point (Shinn, 2004). The teacher introduces the first speaker, and after each presentation the speaker introduces the one that followed. The members of the audience should be encouraged to make notes during the presentations so that feedback could be given in general terms at the end. After all the presentations, the teacher leads a session of discussion and feedback.

Feedback

Written guidelines (for 102, 103 and 104) for giving feedback and a handout consisting of a set of rating scales for the evaluation of presentations should be distributed and discussed until the students understand them properly. The rating scales related to the content of the presentations (clarity, formativeness, interest); aspects of vocal presentation (volume, clarity, pace, variety); body language (posture, gesture, facial expression, eye contact); and the use of visual aids. At the end of training 3 and 4, members of the audience should be encouraged to fill in their rating sheets out of sight of one another and discuss the presentation tactfully and constructively, with the discussion being carefully monitored by the teacher to provide the presenters with feedback. They are intended only to refine and structure students' evaluations of one another's presentations and to develop their critical skills in this area (Adopted from: Reyndds, 2012).

V. CONCLUSION

It is of great importance to note that ESP learners need to improve their soft skills as they are concentrating on academic and technical skills (Schulz, 2008). The notion of soft skills is increasingly growing and becoming as important as hard skills. Moreover, acquiring of soft skill needs dedication and hard work of ESP learners and employers (Giusti, 2008). Of all soft skills, communication skills and presentation specifically is a must needed skill, because ESP learners will not survive in an industrial rapidly moving world if they lack the essence of this skill which is most important. Acknowledging the importance of it and trying to improve and master such a skill will result in moving toward successfulness in employability. Generally speaking, a successful presentation requires planning, practicing and presenting with flair. In the end, I believe soft skills are important to the extent that it can be designated as life skills.

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The Impact of Dynamic Corrective Feedback in Developing Speaking Ability of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—Speaking ability is one of the major skills of learning English, and during the process of learning and speaking committing errors is inevitable, but it should be treated properly and in a systematic way. The purpose of the present study was to see to what extent does the implication of the principles of a newly developed strategy of error correction_ dynamic corrective feedback (DCF) affect the overall oral development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners, and to what extent does it affect its major components, specifically accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Therefore in study quasi-experimental study that used a pretest, treatment, post-test, there was one control group (N= 26), and one experimental group (N=28) with both male and female young adult learners. The SPSS software was used to compute and analyze the amount of the treatments impact, and the independent t-test and multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) built up the core statistical analyses of the study. The findings of this study indicated that DCF has been mostly successful, since it benefits from strong theoretical principles derived from DWCF in the area of writing error correction. The retrieved principles imply that provided corrective feedback should be meaningful, timely, constant, and manageable and it must reflect the individual learners most immediate needs based on what they produce (Evans et al. , 2010).

Index Terms—dynamic corrective feedback (DCF), corrective feedback (CF), DWCF, speaking ability, accuracy, fluency, complexity

I. INTRODUCTION

Making errors when learning a new foreign/second language is a natural part of it and it is inevitable. The errors can be of various kinds, for example in pronunciation and syntax, or word choice errors. Feedback is needed to avoid fossilization. As errors cannot be self-corrected, teachers' reaction toward error in the form of corrective feedback is essential. If errors are not corrected, various aspects of a learner's inter-language may become fossilized and he/she will not be able to "progress to fully mature linguistic competence" (Tomasello & Herron, 1988, p. 237).

Almost all EFL teachers agree on the importance of provision of corrective feedback, but there might be disagreements on determining the type of corrective feedback that should be provided at different levels of proficiency. According to Lyster and Ranta (1997) teachers react to learners' errors in one or more of six different ways; i.e. explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. Translation and multiple feedback are two other spoken feedback types which are added to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) list by other researchers.

The efficacy of the corrective feedback in second language acquisition has been discussed and challenged for long, through a great number of theoretical and empirical studies, but there is still a need for further researches. Russell and Spada (2006) also confirm that "much more work needs to be done" (p. 156), and reaffirm that "to establish clear patterns across studies" (P. 156), "similar variables in a consistent manner" need to be investigated.

Regarding the efficacy of one type of corrective feedback over the others or even inefficacy of it Gu énette (2007) recommends that we should investigate on comparable groups over time. Moreover she encourages the effort for designing proper EC strategies based on "the students' proficiency levels and developmental readiness" (p. 51), at the same time she insists on paying attention to external variables i.e. classroom context and student differences, when trying to develop and design such new types of corrective feedback (Gu énette 2007).

Considering the importance of EC, and the actual practices of EC in today's classes especially in the area of speaking, it seems that the conventional methods are mostly un-focused, un-systematic, and are done with less care about its effect on learners' speaking development. At the same time, providing corrective feedback for the speaking as a productive skill seems to be difficult to deal with. From the view point that any oral production disappear soon after it is being produced, providing proper and meaningful corrective feedback due to the lack of time, lack of control over it, and lack of consistency of the provided feedback in any area of difficulty, short after an error is committed it becomes

very difficult if not impossible. There is also no guaranty that learners can learn properly from the provided feedback, since when it is done it is likely to be forgotten or ignored by the learners in the future.

Having all these findings, debates, and concerns in mind, this study tried to follow the issue of error correction in a more specific area of learning, speaking ability, to have more focus on it and deal with it from the CF's perspective. Therefore, the main purpose of the study was to see, to what extent does the implication of the principles of dynamic corrective feedback affect the overall oral development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners, and to what extent does it affect its major components, specifically complexity, accuracy, and fluency. To address the stated problems, and the purpose of the study, the following research question was raised:

Q1: Does dynamic corrective feedback affect the overall oral proficiency of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

Along with the main question, the following sub-questions were also raised.

Q2: Does dynamic corrective feedback affect the accuracy development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' speaking?

Q3: Does dynamic corrective feedback affect the fluency development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' speaking?

Q4: Does dynamic corrective feedback affect the complexity development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' speaking?

Accordingly, to probe the above research questions, four relevant null hypotheses were respectively made.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUNDS

A. *Complexity, Accuracy, and Fluency (CAF)*

As many language learners try to achieve native-like speaking ability, Skehan (1996) describes that this achievement is in connection with developing three major areas of performance which are complexity, accuracy, and fluency. Relevantly Skehan (1992, 1996 as was stated in in Skehan & Foster, 1999) describes these three competitive traits that try to use the attentional resources for themselves, as follows:

Fluency: the capacity to use language in real time, to emphasize meanings, possibly drawing on more lexicalized systems.

Accuracy: the ability to avoid error in performance, possibly reflecting higher levels of control in the language, as well as a conservative orientation, that is, avoidance of challenging structures that might provoke error complexity/range the capacity to use more advanced language, with the possibility that such language may not be controlled so effectively. This may also involve a greater willingness to take risks, and use fewer controlled language subsystems. This area is also taken to correlate with a greater likelihood of restructuring, that is, change and development in the interlanguage system. (P. 4)

It's worth mentioning that along with the above definition, these traits of complexity, accuracy, and fluency, have been operationally defined and measured differently in different studies, although the core idea is similar. Accordingly, they have been measured through different language domains differently, with the use of various tools, scales, and frameworks.

B. *DWCF*

Evans and his colleagues (Evans, Hartshorn, McCollum, & Wolfersberger, 2010) designed a method of error correction basically for their higher level students to enable them to have higher accuracy in their writings. Evans (Evans et al., 2010) used dynamic written corrective feedback (DWCF) as a new trend of error correction. They believed that contextual variables played a crucial role when designing the new method. They (Evans et al., 2010) also considered the issue that 'how contextual factors affect our learning, teaching and research' (Ferris, 2004; Guénette, 2007) as most of the newer studies do.

DWCF is based on the two central principal characteristics as mentioned by Evans et al., (2010) "Feedback reflects what the individual learner needs most as demonstrated by what the learner produces; and tasks and feedback are manageable, meaningful, timely, and constant for both the learner and teacher" (P. 452). In other words, DWCF is meaningful when learners understand the provided feedback and know how they are expected to utilize it. DWCF is timely when the learners receive at immediate proper time intervals. Feedback is constant when it is provided to the learners at regular, frequent intervals over an extended period of weeks or months (Evans, Hartshorn, & Strong-Krause, 2011, p. 232). So DeKeyser's concept of skill acquisition theory (2001, 2007, as stated in Evans et al., 2011) affirms that, in order for the learners to get a meaningful level of automatic L2 production, writing practices, application of the feedback need to be timely and constant. Feedback is called manageable when the teachers and students have a list of errors to provide quality feedback and students have enough time to process and apply the feedback they receive (Hartshorn et al, 2010).

C. *DCF*

The main idea of DCF roots back in successful results of a newly developed method of error correction in the area of writing_ dynamic written corrective feedback (DWCF) exemplarily in the works of Evans et al., 2010; Evans et al., 2011; Hartshorn et al., 2010.

Although (as mentioned earlier) these studies focused on the implementation of the Dynamic Corrective Feedback in the area of writing (DWCF), but the current study focuses on the DCF on oral production, hence the main principles and premises of dynamicity in error correction is derived from the aforesaid studies. Since it was not enough and applicable to apply all those principles and still keep it intact, just some minor modifications were applied to those premises to enable the implementation of DWCF in the area of speaking, that is here termed as DCF.

DCF is neither just written, nor just oral but also it is an amalgamation of both. DCF implies its techniques and strategies in a way that makes the issue of providing corrective feedback for the oral production more flexible and systematic. DCF uses the two central principal characteristics of the DWCF as mentioned by Evans et al., (2010, P.452) "Feedback reflects what the individual learner needs most as demonstrated by what the learner produces; and tasks and feedback are manageable, meaningful, timely, and constant for both the learner and teacher".

In this study, the first key characteristics of the DWCF as mentioned above, is still the same and it is kept intact, but some modifications are applied around the second key principle. Therefore, the DCF in this study keeps the premise of being manageable, meaningful, timely, and constant (Evans et al., 2010), and adds a fifth premise that DCF should provide better alternatives in order to enrich the students production with more to the point, and varied technical alternatives.

Consequently, in term of theoretical principles, the two types of dynamic corrective feedback_ DWCF in previous studies (Evans et al., 2010; Evans et al., 2011; Hartshorn et al., 2010), and DCF (the present study) are quite similar, but the differences are much more tangible in term of their implication and actual practices. Since the current study tried to provide DCF on the students' oral production, and from the viewpoint that oral production is disappeared and forgotten soon after it is being produced, the theoretical premises and principles of the DCF that were explained earlier seem more crucial.

Accordingly in this study, it is tried to make the corrective feedback more dynamic in its actual practice, by the use of tally sheet and error list, and the provided columns in them, along with the systematic and principled based techniques of providing corrective, and also with the regular revision of the errors, plus some other techniques of cooperation. Therefore, the premises are being timely, constant, manageable, and meaningful (Evans et al., 2010), plus the very last one, that asserts that DCF should provide alternatives (i.e. grammatical, lexical) to become more meaningful. Moreover, the students in DCF receive the feedback in different forms and provided differently such as self-correction, peer-correction, or teacher correction, but we should bear in mind that more important than who corrects the errors, is how to treat them; in order to take advantage of it and avoid committing them in similar occasions.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Before the homogenization, there were 82 available students in the target English language institute in Tehran, who had already passed their previous course-book, Top Notch 3 (by Saslow & Ascher, 2006), and enrolled for the next semester_ Summit 1 (by Saslow & Ascher, 2006). Then 52 students whose test score fell between one standard deviation ($SD=5.62$) above and below the mean ($M=54.36$) were selected. They were both men and female young adult EFL learners ranging in age from 16-29, with the average age of 19. The number of males exceeded the females; consequently, after the random placement of the students in control and experimental groups, there were 30 males and 24 females in all. In other words, there were six classes of control and experimental with about 8-10 students in each.

Two experienced and trained examiners scored and rated the papers for the parts that could not be objectively scored. Therefore, during the PET test, the two raters scored the writing and the speaking sections, using PET's analytic scoring rubric. Their inter-rater consistency were then calculated.

One of the authors of the study was the only teacher who participated, and taught in both groups of control and experimental. Although it was difficult to have all classes with the same teacher during six days of the week, but since most of the students had experienced his classes at least for one semester in lower levels, with an acceptable level of satisfaction (as the feedback the manager of the institute received indicated it), there was a great hope to have their full cooperation.

B. Instruments

1. Preliminary English Test (PET) and the coursebooks:

A version of Preliminary English Test (2003) was used to homogenize the students and to make sure the students were all in the same level of proficiency. The speaking section of the test was also used for the pretest in the next step. Parallel to the pretest, another version of PET's speaking section was used in the posttest for the sake of posttest measurement and analysis. The PET's scoring rubric was used for the scoring of the PET's relevant sections, during the homogenization phase, and a digital voice recorder was used during the pretest and the posttest to audio record the participants' voices, for further measurement in a later time.

2. Error list and tally sheet:

An error list, which was specifically designed for this research, was a piece of an A4 paper given to the experimental group in the beginning of the treatment section of the class, with a table drawn on it. The table contains some columns, including a list of *committed errors*, the *corrected form* of the error, and *alternatives*. The error list is a kind of draft that,

every student initially, takes notes in it and completes the parts individually while they are having conversations, and then, during the intervals, and also at the end of the class, all members cooperatively and collaboratively complete the parts.

A tally sheet which is a more complete form of the error list, has some more columns such as the error type, and the general category of the error types. An error log is a column that he who has committed the error checks it for him-self to keep track of his/her repeated errors and its number until that error is totally removed. Similar to the error list, the tally sheet is kept cooperatively in the class, but their difference is that the tally sheet is like a final draft. In other words, the tally sheet is more complete, logs all the errors of oneself and others which does not belong to only one session, but to the whole semester.

C. Procedure

1. Homogenization:

In this study, first a version of PET test was administered to homogenize 76 available students who had already passed their previous course-book Top Notch 3, and enrolled for the subsequent semester, which was Summit 1 in that institute.

It is worth mentioning that due to the difficulty and limitation for the administration of the speaking section to all the students, the process of homogenization took place in two phases. First, all sections of the PET test except for the speaking section were administered to all the students before the beginning of the semester. Then 58 students who had met the criteria of getting a score that falls between one standard deviation ($SD=5.62$) below and above the mean ($M=54.36$) were randomly placed in two groups of control and experimental. It was only after the beginning of the semester that the speaking section was administered to both control and experimental groups, but this time their full scores of all sections of the test, including the speaking scores were calculated for the second homogenization phase. As a result, four more students who were outliers due to their really strong or weak performances in the speaking test, and their scores was out of the range of one SD (5.62) above or below the mean ($M=73.48$, for the full PET score) were omitted. Therefore in the study phase we had 54 students in all, that were placed in two groups of control ($N=26$) and experimental ($N=28$) with the same teacher teaching in all six classes, and with 8-10 students in each.

For the rating purposes, two experienced teachers corrected and rated the papers, and their inter rater consistency was calculated that was at a good level of agreement (see Table 18).

2. Pretest:

During the administration of the PET test, as it was supposed to have the speaking section of the test performances also used for the pretest, all the participants' voices in this section were audio-recorded for further analyses and measurements regarding the complexity, accuracy, and fluency, along with their overall oral proficiency through the whole speaking test.

3. The study context:

Except for test and homogenization sessions, the study lasted for 14 sessions for each class, and they were held for two sessions of 90 minutes per week, and the treatment groups were all placed during six working days of the week, parallel to the timetable of the institute for their regular classes. There were only two study classes held in each day_ one experimental and one control class, therefore the only teacher would just go to one experimental and one control group each day. As the main purpose of the study in this phase was to intervene in the way of speaking practices and applying the innovative method of DCF on the experimental group, to compare its results with the results of the control group using conventional methods, the last 35 minutes of each session in both groups was devoted to the treatment practices. The other 55 minutes in the beginning of each class was to cover the book, present the materials of each unit, follow the normal schedule of each class, and above all to prepare and keep the speaking topics for more practice and extended free talks, for the treatment section of that session.

4. Instructional methods:

It is worth mentioning that in this study all the measurement of the errors and the focus of error correction of the speaking, was based on the grammatical and lexical errors, therefore, other types of speaking deficiencies such as pronunciation, or intonation were not focused, except for the overall speaking scores.

Since this paper sought to apply the techniques of a new approach regarding error correction in speaking (DCF), it was tried to have the topics and the speaking practices of the course-book, kept for the last 35 minutes of each session. Although, the basis of the speaking parts were taken from their course-books, but we did not limit our-selves to it and sometimes we went far beyond the initial topics. When necessary, some of the parallel units of the "Let's talk 3" speaking book, were also used as a supplementary book to support and enrich the topics of the main course-book, in order to let the conversation go and make it more interesting.

The instructional method in the control group was similar to that of the experimental group. The only differences were in the way of error correction, or the way errors were treated. In both groups the students errors were corrected when they were necessary to be corrected, but the way of correction, the person who sought for corrected the errors, and also the amount of focus and attention on the errors (even after the correction has happened), totally differed.

In the control group, the errors were just corrected by the teacher or sometimes by peers, and no further attention or focus was given to the errors unless the students asked for, but in the experimental group, the errors were sought, welcomed and treated in a systematic way.

A typical error treatment in the experimental group is as follows: In the beginning, the students were given an error list with some provided columns to jot the errors down while they were having conversation. Students were taught to participate in class or group conversations, but at the same time actively seek for the committed errors and put them down, while the others were talking. For the sake of fluency, they were not allowed to interrupt the conversation unless the errors were global, or needed to be helped and corrected on the spot. Every 2-4 minutes of time intervals (depending on the conversation and the number of committed errors), they were made to cooperatively recall the errors, correct and write the true form of it in the error list, and to think of any alternatives or options for saying the same idea in some other words (or with an alternative grammatical/lexical form when possible).

The teacher, who was following the same steps and was working cooperatively with the students played some more important roles too. He managed, handled, facilitated, and monitored the conversations and discussions, but he only corrected the errors that were not noticed or not corrected by peers, or the ones that needed more help. Sometimes he signaled the students for poor performances that needed a better grammatical or vocabulary alternatives, by slowly knocking his pen or his index finger on the desk; and also by shaking his pen or finger slowly to the left and right as a NO sign for a committed error that needed immediate help from the peers. He would also try to help the students with more alternatives through grammar or vocabulary, and to introduce the contingencies and possible grammatical mistakes mostly in review sections.

It was no matter who had committed the errors, but they were supposed to not to repeat it, and mark the errors of their own to track it and consequently, have more attention on it.

At the end of the class the error list (first draft) that was completed and revised in that session, and was limited to that session's error, was kept to be reviewed and transmitted to a more complete form of it (tally sheet), in the beginning of the next speaking practice before the new error correction cycle be started.

Since it is not easy to have control on everything and think of all possibilities on the spot, the further reviews in the beginning of the following sessions' speaking played a crucial role. The new given list (Tally sheet) was more complete than the first draft list (Error list). The students were asked to transmit and rewrite the content of the former list in the latter one, and to mark the error type, plus keeping track of one's own recurred errors or error types (logging the errors), before it is totally removed.

5. Posttest:

At the end of the term and after 14 sessions of the study, another version of PET's speaking test with a different topic administered to both groups. Similar to the pretest, the voices during the posttest were audio recorded and then transcribed for the analytic scoring and measurement of the complexity, fluency, and accuracy traits. Besides, the overall oral proficiency was scored by the same raters in the test session, and their inter-rater reliability was calculated afterwards.

D. Measuring the Speaking Components

For the measurement of the speaking components namely, accuracy, fluency, and complexity, that is a threefold procedure, first, the voices were transcribed and then, a different scale for each individual trait was used to measure the amount of the complexity, accuracy and fluency separate from one another. To measure the complexity, which refers to the ability to use a more advanced language, following Foster and Skehan (1996), the proportion of clauses to C-units were calculated. A C-unit as stated by Foster and Skehan, (1999) is defined as "a simple clause, or an independent subclausal unit, together with subordinated clauses associated with them" (p. 106). It is measured by dividing the total number of clauses by the total number of c-units, and since every C-unit has at least one clause, the minimum score for it is 1:00 (Skehan & Foster, 1999). A clause is respectively considered as "either a simple independent finite clause or a dependent finite or non-finite clause" (Foster & Skehan, 1999, P. 228).

For the measurement of the accuracy, Foster and Skehan's (1996) formula was used, therefore the percent of the number of error-free clauses by the total number of clauses in each transcription was calculated. To do this first the number of clauses and then the number of error-free clauses (the clauses with no errors) were counted and calculated. For the sake of fluency calculation Mochizuki and Ortega's trend (2008) was followed, therefore the mean number of words per minute was the base of calculation of the fluency measurement.

For the analysis of the acquired data, the SPSS software was used to compute and analyze the amount of the treatments impact. The independent t-test and multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) built up the core statistical analyses of the study, which is presented in the results section.

IV. RESULTS

A. PET General Language Proficiency Test

An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on PET general language proficiency test in order to prove that the two groups enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study. As displayed in Table 1 the mean scores for experimental and control groups on proficiency test were 54.36 and 54.35 respectively.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PET BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	28	54.36	2.556	.483
Control	26	54.35	2.399	.470

The results of the independent t-test ($t(52) = .016$, $P > .05$, $r = .002$ it represents a weak effect size) indicate that there was not any significant difference between experimental and control groups on proficiency test. Thus, it can be concluded that the two groups enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST; PET BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.005	.945	.016	52	.987	.011	.676	-1.345	1.367
Equal variances not assumed			.016	51.992	.987	.011	.674	-1.342	1.364

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's $F = .005$, $P > .05$). That is why the first row of Table 2, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

B. Pretest of Speaking

As displayed in Table 3 the mean scores for experimental and control groups on Pretest of Speaking were 19.07 and 19.19 respectively.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; PRETEST OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	28	19.07	1.152	.218
Control	26	19.19	1.266	.248

The results of the independent t-test ($t(52) = .367$, $P > .05$, $r = .051$ it represents a weak effect size) indicate that there was not any significant difference between experimental and control groups on Pretest of Speaking. Thus, it can be concluded that the two groups enjoyed the same speaking ability level prior to the main study.

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST; PRETEST OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.145	.705	.367	52	.715	.121	.329	-.539	.781
Equal variances not assumed			.366	50.564	.716	.121	.330	-.542	.784

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's $F = .145$, $P > .05$). That is why the first row of Table 4, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

C. Pretests of Speaking Accuracy, Fluency and, Complexity

A multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) was run to probe any significant difference between the experimental and control groups on the pretests of speaking accuracy, fluency and complexity in order to prove that the two groups were also homogeneous in terms of their ability in using components of speaking. Before reporting the main results it should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances – as tested through the Levene's F-values – was met. As displayed in Table 5 the probabilities associated with the Levene's F-values were all higher than .05. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met.

TABLE 5.
HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES; PRETESTS OF COMPONENTS OF SPEAKING

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Accuracy Pre	.177	1	52	.675
Fluency Pre	.001	1	52	.973
Complexity Pre	.008	1	52	.927

Based on the results displayed in Table 6 it can be concluded that there were not any significant differences between the experimental and control groups on the pretests of speaking accuracy, fluency and complexity ($F(3, 50) = .29$, $P > .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .018$ it represents a weak effect size). Thus, it can be concluded that the two groups were homogeneous in terms of their ability in using the components of pretests of speaking.

TABLE 6.
MULTIVARIATE TESTS; PRETESTS OF COMPONENTS OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.999	16349.627	3	50	.000	.999
	Wilks' Lambda	.001	16349.627	3	50	.000	.999
	Hotelling's Trace	980.978	16349.627	3	50	.000	.999
	Roy's Largest Root	980.978	16349.627	3	50	.000	.999
Group	Pillai's Trace	.018	.299	3	50	.826	.018
	Wilks' Lambda	.982	.299	3	50	.826	.018
	Hotelling's Trace	.018	.299	3	50	.826	.018
	Roy's Largest Root	.018	.299	3	50	.826	.018

Note. It should be mentioned that the SPSS produces four F-values. If the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances are met – as is the case in this study – the first F-value, i.e. Pillai's Trace should be reported. For a complete discussion of these statistics please refer to Field (2009).

The F-value of .29 indicated that there were not any significant differences between the means of the two groups on the pretests of components of speaking as a total score. What follows is the comparison of the two groups on each test separately. Based on the results displayed in Table 7 and Table 8 it can be concluded that;

A: There was not any significant differences between the experimental and control groups on the pretest of speaking accuracy ($F(1, 52) = .019$, $P > .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .000$ it represents a weak effect size). As displayed in Table 8 the means for the experimental and control groups on the pretest of speaking accuracy were 49.03 and 48.69.

TABLE 7.
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS; PRETESTS OF COMPONENTS OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Group	Accuracy Pre	1.590	1	1.590	.019	.891	.000
	Fluency Pre	6.258	1	6.258	.058	.811	.001
	Complexity Pre	.000	1	.000	.001	.988	.000
Error	Accuracy Pre	4358.503	52	83.817			
	Fluency Pre	5657.390	52	108.796			
	Complexity Pre	.830	52	.016			
Total	Accuracy Pre	133329.000	54				
	Fluency Pre	250353.000	54				
	Complexity Pre	96.059	54				

B: There was not any significant differences between the experimental and control groups on the pretest of speaking fluency ($F(1, 52) = .058$, $P > .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .001$ it represents a weak effect size). As displayed in Table 8 the means for the experimental and control groups on the pretest of speaking fluency were 67.64 and 66.96.

TABLE 8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; PRETESTS OF COMPONENTS OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

Dependent Variable	Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Accuracy Pre	Experimental	49.036	1.730	45.564	52.508
	Control	48.692	1.795	45.089	52.295
Fluency Pre	Experimental	67.643	1.971	63.687	71.598
	Control	66.962	2.046	62.857	71.066
Complexity Pre	Experimental	1.328	.024	1.280	1.376
	Control	1.328	.025	1.278	1.377

C: There was not any significant differences between the experimental and control groups on the pretest of speaking complexity ($F(1, 52) = .001$, $P > .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .000$ it represents a weak effect size). As displayed in Table 8 the means for the experimental and control groups on the pretest of speaking accuracy were 1.32 and 1.32.

D. Examining Research Questions

1. Examining research question 1:

As displayed in Table 9 the mean scores for experimental and control groups on Posttest of Speaking were 20.61 and 19.73 respectively.

TABLE 9.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; POSTTEST OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	28	20.61	1.571	.297
Control	26	19.73	1.430	.280

The results of the independent t-test ($t(52) = 2.13$, $P < .05$, $r = .28$ it represents an almost moderate effect size) indicate that there was a significant difference between experimental and control groups on Posttest of Speaking. Thus, it can be concluded that the first null-hypothesis as dynamic corrective feedback does not affect the overall oral proficiency of Iranian intermediate EFL learners is rejected.

TABLE 10.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST; POSTTEST OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower Upper
Equal variances assumed	.284	.596	2.138	52	.037	.876	.410	.054 1.699
Equal variances not assumed			2.146	51.982	.037	.876	.408	.057 1.696

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's $F = .284$, $P > .05$). That is why the first row of Table 10, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

2. Examining research questions 2, 3, and 4:

A multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) was run to probe any significant difference between the experimental and control groups on the posttests of speaking accuracy, fluency and complexity in order to probe the effect of dynamic corrective feedback on the development of the Iranian intermediate EFL learners' speaking accuracy, fluency and complexity. Before reporting the main results it should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances – as tested through the Levene's F-values– was met. As displayed in Table 11 the probabilities associated with the Levene's F-values were all higher than .05. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met.

TABLE 11.
HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES; POSTTESTS OF COMPONENTS OF SPEAKING

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Accuracy Post	.790	1	52	.378
Fluency Post	.456	1	52	.503
Complexity Post	.410	1	52	.525

Based on the results displayed in Table 6 it can be concluded that there were not any significant differences between the experimental and control groups on the pretests of speaking accuracy, fluency and complexity ($F(3, 50) = 236.59$, $P < .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .934$ it represents a large effect size). Thus, it can be concluded that there were significant differences between the experimental and control groups' means on the components of the posttests of speaking.

TABLE 12.
MULTIVARIATE TESTS; POSTTESTS OF COMPONENTS OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.993	2282.662	3	.000	.993
	Wilks' Lambda	.007	2282.662	3	.000	.993
	Hotelling's Trace	136.960	2282.662	3	.000	.993
	Roy's Largest Root	136.960	2282.662	3	.000	.993
Group	Pillai's Trace	.934	236.591	3	.000	.934
	Wilks' Lambda	.066	236.591	3	.000	.934
	Hotelling's Trace	14.195	236.591	3	.000	.934
	Roy's Largest Root	14.195	236.591	3	.000	.934

Note. It should be mentioned that the SPSS produces four F-values. If the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances are met – as is the case in this study – the first F-value, i.e. Pillai's Trace should be reported. For a complete discussion of these statistics please refer to Field (2009).

The F-value of 236.59 indicated that there were significant differences between the means of the two groups on the posttests of components of speaking as a total score. What follows is the comparison of the two groups on each test separately. Based on the results displayed in Table 13 and Table 14 it can be concluded that:

A: There was a significant differences between the experimental and control groups on the posttest of speaking accuracy ($F(1, 52) = 61.941$, $P < .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .544$ it represents a large effect size). As displayed in Table 14 the experimental group ($M = 73.10$) outperformed the control group ($M = 54.84$) on the posttest of speaking accuracy. Thus, the second null-hypothesis as dynamic corrective feedback does not affect the accuracy development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' speaking is rejected.

TABLE 13.
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS; POSTTESTS OF COMPONENTS OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Group	Accuracy Post	4495.585	1	4495.585	61.941	.000	.544
	Fluency Post	95.342	1	95.342	.853	.360	.016
	Complexity Post	.159	1	.159	7.457	.009	.125
Error	Accuracy Post	3774.063	52	72.578			
	Fluency Post	5812.973	52	111.788			
	Complexity Post	1.112	52	.021			
Total	Accuracy Post	231635.000	54				
	Fluency Post	265631.000	54				
	Complexity Post	113.880	54				

B: There was not any significant differences between the experimental and control groups on the posttest of speaking fluency ($F(1, 52) = .853$, $P > .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .016$ it represents a weak effect size). As displayed in Table 14 the means for the experimental and control groups on the posttest of speaking fluency were 68.07 and 70.73. Thus, the third null-hypothesis as dynamic corrective feedback does not affect the fluency development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' speaking is supported.

TABLE 14.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; POSTTESTS OF COMPONENTS OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

Dependent Variable	Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Accuracy Post	Experimental	73.107	1.610	69.876	76.338
	Control	54.846	1.671	51.494	58.199
Fluency Post	Experimental	68.071	1.998	64.062	72.081
	Control	70.731	2.074	66.570	74.892
Complexity Post	Experimental	1.496	.028	1.441	1.552
	Control	1.388	.029	1.330	1.445

C: There was a significant differences between the experimental and control groups on the posttest of speaking complexity ($F(1, 52) = 7.457$, $P < .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .125$ it represents an almost large effect size). As displayed in Table 14 the experimental group ($M = 1.49$) outperformed the control group ($M = 1.38$) on the posttest of speaking complexity. Thus, the fourth null-hypothesis as dynamic corrective feedback does not affect the complexity development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' speaking is rejected.

E. Validity

A factor analysis through the varimax rotation is carried out to probe the construct validity of the tests administered in this study. Before commenting on the results of the factor analysis, it should be mentioned that the present sample size was adequate for running the factor analysis ($KMO = .82 > .60$) and the correlation matrix was appropriate for the analysis ($\chi^2 = 644.98$, $P < .05$) (Table 15).

TABLE 15.
KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST OF SPHERICITY

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.825
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	644.980
	df	21
	Sig.	.000

The SPSS has extracted only one factor which account for 73.18 percent of the total variance.

TABLE 16
TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.241	74.866	74.866	5.123	73.187	73.187
2	.994	14.200	89.066			
3	.597	8.527	97.594			
4	.091	1.301	98.894			
5	.050	.712	99.606			
6	.018	.261	99.867			
7	.009	.133	100.000			
Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.						

TABLE 17.
COMPONENTS MATRIX

	Factor
	1
Accuracy Pre	.993
Fluency Pre	.991
Complexity Pre	.978
Complexity Post	.934
Fluency Post	.913
Accuracy Post	.698
PET	.093

Finally, as displayed in Table 17 the components of the pretests and posttests of speaking and the PET test load on the only extracted factor. The rather low factor loading of the PET on this factor indicates that the extracted factor can be labeled as “speaking proficiency” factor.

F. Inter-rater Reliability

The Pearson correlations between the two raters are displayed here in Table 18. Based on these results it can be concluded that:

A: There is a significant agreement between the two raters who rated the students’ writings ($r(74) = .86$, $P < .05$, it represents a large effect size).

B: There is a significant agreement between the two raters who rated the students’ pretest of speaking ($r(52) = .61$, $P < .05$, it represents a large effect size).

TABLE 18.
INTER-RATER RELIABILITY

	Writing_Rater1	Sp_PreT_Rater1	Sp_PostT_Rater1
Writing_Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.862**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	76	
Sp_PreT_Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.612**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	54	
Sp_PostT_Rater2	Pearson Correlation		.697**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N		54

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

C: There is a significant agreement between the two raters who rated the students’ posttest of speaking ($r(52) = .69$, $P < .05$, it represents a large effect size).

V. DISCUSSION

In previous section, after the calculation of the homogeneity of the participants in both control and experimental groups prior to the treatment, a series of analyses were run on their scores in pretest and posttest in order to find proper answer to the study’s research questions.

The results of the data analysis indicated that DCF affected the overall oral proficiency of the Iranian intermediate EFL learners in the experimental group significantly greater than in the control group. The story was somewhat the same regarding the sub-questions, it means the effect of DCF on experimental group has been greater in accuracy and complexity traits compared to the results of the control group, and the experimental group out-performed the control group. The only trait that was not affected positively in the experimental group, or the effects seem to be less than development of the participants in the control group, was the fluency development. It may be concluded that as much as the students tried to be more accurate and produce less erroneous clauses and focused on the quality of their production, they lost their concentration on their quantity and speed of their production that resulted in lower fluency.

The reason for having the overall development of the experimental group ($M = 20.61$) greater than that of the control group ($M = 19.73$), but this difference was not as much as those for accuracy and complexity needs to be considered. Since the results of the independent t-test ($t(52) = 2.13$, $P < .05$, $r = .28$) represented an almost moderate effect size of DCF on posttest of overall speaking, while this effect on accuracy and complexity (as mentioned earlier) was of high effect size, it can be resulted from two factors that should be considered. On one hand, the overall speaking is like an umbrella term regarding its components; accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Therefore, the variance in each of these traits results in a change in the overall performance (overall speaking) due to the overlap between the content of the overall speaking with its components’ content. On the other hand, since each of these four traits was measured separately and with a different scale (i.e. the use of body language or eye contact), it is not necessarily expected to have the same results of the speaking components reflexed in the overall speaking performance. In other words, one’s

performance might be poor on the individual components of speaking, but not as much poor (or even well) as on the overall speaking performance; or respectively the other way around.

To conclude, the findings of this study is in line with the previous studies who implemented the DWCF for their students writing in term of accuracy development, i.e. N.W. Evans et al. (2011), although this development in accuracy was in some of them of less effect, but none of them were ineffective or with negative effect, i.e. (Evans et al., 2010; Evans et al., 2011; Hartshorn et al., 2010).

VI. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study indicated that DCF which is a systematic and innovative method of error correction in the area of speaking correction has been mostly successful, since it benefits from a strong theoretical principles derived from DWCF in the area of writing error correction. The principles imply that the provided corrective feedback should be meaningful, timely, constant, and manageable and it must reflect the individual learners most immediate needs based on what they produce (Evans et al., 2010). It should be noted that based on the findings described earlier, DCF was more effective in the area of accuracy and complexity, and quite effective on overall speaking of the participants, but its impact on the fluency of the learners was not as much positive as in the control group, since the control group outperformed the experimental group quite significantly. Further, this study and its positive findings is just a beginning for the DCF in the area of oral production, and it needs further investigations, modification, and practices to be more reliable and practical.

However, although this study just focused on a limited number, context, and level of participants (54 Iranian intermediate EFL learners), and there is still a long path to go, the findings could be implemented in smaller contexts, and for personal or even educational uses. As the last word, it should be noted that after further investigations and proves, and modifications of the presented technique of DCF in larger scales, it is highly potential to be used globally by teachers, teacher trainers, and also syllabus designers.

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Qualitative Research on the Using of Writing Workshop Techniques in English Writing Class

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Abstract—How to improve the English writing ability is always considered to be a very difficult task by the teachers and students. While many different methods have been tried by the teachers, this essay presents the result of a qualitative research done in University of Denver in America, which verifies the function of writing workshop and the effect of its use in the writing class in terms of developing the students' writing skills and improving the students' writing competence. Besides, the article also elaborates on the writing workshop techniques employed by the professors of the University of Denver in their creative writing classes.

Index Terms—qualitative research, English writing class, writing workshop, techniques

I. INTRODUCTION

Janet Emig (1997) in "Writing as a Mode of Learning" illustrated how and why writing was essential to learning. (www.dartmouth.edu). According to Janet Emig, writing is unique to learning because it originates a verbal construct that is graphically recorded (Janet Emig, May, 1977), (p.122-128). Writing has always been viewed as a very significant skill in English study, since it involves a process of selecting, combining and arranging individual words to develop ideas (Sun, Fushan, (2014) p.1476-1482). It's a cognitive process in which students have to understand what to write and how to write. When writing, students must both originate and record their thinking. (www.dartmouth.edu). They must attend simultaneously to process and product. Writing, on the other hand, must be structured, meticulous and concise. (www.dartmouth.edu). It must provide a context for an audience that is not part of the environment but that exists apart from the writer. In sum, writing forces students to become more careful, more engaged participants in the learning process. (www.dartmouth.edu). By writing, we don't simply mean that all the commas are in the right place and that no modifiers are misplaced or dangling. Rather, we mean that a student has written clearly and eloquently. (www.dartmouth.edu). While we can parse the writing process in various ways, each with its own limitations, we believe that it's useful to see writing as a three-step recursive process of invention, composition, and revision. In order to achieve clarity and eloquence, a student must have a sound and coherent structure, focused and cohesive paragraphs, a solid sense of the sentence, and good grammar. (www.dartmouth.edu). So how to improve the students' writing skill has been a tough task for both the teachers and the students for a long time.

When being a visiting scholar in University of Denver from February, 2014 to March, 2015, I audited some writing classes and found that almost all the teachers prefer to use writing workshop in their writing class. With the time going by, I became more and more interested in their way of teaching writing, so I began to think more about it and did some qualitative researches about it, mainly on the concept and the function of writing workshop, on the techniques used in the writing workshop and on the effect of the application of writing workshop in the writing class. By interviewing some of the DU students and professors, observing classes and examining course materials from syllabi to lecture notes, I undertook an exploration of the essentials of effective teaching of writing. The following are some of the findings.

II. THE DEFINITION OF WRITING WORKSHOP

According to the dictionary, workshop means a group of people engaged in study or work on a creative project or subject, such as a writing workshop. (dictionary.reference.com). Writing workshop, also known as writer's workshop, is a method of teaching writing using a workshop method. Writing workshop advocates see the teacher as a facilitator of the student's expression; though he or she may intervene, strategically, in the technique of students' writing processes and texts, he or she is not to critique what the student writes. The writing workshop allows teachers to meet the needs of their students by differentiating their instruction and gearing instruction based on information gathered through the workshop. (groups.diigo.com). Students are given opportunities to write in a variety of genres and helps foster a love of writing. (groups.diigo.com). Students have a large amount of choice in their topic and style of writing. The teacher acts as a mentor author, modeling writing techniques and conferring with students as they move through the writing process. Direct writing instruction takes place in the form of a mini-lesson at the beginning of each workshop and is followed by active writing time. (www.holycrossdeerfield.org). The workshop usually ends with a sharing of student work.

Here are some answers from the survey conducted among the students taking the writing course. Most of them are English majors and juniors. One student says like this: writing workshop is working on a writing project over a period

of time, getting other people's input on your written work for improvement. A writing workshop is good for improving writing ability. Another student says: A writing workshop is an opportunity to express yourself through writing and to have the writing read by your peers and hear their opinions about it. It gives me a new perspective on my writing and allows me to grow. Most of the students think it is a good way to receive feedback and tips on the written work from their peers to better improve it. So the writing workshop focuses on two things: creativity and cooperation. The students have to create a piece of writing for the other students to read and discuss in class and the other students have to speak out their opinions about the written piece. Then the whole class helps to work out something new. So it needs participation and cooperation from all the students. The students must be attentive, active and creative in class. So the best interpretation for a writing workshop is that it is a place for cultivating creativity by doing a series of reading, writing, discussion, comments, suggestion and revision. It is a good way for students to improve their writing ability and to find their writing talent.

III. THE FUNCTION OF A WRITING WORKSHOP

Theoretically speaking, writing is a process for thinking that needs more practice. Instead of spending the majority of class time on spelling tests, grammar worksheets, handwriting practice, and other isolated sub-skills of writing, writing workshop is designed to emphasize the act of writing itself—students spend most of their time putting pencil to paper, not just learning about it. Over time, students learn to choose their own topics and to manage their own development as they work through a wide variety of writing projects in a sustained and self-directed way. (www.hanoi.qsischool.org). In professional writing workshops, emphasis is placed on sharing work with the class, on peer conferencing and editing, and on the collection of a wide variety of work in a writing folder, and eventually in a portfolio. Teachers write with their students and share their own work as well. The workshop setting encourages students to think of themselves as writers, and to take their writing seriously. (www.hanoi.qsischool.org). As the saying goes, Practice makes perfect. In real life, we have to put what we see and what we experience into words, learn how to apply theory into practice, to express ourselves, to interact with the teachers and classmates, to make new friends, to learn from peers and to do something new, to find ourselves, such as our interest and talent, to improve ourselves and to become a potential writer, etc. And a writing workshop can serve all these purposes. It stresses the very important factors in the writing class, such as how crucial it is to make students feel special and feel like real writers. (search.barnesandnoble.com). It helps to enhance student's writing and inspire them to write with skill and confidence. In class, students jot down ideas, observations, and thoughts which allow them to see many possibilities for future writing projects. It inspires students by offering larger audiences for their work, showing students their own writing and creating a light environment where students can gather and share each other's ideas and creations. (search.barnesandnoble.com). It can build the students' confidence and self-esteem and let them see what fun and how creative writing can be.

IV. HOW TO APPLY WORKSHOP IN A WRITING CLASS

The writing workshop is the heart of a successful writing class. Essential elements of the writing workshop include the nature and extent of teacher's control of assignments, the variety of class activities and students' interactions. Factors to be considered in adapting the workshop format to different teaching situations include selection of teaching models, course coverage, selection of language styles and organization, attention given to teaching and writing processes, use of teacher-student writing conferences, techniques such as writing buddies and peer editing, selection of writing assignments and evaluation methods and criteria (Retherford, Robert, 1998/03). In these workshops, teachers use student papers (in part or in whole) as the necessary material of discussion and instruction. (www.dartmouth.edu). When teaching a writing workshop, it is very important for the teacher to establish a format in which peer conferencing and peer feedback are used. To ensure that the students are able to comment productively and effectively on their peers' papers, the teacher decides on the critiquing method he wants to use and practices it. Good critiques are more than "I liked it" or "I didn't like it". They offer analysis and present examples of what the critique did or didn't like. By modeling the form of critique the teachers want the participants to use, students will get much more feedback on their work. The teacher usually sets a rule, informing participants that insults will not be tolerated, no personal attack but constructive suggestions. In class the teacher first devises a schedule of when participants will share their work, then the teacher assigns the students to write something, such as a personal experience, a memory story, a poem, a short story, a passage, etc. and each participant can submit his work through email or through discussion boards for workshop participants to share their projects. This allows the teacher the chance to review and select submissions that illustrate the topic he wants to cover in the face-to-face session. And the participant can also bring enough copies of his work to the class for the rest of the class to review beforehand. After receiving the copy of the participant's work, the whole class read the piece carefully, make comments on the paper, and write down the questions they have for the author. In the next class, the teacher has the author of the piece read aloud a section of his choosing, leads off the discussion by teaching the participants how to think critically for themselves about their writing, giving them enough time to write notes or chat with fellow participants before sharing their critiques with the entire workshop, asking each person to say what he liked about the piece and what he thought needed improvement. The teacher encourages the students to engage in workshop discussion by maintaining eye contact with the participants and shifting expectant gaze around the room.

After the group discussion and the whole class discussion, the teacher will tell the author what he liked and what he thought needed improvement and gives his constructive suggestions. Then the teacher and the students return the marked-up manuscript to the author so he will be able to review the notes the teacher and the rest of the class have made. The students take their written work back to revise it and then come back to class and once again begin the process, reading the written work, group discussions, peer reviewing, making suggestions and comments and extracting new ideas ,etc. At the end of the term, some students will have finished a long story or somewhat a novel. So this is a process to develop something from a paragraph into a long story to a novel. It's a step-by-step creation process! It integrates reading with writing. It integrates theory with active writing practice. It involves the students' imagination, participation, discussion and interaction. The students benefit much from the writing workshop. During this process, the students come to know themselves by their discoveries of new ideas and the depth of their own potential and thus develop their critical thinking and creativity. It promotes the mutual understanding between the teacher and the students and they develop a true friendship and get the inspiration that is very valuable and precious .The students learned many new things, such as new writing techniques, new ideas and most important of all, they learned how to appreciate other people's hard work, how to do critical thinking and how to get along well with their classmates. So some students say that a writing workshop is like a community, in which they can communicate ideas, opinions, likes or dislikes freely and they can get helpful feedback and new perspectives from others. It helps them to broaden the horizon and further improve their writing. By creating a piece of writing, the students gain more respect and recognition from their peers and the professor, which encourage them to build more confidence in themselves. According to the survey, most of the students prefer the writing workshop, saying it is very helpful and effective in helping them to get the feedback from their peers honestly and quickly and the writing workshop gave them plentiful opportunities to revise and improve their work before it receives a grade.

V. SOME STRATEGIES THE INSTRUCTORS USE IN THE WRITING WORKSHOP

How to conduct a writing workshop successfully is mainly decided by the teacher. The teacher asks the students to post their papers on the Canvas discussion board before class so that the teacher can review the essays before class and choose those that best illustrate the writing issues that will be discussed in class. Conducting an engaging and constructive workshop draws on skills as a discussion leader, for talking about student writing differs in some important ways from talking about the other readings in your class. (www.dartmouth.edu). First, the writer is in the room. Writing workshops must therefore be sensitively conducted. Second, the aim of the writing workshop is to enhance students' authority and responsibility as readers and writers. The instructor must therefore facilitate rather than direct the discussion. Third, the writing workshop emphasizes the complex role of the reader in a writer's process. Instructors will encourage readers to "out" their questions and concerns about a paper so that writers understand the myriad of responses their work has evoked. They will internalize this sense of audience and draw on it as they revise. (www.dartmouth.edu). The following are some strategies the instructors at University of Denver adopted in the writing workshop.

A. *Using Facilitative Responses in Modeling the Students to Diagnose and Respond to Their Classmates' Work*

The idea behind the facilitative response is that students learn to write best when they are made responsible for their own writing and re-writing decisions. (www.dartmouth.edu). The facilitative response permits students to retain this important responsibility by locating authority and authorship with them. Facilitative remarks are most often phrased as questions, carefully crafted so that they encourage students to consider ideas and their expression more fully. (www.dartmouth.edu). The teachers do not give their students easy answers, nor do they provide them with explicit directions for revision. Rather, they raise questions that encourage students to sift through the instructor's remarks in order to develop revision strategies on their own, and to retain responsibility for their own writing processes. (www.dartmouth.edu). The teacher usually addresses a weakness in very particular terms such as the question "Where is your thesis sentence?" instead of the general ones, such as "I like it" or "I don't like it". In class the teacher usually says like this: Any questions? Comments? Suggestions? By asking questions instead of a list of directions, the students will have to determine how to answer the questions in a best way. They will discover that there are several ways to express an idea or develop an argument, and that they must choose the one that best meets their aims. In this way, authority remains with the author. (www.dartmouth.edu).

B. *Integrating Reading with Writing in Writing Class*

According to Carl B. Smith & Karin L. Dahl, (1984), the correlation between reading and writing is like this—Those who read well usually write well; those who write well generally read well.(Carl B. Smith & Karin L. Dahl, 1984), (p.1.). As we know, reading can inspire students by introducing them to great ideas and improving their ability to think critically and analytically. Moreover, reading centers class discussion, giving students something to talk about beyond their own personal experiences. Reading also gives students something to write about, for students often lack the experience to come up with sophisticated subjects for their essays, but the texts provide these. Finally, reading illustrates models of truly excellent writing, thereby offering students instruction in voice, organization, syntax, and language. (www.dartmouth.edu).

But reading and writing aren't disparate course activities. In fact, reading and writing work best when one process fuels or informs the other. (www.dartmouth.edu). Students can learn to write many categories of writing and come into contact with different kinds of information through reading many kinds of materials. In order to make sure that reading and writing are working together effectively in class, the teacher usually does like this: The teacher assigns students models of good writing, such as an article, a poem, a short story, a novel, etc. to read before class and then in class the teacher breaks the students into smaller groups for group discussion, and then the students reconvene to compare observations, exchange their ideas, opinions and the teacher takes time in class to talk with students about how an argument is constructed; the writing style; what, exactly, makes the writing so good, etc. Then from the discussion, the teacher generates materials with students—that articulate the qualities of good writing in their particular discipline; and finally the teacher asks the students to evaluate a piece of writing according to these standards in the form of oral presentation or written report.

C. *Using Student-driven Process*

After the student reads his paper aloud, the teacher facilitates the students by asking questions and requiring the students to offer their perspectives and insists that students be respectfully and critically engaged with the paper, trying to avoid comments that are too harsh or too soft. The students will turn to the classmate next to them and chat about the paper, and then reconvene the group for group discussion, jot down their comments, ideas, suggestions and responses. Students are more open to criticism of their papers once they've received positive feedback. They also need to know what they're doing right before they tackle what they're doing wrong. (www.dartmouth.edu). The teacher usually encourages students to give their different opinions for the students to sort from and make choices as they revise. And finally the teacher will offer praise before moving on to the critique, give students suggestions for how to improve their papers, offer students a "pay-off" for submitting to the class critique. Students will soon see that having their papers workshoped is a valuable experience. (www.dartmouth.edu).

VI. CASE STUDY: GROUP CONFERENCES USED IN UNIVERSITY OF DENVER'S CREATIVE WRITING CLASS

Lucy Calkins (1994) in "The Art of Teaching Writing" has described conferring as "the heart of our teaching" in the writing workshop. (Lucy McComack Calkins, 1994), (p.189). Conferences provide instructors and students an opportunity to develop the kinds of relationships that promote good writing. (www.dartmouth.edu). Some professors in University of Denver have discovered the benefits of holding conferences in small groups. They require students to post their work on Blackboard and to respond to their peers' papers there. They assign students early in the quarter into small editing groups, modeling them on how to diagnose and respond to one another's writing correctly. The teacher asks all the members of the group to read one another's papers and to come to the conference with comments and questions. (www.dartmouth.edu). During the conference, the teacher first listened carefully when the peer commentators talked about their reaction to the paper, such as things they liked and things that they found problematic, then the teacher asked questions that clarify the peers' perspectives, offered his own perspectives and then gave the writer a chance to respond. In group conferences, students engage in debates about writing. It helps students to better understand the conventions of academic discourse. (www.dartmouth.edu). When talking about their papers with their peers, students will learn where their readers stumble. They can also find out why. Often, these conversations lead to a better understanding of the writing conventions that the student has neglected or misunderstood. (www.dartmouth.edu). Reading three or four papers rather than one encourages students to determine more generally what works and what doesn't. They'll take with them a better sense of the principles (rather than simply the particulars) of good writing and they usually can give thoughtful, constructive advice to their peers. (www.dartmouth.edu). Group conferences help students to understand writing as a process, and to increase their sense of mastery of what is often a complex and difficult task. (www.dartmouth.edu). The use of group conference in class helps the students to clarify ideas varied from session to session and the students benefit more from careful thinking and peer evaluation. The students also realize that the best way to learn something is to teach it. When instructing their peers, students learn how to improve their own prose. (www.dartmouth.edu).

VII. THE EFFECT OF THE APPLICATION OF WRITING WORKSHOP IN ENGLISH WRITING CLASS

Writing workshop can be a wonderful way for students to share and receive feedback about their writing. The workshop atmosphere is more conducive to personal expression and growth than the traditional writing classroom. It provides a supportive yet challenging, energizing environment for the students. According to the survey and the interview, most of the students enjoyed the writing workshop. They say that they learned a lot from the writing class, such as the critical thinking, the cooperation and the participation and most important of all, the virtue of sharing. They learn to share their works and ideas with others. Too often students write only to please their instructors, whose expectations they rarely understand. (www.dartmouth.edu). Knowing that their peers will read their papers gives students a concrete sense of to whom they are writing, and why. (www.dartmouth.edu). One student says: I learned that what makes sense to me doesn't always make sense to the reader. Peer reviews help students to understand that they aren't writing for themselves, but for readers and understand writing as a public, communal act, rather than as a

private, isolated one. So students learned to develop a sense of audience. That expresses the essence of writing: keep the readers in mind, see things from the readers' perspective. Actually the writing workshop does provide the students with the opportunity to get to know each other and start to really learn from each other by getting others' perspectives, ideas, and feedback quickly, which helps the author to grow more quickly. This is called peer grading or peer reviewing. It is as important or even more helpful than the professor's grading and advice, as the students usually pay much more attention to the peers' opinions or comments. Students are influenced much more by their peers than they are by the teachers. (www.ttms.org). When a student reads something to the class and gets a particular reaction, they really take it to heart. (www.ttms.org) From psychological perspective, the peers' praise and recognition can exercise a greater effect on their self-esteem, as the saying goes, keep up with the Joneses. Even in the cutthroat climate of today's competitive colleges, students thrive best in cooperative classrooms. (adjunctnation.com). The writing workshop creates a natural and critical learning environments, providing the students with a good chance to communicate and cooperate with their peers. It helps them to grow more mature and become more open-minded. Everyone in the class learns to become a top-notch critic, providing insightful feedback on the peer's work. In class they need to read a text (here we use "text" broadly to include everything from books, to works of art, to results of scientific experiments, to cultural, social, and economic systems (www.dartmouth.edu) actively, looking for patterns, scribble up the margins of their books with questions and quibbles, raising questions or challenging the writer as they read, do a little research to enhance their understanding, learn to read as a writer and to think critically. In peer review sessions, students have to field questions about their writing. (www.dartmouth.edu). They have to explain and sometimes defend their writing strategies. It helps students to understand writing as a process, and to increase their sense of mastery of what is often a complex and difficult task. (www.dartmouth.edu). The face to face communication in a comfortable surrounding can inspire the students' creativity, arouse students' interest in writing, help them to know their peers better and to discover themselves and make them feel more confident. It teaches them how to respond productively to other students' writing. As for the teachers, by reading the students' written works and observing the students' performance in class, such as the group discussion, the comments and the suggestions they make, etc., the teacher can know more about the students, such as their characteristics, their hobbies, their likes and dislikes, etc. and can become more interested in them and the teacher and the students can develop a lasting friendship between them. As the teacher and the students get more comfortable with workshop, when the teacher asks for volunteers, the students will be eager to volunteer—they have seen how helpful the process is and will want the "leg up" that an in-class critique can offer. (www.dartmouth.edu).

VIII. CONCLUSION

From the analysis made above, it is clear that students can make greater improvements in their English writing ability and a safe conclusion can be drawn, that is, a writing workshop is helpful and beneficial to the teachers and the students, both academically and socially. As the saying goes, practice makes perfect. Three brains are better than one. In class the teacher usually says like this: You can be strange or different, thus encouraging the students to learn to think critically and creatively, to find themselves and their potentials, to contribute more new ideas to the class. By fully making use of their imagination and creativity to create something new in the writing workshop, the students gradually develop a keen interest in writing, cultivate a good habit of writing, and develop a deep love for writing. By contributing new ideas and comments and suggestions to the class, the students learn to think critically, to cooperate with others, to listen to others, to share their work with others, to respect others' hard work and to learn from each other. On the whole, the writing workshop benefits the students much in their growing to become a potential writer in the future.

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The Effect of Lecturing in Student-generated Photomontage on EFL Learners' Fluency, Accuracy and Complexity

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Abstract—This study examines if the two tasks exploited, model-based lecture and the photomontage one, have been effective in upgrading students' speaking skills in CAF domain. From a methodological point of view an independent samples t-test design is used to obtain data from 33 subjects consisting of both male and female studying EFL in Guilan University. Group one and two are Oral II students and group three are Oral I, each consisting of 11 members. The video recorded data are transcribed and coded for later analysis. Measures include areas of CAF. Results of t-tests show that lecturing on photomontage generated higher fluency and some trend in accuracy with no effect on complexity. The results are discussed in the light of Skehan's CAF triad, as well as competing theories of attention allocation during task performance. The findings provide insight into impact of task use and present suggestions for EFL/ESL teachers and materials developers.

Index Terms—student-generated photomontage, EFL, fluency, accuracy and complexity

I. INTRODUCTION

"The innateness of speech in human development and its primacy as a mode of communication would suggest that the teaching of speaking has been central force in language learning" (Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2006). However as the course of history proves many teaching methods failed in improving learners' speaking ability and that lead to more research in this respect. Vygotsky's theories have had a huge influence on media and literacy educations toward a social model of learning that cannot be narrowed to a teaching transmission model. (Goodwyn, 2004) Vygotsky observed that learning is thoroughly social and that we learn when we are active (Petrina, 2007). Also Ellis (2006) views learning as originating from social interaction. Teacher is the only person in the class who can lead students to authentic, interactive use of language and that would not be possible through using exercises and repetitive tasks suggested in the course books. "EFL teachers need to be particularly adept at organizing class activities that are authentic, motivating and varied." (Celce-Murcia, 2001) "Where speaking is a priority, language classroom need to become talking classrooms" (Thornbury, 2005, p.131) in this respect photomontage with its multi-dimensional aspects is not only authentic but absolutely motivating and engaging as students enthusiastic lecturing proves this.

Photomontage with its multidisciplinary features opens new avenues, as we know left brain is associated with artistic orientations, so one can deploy art to teach language (Long and Doughty, 2009, p.75). Photomontage combines art with language and this may appeal to many students that in the other cases show reluctance toward active participation in classroom talks. Petrina (2007) expresses that: pictures "worth a thousand words". They are evocative, more precise and potent in triggering wide array of associations therefore they provide creativity, therefore inserting photomontage as a task can trigger students' creativity and that in turn will ostensibly escalate their participation in talk and negotiation of meaning. This leads students toward a more dialogic task and that is the focus of social constructivism that emphasizes the interaction between learners and also others (Pritchard, 2007). Learning is viewed as originating from social interaction (Ellis, 2006). As Richards (2006) declares: "second language learning is a highly interactive process" and "the quality of this interaction is thought to have considerable influence on language learning. Savignon (1972 cited in Savignon 2002) stated that it is not easy for learners to use their learning unless they had much opportunity to practice in circumstances similar to those of real life situations.

For the purpose of this study "communicative competence" is defined as the ability to use the language to express a variety of meaning, for diverse purposes in spontaneous, unrehearsed, authentic communication. This study postulates that photomontage as a task defined in current CLT (communicative language teaching) or TBLT (task based language teaching) is able to result in students' initiation and negotiation in class talk and as a result expand their oral repertoire.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite a history of second-language learning that certainly predates writing, formal accounts of second-language teaching neglected teaching speaking at the expense of mastering target language structure, and vocabulary (Bailey, 2004; Chastain, 1988; Richards & Rodgers, 2002). Certainly, a prevailing belief that all language teaching prior to the mid-twentieth century entailed a grammar-translation approach would support such a notion. Then, for many years, English language teachers have continued to teach speaking just as a repetition of drills or memorization of dialogues (Bygate, 2001 cited in Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006). Today, world requires that the goal of teaching speaking should improve students communicative skills, because only in that way, students can express themselves and learn how to follow the social and cultural rules appropriate in each communicative circumstance (Uso-Juan & Martinez-Flor, 2006). It was argued that the nature of "interaction" requires learners to recognize: 1. the very different functions speaking perform in daily communication and 2. the different purposes for which students need speaking skills. Accordingly, as cited in Uso-Juan and Martinez-Flor (2006), Levelt's (1989) model of speech production along with functional (Halliday, 1985) and pragmatic (Leech, 1983; Levinson, 1983) view of language and also concept of discourse analysis (McCarthy, 1991) gave rise to considering speaking as interactive, social and contextualized communicative event. Therefore theoretical foundation for teaching speaking in a communicative framework emerged. Communicative approach tended to emphasize the spontaneous and creative speech of learners seeking to avoid rather than exploit repetition. Even Hadley (2003 cited in Aliakbari & Jamalvandi, 2010) proposed a shift from grammatical to communicative competence.

Communicative language teaching (CLT) sets as its goal the teaching of communicative competence (Richards, 2006). The teaching of oral communication skills and the development of fluency in language use became the focal point. Fluency is natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence (Bailey, 2004; Richards, 2006; Skehan, 2003). EFL teachers should create a classroom environment where students have real-life communication, authentic activities, and meaningful tasks that promote oral language. This can occur when students involve in the process of speaking by thinking which later develops into words in a number of phases, moving from imaging to inner speech to inner speaking to speech (Vygotsky, 1962 cited in Petrina, 2007). Therefore, it will not be out of place to suggest that classrooms must provide the learners with tasks to change images into speech. This will not only fill the classes with talk as much as possible but also opens windows to the ways learners think!

In addition, in CLT framework, some activities are suggested to enhance communication. The most common type of communicative output activities are role plays and discussion, task-completion, information-gathering, opinion-sharing, information-transfer and reasoning-gap activities. Therefore, tasks which focus on fluency, natural language use, communication, handling unpredictable language, and linking language to context, may lead to fluent, confident, and persuasive speech. One such task which is potentially able to involve student in an interactive, social and contextualized communicative event, and results in simultaneous interaction under time constraints is 'Photomontage'. Photomontage is a technique by which students design a composite photographic image by combining images from separate photographic sources. These visual images are known to be powerful tools for expressing the interests, and opinions. The term was coined by Berlin Dadaists in 1918 and was employed by artists such as George Grosz, John Heartfield, Raoul Hausmann and Hannah Höch for images often composed from mass-produced sources such as newspapers and magazines (Ades, 1976). A similar method is realized today through image-editing software. This latter technique is referred to by professionals as "compositing", and in casual usage is often called "photoshopping". The creation of artificial immersive virtual reality, arising as a result of technical exploitation of new inventions is a practice that creates good reason for meaningful interaction. In addition, in the education sphere, media arts director Rene Acevedo and Adrian Brannan have left their mark on art classrooms the world over. This study postulates that EFL classrooms also, can benefit from the task because first of all it requires natural language use, as students' talk revolves around the piece of artwork that they themselves have created. Second, in cases of miscommunication, the speaker is expected to try his/her best to resolve the problem, using communication strategies. Third, the language is simply used to communicate meaning as is the case in natural communication which happens spontaneously and under time pressure, and fourth, the topic of discussion revolves around the artwork /Photomontage, created by the students themselves which is likely to be authentic, novel and motivating.

III. PHOTOMONTAGE IN CLT FRAMEWORK

Speaking resulted from using Photomontage can be authentic, because it is commonly observed that people see a piece of artwork and start talking to the artist, seeking some information, or even defending ideas upon which they have been produced, or revealing inner thoughts to what it may or may not be. Authentic materials provide exposure to real language, relate more closely to learners' needs and support more creative approach to teaching. This is supported by Celce-Murcia (2001) who suggests 'the use of authentic, engaging material should be the basis for in-class activities.' Besides, Clarke and Silberstein (1977, p.51) cited in Richards (2006) urged: "classroom activities should parallel the 'the real world' as closely as possible (see also: Opp-beckman & Klinghammer, 2006).

Pictures are manipulated in a variety of strategies (Rueckert, 2006) as well. Pictures can evoke mental images to help learners recall a term or concept; they are easily accessible and can reinforce literal, critical and creative thinking. (Wood & Tinajero, 2002). Joyce, Hrycauk and Calhoun (2001 cited in Wood & Tinajero, 2002) use pictures in a special way called 'Picture Word Inductive Model' (PWIM) which uses pictures containing familiar objects and actions to elicit words from children's listening and speaking vocabularies (See also: Calhoun, 1999; Joyce and Calhoun, 1998; cited in Wood & Tinajero, 2002). Pictures are used for a variety of purposes from ice-breaking, dictation, storytelling, working on specific vocabulary or grammar item, developing different and even difficult topics, playing games, teaching prepositions, activities, jobs, use of gerunds and many more in language teaching (Teaching with pictures, 2012; see also Terry, 2008). Visual stimuli can be utilized in several ways as starter material for interaction (Richards and Renandya, 2002). Goldstein (2008) prefers using images rather than pictures and he defines them as more direct representations or more open to interpretation. He uses images to open up students' thinking and has no pre-defined outcome in mind. He states: "we should be granting the image the space it deserves in our classroom." (p.2) He mentions image as tool for higher-level thinking in both students and teachers. Lee and Liang (2012) incorporated audiovisual stimulations in various forms to enhance speech because many students have reported speech as essential for career development (Zekeri, 2004 cited in Lee & Liang, 2012).

As the literature indicates, despite the diversity of the strategies employed in teaching speaking, some points were common. In most cases teaching aids such as visuals (images, pictures, etc.) are used along with topics, technologies, or tasks which were considered appropriate for eliciting talk from the learners. However, none tried to focus on students' attempt to represent their inner thoughts through the visual & technology-supported images as a source of eliciting topic, discussion, and negotiation. This study therefore is contributory for employing this perspective in the teaching of speaking to EFL students.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS

Research question: "What areas of CAF triad -Complexity, Accuracy, Fluency- (Skehan, 2009) improve in students' performance on photomontage in comparison with their model-based lectures?"

Research Hypothesis: Some areas of CAF triad will improve in learners' self-generated photomontage in comparison with model-based lectures.

V. METHODOLOGY

There are a range of approaches to account for performance on language learning tasks. As Skehan (2009) suggests complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) triad has proved useful in measuring second language performance. CAF (complexity, accuracy and fluency) as a triad has been used for evaluating performance in written and oral tasks.

For this study independent t-test of the 8 variables was carried out. These include: Different rates to measure the CAF triad such as: Complexity 1) Percentage of Lexical Words (LD), Complexity 2) Ratio of Lexical to Function words (L/F), Accuracy 1) the percentage of error free verb forms (EFVF), Accuracy 2) the percentage of Error-free T-units (EFTU) and Fluency 1-a) average number of words per minute of each task (ANWPM), 1-b) average number of words in the whole task (ANWT), Fluency 2-a) average number of T-units per minute of each task (ANTUPM), 2-b) average number of T-units in the whole tasks (ANTUT), Fluency 3-a) average number of syllables per minute of each task (ANSPM), and 3-b) average number of syllables in the whole tasks (ANST).

A. Participants

The participants in this study were 45 English major Freshers at University of Guilan, branch of humanities both male and female. Due to some problems in data transcription, audibility problems and voice quality some of them were discarded from the final data analysis therefore we had 33 persons in Oral 1 and Oral 2 courses in two semesters. Oral 2 groups that shape our G1 and G2 groups were video recorded during winter semester of 2012-2013 and G3 students which were Oral 1 were video recorded during the spring course of 2013. Each group consisted of 11 participants. The age range of the participants is between 18 to 22 (94%) and the rest of them are between 26 to 30 (6%).

In this study every participant is compared for the two tasks. All groups, G1, G2 and G3 had Oral classes twice a week for ninety minutes. The procedure that all groups went through was identical. They first listened to a lecture (in G1 and G2 about 'New trends in children's media use' and in G3 about 'News media and different ways of getting the news') and discussed about it in the classroom. The text and the DVD of the lecture were also provided for them. The following sessions each student had the chance to present the topic as a lecturing task to the other classmates and this procedure was video recorded. After all students had gone through the first task the second one was introduced. Each student had to make a photomontage (about any topic) and then in class present it to the other students.

B. Materials and Procedures

This procedure took place in two different semesters of the academic year 2012-2013. In the winter semester 22 English major participants of the Oral II courses were video recorded and the following semester 11 of the Oral I freshers were video recorded. Learners were supposed to do the two tasks, one model-based lecture that they watched

and discussed in class and had access to its text and DVD to practice at home and give lecture the following session and the other was Photomontage task that they made at home, thought about its topic and presented in class for the others

C. Data Analysis

All statistical analyses were carried out using statistical package SPSS 20 for Windows. Different kinds of statistical analyses are used such as descriptive statistics, which provide information about means, standard deviations and skewness, also independent t-tests, are used for the comparison of the two task features based on the CAF triad.

First of all the researcher watched all the films through to familiarize with the topics. It was very necessary because in photomontage students demonstrated on different topics. The second stage the program Pot Player was installed. This program provides this capacity to control it while you are in a Microsoft Word file; therefore as you are typing you have access to the video file. After writing holistically, the transcription conventions were also utilized. This stage clarifies the written data for later coding and analysis. Burns (1999, P176) believes that transcription provides useful details of classroom interaction. All data was coded for T-units, words and syllables in order to calculate fluency also the lexical and function words were codified in order to make the counting easier for complexity measures, furthermore all kinds of errors in the text were highlighted, tagging different kinds of errors for accuracy measures, to ease operationalization of the procedures of the current study.

Intrarater measures were used in the transcription and coding of the narratives. The transcription of the narratives was carried out by the researcher. Intrarater reliability reached 97%.

D. Results of Part One, Complexity

Table1 & 2. Mean scores, Standard Deviations, and t-values of the students' lectures on model-based and photomontage based on LD & L/F in group one. (Table 1 is presented in the appendix- all descriptive tables are in appendix)

TABLE 2,
G1, INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
LD	Equal variances assumed	.759	.394	.908	20	.375	.01819091	.02002801	-.02358679	.05996861
	Equal variances not assumed			.908	17.439	.376	.01819091	.02002801	-.02398367	.06036549
L/F	Equal variances assumed	2.350	.141	.259	20	.798	.03465091	.13358635	-.024400534	.31330716
	Equal variances not assumed			.259	17.983	.798	.03465091	.13358635	-.24602238	.31532420

Significant at the 0.05 level (P < 0.05)

In table 2, there is not any significant difference as the t-test analysis reveals. This indicates that using photomontage did not affect learners' lexical density and lexical complexity as a result it was not generally effective for their oral repertoires' complexity.

TABLE 4,
G2, INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
LD	Equal variances assumed	2.170	.156	1.643	20	.116	.04216364	.02566326	-.01136900	.09569627
	Equal variances not assumed			1.643	16.764	.119	.04216364	.02566326	-.01203932	.09636659
L/F	Equal variances assumed	2.411	.136	.522	20	.607	.04332727	.08299041	-.1297869	.21644223
	Equal variances not assumed			.522	14.267	.610	.04332727	.08299041	-.13435766	.22101221

In table 4, there is not any significant difference as the t-test analysis reveals. However we can claim that for the lexical density a trend is distinguishable as the t is 1.64 for this group. This indicates that using photomontage did not holistically affect learners' complexity; as a result it was not generally effective for their oral repertoires' complexity although a trend in the lexical density is noticeable.

TABLE 6,
G3,INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
LD	Equal variances assumed	1.074	.312	.831	20	.416	.01687273	.02029743	-.02546697	.05921242
	Equal variances not assumed			.831	18.663	.416	.01687273	.02029743	-.02566232	.05940777
L/F	Equal variances assumed	1.965	.176	1.390	20	.180	.18010000	.12958572	-.09021108	.45041108
	Equal variances not assumed			1.390	18.419	.181	.18010000	.12958572	-.09170636	.45190636

In table 6, there is not any significant difference as the t-test analysis reveals. This indicates that using photomontage did not affect learners' lexical density and lexical complexity as a result it was not generally effective for their oral repertoires' complexity.

E. Results of part 2, Accuracy

Here we aim to consider the effect of lecturing on photomontage on EFL learners' Accuracy. In this section we will shed light on two subsections of accuracy, error free verb forms (EFVF) and error free T-units (EFTU) in each group (G1, G2 and G3). The results are as follows:

Tables 7& 8.Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and t-values for the students' model-based lecture and photomontage in group one based on accuracy measures.(table 7 is descriptive and is presented in the appendix)

TABLE8,
G1,INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
EFVF	Equal variances assumed	1.869	.187	-.026	20	.980	-.00398182	.15346596	-.32410621	.31614257
	Equal variances not assumed			-.026	18.979	.980	-.00398182	.15346596	-.32521428	.31725064
EFTU	Equal variances assumed	9.000	.007	-5.943	20	.000	-.37517273	.06313283	-.50686550	-.24347995
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.943	11.886	.000	-.37517273	.06313283	-.51287426	-.23747119

*Significant at the 0.05 level ($P < 0.05$)

As is shown in Table7, the mean score for error free verb forms (EFVF) of the model-based group is0.71and for Photomontage group is 0.72; the Standard deviation of the two groups is 0.31 and 0.39 respectively. The mean score for the error free T-units (EFTU) of model-based is 0.52and for Photomontage group is 0.90 and the Standard deviation of the two is 0.20 and 0.06 respectively. In table 8, there is not any significant difference for EFVF as the t-test analysis reveals however there is a significant change in EFTU. This indicates that using photomontage did not affect learners' EFVF in group one nevertheless it significantly affected EFTU, as a result it can be claimed that it was somehow effective for developing accuracy in the group one learners' oral repertoires'.

Tables 9 and 10.Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and t-values for the students' model-based lecture and photomontage one in group two based on accuracy measures (EFVF and EFTU).(table 9 is in the appendix)

TABLE 10,
G2,INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
EFVF	Equal variances assumed	5.305	.032	1.979	20	.062	.30915455	.15619119	-.01665457	.63496366
	Equal variances not assumed			1.979	18.382	.063	.30915455	.15619119	-.01850308	.63681217
EFTU	Equal variances assumed	18.208	.000	.066	20	.948	.00711818	.10817659	-.21853423	.23277060
	Equal variances not assumed			.066	13.417	.949	.00711818	.10817659	-.22584712	.24008349

*Significant at the 0.05 level (P< 0.05)

In table 10, there is not any significant difference for EFTU as the t-test analysis reveals however there is a trend distinguishable in EFVF. This indicates that using photomontage did not affect learners' EFTU in group two nevertheless to some extent it affected EFVF, as a result it can be claimed that it was somehow effective for developing accuracy in the group two learners' oral repertoire.

Tables 11 and 12. Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and t-values for the students' model-based lecture and photomontage one in group three based on accuracy measures.(table 11 is in the appendix)

TABLE 12,
G3,INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
EFVF	Equal variances assumed	23.742	.000	1.649	20	.115	.24692727	.14974414	-.06543353	.55928808
	Equal variances not assumed			1.649	15.334	.119	.24692727	.14974414	-.07164073	.56549528
EFTU	Equal variances assumed	3.367	.081	-1.579	20	.130	-.15648182	.09908712	-.36317393	.05021029
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.579	16.068	.134	-.15648182	.09908712	-.36646539	.05350175

*Significant at the 0.05 level (P< 0.05)

In table 4.18, there is not any significant difference for EFVF and EFTU as the t-test analysis reveals however there is a trend distinguishable in both cases. This indicates that using photomontage did not affect learners' EFVF and EFTU in group three drastically, nevertheless to some extent it affected both, as a result it can be claimed that it was somehow effective for developing accuracy in the group three learners' oral repertoires'

F. Results of Part Three, Fluency

Here the assumption is that using photomontage will change fluency features in students' oral repertoires these include: average number of words per minute (ANWPM), average number of words in the whole speech (ANWT), average number of T-units per minute of speech (ANTUPM), average number of T-units in the whole speech (ANTUT), average number of syllables per minute of speech (ANSPM) and average number of syllables in the whole speech (ANST).

Table 13 and 14. Mean Scores, Standard deviations, t-values of group one for Fluency measures, Average number of words per minute (1-a,ANWPM) ,average number of words in the whole speech (1-b,ANWT), average number of T-units in one minute(2-a,ANTUPM), average number of T-units in the whole speech(2-b, ANTUT), average number of syllables per minute (3-a, ANSPM) and average number of syllables in the whole speech (3-b, ANST). (table 13 is in appendix)

TABLE 14,
G1, INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
1-a	Equal variances assumed	.796	.383	3.064	20	.006	43.45455	14.18013	13.87532	73.03377
	Equal variances not assumed			3.064	17.287	.007	43.45455	14.18013	13.57490	73.33419
1-b	Equal variances assumed	9.104	.007	-4.580	20	.000	-351.18182	76.68141	-511.13643	-191.2272
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.580	11.704	.001	-351.18182	76.68141	-518.72534	-183.6383
2-a	Equal variances assumed	.152	.701	-.664	20	.514	-.27273	.41060	-1.12923	.58378
	Equal variances not assumed			-.664	19.969	.514	-.27273	.41060	-1.12932	.58386
2-b	Equal variances assumed	11.253	.003	-5.023	20	.000	-27.90909	5.55617	-39.49907	-16.31911
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.023	10.793	.000	-27.90909	5.55617	-40.16689	-15.65129
3-a	Equal variances assumed	1.117	.303	.018	20	.986	.18182	10.13781	-20.96528	21.32892
	Equal variances not assumed			.018	18.854	.986	.18182	10.13781	-21.04803	21.41166
3-b	Equal variances assumed	10.755	.004	-4.955	20	.000	-335.00000	67.61094	-476.03396	-193.9660
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.955	10.689	.000	-335.00000	67.61094	-484.34131	-185.6586

*Significant at the 0.05 level ($P < 0.05$)

In table 14, the t-test analysis indicates that in group one both measures of 1-a ANWPM and 1-b ANWT were statistically significant at , 3.06 and -4.58 respectively ($P < 0.05$). In the other two measures, 2-a ANTUPM and 2-b ANTUT, just the second one show statistically significant change with -5.02 ($P < 0.05$). In the third group of measures 3-a ANSPM and 3-b ANST, again the second part shows statistically significant change with -4.95 for the t-value ($P < 0.05$).

Table 15 and 16. Mean Scores, Standard deviations, t-values of group two for Fluency measures, Average number of words per minute (1-a, ANWPM), average number of words in the whole speech (1-b, ANWT), average number of T-units in one minute (2-a, ANTUPM), average number of T-units in the whole speech (2-b, ANTUT), average number of syllables per minute (3-a, ANSPM) and average number of syllables in the whole speech (3-b, ANST).

TABLE 16,
G2,INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

32. INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
1-a	Equal variances assumed	2.203	.153	-.421	20	.679	-3.72727	8.86371	-22.21664	14.76209
	Equal variances not assumed			-.421	18.684	.679	-3.72727	8.86371	-22.30050	14.84595
1-b	Equal variances assumed	21.690	.000	-4.925	20	.000	-1038.4545	210.85475	-1478.2898	-598.6192
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.925	10.759	.000	-1038.4545	210.85475	-1503.8118	-573.0972
2-a	Equal variances assumed	1.432	.245	-1.119	20	.276	-.90909	.81210	-2.60310	.78492
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.119	18.416	.277	-.90909	.81210	-2.61249	.79430
2-b	Equal variances assumed	25.487	.000	-4.593	20	.000	-51.45455	11.20235	-74.82223	-28.08686
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.593	10.376	.001	-51.45455	11.20235	-76.29299	-26.61610
3-a	Equal variances assumed	.242	.628	-.609	20	.549	-7.90909	12.97894	-34.98269	19.16450
	Equal variances not assumed			-.609	19.979	.549	-7.90909	12.97894	-34.98450	19.16632
3-b	Equal variances assumed	17.674	.000	-5.082	20	.000	-1434.0000	282.14650	-2022.5472	-845.4527
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.082	10.750	.000	-1434.0000	282.14650	-2056.7671	-811.2328

In table 16,the t-test analysis indicates that in group two, measures of 1-a ANWPM and 1-b ANWT just 1-b was statistically significant with t-value at , -10.10 ($P<0.05$). In the other two measures, 2-a ANTUPM and 2-b ANTUT, both measures show statistically significant change with t-values at 2.56 and -3.77 respectively ($P<0.05$). In the third group of measures 3-a ANSPM and 3-b ANST, again the second part shows statistically significant change with -9.15 for the t-value ($P< 0.05$) however the other one 3-a ANSPM shows a trend in photomontage group and that needs consideration.

TABLE 18,
G3,INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

3.5. INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
1-a	Equal variances assumed	2.203	.153	-.421	20	.679	-3.72727	8.86371	-22.21664	14.76209
	Equal variances not assumed			-.421	18.684	.679	-3.72727	8.86371	-22.30050	14.84595
1-b	Equal variances assumed	21.690	.000	-4.925	20	.000	-1038.4545	210.85475	-1478.2898	-598.6192
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.925	10.759	.000	-1038.4545	210.85475	-1503.8118	-573.0972
2-a	Equal variances assumed	1.432	.245	-1.119	20	.276	-.90909	.81210	-2.60310	.78492
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.119	18.416	.277	-.90909	.81210	-2.61249	.79430
2-b	Equal variances assumed	25.487	.000	-4.593	20	.000	-51.45455	11.20235	-74.82223	-28.08686
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.593	10.376	.001	-51.45455	11.20235	-76.29299	-26.61610
3-a	Equal variances assumed	.242	.628	-.609	20	.549	-7.90909	12.97894	-34.98269	19.16450
	Equal variances not assumed			-.609	19.979	.549	-7.90909	12.97894	-34.98450	19.16632
3-b	Equal variances assumed	17.674	.000	-5.082	20	.000	-1434.0000	282.14650	-2022.5472	-845.4527
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.082	10.750	.000	-1434.0000	282.14650	-2056.7671	-811.2328

In table 18 the t-test analysis indicates that in group three from the two measures of 1-a ANWPM and 1-b ANWT just the second was statistically significant at -4.925 ($P < 0.05$). In the other two measures, 2-a ANTUPM and 2-b ANTUT, just the second one shows statistically significant change with -4.59 ($P < 0.05$). However in the first measure, 2-a a trend is traceable. In the third group of measures 3-a ANSPM and 3-b ANST, again the second part shows statistically significant change with -5.08 for the t-value ($P < 0.05$).

VI. DISCUSSION

According to the findings, the learners' lecture on photomontage benefited mostly in fluency measures, higher t-value results, and in this respect outperformed the other lecture. In this study our three groups called G1, G2 and G3 all consisting of 11 participants went through two stages of giving lecture based on a model and having DVD and the text for practicing at home and the other was preparing a photomontage (a kind of composite picture) and talking about it in the class. First of all the model-based lecturers benefited from practice effect and everything was ready made for learners, on the other hand in the photomontage case each person should think of a topic and related pictures to present and it adds to the difficulty of the task. As far as in the model-based case there was memorization in most cases therefore students complexity remained well and photomontage task was affected negatively in this respect. In the second part of the CAF triad, accuracy, although some trends is noticeable but it was not statistically significant. It can be due to practice effect that learners' had in the case of model-based lectures however in the second task as everything goes step by step through class discussion and unveils on the spot and also the engagement of other students may affect the speaker, and in many cases improvisation leads to unwanted mistakes. In the third item, fluency, undoubtedly the photomontage group performed better. Another point should not be forgotten and that is the other learners' participation. During the first task the participants participation barely reaches 12% whereas during the photomontage task the participation is definitely 100% and this monologic and dialogic feature of the two tasks affect performances. Based on Vygotsky's theory, learning through interaction is central to learning. He states that interaction and negotiation of meaning are through tasks that require attention to meaning and transfer of information. In his view learning is as both a social as well as cognitive process. (Richards, 2003) In this case if students' interlanguage development was observed maybe other outcomes would be noticed however that was out of the scope of the current study and can be studied later on. One final point to be considered is attentional resources; Skehan's (2009) trade-off hypothesis suggests that committing attention to one area might cause lower performance in others.

The time should also be taken into account, as tables 1, 2 and 3 (Appendix, tables), speaking on the model-based took much shorter time than photomontage task and again it is considerable because if you talk for two to three minute it differs with the time that you talk for 20 or more minutes. In any case you manage your talk differently. The fruit of using photomontage was that learners who are afraid of lecturing and cannot talk for more than a couple of minutes, manage the class and their lecturing better and stay longer on the stage.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

According to statistic findings, it was found that our photomontage group outperformed the model-based group in most Fluency measures in the three groups. Robinson (2001, cited in Salimi & Dadashpour, 2012) found that complex tasks elicited less fluent, but more accurate and complex production than simple tasks and that is in line with this study if we assume that model-based lecture was more complex for a learner that is why their fluency suffered, however; on the other hand they had gains in complexity and accuracy domains. Also for Yuan and Ellis, fluency and accuracy are the two dimensions of production which are in competition for resources (Gilabert, 2004). Without a doubt, accuracy is the dimension of performance that has triggered the widest variety of results. In the experiment presented in this dissertation, no differences in accuracy were found for either the percentage of error-free T-units (EFTU) or for error free verb forms (EFVF) among the two groups but it can be stated that a trend is recognizable. The results of accuracy went against what was stated in Hypotheses 2, explanations by different researchers about what takes place with accuracy during performance have differed considerably. Foster and Skehan (1996) did not find any significant improvements in accuracy between planning conditions for the narrative task they used, while these existed for complexity. (as cited in Gilabert, 2004) While they speculated about the possible causes of increased complexity (either the consequence of reduced cognitive load or cognitive effects that pushed learners to try out more complex language) the lack of effects for accuracy was attributed to trade-off effects between accuracy and complexity. 'Complexity and accuracy are seen as relating primarily to L2 knowledge representation and to the level of analysis of internalized linguistic information' on the contrary fluency is primarily related to learner's control over their linguistic knowledge and is reflected in the speed and ease with which they retrieve information to communicate meaning in real time (Housen & Kuiken, 2009). Skehan's 1998 Limited Attentional Capacity Model suggests that human attentional capacity is limited and selective, and focusing on one area may take attentional resources from others and may lead to fluency/accuracy competition (Housen & Kuiken, 2009) therefore our result is compatible with Skehan's model. Despite this Skehan (2003) mentions that interactive work of the learners will lead to more advanced and accurate language but a less fluent one that is in contrast with the results of the current research. Ejzenberg (2000 cited in Derwing et al, 2004) argues that in monologic tasks the cognitive demands on the speaker are greater and thus fluency would be negatively

affected and if we consider the current study the model-based lecture was the monologic task and this is exactly compatible with our results. Skehan (cited in Shehadeh & Coombe, 2013) mentions that ‘tasks that are cognitively demanding in their content are likely to draw attentional resources away from language forms’ here our photomontage task seems more demanding because of its rich and novel content and it may be one reason why our learners did not perform well in the accuracy domain. The results of the study are not compatible with Output Hypothesis that assumes that interaction can lead to improved grammatical performance because in our photomontage as the dialogic task the learners’ accuracy was negatively affected.

APPENDICES

TABLE1,
G1, GROUP STATISTICS

lecture	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
LD	11	.4421000	.03688721	.01112191
photo montage	11	.4239091	.05524189	.01665606
L/F	11	.6520882	.36196403	.10913626
photo montage	11	.6174373	.25550046	.07703629

TABLE3,
G2, GROUP STATISTICS

lecture	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
LD	11	.4395364	.07220726	.02177131
photo montage	11	.3973727	.04506380	.01358725
L/F	11	.7143909	.24878529	.07501159
photo montage	11	.6710636	.11775979	.03550591

TABLE5,
G3, GROUP STATISTICS

lecture	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
LD	11	.4703182	.04073519	.01228212
photo montage	11	.4534455	.05359558	.01615968
L/F	11	.7791336	.25553608	.07704703
photo montage	11	.5990336	.34556962	.10419316

TABLE 7,
G1, GROUP STATISTICS

lecture	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EFVF	11	.7176273	.31541153	.09510015
photo montage	11	.7216091	.39948140	.12044817
EFTU	11	.5249545	.20008639	.06032832
photo montage	11	.9001273	.06171493	.01860775

TABLE 9,
G2, GROUP STATISTICS

lecture	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EFVF	11	.7095455	.30719044	.09262140
photo montage	11	.4003909	.41711701	.12576551
EFTU	11	.4765818	.13884631	.04186374
photo montage	11	.4694636	.33082567	.09974769

TABLE 11,
G3, GROUP STATISTICS

lecture	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EFVF	11	.7272273	.23514936	.07090020
photo montage	11	.4803000	.43744848	.13189568
EFTU	11	.3536364	.16518309	.04980458
photo montage	11	.5101182	.28410451	.08566073

TABLE 13,
G1.GROUP STATISTICS

lecture	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
1-a	11	123.7273	25.84218	7.79171
photo montage	11	80.2727	39.29400	11.84759
1-b	11	222.6364	71.51122	21.56144
photo montage	11	573.8182	244.06262	73.58765
2-a	11	5.8182	.98165	.29598
photo montage	11	6.0909	.94388	.28459
2-b	11	24.8182	3.60051	1.08559
photo montage	11	52.7273	18.07258	5.44909
3-a	11	163.5455	20.63668	6.22219
photo montage	11	163.3636	26.54533	8.00372
3-b	11	333.7273	40.93432	12.34216
photo montage	11	668.7273	220.47226	66.47489

TABLE 15,
G2.GROUP STATISTICS

lecture	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
1-a	11	113.0909	13.80184	4.16141
photo montage	11	114.5455	23.23086	7.00437
1-b	11	518.1818	185.27429	55.86230
photo montage	11	1990.3636	446.04445	134.48746
2-a	11	6.0909	1.81409	.54697
photo montage	11	4.2727	1.48936	.44906
2-b	11	26.9091	8.53762	2.57419
photo montage	11	101.3636	64.93885	19.57980
3-a	11	160.0000	19.20417	5.79027
photo montage	11	148.1818	28.86111	8.70195
3-b	11	732.6364	231.26577	69.72925
photo montage	11	2592.1818	632.87863	190.82009

TABLE 17,
G3.GROUP STATISTICS

lecture	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
1-a	11	97.0000	23.38376	7.05047
photo montage	11	100.7273	17.81623	5.37180
1-b	11	270.8182	133.85053	40.35745
photo montage	11	1309.2727	686.39713	206.95652
2-a	11	4.1818	1.60114	.48276
photo montage	11	5.0909	2.16585	.65303
2-b	11	11.3636	5.04525	1.52120
photo montage	11	62.8182	36.80983	11.09858
3-a	11	138.2727	30.92601	9.32454
photo montage	11	146.1818	29.94267	9.02806
3-b	11	383.8182	178.02293	53.67593
photo montage	11	1817.8182	918.68437	276.99376

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The Study of Learning Speaking Skills Based on Communicative Approach

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Abstract—This research aims at describing the application of learning speaking skills based on communicative approach in the process of learning Indonesian language including the role of students, the role of teachers, and the interaction of teaching and learning. This research applied descriptive qualitative method. In collecting the data, the researchers directly observed the natural phenomena that occurred in the study of learning speaking skills based on the communicative approach in SMAN 1 Sesean, Toraja Regency. The data were collected through observation, recording, interviews and documentation. The data were then analyzed through the technique of "Data Analysis of Final Model". Research findings show that the role of the teacher in the learning speaking skills based on communicative approach has been conducted properly. The role of students in learning speaking skills based on communicative approach has been optimal. The form of teaching and learning interactions has reflected the communicative approach. In the communicative approach, the teachers engage the students actively, creatively and meaningfully

Index Terms—learning, speaking, communicative

I. INTRODUCTION

Among the other language skills, speaking skill is one of the language skills that is not controlled by any person, especially in speaking through academic contexts such as speech, discussions, lectures, interviews, etc.

Standards of competence in school-based curriculum stated that language learning is directed to help the learners to know themselves, their culture and others' culture. It is also to improve the idea, feeling, and participation in a certain language community. In addition, language learning is to find and to use inner capabilities in analyzing and imagining. Therefore, Indonesian language learning is directed to communicate in the Indonesian language properly and in the right manner either orally or in written (Department of national education, 2006).

In fact, speaking is a process of communicating because it contains a message from any source to other sources. Furthermore, it has been mentioned in the school-based curriculum that the nature of learning to speak is basically using oral discourse to express thoughts, feelings, information, experiences of opinions and comments in interviews, presentations of reports, discussions, protocols, and speeches. There are also various literary works in the form of short story, novel, poetry and drama (Department of national education, 2006).

Based on the reality in the field, learning speaking skill is not optimal because, in practice, it is rarely performed in class. The teachers more often explain about the theory of speaking than giving the practice to speak. Thus, it causes the students are less trained to speak or express their opinion in front of the class.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Speaking

Speaking is a common mean of communication within the community. There are no communities wherever they live, who have no language. Whatever the form of language is, every community must have language as a communication tool. Even there are among us who can imagine writing while listening to a discussion about the language, but the language is actually the speech or utterance.

The basic concept of speaking as the means of communicating consists of nine things (Logan et al., 1972, p. 104-105). They are:

- (1) Speaking and listening are two reciprocal activities.

- (2) Speaking is an individual process in communicating,
- (3) Speaking is a creative expression,
- (4) Speaking is behavior,
- (5) Speaking is learned behavior,
- (6) The wealth of experience influences speaking,
- (7) Speaking is a means in smoothing the horizon.
- (8) Linguistic ability and the environment are closely related.
- (9) Speaking is personal emission

Slamet and Saddhono (2012) reveal that speaking and listening are complementary and contributed to oral communication such as talks, discussions, question and answer, interview, etc. In the communication, the people exchange their experience, express and receive thoughts, feelings, and also agree with the establishment or beliefs. Speaker and listener are integrated with reciprocal activity. They can change the role spontaneously, easily, and smoothly, from the speaker to be a listener and vice versa.

B. The Purpose of Speaking

The main goal of speaking is to communicate in order to convey thoughts, ideas, feelings, and expectation effectively. The speakers should understand the meaning of what they want to communicate. They should be able to evaluate the effect of their communication to the listener. In addition, speaking can be utilized to control themselves whether they already have the ability to pronounce sounds precisely, to reveal the facts spontaneously, and to apply norms of the correct language automatically (Saddhono and Slamet, 2012, p. 37).

C. The Types of Speaking

There are many kinds of speaking. Keraf (1980, p. 189), distinguishes them into three kinds, namely, instructive, persuasive, and recreative. The instructive speaking aims at telling something. The persuasive speaking is encouraging, reassuring and acting. The recreative speaking aims at entertaining. These types of speaking require a different reaction from the listeners. Persuasive speaking wants the reaction from the audience to get inspiration or to stimulate emotional, rapprochement of opinion, intellectuals, beliefs, and to get a specific action from the listeners. The instructive speaking requires reactions from listeners in the form of a proper sense. Meanwhile, the recreative speaking requires a reaction from listeners in the form of interest and excitement.

D. The Relationship between Speaking and Other Language Skills

Speaking as a language skill is related to the other language skills. The ability of the students to speak will be developed if it is preceded by the listening comprehension. Speaking skill utilizes vocabulary obtained by the students through the activities of listening and reading. Furthermore, speaking material is often come from the results of the listening and reading. Likewise, the speaking skill is supported other language skills either in making an outline or a script.

Based on the above description, Saddhono and Slamet reveal the following statements' namely:

- a. Speaking and listening are direct language skills;
- b. Speaking skill is learned through listening comprehension;
- c. The enhancement of listening comprehension will improve speaking skills;
- d. Sound and voice are the important factors in speaking skill and listening comprehension;
- e. Speaking skill is retrieved before the acquisition of reading comprehension;
- f. Learning reading comprehension in advanced will help speaking skills;
- g. Speaking skill is acquired before learning speaking skills;
- h. Speaking tends to be less structured than writing;
- i. Making notes, charts, etc., can help speaking skills
- j. Speaking and writing performance are different although they are an equally productive skill (Saddhono and Slamet, 2012, p. 55).

E. Ideal Speaker

Human beings are born in a normal condition that has potential to speak. This potential will become a reality if it is fostered, nurtured, and developed through a systematic, directional drills, and continuous improvement. Without practicing, this potential will remain and not well developed.

There are some characteristics of an ideal speaker that are necessary and very useful to understand, apply and appreciate in speaking, namely:

- (1) Choosing the right topics
A good speaker will choose an interesting and actual topic for himself and his audience.
- (2) Mastering the material

A good speaker seeks to master and learn the material to be conveyed. The speaker is trying to learn and examines various sources of reference. These sources are either in the form of books, magazines, newspapers or articles. These resources can be utilized as evidence of the material.

(3) Understanding the background to the listener

Before the speech takes place, a good speaker attempts to collect a variety of information about his listener. For example, gender, occupation, level of intelligence, interests, values that are embraced, and habit.

(4) Knowing the situation

A good speaker should consider the situation in the speech. The speaker will attempt to identify the room, time, seating, listeners, and the atmosphere.

(5) Having a clear goal

The goal that is formulated clearly and firmly will support the effectiveness of the speaker. A good speaker knows exactly where the listeners want to be carried.

(6) Having contact with listeners

A speaker will always retain his or her audience. The speaker is trying to understand the emotional reaction of the listeners.

(7) Having a high ability of linguistic and non-linguistic

The selections of words, phrases, appropriate sentences that are elaborated on ideas are very helpful for the speaker to explore the idea

(8) Controlling the listener

Capable of having the attention of listeners is a very positive thing for the speaker.

(9) Utilizing tools

The utilization of tools, such as diagrams, schematics, statistics, and pictures will greatly help the clarity of speech. They will streamline the speech if the speaker can provide illustrations that correspond with the environment of listeners.

(10) Having a convincing performance

A good speaker will always assure listeners. The speaker has a simple behavior, a style of speech, language, way of dressing, and personality, but he or she is still authoritative, graceful and sympathy.

Everything that is well-planned will be better than everything that is not planned at all. Therefore, a good speaker had planned speech early. The speaker should plan on choosing the topic, understanding and studying the topic, analyzing the situation of the listener, drafting the framework, piloting, and attempting to convince the listener (Saddhono and Slamet, 2012, p. 56-57).

F. Learning Speaking Skills

According to Tarigan (1983, p. 15), speaking is the ability to pronounce the articulation sounds or words to express thoughts, ideas, and feelings. As an extension of these limits, it can be said that speaking is a system of signs that can be heard and visible which utilizes muscle tissue of the human body for the purpose and goal of the ideas that combined. It means that speaking is an activity or literary activity. Burhan Nurgiyantoro (2001, p. 276), explained that speaking is a second language skill after listening. Someone can say the articulation of sounds after he or she listens to the sounds of language.

III. METHODOLOGY

This research applied descriptive qualitative method. This type of research was designed in such a way. Therefore, it achieved an expected target, namely the preparation phase, data collection phase, and data analysis phase.

This research was focused on the study of speaking skills based on interactive communicative of the students at SMAN 1 Sesean, Toraja Regency Learning Indonesian Language that related to the learning of listening, reading, and writing.

This research is located at SMA Negeri 1 Sesean, Toraja Regency. The location of the research is determined purposively. It means that the location of the research was based on the purpose.

The data referred to this research is descriptive or real materials that can be a basic analysis or conclusion. The data collected in this research was in the form of activity or process of teaching and learning in the classroom.

The sources of the data in this study were the Indonesian Language teachers and second-grade students in SMAN 1 Sesean, Toraja Regency. The researchers conducted recording, observation, interviews, documentation in order to obtain necessary data in this study.

In this qualitative research, the researchers act as the instrument of the research. The researchers as the research instrument can act as planners, implementers of data collection, data analyzer, and the preparation of reports on the results of research (Moleong, 2010, p. 168). The researchers used some tools in data collection. They were observation format, interview guidelines, diary entry, and documentation study.

The validity of the data was conducted for obtaining authentic data. The validity of the data was carried out by some methods, namely:

1. Conducting observations diligently and thoroughly,
2. Conducting triangulation by comparing between the Indonesia language learning and real conditions in the field,
3. Conducting discussions with colleagues and teachers in the field of Indonesian Language as well as with professor and doctor who have scientific relevance with this research.

The data collected were analyzed by using the procedure in the "analysis of data flow model" by organizing records for the results of observation of the class and interviews systematically. In order to perform these activities, there were some procedures. They were data reduction, data presentation, and conclusion. These activities were carried out simultaneously and continuously either data analysis in the field or data analysis was undertaken after research was completed (Tolla, 1996, p. 215).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Data obtained in the classroom are data summarized in the notes field including transcription recordings and written language. The presentation of these data is based on the subject. The main points of discussion are grouped according to subject matter themes in textbooks. There are two textbooks used. They are "Handbook of Indonesian Language Teachers for Senior Secondary School or SMA / MA" and "Indonesian language Homework for SMA / MA".

The data of field notes conducted in the classroom is about the application of learning skills including the role of the students, the role of teachers, and the subject matter. These data directly address the research question. Presentation of the data in this description was based on the theme of the textbooks.

In the learning process, the theme used was "Health and Sport". Teaching at the first meeting was conducted for 2x45 minutes. Five minutes were used by teachers to introduce researchers. Five minutes were used by teachers to roll call the students. Fifteen minutes were used by the teacher to describe the general contents. Twenty minutes were used by students to work on their task. Forty minutes were used by students to report their work. Fifteen minutes were used by the teacher to clarify the subject matter. In each class, several groups had been formed.

A. *The Role of the Teacher*

Teaching and learning situation is changed when the teacher invited students to report their work by asking each group to perform in front of the class to do the interview interchangeably. In each group, there are students acted as interviewers, and there are students who are interviewed.

At the beginning of learning activities, the teacher asks the students reporting their tasks without a length comment. According to the observations that conducted by researchers, teachers motivate their students to explore their potential continuously, fostering activity and creativity. Therefore, there is a great dynamics in the process of teaching and learning.

Based on the description above, it can be concluded that the teacher does not completely dominate the teaching and learning process.

B. *The Role of the Students*

In the description of the role of teacher, student involvement in the process of teaching and learning has been already visible. Activities from beginning to end lesson hours, the students were given an active role to report their work through an interview exercise in front of the class by playing a role as bureaucrats, and four students present their work.

Here is a quotation from the dialog of the students:

<p>B: According to you sir, what should the government doing right now? M1: The street should be repairing, Sir, because Rantepao Sa'dah street has been severely damaged. S1: Yes sir, it is more important to repair the street. B: Yes, we consider your advice hopefully it can be realized. M2: In addition sir, we hope that the electricity is not always turned off M3: that is right Sir. The electricity always turns off. Therefore, it should be paid attention.</p>

After the students had been doing interview exercises in front of the class, the teacher was explaining the vocal "e" correctly by repeating recite the interview that has been performed. The "e" vowel should be pronounced e (pronounced with e pepet). In addition, the teacher changes the word "turn off" with the word "black out."

The description above illustrates that the involvement of the student in learning process as students has had the opportunity to expand their knowledge.

C. *Teaching and Learning Interactions*

In the description of the role of teachers and students, teaching and learning interactions between students and teachers have been already visible. According to the observations conducted by the researchers, the teachers design a material in such way. It is characterized by the presence of the activity. Thus, the teaching and learning process already in progress optimally. The learning process has been described based on the learning of speaking communicative.

The teaching and learning interactions according to researchers are supported by the discipline of all parties, either teachers or students. For example, the time that they spend from the beginning to the end of lesson hours.

Based on the role of teachers, the role of students and teaching and learning interactions that have been described above, they can be described clearly in the following table:

TABLE 1.
THE ROLE OF TEACHERS, THE ROLE OF STUDENTS, AND THE TEACHING AND LEARNING INTERACTIONS

No	Variables	Results
1	The role of Teachers	a. The teachers act as the motivator in the learning process of speaking. The teachers have given encouragement to explore the potential of students, to foster activity, and creativity in teaching b. The teachers act as the facilitator. They have created an atmosphere of learning activities which are in harmony with the development of the students. c. The teachers act as the mediator. They mediate in the discussion activities. They arrange the classroom with background of communication, and communicative activities.
2	The role of students	a. The students in learning speaking skills serve as the giver and the receiver. They are not only as listeners, but also have been able to convey ideas. b. Students act as negotiators that all involved in the process of teaching and learning can glow activities and procedures that are studied as a whole in the group c. Students act as the negotiator among them, the process of learning, and learning objects. Therefore, they can learn freely
3	Teaching and learning interaction	a. Interaction in the process of teaching and learning take place optimally. Interactions between teachers and students, between students and other students create a very good negotiation. Therefore, it is can accommodate the needs, interests, and abilities of students in working together to build learning activities that correspond to the communicative approach.

V. CONCLUSION

The role of the teacher in teaching speaking skills-based communicative occurs optimally. The teachers act as motivators, facilitators, counselors, and mediators in the learning activities of the students. They stimulate and motivate the students to explore their potential, to foster activity and creativity. Therefore, there is a dynamic in the process of teaching and learning the Indonesian Language. Meanwhile, the students act as the giver and the receiver. In this case, they are not just as a listener, but they can convey the idea. In addition, they argue in accordance with their ability in creative and innovative way. Thus, the interaction in the learning process occurs optimally. In this case, the students play a role as a center for teaching and learning activities, and negotiation between teachers and students. It creates learning experiences that accommodate the needs of the students. Teachers and students work together in one direction and a sense that arises from an understanding of learning activities.

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Comparing the Effects of Practicing Explicit and Implicit Questions on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension Performance

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Abstract—The importance of reading comprehension as one of the key language learning skills is known to anybody engaged in language learning and teaching. However, an inclusive comprehension of a text requires mastery of different reading sub-skills including not only the explicit meaning of the text but also its implicit meaning. Whether the students who receive implicit questions after reading a text have better reading comprehension or those who receive explicit questions has been the main question to get verified across Iranian University students. As such, a general proficiency test made by Oxford University Press and the University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate was administered to 90 General English students of both genders majoring in various courses of study in Tafresh Azad University, and a homogenised selection of 60 were put randomly into two classes to serve as participants. Then, ten reading passages from the book *Select Readings Intermediate* were selected and two sets of items were developed; explicit items were practiced in one class and implicit ones in another. Finally, a post-test of reading comprehension including forty multiple-choice items of both types was used to verify any impact from the instruction. It was concluded that practice with either type of items results in similar levels of comprehension.

Index Terms—reading comprehension, reading comprehension questions, explicit questions, implicit questions

I. INTRODUCTION

People read to get something from text whether facts, ideas, enjoyment, or feelings (Nuttall, 2005). For whatever purpose they read. They naturally try to search for meaning in what they read (Grasser, Singer, & Trabasso, 1994), and meaning is constructed through readers' active cognitive interaction with the text (Nuttall, 2005). This active involvement of readers in the construction of meaning is reflected in their use of not only linguistic knowledge, but also background knowledge, world knowledge, personal experiences, and inferences during reading (Grabe & Stoler, 2002). As meaning is not fixed in the text, but is created in the active interaction of readers with the text, the readers' contribution to the construction of meaning is a key aspect of reading comprehension. In other words, the end product of reading comprehension is in part the result of linguistic and conceptual knowledge as well as the experiences that readers have accumulated in their life.

Therefore, reading comprehension is, in a sense, a process in which readers project their life onto what they read and elaborate text information based on their background knowledge and experiences, both of which allow them to generate knowledge-based inferences (Grasser & Kreuz, 1993). However, because experiences vary from person to person, the understanding of the same text can differ from reader to reader. This is particularly the case with the meanings that readers produce when they read in order to gain more than a literal understanding of the text information. However, in foreign language classes, too much emphasis is still placed on linguistic aspects of the text and on fixed interpretation of words, phrases, or sentences. In this process of comprehension, information flows primarily from the text into the mind of the readers, as the bottom-up processing of text information is emphasized. The result of this approach to reading is that different readers arrive at more or less the same conclusion concerning text meaning. This approach to reading is far from the interactive way that skilled readers use when creating meaning.

One way to alter this heavily bottom-up approach to teaching is through the effective use of reading questions, as they can provide a good alternative to the traditional grammar translation method in which readers depend excessively on bottom-up processing. Reading questions can be manipulated so that they encourage students to read the way that teachers want them to (Chikalanga, 1991); hence, reading questions aimed at stimulating readers to read for more than a literal understanding can lead the readers to make use of their background knowledge, and to engage in greater amounts

of inferencing (Day & Park, 2005) as they depend more on top-down processing for creating meaning. Reading questions can help foster active involvement with the text and encourage the readers to read for meaning independently and in an interactive way. It is clear from research that all students need instruction in reading comprehension, especially the kind that focuses on the strategies required to answer various forms of questions including text explicit and text implicit items (Taylor, Pearson, Peterson & Rodriguez, 2003 cited in Raphael & Au, 2005). Reading comprehension instruction helps ensure that all types of questions follow reading passages and there will not be the usual over-emphasis of lower-level skills and questions that only require students to spot and recall information; questions which ask for inference are also significant to understanding any text and even the simplest text requires thoughtful analysis. It is the process in which everybody engages as s/he tries to solve the problems at hand and specifically to make sense of what s/he reads. It seems that readers have problem in connecting elements of the text together and, as a result, fail to get the theme and main idea of the text. This is the problem which has afflicted most of the Iranian EFL learners. The present study is an attempt to investigate the effect of these item types on comprehension of reading texts among Intermediate EFL learners.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Reading Comprehension

In the past, reading comprehension was viewed as process of mastery of decoding (Dole, 2000 as cited in van Keer C & Verheghe, 2005). However, research has shown that good reading is characterized by more than just decoding and that reading comprehension involves the reader's active engagement in meaning construction (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985; Snow 2001). Yang (2002) defines reading comprehension as an active, dynamic, and developing process of looking for interrelations between elements of the text.

Different types of comprehension are differentiated from one another in different ways. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002) four types of comprehension are differentiated from one another based on the reader's purpose of reading and the type of reading applied. They include **literal comprehension**- reading with the purpose of understanding, remembering, or recalling the information explicitly stated in the text; **inferential comprehension**-reading for discovering the information implied in the text through experience and intuition, and inferring or inferencing; **critical or evaluative comprehension**- reading in order to compare information in a passage with the reader's own knowledge and values; and **appreciative comprehension**- reading in order to gain an emotional or other kind of valued response from a passage. Therefore, reading comprehension is not limited to simply decoding words but includes comprehending the text through all types of thinking, questioning and evaluating.

B. Mental Processes Involved in Reading Comprehension

Understanding the processes involved in reading comprehension is an essential part of studies related to this skill. Grabe and Stoller (2002) have identified two common underlying processes that are activated in reading: lower-level and higher-level processes.

According to these researchers lower-level processes concern linguistic processes that occur relatively automatically in proficient readers. When words are read, their meanings are accessed, and their grammatical functions are extracted via syntactic parsing. Then based on the combination of the semantic information and the grammatically analyzed information, the most logical propositions are formed (semantic proposition formation).

The higher-level processes, which include comprehension and knowledge processes, critically involve readers' background knowledge. This combination allows inferencing to take on an important role.

An appropriate understanding of these processes involving the combination and integration of various sources of knowledge including both lower-level and higher-level knowledge sources that occur during skilled reading can provide teachers with a grasp of the role that students need to play when reading (Brich, 2007).

C. Reading Comprehension Questions

Reading tasks can be manipulated as a pedagogical alternative to encourage students to read the way the teachers want them to (Chikalanga, 1991). For example, tasks that activate students' use of background knowledge and inferences can lead them to interact with the text and thus to create a personalized interpretation of text meaning (Day & Park, 2005). One common type of reading task involves the use of questions.

D. Inferencing

All humans engage in inferencing from early childhood to interpret the events in their environment and people infer others' actions, attitudes, and intentions almost automatically. Making inference is not just a skill we use while reading a text, rather it is one of the most important cognitive mechanisms that connect what we are attempting to understand with our background knowledge (Grabe, 2009, p. 68).

A text includes more information than the explicitly stated ones; comprehending a text requires the integration of the explicit information with those implied by the writer and with reader's previous or background knowledge (McKoon & Ratcliff, 1992; Vonk & Noordman, 1990). When reading a passage, the reader needs to bring to the surface those parts of the information which are left implicit and to activate the related information in memory form a unified mental

representation of the text through the generation of inferences. As put forward by Baretta, Tomitch, MacNair, Lim, and Waldie (2009) "in order to form a unified representation of a given text, a reader must be able to join the information presented in the text with his/ her background knowledge to construe the meaning that may not be explicitly stated, through the generation of inferences" (p. 137). In other words, representation of the text contains both the information that is explicitly stated by the text, and inferences that readers draw from the text.

Chikalanga (1992) explains that a reading text can never be totally explicit because writers do not explicitly state all the things a reader needs to know to comprehend a text. In order to make sense of a text, readers must be able to make inferences and fill in conceptual gaps. She defines 'inference' as the cognitive process a reader goes through to get the implicit meaning of a written text by connecting text information and background knowledge. However, it plays a crucial role in reading comprehension.

Inferencing is at the heart of the comprehension process. This is the process in which listeners and readers are constantly and extensively involved as they try to make a comprehensive representation of what they are reading or listening to in order to fill in the details omitted from the text. Therefore, a second language reader, to be said to have comprehended a text or sentence, must also have drawn correct inferences from it, but readers' ability to get the message from a piece of writing, especially the ability to infer meaning, has not been adequately developed, despite allocating much time to teaching reading (Kazuo & Akiko, 2000).

Inferencing is considered as a central component of skilled reading which helps readers to make sense of what they read by taking them beyond the text and, in this way, assists them in coming to the information which has been left implicit by the writer. The inferencing process is of great importance to readers because it enables them to form a representation of the meaning of the text in their mind based on the text's coherence relations and their own general knowledge. The role of inference in making explicit the information left implicit is very essential for text understanding, because no text can include all information needed to understand the sense of a story. No text can be written, if it has to "include all information it deals with; if there was no such thing like inferencing or if it was not automatically done by our brain" (Wikibooks Contributors, 2004-6, p. 118).

III. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

This study is an attempt to examine the intermediate Iranian EFL learners' ability in dealing with explicit and implicit comprehension items in order to verify their impacts on the level of reading comprehension.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTION

Q1: Is there any significant difference between reading comprehension performance of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners who receive explicit reading comprehension questions and those who receive implicit reading comprehension questions?

V. METHOD

A. Participants

In order to conduct this study a total of 90 General English students majoring in various courses of study in Tafresh Azad University took part in the proficiency test of the research; later, 60 participants who scored within one standard deviation from the mean of performance were chosen as the subjects in the study. These male and female subjects formed two classes of 30 students. Of these learners 13 were first-semester freshmen, 36 were second-semester freshmen, 7 were first-semester sophomores, 3 was first-semester junior, and 1 second-semester senior. Their age ranged from 19 to 37 and they were generally in the intermediate level of proficiency. On the whole, 60 were included in the study (26 male and 34 female).

B. Instruments

To collect the necessary data three tests were used:

1. A General English Proficiency test (quick placement test, 2001)
2. Reading passages with implicit and explicit items as teaching materials
3. A reading comprehension test used for the post-test

C. Procedure

In order to conduct the research a homogenised sample of participants was needed to receive the prospective treatment. It was provided by a colleague who taught General English classes in Azad University of Tafresh and could fulfill the requirements of the work. The classes he conducted contained a total of 90 students. The proficiency test as described above was performed to homogenise the intended participants. Those who scored within one standard deviation from the mean of proficiency were identified and distributed across the two classes randomly; these subjects' performances were intentionally observed and recorded while the remaining members of the classes did their activities normally. Later, with the help from the teacher ten lessons were taken from Select Readings Intermediate textbook that was taught ordinarily in the course of classroom instruction, and 10 implicit and 10 explicit multiple-choice questions

were designed per lesson. Some of the questions were given in the book and some others were constructed; they were all shown to other faculty members of the University for validation. During the ten subsequent sessions of practice one class was given the implicit set of items and the other the explicit one quickly after working with the passages. The participants' answers were graded and the mean scores of group performances were obtained. Finally, the post-test material was administered. The results of performance on this test, totally and by item type, were put into t test formula to evaluate the significance of any possible mean differences. The statistical tables and the output of the software are presented in the next chapter. Moreover, the detail of the tests and samples of performance are included in the appendix section.

VI. RESULTS

For the purpose of this research, 90 intermediate students took part in the proficiency test. This test was used to homogenize the participants required for this study and the mean score of the participants was used as the criterion for selection. Table 4.1. shows the mean and the standard deviation of the proficiency scores and Figure 4.1. depicts the normal curve for the mean of the proficiency test.

TABLE 4.1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PROFICIENCY TEST SCORES

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
proficiency	90	7.00	45.00	21.6778	8.66198
Valid N (listwise)	90				

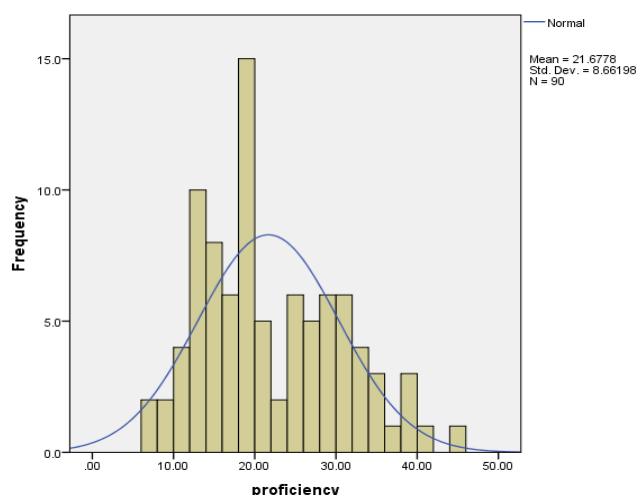


Figure 4.1.: Normal curve for the mean of the proficiency test

Based on the data, students who achieved between one standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen as the main subjects of the research. Then the subjects were randomly divided into two experimental groups. One group was set to receive practice in items dealing with explicit comprehension of reading passages. Another group was given implicit items to cover when reading comprehension. At the end of the instruction period, learners in both groups took a post-test of reading comprehension including equal number of explicit and implicit items. Later, the group performances were put into the independent t test to verify the significance of any mean difference across the groups based on the explicit or the implicit sets of items in the post-test.

Investigation of the research question

The question of this research is presented in the following form:

Q1: Is there any significant difference between reading comprehension performance of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners who receive explicit reading comprehension questions and those who receive implicit reading comprehension questions?

In order to compare the participants' performance on the post-test of reading comprehension and the two sets of explicit and implicit items, independent t test formula has been performed on the obtained scores of both groups. The group statistics (mean and standard deviation) are presented in Table 4.2. and the results of the t tests are given in the Table 4.3. Table 4.2. shows that the groups means are different but nearly the same across the two groups. According to Table 4.3. the comparison of the groups' performance on the post-test of reading comprehension reveals no significant difference between the groups (the obtained significance value is larger than the standard alpha ($p=0.572 > \alpha=0.05$)). Moreover, there is no significant difference found between the subsection of explicit items in the post-test of both groups ($p=0.641 > \alpha=0.05$). This is also true for the implicit items as $p=0.606 > \alpha=0.05$. Therefore, it can be said that the difference between performances is mostly due to other factors rather than the nature of the treatment and the items.

TABLE 4.2.:
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR THE POST-TEST OF GROUPS

Group Statistics					
	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
post	1.00	30	21.4354	7.10358	1.29693
	2.00	30	20.5333	6.51620	1.18969
postexplicit	1.00	30	11.7182	4.23396	.77301
	2.00	30	11.2501	4.02307	.73451
postimplicit	1.00	30	9.7000	3.66860	.66979
	2.00	30	9.2000	3.80018	.69382

Table 4.3.:
T-tests for the post-test of groups

Independent Samples Test				
		groups post	groupspost explicit	groupspost implicit
Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	F	.709	.048	.072
	Sig.	.403	.827	.789
t-test for Equality of Means	t	.568	.469	.518
	df	58	58	58
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.572	.641	.606
	Mean Difference	1.00000	.50000	.50000
	Std. Error Difference	1.75994	1.06633	.96437
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower Upper	-2.52291 4.52291	-1.63448 2.63448
			-1.43039	2.43039

VII. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Reading comprehension is regarded as one of the basic language skills and research on reading, especially foreign/second language reading is noticeably increased in recent years. As a complex skill reading consists of several sub-skills/skills and the ability to cover explicit and implicit items is considered as a sub-skill of reading comprehension (Johnson and Johnson, 1998).

Accordingly, learners gain practice in both areas; however, despite explicit questions which require focus on the text and are highly dependent on bottom-up processing the ability to answer implicit questions and to generate inference necessitate development in reading comprehension ability to flourish this significant part of the comprehension process (Anderson and Pearson, 1984 cited in Davoudi, 2005). So, comprehending a text depends largely on making correct related inferences. As Carrell, (1984, p. 2) states, "... the process of comprehending a text is, at least partially the process of drawing correct inferences". Cain et al (2001) investigating the relation between young children's comprehension skill and inference-making ability also, found a strong relation between young children's comprehension skill and the ability to get the implicit meanings even when background knowledge was equally available to all participants and learners were taught the related background knowledge beforehand.

The focus of the research question of the present study was investigating the different effects of explicit and implicit questions on EFL learners' reading comprehension and verifying whether learners who receive implicit questions after reading a text have better reading comprehension or those who receive explicit questions. With this in mind, two groups of university students from variety of fields were selected randomly out of the participants within one standard deviation above and below the mean score of a proficiency test. The normality of the participants' performance on the proficiency test is presented in figure 4.1. One of those groups, group one, composed of 15 girls and 15 boys, was given ten sessions of practice in reading passages from their coursebook and then were asked to answer explicit questions which had been designed specifically to trigger their focus on explicitly stated pieces of information. In addition, group two included 19 females and 11 males who received practice in inference skill and getting implicit items answered. The t test conducted on the post-tests shows no significance difference across the groups; thus, the hypothesis of the research is accepted.

Generally, in order to verify the hypothesis of the research it was concluded that practice with neither explicit nor implicit item types would result in a significant improvement in reading comprehension. In fact, if there were any effect of the instruction on level of comprehension it would generally be the same for both types of items. Regarding answering the research question it was strongly claimed that the practice with the type of items could not significantly make distinction between groups of subjects trying to comprehend reading passages. Thus, teachers can follow the normal practice of understanding; they should also avoid too much emphasis on specific types of items but to incorporate both in the tests.

VIII. IMPLICATIONS

- a) Test-makers are required to include both explicit and implicit types of items in their tests of reading comprehension to help learners prove their own true abilities.
- b) Teachers can test-wise their learners but they are not needed to over-emphasise practicing specific item types and skills; they should be fair in practice.
- c) Students are advised to spend time on getting both the implicit and the explicit meanings and covering all the related items instead of overindulgence with one type of items.

IX. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- a) Other researches are recommended to be conducted on the effect of practice with items of the different levels of implication on the learner's reading comprehension capacity.
- b) Learners of other levels of education especially high-school students are said to be taken as participants in similar researches.
- c) This research can be redone with only one gender to produce much more accurate and salient results concerning the impact of item types on reading comprehension of that gender as a control variable

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A Study of the Effect of Multimedia Courseware on Oral College English Teaching

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Abstract—With the fast development of economy, the exchanges between China and foreign countries are on the increase. English especially oral English, as a tool of communication, plays a significant role in all the fields of China. Having a good command of oral English can help you get more chances of employment, can make you better communicate with people all over the world and can greatly broaden your horizon. Consequently, oral English is of great significance in college oral English teaching. In this research, two class students who were majored in Clinics Medicine from Bin Zhou Medical College were chosen to conduct an experiment. At the beginning of the semester, we conduct an oral English pretest and find on obvious significance in oral English results. During the whole semester (17 weeks), the experimental class was instructed with the assistance of multimedia courseware and the control class was taught with the traditional approach. At the end of this semester, we will conduct an oral English posttest and find out the oral English achievements difference between control class and the experimental class. Throng the experimental study and questionnaires and interviews with some students in the two class, we attempt to find out the effects of multimedia courseware on college oral English teaching.

Index Terms—Multimedia Courseware, Oral English Teaching, Teaching Mode

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Research

With the fast development of economy, the exchanges between China and foreign countries are on the increase. English especially oral English, as a tool of communication, plays a significant role in all the fields of China. Having a good command of oral English can help you get more chances of employment, can make you better communicate with people all over the world and can greatly broaden your horizon. And according to the new College English Curriculum Requirements (CECR, for trial implementation, 2004), the purpose of College English is to develop students' ability to use English in an all-round way, especially in listening and speaking. Consequently, oral English is of great significance in college oral English teaching.

In the previous study, we have found that a large amount of work has been done about the multimedia courseware effects on listening, reading and writing and few results and discussion about the effects on oral English teaching and learning. Consequently, this paper focuses on the investigation whether multimedia courseware can greatly enhance college oral English teaching and in what aspects multimedia courseware can render great help and in what aspects multimedia courseware is of no help.

B. Purpose of the Research

In the previous study, a lot of researches have been conducted to find out the effects of CALL on English teaching and learning. This paper attempts to discuss the effects of multimedia on oral English teaching for non-English majors. Consequently, the thesis concentrated on addressing the following questions.

1. We all know that multimedia courseware can facilitate English teaching and learning but it is still to be known whether multimedia courseware can exert great positive effects on college oral English teaching, compared with the traditional teaching approach.
2. If multimedia courseware can facilitate college oral English teaching, in what aspects would multimedia courseware be influential or in what aspects would multimedia courseware be of little help.
3. A better understanding of the multimedia courseware effects on college oral English teaching may shed light on the practice of oral English teaching and learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Multimedia Courseware

1. Multimedia Courseware study abroad

Multimedia courseware can be traced back in the 1950s, but because the limitation of computer technology at that time, it was only at the experimental stage in the research institutions. It firstly came into the classroom from the research institutions in the 1980s and could only be used in some British and European universities and elementary schools (Levy, 1997). With the passage of time, it emerged in corresponding organizations such as Computer Assisted

Language Instruction Consortium-CALIC in 1982 and Euro CALL in 1986. The overseas development of multimedia courseware can be divided into the following three stages.

2. Domestic Multimedia Courseware Study

In China, multimedia courseware research is much later than western countries. It started from the reform and opening up early in 1978 and two of the normal universities (Beijing Normal University, East China Normal University) firstly set up modern education technology institution and begin a project named computer-based education. In 1985 and 1987 respectively, two national multimedia courseware conferences were held, which made the research of MULTIMEDIA COURSEWARE in China start with a good beginning. (Wan Jialiang, 1990).

3. Characteristics of Multimedia Courseware

With the popularity of multimedia use in language teaching and learning, there appears a great amount of definitions about the characteristics about multimedia courseware. Among them, Jacob Nielsen, who was regarded as the world's leading expert on web usability, defines the characteristics as follows:

1. Visibility of system status: The system should always keep users informed about what is going on, through appropriate feedback within reasonable time.
2. Match between system and the real world: The system should speak the users' language, with words, phrases and concepts familiar to the user, rather than system-oriented terms. Follow real-world conventions, making information appear in a natural and logical order.
3. User control and freedom: Users often choose system functions by mistake and will need a clearly marked "emergency exit" to leave the unwanted state without having to go through an extended dialogue. Support undo and redo.
4. Consistency and standards: Users should not have to wonder whether different words, situations, or actions mean the same thing. Follow platform conventions.
5. Error prevention: Even better than good error messages is a careful design which prevents a problem from occurring in the first place. Either eliminate error-prone conditions or check for them and present users with a confirmation option before they commit to the action.
6. Recognition rather than recall: Minimize the user's memory load by making objects, actions, and options visible. The user should not have to remember information from one part of the dialogue to another. Instructions for use of the system should be visible or easily retrievable whenever appropriate.
7. Flexibility and efficiency of use: Accelerators--unseen by the novice user--may often speed up the interaction for the expert user such that the system can cater to both inexperienced and experienced users. Allow users to tailor frequent actions.
8. Aesthetic and minimalist design: Dialogues should not contain information which is irrelevant or rarely needed. Every extra unit of information in a dialogue competes with the relevant units of information and diminishes their relative visibility.

4. Evaluation of multimedia courseware

1. Making key linguistic characteristics salient: The multimedia courseware should make the linguistic characteristics obvious and make them highlighted in different color, in bold-face on the screen to catch the attention of students.
2. Offering modifications of linguistic input: When students come across difficulties in oral English expression moving toward a task goal, they need to stop to concentrate on the language and get help from the multimedia courseware. The multimedia courseware should provide varied input modifications to help students comprehend the semantic and syntactic aspects of the linguistic input. Modifications of input can come in the form of repetition, simplification through restatement, non-verbal cues and reference materials.
3. Providing opportunities for learners to notice their errors: Swain and Lapkin (1995) had described the hypothesis as follows: In producing the second language, a language learner will occasionally note linguistic problems brought to his or her attention either by external feedback or internal feedback. The multimedia courseware should notice conditions are provided and have a time for self-monitoring and correction. The fact that the learner has the opportunity to recheck his or her production before submitting it
4. Provide opportunity to notice errors: The multimedia courseware should provide opportunities for learners to correct their linguistic output. Error correction affords the opportunity to "focus on form" (Long, 1988), especially on the linguistic items for which learner's knowledge is fragile. Students might be left to their own devices to make the corrections, but they might also be provided with detailed error-specific help or access to more general reference materials (Carol A. Chapelle, 1998).

B. Constructivism

1. Definition of constructivism

Constructivism is a theory of learning based on the idea that knowledge is constructed by the knower based on mental activity. Learners are considered to be active organisms seeking meaning. Constructions of meaning may initially bear little relationship to reality (as in the naive theories of children), but will become increasing more complex, differentiated and realistic as time goes on.

It is impossible to discuss constructivism without contrasting it with its opposite, objectivism. Bednar, Cunningham, Duffy and Perry (1991) state the philosophy of objectivism as follows:

2. Characteristics of Constructivist Teaching and Learning

Constructivism is the theory that people construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world, through experiencing things and reflecting on those experiences. When learners encounter something new, they reconcile it with previous knowledge and experience. They may change what they believe, or they may discard the new information as irrelevant. To be active creators of their knowledge however, they must be able to ask questions, explore and assess what they know. In the classroom, the constructivist view of learning means encouraging students to use active techniques such as multimedia courseware, experiments and real-world problem solving using authentic data if possible, and to create knowledge and reflect on their understanding.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this paper is to find out the effects of multimedia courseware on college spoken English teaching and learning. And therefore, we employ two kinds of method to study this problem; survey study and experimental study. The whole section can be divided into two components. In the first part, we mainly described the experimental study and in the second part we focused on the detailed presentation of the survey study.

A. Methodology of the Experimental Study

1. Research Subjects

In this experimental study, we chose 60 students in Bin Zhou Medical College majored in Clinics Medline. All of them were sophomores and were divided into two classes according to the oral English level and their social and cultural backgrounds. Experimental class was made up of 30 students, 13 of who are females and 17 of who are males; control class was also made up of 30 students, 14 of who are females and 16 of who are males. All the students in this research had the oral English course as a compulsory course and had the 2 class periods for each week and all have 17 weeks for the whole semester. In this research, we chose multimedia courseware assisted oral English teaching class as experimental class; we thought of a traditional teaching method class as control class.

TABLE 3.1
DETAILED INFORMATION ABOUT THE SUBJECTS

	number	female	male	major	Learning English period
Experimental class	30	13	17	clinics	8 years
Control class	30	14	16	clinics	8 years

2. Treatment

For the whole semester (17 weeks), we conduct different teaching approaches in experimental class and control class. In the experimental class, we apply multimedia courseware to oral English teaching and learning while in the control class, we still apply traditional teaching approach to spoken English teaching and learning.

In the experimental class:

We apply multimedia courseware to oral English teaching and learning. For the purpose of study, we chose New College English Courseware, which integrates the computer assisted language learning into English teaching and employs multimedia capabilities to combine sound, animation, video, text and graphics, as our teaching assistance. New College English Courseware, a well developed textbook, is one of the most received courseware in China and it is technically supported by the College Foreign Language Teaching Institute and published by Shang Hai Foreign Language Education Press. This courseware which was guided by a constructivist framework, was an improved version based on the feedback of large number of students and teachers, which has been widely accepted and adopted by universities. It aims to widen students' horizon and expose them to authentic language and rich culture of the target language by means of interactive and student-centered approach.

Each unit of the courseware can be divided into four parts: pre-speaking task, speaking task, Additional speaking and home speaking.

In the pre-speaking part, several new words concerning the topic are provided and followed by some vivid pictures, after that there are a lot of sentence structure listed in the courseware that might be helpful in discussing the topic.

In the speaking part, firstly there is a short listening material about the topic and several questions followed by it. Secondly, several questions are provided for students to do pair work with their teammates. Finally, students are asked to debate about the topic given by the courseware.

In the additional speaking part, there is a short movie about the topic which provides authentic surroundings for the students.

In the home speaking part, a speaking and a listening task are left for the students for further discussion and new words, pictures and sentence structures are also provided for students.

In the control class:

We still employ traditional approach to control class. Blackboard, textbook and chalks are used in the control class. Firstly teachers read the new words to the students and ask the students to read after the teacher, secondly, teachers write down several sentences in the blackboard for the students and ask the students to give a presentation about the topic and finally teachers give a model presentation and ask students to note them down.

3. Data Collection and Data Analysis

In this experimental study, the whole process can be divided into two stages.

Stage one: oral English pretest

At the beginning of the first semester for grade 2009 students, 60 sophomores majored in Clinics Medicine in Bin Zhou Medical College were required to attend an oral English test. For the purpose of ensuring the tests objective, we chose CET-4 Spoken English Test (2007.12) as our testing materials. After the oral English test, three experienced teachers from Yan Tai University were invited to grade students' recorded tapes according to the rating criteria of CET-4 Spoken English Test. In order to make the grading impartial, the experimental class students and control class students are mixed up. The three teachers give their scores respectively and finally we will average the three scores for each student. During the process, we recorded all the information about their oral English achievements in oral English pretest in order to provide reference and foundation for further comparative study.

Stage two: two different teaching approaches

In the whole semester (17 weeks), we ran different teaching method in two parallel classes. For the sake of convenience, we chose one teacher to teach these two classes with the same teaching content and different method. In the control class, which is a teacher-dominated classroom, the teacher usually manages controls and dispenses the information and attempt to cultivate passive learners, whose creativity, autonomy, competence, confidence and self-esteem are stifled. In the experimental class, the teacher, with the help of multimedia courseware, provides a supportive classroom environment to encourage students to construct their own knowledge and to nurture the active learners whose independence, self-taught ability, confidence, and exploring capacity are greatly improved.

Stage three: oral English posttest

At the end of this semester, an oral English posttest was conducted. In the oral English posttest, we selected CET-4 Spoken English Test (2009.12) as our examining materials and the procedures is the same with the procedures of the pretest with the same three graders. After the posttest, we conducted a statistical analysis with the Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS 14.0).

B. Methodology of the Survey Study

1. Research Subjects

In this survey study, we also chose sixty students to conduct a questionnaire and four students to give an interview. The sixty students are the same students in the above experimental study who are majored in Clinics Medicine from Bin Zhou Medical College and they are also in two classes according to the above study: an experimental class and a control class. Two students were selected from the experimental class and another two students are chosen from control class randomly to give an interview about some questions. Two teachers from Public English Teaching and Researching Office in Bin Zhou Medical College were also invited to be interviewed about the question of the effects of multimedia courseware on College Oral English teaching and learning.

2. Instrument

Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a series of questions or statement asked to individuals to obtain statistically useful information about a given topic. Often they are the only feasible way to reach a number of reviewers large enough to allow statistically analysis of the results. When properly constructed, responsibly administered and used effectively, questionnaires become a vital instrument by which statements can be made about specific groups or people or entire populations.

Interview

In this interview, several open-ended questions were designed for 2 teachers and four students. The objective of this interview is to find out the teacher's feelings of multimedia courseware assisted college oral English teaching and students' attitude toward their oral English learning experience.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The whole section can be divided into three part concerning the results and discussion of the above study. In the first part, we concentrated on the results and discussion of the experimental study; in the second part, we paid more attention to the results and discussion of the questionnaire and in the third part, we mainly presented the results and discussion about the interview.

A. Results and Discussion of the Experimental Study

1. Students' Performance in the Pre- and Post- test

At the beginning of this semester, an oral English pretest was conducted and at the end of this term, we also ran an oral English posttest in control class and experimental class. The students' achievements in pretest and posttest are listed as follows:

TABLE 4.1
THE RESULTS OF ORAL ENGLISH PRETEST

class	number	Mean	Standard Deviation	T-value	P-value
Control class	30	8.74	1.0032	.402	.674
Experimental class	30	8.65	.9847		

From the table, we could find out that the P-value is .674 ($P\text{-value} > .05$) and T-value is .402. We can reach the conclusion that there is no great difference for students' oral English ability between the control class and experimental class in the pretest.

TABLE 4.2
THE RESULTS OF ORAL ENGLISH POSTTEST

class	number	Mean	Standard Deviation	T-value	P-value
Control class	30	10.12	.9854	-1.931	.042
Experimental class	30	12.22	.9321		

From this chart, we could get the information that P-value is .042 ($P < .05$) and the T-value is -1.931 and there is a great difference in students' oral English achievement between control class and experimental class.

TABLE 4.3
PAIRED SAMPLES OF THE RESULTS OF THE TWO TESTS

class	Mean(pretest)	Mean(posttest)	T-value	P-value
Control class	8.74	10.12	-1.919	.069
Experimental class	8.65	12.22	-17.002	.005

This table reveals that in control class the T-value is -1.919 and P-value is .069, which means that there does exist a difference for students' oral English achievement in control class between pretest and post test but the significance is not very obvious. In the experimental class, the T-value is -17.002 and the P-value is .005 which means that there is a great shift for students' oral English achievement in experimental class between pretest and post test.

All in all, from the results of table 4.1, table 4.2 and table 4.3, we could find out that the scores of experimental class students is similar with the scores of control class students in the pretest while the scores of experimental class students are much higher than the scores of control class in the post test. So we can reach the conclusion that multimedia courseware assisted college oral English teaching can greatly enhance college students' oral English capacity and facilitate oral English teacher's teaching and is superior to the traditional approach.

2. Students' performance in six aspects of rating criteria

For the purpose of better finding out the effects of multimedia courseware on college oral English teaching and learning, in the posttest we examine the students' oral English performance from six aspects of rating criteria, that is accuracy, language range, discourse length, consistency, flexibility and appropriateness.

Accuracy: Accuracy refers to the accurate degree of students' pronunciation, intonation, stress and the use of vocabulary and grammar. In the following table, we mainly analyzed the scores of accuracy in the posttest conducted by the control class and the experimental class according to the above rating criteria.

TABLE 4.4
THE SCORES OF ACCURACY IN POSTTEST

class	number	Mean	T-value	P-value
Control class	30	3.03	-2.840	.074
Experimental class	30	3.45		

From the information in the table 4.4, we could find out that the T-value is -2.840 and the P-value, which means that there exists a great difference in accuracy degree between the control class and experimental class, more specifically, the students in experimental class have less problems in pronunciation, intonation, stress, grammar and vocabulary than the students from control class. From that we can know that multimedia courseware has positive effects on the oral English accuracy improvement.

Language range: Language range refers to the complexity degree of students' use of sentence structure and the scope of vocabulary. In the following table, we mainly concentrated on the scores of language range in the posttest conducted by the control class and the experimental class according to the above rating criteria..

TABLE 4.5
THE SCORES OF LANGUAGE RANGE IN POSTTEST

class	number	Mean	T-value	P-value
Control class	30	3.11	-2.504	.042
Experimental class	30	3.53		

As is shown in table 4.5, we noted that the T-value is -2.504 and the P-value is .042, which means that great differences exist in language range between the control class and the experimental class, that is to say, the students from experimental class could complex sentence structure to express their ideas and opinions and could employ richer

vocabulary to discuss with their teammates than students from control class. We can undoubtedly reach the conclusion that multimedia courseware approach can improve students' language range while the effects of traditional method can not.

Discourse length: Discourse length refers to the students' contribution to the whole discussion and how much the students say in the examination. In the following table, we mainly presented the scores of discourse length in the posttest conducted by the control class and the experimental class according to the above rating criteria..

TABLE 4.6
THE SCORES OF DISCOURSE LENGTH IN POSTTEST

class	number	Mean	T-value	P-value
Control class	30	3.00	-5.004	.039
Experimental class	30	3.62		

As is shown in table 4.6, we noted that the T-value is -5.004 and the P-value is .039, which means there is a great difference in discourse length between the control class and the experimental class, that is to say, students from experimental class make more contribution to the group discussion and can say more for the given topic than the students from control class. From that we know that multimedia courseware in experimental class of great help for students to have group discussion and more to say.

Consistency: Consistency refers to the students' speaking capacity for a long time and language continuity of speech. In the following chart, we mainly presented the scores of consistency in the posttest conducted by the control class and the experimental class according to the above rating criteria..

TABLE 4.7
THE SCORES OF CONSISTENCY IN POSTTEST

class	number	Mean	T-value	P-value
Control class	30	3.22	-.404	.739
Experimental class	30	3.24		

As is shown in table 4.7, we could find out that the T-value is -.404 and the P-value is .739, which means there is no great difference in consistency between students in control class and students in experimental class, that is to say, students from experimental class and the students from the control class have similar consistency. The students from the two classes use short utterance in their speech and frequently stop for a while to organize their thoughts and search for proper words and expressions. From that we know that multimedia courseware in experimental class is of little use to improve students' consistency.

Flexibility: Flexibility refers to the students' ability to deal with different scenes and topics. In the following table, we mainly presented the scores of flexibility in the posttest conducted by the control class and the experimental class according to the above rating criteria.

TABLE 4.8
THE SCORES OF FLEXIBILITY IN POSTTEST

class	number	Mean	T-value	P-value
Control class	30	3.31	-2.765	.044
Experimental class	30	3.72		

As is shown in table 4.8, we found out that the T-value is -2.765 and the P-value is .044 ($P\text{-value} < .05$), which means there is a great difference in flexibility between the control class and the experimental class, that is to say, students from experimental class can deal with different topics and situations more easily than the students from the control class. From that we can get the conclusion that multimedia courseware in experimental class can improve students' ability to deal with different topics and situations which the effects of traditional method are not obvious.

Appropriateness: Appropriateness: refers to student's ability to use different linguistic resources appropriately according to different situations. In the following table, we mainly presented the scores of students' appropriateness in the posttest conducted by the control class and the experimental class according to the above rating criteria.

TABLE 4.9
THE SCORES OF APPROPRIATENESS IN POSTTEST

class	number	Mean	T-value	P-value
Control class	30	3.46	-.443	.686
Experimental class	30	3.51		

As is shown in table 4.9, we found out that the T-value is -.443 and the P-value is .686 ($P\text{-value} > .05$), which means there is no obvious difference in appropriateness between the control class and the experimental class, that is to say, students from experimental class can and the students from control class have similar ability to use different linguistic resources according to different situations. From that we can get the conclusion that multimedia courseware in experimental class and the traditional method in control class have similar effects on appropriateness improvements of college oral English.

To sum up, we noted in the above tables and discussions that multimedia courseware has more positive effects on the improvement of accuracy, language range, discourse length and the flexibility while traditional approach can not. At the same time multimedia courseware and traditional method are of little help to the improve appropriateness and consistency.

B. Results and Discussion of the Questionnaire

1. Students' Learning Interest in Oral English

In the whole questionnaire, the first 10 questions are designed to find out students' learning interest in oral English. In the 10 questions, five choices concerning the degree of satisfaction were given to each question and each choice was assigned a number, that is "strongly disagree=1", "disagree=2", "undecided=3", "agree=4", "strongly agree=5". The results are presented as follows Table 4.10 results of students' oral English learning interest

TABLE 4.10
RESULTS OF STUDENTS' ORAL ENGLISH LEARNING INTEREST

	Class	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	T-value	P-value
Question from 1 to 10	Experimental class	30	3.8874	.4457	2.366	.037
	Control class	30	3.5002	.5064		

To sum up, multimedia courseware, which combines sound, picture, animation, video, text and graphics into oral English teaching and learning, have great positive effects on the improvement of students' learning oral English interests. However the traditional teaching approach which only adopts textbooks, blackboard and chalks can not inspire students' learning interests.

2. Students' Learning Atmosphere in Oral English Course

In the questionnaire, questions from 11 to 15 are designed to find out students' learning atmosphere and learning environment in oral English course. In the five questions, five choices concerning the degree of satisfaction were given to each question and each choice was assigned a number, that is "strongly disagree=1", "disagree=2", "undecided=3", "agree=4", "strongly agree=5". The results are presented as follows

TABLE 4.11
RESULTS OF STUDENTS' ORAL ENGLISH LEARNING ATMOSPHERE AND ENVIRONMENT

	Class	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	T-value	P-value
Question from 11 to 15	Experimental class	30	3.7740	.4047	2.419	.026
	Control class	30	3.4982	.5142		

To sum up, multimedia courseware in experimental class can provide better leaning atmosphere and create a leisure learning environment while the traditional method in the control class often make students feel tired and boring.

3. Students' Attitudes towards Teacher's Performance

In the questionnaire, questions from 16 to 20 are designed to find out students' attitudes towards teacher's performance in oral English course. In the five questions, five choices concerning the frequency were given to each question and each choice was assigned a number, that is "never=1", "seldom=2", "sometimes=3", "often=4", "always=5". The results are presented as follows:

TABLE 4.12
RESULTS OF STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS TEACHER'S PERFORMANCE

	Class	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	T-value	P-value
Question from 16 to 20	Experimental class	30	3.8443	.4194	2.383	.026
	Control class	30	3.5426	.6382		

To sum up, we noted in the above discussion that in the experimental class, teachers with the help of multimedia courseware act as a facilitator, guide and helper while in the control class, teachers with the help of textbook and blackboard act as a knowledge dispenser and lecturer and students from the experimental class are more satisfied with their teacher's performance.

C. Results and Discussion about the Interview

In this interview, we also found out great difference between the students in the experimental class and the students in the control class. Generally speaking, the students from the experimental class have more willingness to use English to express themselves and more desires to expose themselves to English environment while the students from the control class complain about the difficulty of learning oral English and always feel nervous whenever their English is spoken.

We randomly chose four students (student one and three are from the experimental class while student two and four and from the control class) to give an interview and they are allowed to answer all the questions in Chinese and the author translates the Chinese into English.

1. Access and Exposure to the Authentic Language

To sum up, the students in the experimental class could get access to more authentic target language and have a feeling of wanting to communicate in English They are exposed to the English environment and could understand the meaning or new words and useful expressions easily with the help of multimedia courseware. However, students from

the control class who are busy with writing down notes and expressions, have no time to get access to the English environment. For the lack of imaginary thinking, the sometimes talk in Chinese to get the meaning of new words and useful expression. In brief, the students who make use of multimedia courseware are more easily exposed to English environment and get more access to the authentic target language.

2. Students' Interest in Oral English Learning

From the above answers of the four students, we could find out that students in the experimental class have higher interest in oral English learning with the help of multimedia courseware and the hold the opinion that oral English learning and speaking is a wonderful thing while students form the control class have lower interest in oral English learning and they consider that oral English learning and speaking is an embarrassing experience. We can safely get the conclusion that multimedia courseware can improve students' learning oral English interest and make oral English learning a wonderful thing.

3. Teachers' Teaching Mode

From the above responses, we find that students in the experimental class are encouraged to solve questions by themselves and are required to conduct long time group discussion and role play and they can get answers respectively from the teacher with the help of multimedia courseware. However students in the control class usually find no time to discuss with classmates and take long time to receive the teacher's lecture and they can not solve all the problems by themselves. We may reach the conclusion that multimedia courseware can provide students with a chance to learn on their own and makes the teaching students in different level possible. The teaching mode in the experimental class has shifted from teacher-centered teaching into the student-centered self learning.

V. CONCLUSION

In this section, we concluded the effects of multimedia courseware on oral English teaching and introduced the significance of the study, the limitation of the research and suggestions for further study.

A. Major Findings

According to the questionnaire, we find out that multimedia courseware has great positive effects on the improvement of students' learning oral English interests, while traditional textbooks, blackboard and chalks can not inspire students' learning interests. At the same time, multimedia courseware can provide better leaning atmosphere and create a leisure learning environment while the traditional method often make students feel tired and boring. And teachers with multimedia courseware act as a facilitator, guide and helper and are accepted by students while teachers in the control class act as a knowledge dispenser and lecturer.

According to the interview, we find out that students from the experimental class have more chances to get access to the authentic language and have higher interest in oral English learning than the students from the control class. And the teachers' role in multimedia courseware class focuses on student-centered self learning while in traditional class concentrates on teacher-centered teaching.

B. Limitations of the Study

Although I tried my best to control variables to ensure the validity and reliability of this research, several limitations unavoidably exist in the thesis due to some subjective and objective constraints during the process of the study.

1. Because of the lack of enough knowledge and capacity of the author, the discussion of the effects of multimedia courseware on the college oral English teaching might be far from complete and thorough.

2. The subject participants in the experimental study are only a small group of students from Bin Zhou Medical College which can not represent the whole Chinese college students and the results obtained from the study might not be guaranteed to be very representative and persuasive.

C. Suggestions for Further Study

In the whole year study, we find the desirable results of multimedia courseware effects on college oral English teaching. It is hoped that this thesis would lay foundation for further study and make contribution to other researches. There are several areas in which further study might be done.

1. To replicate this study with more samples in different colleges to achieve a much more scientific and objective conclusion and see whether the results and findings in the above study are valid.

2. To adopt a more careful designed survey and a more scientific analysis of the results to increase the reliability of the results.

3. The effects of multimedia courseware in oral English teaching can be enriched and improved on its combination with different lesson types, such as listening, writing and reading.

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An Evaluation of High School English Textbooks in Iranian EFL Context: Teachers' versus Learners' Perceptions

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Abstract—Textbooks play a very crucial role in the process of language teaching and learning. They affect the whole language learning/teaching process. This study aims to evaluate the effectiveness and suitability of the EFL textbooks produced by the Ministry of Education and used in Iranian educational system from teachers' versus learners' points of view in a comparative way. To this end, the study employed a survey based design. The data were collected through questionnaires with 27 close-ended items consisting of five different sections. The results showed that both the teachers and the learners believed that the high school English textbooks are highly ineffective in increasing learners' motivation to learn English, in increasing the learners' accuracy in producing pragmatically correct sentences, in increasing learners' fluency in speaking English, in improving learners' language skills, and in engaging the learners in learning about the target language culture. It can be concluded that the English textbooks used in Iranian high schools cannot meet the Iranian learners' and teachers' needs and wants since they are grammar-based. Thus, based on the findings of this study, the textbook designers can take into account the teachers' and learners' preferences and perceptions when designing the new editions of these textbooks.

Index Terms—textbook, textbook evaluation, perception, EFL learners and teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

English, as a global language, is one of the dominant mediums in great number of areas such as politics, economy, and international education. English is the major tool to communicate with the all people around the world and the main language used for international trade and academic study (Wang, 2010). That is why people want to learn English as a foreign or second language in their countries especially in Iran. Educational materials in general and textbooks in particular have a crucial role in this process (Gholami, Nikou, & Soultanpour, 2012).

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. The Importance of Textbooks in Language Learning

Since the end of 1970s, there has been a movement to make learners rather than teachers the center of language learning. According to this approach to teaching, learners are more important than teachers, instructional materials, curriculum, methods, or evaluation. As a matter of fact, curriculum, instructional materials, teaching methods, and evaluation should all be designed for learners and their needs (Kenji Kitao & S. Kathleen Kitao, 2003). However, teachers and learners, in many cases, rely on instructional materials, and the materials become the center of instruction. In fact, instructional materials control learning and teaching, in other words, they help learning and teaching. Sheldon (1988) believes that a textbook can serve different purposes for teachers: as a core resource, as a source of supplemented material, as an inspiration for classroom activities and tasks, or even as the curriculum itself. He contends that the textbooks are perceived to be the route map of any ELT program, laying bare its shape, structure, and destination, with progress, program, and teacher quality being assessed by learners in terms of sequential, unit-by-unit coverage (Sheldon, 1988). He adds that textbooks represent the visible heart of any ELT program. They provide the objectives of language learning; they function as a lesson plan and working agenda for teachers and learners. They offer considerable advantages, for both the learners and the teachers. The educational philosophy of textbooks affects the class and learning process (Sheldon, 1988). Therefore, in many cases, textbooks play a pivotal role in language classrooms in all types of educational institution- state schools, colleges, language schools-all over the world, and they are the center of education and one of the most important influences on what goes on in the classroom (Sheldon, 1988).

B. Textbook Evaluation

According to Tomlinson et al. (2001) textbook evaluation is an activity in the field of applied linguistics that enables teachers, supervisors, administrators and materials developers to make judgments about the effect the materials have on the people who use them. Furthermore, Zohrabi (2011) believes that material evaluation should be the top priority of

any curriculum. Generally speaking, no textbook can be perfect, therefore, textbook evaluation is very important to clarify the suitability of the sources and find the best one (Gholami, Nikou, & Soultanpour, 2012).

C. Textbook Evaluation in Iranian Context

When it comes to teaching English, the textbook issue would be considered as one of the most important topics in countries like Iran in which this language is considered as a foreign one. As a matter of fact, the primary goal of learning English in Iran is to help learners to promote a universal understanding, to become familiar with science, literature, and art of English speaking countries and to find and access sources of information in English (Birjandi & Soheili, 1982, as cited in Rahimi & Hassani, 2012). Failing to achieve these goals in Iranian language classes has caused the national EFL curriculum to be carefully scrutinized in order to find the sources of the de-motivation of the learners and the reasons behind the failure of language programs in Iran (Birjandi & Soheili, 1982, as cited in Rahimi & Hassani, 2012). Through the evaluation of high school textbooks, Yarmohammadi (2002) found that high school textbooks suffer from a number of shortcomings, such as ignoring oral skills and the interchangeable use of English and Persian names. Through the analysis of ten EFL/ESL textbook reviews as well as 10 EFL/ESL textbook evaluation checklists, Ansary and Babaii (2002) provided an outline of the common core features of standard EFL/ESL textbooks, and reached the conclusion that not every textbook would have these features. Jahangard (2007) evaluated four EFL textbooks that are used in the Iranian high schools and are produced the Ministry of Education. He discussed the merits and demerits of the textbooks with reference to 13 common criteria extracted from different materials evaluation checklists (Jahangard, 2007). The results of the study indicated that book four had better features in comparison with the three other textbooks which needed huge revisions and modifications (Jahangard, 2007). In their paper, Farrokhi and Saadi (2013) carried out an evaluation of perceptions of Iranian EFL learners who constitute the users of the first-year high school textbook towards tasks and speech acts and to compare their perceptions with the actual content of their textbooks. The comparison demonstrated that the learners generally rated tasks and the teaching of speech acts as being highly effective in the learning of English, and they rated the language functions section of their textbook to be ineffective in this regard. These findings show that there are wide gaps between the Iranian learners' perceptions and the actual content of their textbooks (Farrokhi & Saadi, 2013).

Reviewing the literature disclosed some gaps which were as prompts to conduct this study which is the second phase of the MA theses in whose previous phases the items were grouped together and analyzed (actual activities, vocabulary, reading, grammar, language functions, pronunciation practice, physical make-up, speaking section and writing section) via SPSS. Therefore, in this second phase, the questions related to motivation, accuracy, fluency, language skills and target language culture in the questionnaire grouped together and analyzed via SPSS. A sample of these questions is provided in the Appendix.

The following research question was tackled to be answered in this paper:

Research Question: What are the similarities and differences between the Iranian EFL learners' and teachers' perceptions in terms of the high school English textbooks?

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between Iranian EFL learners' and teachers' perceptions in terms of the high school English textbooks.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a significant difference between Iranian EFL learners' and teachers' perceptions in terms of the high school English textbooks.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Design of the Study

This study employed a survey based design in which a combination of both qualitative and quantitative dimensions of data collection was used. The use of different data collection methods will lead to deeper insight into the understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

B. Participants

A total of 300 female language learners with the age span of 15 to 18 and 50 female English teachers participated in this study. Both groups had a bilingual background of Turkish and Persian.

C. Materials

The materials used in this study included semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. As a matter of fact, the questionnaires had 5-point scales-in the Likert format and the teachers and the learners were asked to mark their beliefs by ticking one of the five boxes in each elicitation question. The data emerging from ticking one of the 5-point scales were numerical. Hence, they were analyzed quantitatively. A sample of the items of the questionnaire is provided in the Appendix.

D. Procedures

After obtaining the necessary permissions from the Ministry of Education in both Urmia and Salmas and also from the schools and the teachers, the questionnaires were distributed among 300 learners and 50 teachers. To be more

specific, the questionnaire disseminated and collected simultaneously in the same day. The same questionnaire was also administered to the teachers at their convenience. The interviews were conducted with 2 teachers and 6 learners. Each interview protocol was carried out face-to-face with the teachers and the learners. For analyzing the survey data collected by means of the questionnaire first the answers were quantified. Each option of the items was ranked (Highly effective 1, Somewhat effective 2, I do not know 3, Somewhat ineffective 4, and Highly ineffective 5).

IV. DATA ANALYSIS & RESULTS

In order to answer the research question, descriptive statistics, independent sample t-test were used.

Results of the Descriptive Statistics for the Analysis of Items related to Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Language Culture in the Questionnaire regarding the Effectiveness of the First-Year High School English Textbook from the Learners' Perspective are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
PRESENTS THE PERCENTAGE OF THE LEARNERS' RESPONSES (BOOK1)

	Learners' Perceptions					Merging of the percentages of the selected options		
	HE	SE	NK	SI	HI	E	NK	I
Motivation (Book1)	10.5% (126)	11.41% (137)	7.41% (89)	23.91% (287)	46.75% (561)	21.91%	7.41%	70.66%
Accuracy (Book1)	13% (26)	14% (28)	8% (16)	25% (50)	40% (80)	27%	8%	65%
Fluency (Book1)	12.5% (50)	16.25% (65)	7.75% (31)	21.75% (87)	41.75% (167)	28.75%	7.75%	63.5%
Language skills (Book1)	10.57% (74)	15.85% (111)	8.42% (59)	23.14% (162)	42% (294)	26.42%	8.42%	65.14%
Target culture (Book1)	7.5% (15)	8.5% (17)	3% (6)	27% (54)	54% (108)	16%	3%	81%

Abbreviations: HE stands for Highly Effective, SE for Somewhat Effective, SI for Somewhat Ineffective, HI for Highly Ineffective, NK for 'I do not know', E for Effective, and I for Ineffective.

Results of the Descriptive Statistics for the Analysis of Items related to Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Language Culture in the Questionnaire regarding the Effectiveness of the Second-Year High School English Textbook from the Learners' Perspective are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
PRESENTS THE PERCENTAGE OF THE LEARNERS' RESPONSES (BOOK2)

	Learners' Perceptions					Merging of the percentages of the selected options		
	HE	SE	NK	SI	HI	E	NK	I
Motivation (Book2)	13.25% (159)	14% (168)	8.25% (99)	27.08% (325)	36.58% (439)	27.25%	8.25%	63.66%
Accuracy (Book2)	16% (32)	26.5% (53)	10% (20)	22% (44)	25.5% (51)	42.5%	10%	47.5%
Fluency (Book2)	19.75% (79)	23.25% (93)	8.5% (34)	21.25% (85)	27.25% (109)	43%	8.5%	48.5%
Language skills (Book2)	12.14% (85)	17.42% (122)	7.57% (53)	28.14% (197)	34.71% (243)	29.56%	7.57%	62.85%
Target culture (Book2)	5.5% (11)	8% (16)	4% (8)	32% (64)	50.5% (101)	13.5%	4%	82.5%

Abbreviations: HE stands for Highly Effective, SE for Somewhat Effective, SI for Somewhat Ineffective, HI for Highly Ineffective, NK for 'I do not know', E for Effective, and I for Ineffective.

Results of the Descriptive Statistics for the Analysis of Items related to Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Language Culture in the Questionnaire regarding the Effectiveness of the Third-Year High School English Textbook from the Learners' Perspective are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3
PRESENTS THE PERCENTAGE OF THE LEARNERS' RESPONSES (BOOK 3)

	Learners' Perceptions					Merging of the percentages of the selected options		
	HE	SE	NK	SI	HI	E	NK	I
Motivation (Book3)	8.75% (105)	19.33% (232)	8.5% (102)	24.5% (294)	38.91% (467)	28.08%	8.5%	63.41%
Accuracy (Book3)	11.5% (23)	30% (60)	10.5% (21)	23.5% (47)	24.5% (49)	41.5%	10.5%	48%
Fluency (Book3)	10% (40)	23.25% (93)	5.75% (23)	28.25% (113)	32.75% (131)	33.25%	5.75%	61%
Language skills (Book3)	11.42% (80)	20.28% (142)	10.57% (74)	32.85% (230)	24.85% (174)	31.7%	10.57%	57.7%
Target culture (Book3)	5% (10)	12.5% (25)	14.5% (29)	27% (54)	41% (82)	17.5%	14.5%	68%

Abbreviations: HE stands for Highly Effective, SE for Somewhat Effective, SI for Somewhat Ineffective, HI for Highly Ineffective, NK for 'I do not know', E for Effective, and I for Ineffective.

Results of the Descriptive Statistics for the Analysis of Items related to Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Language Culture in the Questionnaire regarding the Effectiveness of the First-Year High School English Textbook from the Teachers' Perspective are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4
PRESENTS THE PERCENTAGE OF THE TEACHERS' RESPONSES (BOOK1)

	Teachers' Perceptions					Merging of the percentages of the selected options		
	HE	SE	NK	SI	HI	E	NK	I
Motivation (Book1)	2.83% (34)	5.75% (69)	2.08% (25)	16.58% (199)	22.75% (273)	8.58%	2.08%	39.33%
Accuracy (Book1)	7% (14)	14% (28)	3% (6)	9.5% (19)	16.5% (33)	21%	3%	26%
Fluency (Book1)	8.75% (35)	8% (32)	2% (8)	10.25% (41)	21% (84)	16.75%	2%	31.25%
Language skills (Book1)	5.28% (37)	9.14% (64)	2.42% (17)	14.28% (100)	18.85% (132)	14.42%	2.42%	33.13%
Target culture (Book1)	1.5% (3)	4% (8)	1.5% (3)	18% (36)	25% (50)	5.5%	1.5%	43%

Abbreviations: HE stands for Highly Effective, SE for Somewhat Effective, SI for Somewhat Ineffective, HI for Highly Ineffective, NK for 'I do not know', E for Effective, and I for Ineffective.

Results of the Descriptive Statistics for the Analysis of Items related to Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Language Culture in the Questionnaire regarding the Effectiveness of the Second-Year High School English Textbook from the Teachers' Perspective are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
PRESENTS THE PERCENTAGE OF THE TEACHERS' RESPONSES (BOOK2)

	Teachers' Perceptions					Merging of the percentages of the selected options		
	HE	SE	NK	SI	HI	E	NK	I
Motivation (Book2)	4.08% (49)	7.41% (89)	3.66% (44)	12.16% (146)	22.66% (272)	11.49%	3.66%	34.82%
Accuracy (Book2)	9.5% (19)	13% (26)	4.5% (9)	10.5% (21)	12.5% (25)	22.5%	4.5%	23%
Fluency (Book2)	7.5% (30)	12% (48)	3% (12)	13% (52)	14.5% (58)	19.5%	3%	27.5%
Language skills (Book2)	4.85% (34)	9.57% (67)	5% (35)	13.71% (96)	16.85% (118)	14.42%	5%	30.56%
Target culture (Book2)	3.5% (7)	6.5% (13)	3.5% (7)	15.5% (31)	21% (42)	10%	3.5%	36.5%

Abbreviations: HE stands for Highly Effective, SE for Somewhat Effective, SI for Somewhat Ineffective, HI for Highly Ineffective, NK for 'I do not know', E for Effective, and I for Ineffective.

Results of the Descriptive Statistics for the Analysis of Items related to Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Language Culture in the Questionnaire regarding the Effectiveness of the Third-Year High School English Textbook from the Teachers' Perspective are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6
PRESENTS THE PERCENTAGE OF THE TEACHERS' RESPONSES (BOOK3)

	Teachers' Perceptions					Merging of the percentages of the selected options		
	HE	SE	NK	SI	HI	E	NK	I
Motivation (Book3)	3.66% (44)	6.83% (82)	3.16% (38)	12.83% (154)	23.5% (282)	10.49%	3.16%	36.33%
Accuracy (Book3)	6.5% (13)	10.5% (21)	5.5% (11)	10% (20)	17.5% (35)	17%	5.5%	27.5%
Fluency (Book3)	8% (32)	8.25% (33)	3.25% (13)	9.75% (39)	20.75% (83)	16.25%	3.25%	30.5%
Language skills (Book3)	4.57% (32)	6.42% (45)	3.28% (23)	16.57% (116)	19.14% (134)	10.99%	3.28%	35.71%
Target culture (Book3)	1.5% (3)	2.5% (5)	4% (8)	14% (28)	28% (56)	4%	4%	42%

Abbreviations: HE stands for Highly Effective, SE for Somewhat Effective, SI for Somewhat Ineffective, HI for Highly Ineffective, NK for 'I do not know', E for Effective, and I for Ineffective.

Tables 1, 2, and 3 show that the percentage of the learners' responses rating the first-year, the second-year, and the third-year high school English textbooks as being ineffective in increasing learners' motivation to learn English, in increasing learners' accuracy in producing pragmatically correct sentences, in increasing learners' fluency in speaking English, in improving learners' language skills, and in engaging the learners in learning about the target language culture is far higher than the percentage of the responses that rated them as being effective in this regard. Moreover, Tables 4, 5, and 6 show that the percentage of the teachers' responses rating the first-year, second-year, and the third-year high school English textbooks as being ineffective in increasing learners' motivation to learn English, in increasing the learners' accuracy in producing pragmatically correct sentences, in increasing learners' fluency in speaking English, in improving learners' language skills, and in engaging the learners in learning about the target language culture is far higher than the percentage of the responses that rated them as being effective in this regard.

The Obtained Mean and Std. Deviation for Learners' and Teachers' Perceptions about Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Culture (Book 1)

TABLE 7.
THE OBTAINED MEAN AND STD. DEVIATION FOR LEARNERS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS (BOOK 1)

THE OBTAINED MEAN AND STD. DEVIATION FOR LEARNERS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS (BOOK 1)						
Group Statistics		Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Motivation	Learners	100	46.2000	6.92820	.69282	
	Teachers	50	48.1600	4.52368	.63974	
Accuracy	Learners	100	7.3000	1.97714	.19771	
	Teachers	50	6.5800	1.83047	.25887	
Fluency	Learners	100	14.5600	2.69800	.26980	
	Teachers	50	14.1400	2.70306	.38227	
Language skills	Learners	100	25.9100	4.53069	.45307	
	Teachers	50	25.5200	3.96536	.56079	
Target culture	Learners	100	8.2300	1.61967	.16197	
	Teachers	50	8.4400	1.52744	.21601	

Table 7 demonstrates that the mean score difference is not meaningful in terms of fluency, language skills, and target language culture. However, as can be seen, the mean score difference is meaningful in terms of motivation, and accuracy.

The Obtained Mean and Std. Deviation for Learners' and Teachers' Perceptions about Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Culture (Book 2)

TABLE 8
THE OBTAINED MEAN AND STD. DEVIATION FOR LEARNERS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS (BOOK 2)

THE OBTAINED MEAN AND STD. DEVIATION FOR LEARNERS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS (BOOK 2)						
Group Statistics		Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Motivation	Learners	100	43.2700	6.31473	.63147	
	Teachers	50	46.0600	5.37344	.75992	
Accuracy	Learners	100	6.2900	1.67751	.16775	
	Teachers	50	6.1400	1.79580	.25396	
Fluency	Learners	100	13.2200	2.73614	.27361	
	Teachers	50	13.2000	2.92770	.41404	
Language skills	Learners	100	24.9100	4.26187	.42619	
	Teachers	50	24.9400	4.39578	.62166	
Target culture	Learners	100	8.2800	1.54449	.15445	
	Teachers	50	7.7600	2.06585	.29216	

Table 8 demonstrates that the mean score difference is not meaningful in terms of accuracy, fluency, language skills, and target language culture. However, as can be seen, the mean score difference is meaningful in terms of motivation.

The Obtained Mean and Std. Deviation for Learners' and Teachers' Perceptions about Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Culture (Book 3)

TABLE 9.
THE OBTAINED MEAN AND STD. DEVIATION FOR LEARNERS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS (BOOK 3)

Group Statistics	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Motivation	Learners	100	43.8600	6.25553	.62555
	Teachers	50	46.9600	4.93616	.69808
Accuracy	Learners	100	6.3900	1.87431	.18743
	Teachers	50	6.8600	1.88452	.26651
Fluency	Learners	100	14.0200	2.70421	.27042
	Teachers	50	14.1600	2.39353	.33850
Language skills	Learners	100	23.7600	3.92124	.39212
	Teachers	50	26.5000	3.48320	.49260
Target culture	Learners	100	7.7300	1.59453	.15945
	Teachers	50	8.5800	1.60471	.22694

Table 9 demonstrates that the mean score difference is not meaningful in terms of accuracy, and fluency. However, as can be seen, the mean score difference is meaningful in terms of motivation, and language skills, and target language culture.

Independent Sample t-test results for Learners' and Teachers' Perceptions about Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Culture of Book1

TABLE 10.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS FOR LEARNERS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS (BOOK 1)

Independent Samples Test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances								
					t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Motivation	Equal variances assumed	8.369	.004	-1.815	148	.072	-1.96000	1.08005	-4.09430	.17430
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.078	137.634	.040	-1.96000	.94301	-3.82467	-.09533
Accuracy	Equal variances assumed	.970	.326	2.154	148	.033	.72000	.33425	.05947	1.38053
	Equal variances not assumed			2.210	105.134	.029	.72000	.32573	.07414	1.36586
Fluency	Equal variances assumed	.177	.674	.898	148	.371	.42000	.46760	-.50403	1.34403
	Equal variances not assumed			.898	97.946	.372	.42000	.46789	-.50852	1.34852
Language skills	Equal variances assumed	1.247	.266	.517	148	.606	.39000	.75373	-1.09946	1.87946
	Equal variances not assumed			.541	110.535	.590	.39000	.72094	-1.03866	1.81866
Target Culture	Equal variances assumed	2.330	.129	-.763	148	.447	-.21000	.27535	-.75412	.33412
	Equal variances not assumed			-.778	103.407	.438	-.21000	.26999	-.74544	.32544

The results of Table 10 about the motivation and accuracy in terms of the first-year high school English textbook indicate that the level of meaningfulness is less than 0.05. It could be concluded that there is a meaningful difference between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of motivation to learn English, and in terms of accuracy in producing pragmatically correct sentences. However, the results of Table 10 about the fluency, language skills, and target language culture in terms of the first-year high school English textbooks, indicate that the level of meaningfulness is more than 0.05; therefore, the mean score difference is not meaningful. So there is no significant difference exists between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of fluency in speaking English, in terms of language skills, and in terms of target language culture.

Independent Sample t-test results for Learners' and Teachers' Perceptions about Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Culture of Book2

TABLE 11.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS FOR LEARNERS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS (BOOK 2)

Independent Samples Test		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
Motivation	Equal variances assumed	1.791	.183	-2.676	148	.008	-2.79000	1.04259		-4.85029	-.72971
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.824	113.297	.006	-2.79000	.98805		-4.74744	-.83256
Accuracy	Equal variances assumed	.393	.532	.504	148	.615	.15000	.29749		-.43788	.73788
	Equal variances not assumed			.493	92.381	.623	.15000	.30437		-.45446	.75446
Fluency	Equal variances assumed	.061	.806	.041	148	.967	.02000	.48515		-.93872	.97872
	Equal variances not assumed			.040	92.419	.968	.02000	.49628		-.96559	1.00559
Language Skills	Equal variances assumed	.023	.881	-.040	148	.968	-.03000	.74594		-1.50406	1.44406
	Equal variances not assumed			-.040	95.448	.968	-.03000	.75372		-1.52623	1.46623
Target Culture	Equal variances assumed	3.977	.048	1.731	148	.086	.52000	.30043		-.07369	1.11369
	Equal variances not assumed			1.574	77.230	.120	.52000	.33047		-.13802	1.17802

The results of the Table 11 about the motivation in terms of the second-year high school English textbook indicate that the level of meaningfulness (.008) is less than 0.05. Therefore, there is a meaningful difference between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of motivation to learn English. However, the results of the Table 11 about the accuracy, fluency, language skills, and the target language culture in terms of the second-year high school English textbooks, indicate that the level of meaningfulness is more than 0.05; therefore, the mean score difference is not meaningful. According to this Table and results, no significant difference exists between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of accuracy in producing pragmatically correct sentences, fluency in speaking English, in terms of language skills, and in terms of target language culture.

Independent Sample t-test results for Learners' and Teachers' Perceptions about Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Culture of Book3

TABLE 12.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS FOR LEARNERS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS (BOOK 3)

Independent Samples Test		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
Motivation	Equal variances assumed	6.642	.011	-3.059	148	.003	-3.10000	1.01355		-5.10290	-1.09710
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.307	120.752	.001	-3.10000	.93735		-4.95578	-1.24422
Accuracy	Equal variances assumed	.360	.549	-1.445	148	.151	-.47000	.32523		-1.11269	.17269
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.443	97.635	.152	-.47000	.32582		-1.11661	.17661
Fluency	Equal variances assumed	1.600	.208	-.310	148	.757	-.14000	.45128		-1.03178	.75178
	Equal variances not assumed			-.323	109.441	.747	-.14000	.43325		-.99865	.71865
Language Skills	Equal variances assumed	.149	.700	-4.183	148	.000	-2.74000	.65503		-4.03443	-1.44557
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.352	109.094	.000	-2.74000	.62961		-3.98786	-1.49214
Target Culture	Equal variances assumed	.830	.364	-3.071	148	.003	-.85000	.27677		-1.39692	-.30308
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.065	97.554	.003	-.85000	.27736		-1.40044	-.29956

The results of Table 12 about the motivation, language skills, and the target language culture in terms of the third-year high school English textbook indicate that the level of meaningfulness is less than 0.05. According to this Table and results, there is a significant difference between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of motivation to learn English, in terms of the four language skills, and in terms of target language culture. However, the

results of Table 12 about the accuracy and fluency in terms of the third-year high school English textbook indicate that the level of meaningfulness is more than 0.05; therefore, the mean score difference is not meaningful. According to this Table and results, there is no significant difference between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of accuracy in producing pragmatically correct sentences and fluency in speaking English.

V. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

The Comparison of the Results of the Items related to Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Culture regarding the First-Year High School English Textbook from the Learners' Perceptions vs. the Teachers' Perceptions

The results of the data analysis indicated that the level of meaningfulness in fluency, language skills, and target language culture of the first-year high school English textbook is more than 0.05; therefore, the mean score difference is not meaningful. Therefore, no significant difference exists between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of fluency, language skills, and target language culture of the first-year high school English textbook. It can be concluded that this result confirms the null hypothesis and rejects the alternative hypothesis. The results of the data analysis also indicated that the level of meaningfulness in motivation section, and accuracy of the first-year high school English textbook is less than 0.05. Therefore, there is a meaningful difference between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of motivation, and accuracy of the first-year high school English textbook. It can be concluded that this result rejects the null hypothesis and confirms the alternative hypothesis. The difference in mean scores between teachers and learners in terms of motivation demonstrates that teachers' opinions toward the ineffectiveness of the first-year high school English textbook in increasing the motivation of the learners to learn English are stronger than those of the learners, therefore, the difference in views may be due to the fact that teachers look at the books with their critical view and the experiences they have in teaching different books by which they can analyze with more details, moreover, the difference in mean scores between teachers and learners in terms of accuracy demonstrates that learners' opinions toward the ineffectiveness of the first-year high school English textbook in increasing the accuracy of the learners in producing pragmatically correct sentences are stronger than those of the teachers, therefore, the difference in views can be attributed to the fact that learners are more sensitive than the teachers and have a tendency towards producing correct sentences however, the teachers have a tendency towards focusing on meaning and fluency.

The Comparison of the Results of the Items related to Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Culture regarding the Second-Year High School English Textbook from the Learners' Perceptions vs. the Teachers' Perceptions

The results of the data analysis indicated that the level of meaningfulness in accuracy, fluency, language skills, and target language culture of the second-year high school English textbook is more than 0.05; therefore, the mean score difference is not meaningful. Therefore, no significant difference exists between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of accuracy, fluency, language skills, and target language culture of the second-year high school English textbook. It can be concluded that this result confirms the null hypothesis and rejects the alternative hypothesis. The results of the data analysis also indicated that the level of meaningfulness in motivation section of the second-year high school English textbook is less than 0.05. Therefore, there is a meaningful difference between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of motivation section of the second-year high school English textbook. It can be concluded that this result rejects the null hypothesis and confirms the alternative hypothesis. The difference in mean scores between teachers and learners in terms of motivation demonstrates that teachers' opinions toward the ineffectiveness of the second-year high school English textbook in increasing the motivation of the learners to learn English are stronger than those of the learners, therefore, the difference in views can be attributed to the teachers' critical look at the books and their experiences in teaching different books.

The Comparison of the Results of the Items related to Motivation, Accuracy, Fluency, Language Skills, and Target Culture regarding the Third-Year High School English Textbook from the Learners' Perceptions vs. the Teachers' Perceptions

The results of the data analysis indicated that the level of meaningfulness in accuracy, and fluency of the third-year high school English textbook is more than 0.05; therefore, the mean score difference is not meaningful. Therefore, no significant difference exists between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of accuracy, and fluency of the third-year high school English textbook. It can be concluded that this result confirms the null hypothesis and rejects the alternative hypothesis. The results of the data analysis also indicated that the level of meaningfulness in motivation section, language skills, and target language culture of the third-year high school English textbook is less than 0.05. Therefore, there is a meaningful difference between learners' perceptions and teachers' perceptions in terms of motivation section, language skills, and target language culture of the third-year high school English textbook. It can be concluded that this result rejects the null hypothesis and confirms the alternative hypothesis. The difference in mean scores between teachers and learners in terms of motivation, language skills, and target language culture demonstrates that teachers' opinions toward the ineffectiveness of the third-year high school English textbook in increasing the motivation of the learners to learn English, in improving the learners' four language skills, and in engaging the learners in learning about the target language culture are stronger than those of the learners, therefore, the difference in views

can be attributed to the fact that teachers look at the books with their critical view and the experiences they have in teaching different books by which they can analyze with more details.

It can be concluded that the English textbooks currently used in Iranian high schools meet neither the expectations of the learners nor the teachers within the Iranian educational system since it is grammar-based. As a result, since for Iranian EFL learners textbooks are the primary source of first-hand experience with English (Azizifar et al., 2010), high school English textbooks should be revised, and they should provide learners with opportunities to interact with the materials that motivate them to learn English (Gibbs, 1992, as cited in Rahimi & Hassani, 2012). So, the writers of the books can employ more communicative activities in order to motivate both the teachers and the learners. The findings of the present study provide vital information to the textbook designers, ELT material developers and to everyone who involves in learning and teaching process especially in the field of teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL).

APPENDIX. THE ENGLISH VERSION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Motivation

1. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in increasing your motivation to learn English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

2. How effective is the language functions section of your textbook in increasing your motivation to speak English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

3. How effective are the dialogues in the language functions section of your textbook in helping you to speak appropriately (the same way native speakers of English do)?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

4. How effective are the dialogues in the language functions section of your textbook in fulfilling your daily needs (for reading stories, watching movies, etc.)?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

5. How effective are the reading texts in your textbook in making language learning enjoyable?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

6. How effective are the reading texts in your textbook in increasing your motivation to learn English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

7. How effective are vocabulary items in your textbook in increasing your motivation to learn English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

8. How effective is your textbook's physical appearance in increasing your motivation to learn English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

9. How effective are pronunciation points in your textbook in increasing your motivation to learn English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

10. How effective is the speaking section of your textbook in increasing your motivation to learn English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

11. How effective is the writing section of your textbook in making language learning enjoyable?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

12. How effective is the writing section of your textbook in increasing your motivation to learn English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

Accuracy

1. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your accuracy in producing pragmatically correct sentences?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

2. How effective are grammatical points in your textbook in improving your accuracy in producing pragmatically correct sentences?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

Fluency

1. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your fluency in speaking English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

2. How effective are the grammatical points in your textbook in improving your fluency in speaking English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

3. How effective are the vocabulary items in your textbook in improving your fluency in speaking English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

4. How effective is the speaking section of your textbook in improving your fluency in speaking English?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

Language skills

1. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

2. How effective are the reading texts in your textbook in improving your language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

3. How effective are the grammatical points in your textbook in improving your language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

4. How effective are the vocabulary items in your textbook in improving your language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

5. How effective are pronunciation points in your textbook in improving your language skills (listening, speaking)?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

6. How effective is the speaking section of your textbook in improving your language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

7. How effective is the writing section of your textbook in improving your language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

Target Language Culture

1. How effective are the reading texts in your textbook in engaging you in learning about the target language culture?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

2. How effective is the speaking section of your textbook in engaging you in learning about the target language culture?

Highly effective ☐ Somewhat effective ☐ I don't know ☐ somewhat ineffective ☐ highly ineffective ☐

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The Integration of Form-focused Instruction within Communicative Language Teaching: Instructional Options

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Abstract—The strong versions of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) undermine the role of formal instruction in language learning and may even consider it detrimental. According to proponents of the strong CLT versions, learners pick up the language from interactions that focus on the semantic aspect of the language rather than its formal characteristics. Hence, teaching language forms is not recommended. This position has, however, faced harsh criticism over the last three decades. Compelling evidence (e.g., Millard, 2000) has showed that the sole focus on meaning may produce fluent learners who lack language accuracy. This evidence, supported by other significant hypotheses (e.g., Schmidt's noticing hypothesis) and models (e.g., VanPatten's Processing Model) called for the re-introduction of formal instruction, but within a CLT framework. The present paper supports this relatively recent direction. The paper provides an overview of the developments that have led to the re-introduction of formal instruction in second language (L2) learning. The paper also surveys different lines of support for the integration of the approach known as Form-Focused Instruction within Communicative Language Teaching. Finally, the paper surveys various useful pedagogical techniques to support the successful FFI-CLT marriage in the English language classroom. The techniques are categorized under Ellis's (1998) classification of instructional intervention.

Index Terms—communicative language teaching, form-focused instruction, instructional options, English language learning, second language acquisition

I. INTRODUCTION

Ever since its introduction in the 1970s, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach has gained enormous popularity and has been considered the preferred way English as a second language (L2) should be taught (Savignon, 1991). The earlier decades of traditional language teaching which failed to produce fluent L2 users triggered a warm welcome to the CLT. The new approach promised successful language learning if teaching emphasizes the semantic and communicative aspects rather than the formal characteristics of language. This comes in line with the CLT philosophy that language is an instrument of social interaction, and, hence, learning to communicate must be the focus of language teaching and learning.

The adoption of the CLT philosophy has largely influenced L2 teaching. First, the structure of language teaching is based on semantic and functional aspects of the language. Course books, for example, are composed of units titled "globalization," "education," "making requests," "apologizing," "making suggestions," "applying for a job," etc. This is in stark contrast with the units of traditional books that were titled after formal aspects of the language including tenses, types of clauses, etc. Second, CLT teachers involve learners in communicative situations where they will be interacting in the target language. Focus here is on the exchange of messages and fluent use of the language, rather than language accuracy. Learners are encouraged to communicate with other speakers and negotiate meaning to achieve successful interaction. Errors are expected and accepted as part of the learning process. Finally, and most relevant to the present paper, the Approach cast doubt on the role of formal language instruction in L2 classes. Explicit teaching of forms, particularly grammar, was seen as old-fashioned and unnecessary (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Some have even gone to the extreme that grammar teaching could be detrimental to language learning.

The CLT Approach received support from various hypotheses. Initial support came from Krashen (1981)'s distinction between language acquisition and language learning. For Krashen, language acquisition happens through natural use of the language in meaningful interactions and communicative situations. Learners acquire the language unconsciously and can, hence, later produce it automatically. Unconscious learning, which happens through natural language exposure, supports spontaneous language production. While giving full support to unconscious acquisition, Krashen (1981) called for abandoning the formal instruction of language features. According to him, this form of conscious learning can never be internalized. Learning a L2 through conscious strategies will hinder fluency as learners will experience difficulty retrieving language in natural communication.

In addition to his learning/acquisition distinction, Krashen (1985) further supported the CLT approach with his comprehensible input hypothesis, which postulates that formal features of the language can be automatically acquired from the positive evidence provided in comprehensible input. In this case, the input needs to be at a conveniently higher

level than the language competence of the learner. The speaker needs to use all possible means to ensure that the input can be understood by the learner, who should be allowed to enjoy rich, sufficient input for long periods. Learners, thus, do not need to produce language right away. They can take their time to process and absorb the comprehensible input before being expected to produce fluent speech. Language here is again acquired through natural exposure, not formal language instruction.

Additional support came from the interactionist hypothesis (Long, 1983). According to this hypothesis, interaction with competent speakers of the second language largely contributes to language acquisition. Facilitation to language learning is derived from the naturally occurring modifications in discourse, including questions, comprehension checks, clarification requests, etc. Such conversational and linguistic modifications provide the learner with much-needed understanding of the input and draw the learner's attention to how his/her own language production is different than the output of competent speakers. Hence, the interactionist hypothesis in its early version followed the same line of thought as that of the input hypothesis, disregarding the role of formal language instruction. The interactionist hypothesis supported the premise of the input hypothesis that learners can acquire language from comprehensible input, but added that communication and interactional modifications are necessary for the input provided by competent speakers to be comprehensible.

This extreme position of excluding any instruction of formal language features in the L2 classroom did not survive long. Some voices soon called for a role for formal instruction within a communicative language teaching framework. Integrating formal instruction with CLT was seen as a plausible solution that will further facilitate acquisition. Interestingly, some of the voices came from the CLT proponents, such as the father of the interactionist hypothesis. In 1996, Long revised his earlier version of the hypothesis allowing room for formal instruction. In his updated version, comprehensible input and meaningful interaction were still imperative for learning. However, it was also recognized that the CLT framework offers an excellent opportunity for instruction on formal language features within a meaningful and interesting context. It is this idea of integration that proves appealing for the writer of the present paper. A focus on semantic and communicative aspects of language does not have to lead to the exclusion of formal instruction. Accuracy needn't be sacrificed for fluency. There must be ways for training L2 learners to communicate their ideas fluently and accurately.

II. THE INTEGRATION OF FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION IN COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

Further support for the integration came from both empirical studies and recent hypotheses about L2 acquisition. Millard (2000) surveys a number of studies conducted in the 1980s and 1990s which shed the light on the limitations of the exclusive focus on communication in L2 classrooms. Some evidence came from immersion classrooms in Canada, which are largely considered an excellent example of CLT. The immersion programs produced fluent L2 speakers, but consistently failed to produce students with native-like abilities after years of instruction. Likewise, Millard (2000) surveys a number of studies that highlight the relatively poor grammatical command of L2 learners in CLT-based intensive English language learning programs. The learners were more fluent than their counterparts in traditional classrooms, but their lack of grammatical accuracy has been noted. For a survey of relevant studies favoring a role for formal instruction in L2 classrooms, see Ellis (1997).

In addition to empirical findings, key figures in L2 acquisition also highlighted the importance of integrating formal instruction in the L2 classroom. Schmidt (1990) noted that learners often miss important formal language features that arise in the input. That is, they fail to turn the input into intake that can influence their learning. This led him to propose that "noticing" is essential for language learning. Learners need to "notice" the unlearned L2 forms in the input to start internalizing it. This hypothesis is contradictory to Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis as it distinguishes between input and intake. Mere comprehensible input, according to the "noticing" hypothesis may not suffice for L2 learning. Along the same lines came Van Patten (2002)'s input-processing model. It has been noted that L2 learners pay great attention to meaning rather than form while processing input. In other words, they focus on the content of the message, and so often miss the form-meaning connections in the text. For example, a listener may not notice the "ed" past in a sentence that starts with "yesterday" since the latter word already conveys the past meaning. Hence, according to the input-processing model formal instruction will serve L2 learning well as it will help the L2 learner notice important form-meaning connections in the language.

With these hypotheses in mind, Ellis (1990) introduced form-focused instruction (FFI) as an approach to L2 learning that helps learners to notice formal features of the target language. In 2001, he defines the approach as "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic forms," (pp. 1-2). According to him, FFI raises the learner's consciousness of unlearned language features so that the learner can notice these features in subsequent communicative input. Borrowing Schmidt (1990)'s terminology, it is this "noticing" that will facilitate and reinforce L2 learning. It is worth noting that FFI is in reconciliation with CLT. As El-Dakhs (2014) puts it, FFI "emphasizes relating forms to their communicative functions, noticing forms during communicative interaction and retrieving forms in communicative contexts," (p. 6).

Voices in support of FFI came from different directions. Examples include Doughty & Williams (1998) who listed various advantages for formal instruction including accelerating the rate of learning, leading to long-term accuracy and raising the ultimate level of attainment. Likewise, Izumi & Bigelow (2001) commended the approach for overcoming

the problems of traditional teaching which solely focuses on language forms and also the problems of meaning-based teaching which ignores the important role of formal instruction. Similarly, Doughty (2001) praised the approach because it encourages learners to focus on form, meaning and use in one cognitive event. Likewise, studies on the progress achieved by L2 learners in different parts of the world have contributed to the support. In Colombia, for instance, Sanchez and Obando (2008) claim that FFI is “the most effective way to combine meaning and accuracy and to allow learners to discover grammar through real life examples, rather than memorizing sterile rules,” (p. 186).

It is worth mentioning that FFI leaves room for varied choices by the L2 teacher. First, the teacher has to choose appropriate language forms to address. Issues related to the salience of the form in the input, its communicative function, the inherent difficulty of the rule and the student’s developmental readiness will need to be considered. Second, the teacher needs to adopt a suitable approach; whether reactive or proactive. In a reactive approach, the teacher observes students’ output and develops FFI activities in response to students’ linguistic difficulties. A pro-active approach, however, relies on the teacher’s anticipation of the students’ difficulties and the prior design of relevant activities. Third, the FFI techniques vary in how explicit/implicit they are. It is the teacher’s discretion that can help make the right choices among the various techniques available (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

Spada & Lightbown (2008) identify an additional choice for teachers to make; whether FFI is taught in isolation or integration with CLT. They define these terms as “isolated FFI is attention to forms in separate lessons that occur within a program that is primarily communicative in orientation..... Integrated FFI includes both reactive and proactive FFI,” (p. 193). Spada & Lightbown (2008) identify a number of variables that would support one form of FFI than the other. For instance, they assume that isolated FFI is particularly useful in cases of strong L1 influence on L2, simple formal features that are not salient in oral language and language forms that rarely occur in the CLT classrooms. Integrated FFI, however, may be more beneficial with complex language features that have difficult rules, errors that may lead to communication breakdowns and language features that have started to emerge in learners’ interlanguage. The choice may also depend on the type of learners. Isolated FFI is recommended for older learners, especially if they are experienced language learners, whereas integrated FFI is preferable with learners that score high on language aptitude tests or possess good metalinguistic knowledge.

In addition to the abovementioned choices, teachers, most importantly, need to select among varied instructional options. In other words, what techniques is the teacher going to use, and at what stage of processing will the intervention occur? It is interesting to note a quote that was made almost 15 years before the writing of the present paper that holds true up till the moment. Nassaji (2000) stated, “Much has been written, on both theoretical and empirical levels, about the idea of *focus on form* and the suggestion that some kind of form-focused activity needs to be incorporated into second language (L2) communicative contexts. However, much less work has been published on how this aim can be pedagogically fostered,” (p.241). The remaining part of the present paper is dedicated to explore varied instructional options that can be used to implement FFI within a CLT context.

III. FFI INSTRUCTIONAL OPTIONS

The FFI instructional options presented in this section are not exhaustive. They only represent a humble attempt at identifying relevant techniques and listing them for L2 instructors’ convenience. The options are categorized in accordance with Ellis’s (1998) classification of the stages where instructional intervention can occur; namely, the input stage, the processing stage, the production stage and the feedback stage.

A. The Input Stage

According to El-Dakhs (2014), the input stage “involves learners in processing input that has been especially designed to highlight the form, meaning and use of a given structure. Minimal production of the target structure is required by learners. Yet, their attention is drawn to the form and the meaning/ use it serves,”(p.5). One interesting activity at this stage is the “input flooding task.” Learners are consistently and recurrently exposed to the target language feature to facilitate its acquisition. For example, the following task includes many instances of present participle vs. past participle when used as adjectives:

Do you agree or disagree with these statements?

1. Quiet people are boring.
2. I am bored when someone tells a joke.
3. People who gossip a lot are very irritating.
4. I get irritated with small talk.
5. It is interesting to talk about yourself.
6. I am interested in people who always talk about themselves.

The task draws the learners’ attention to the target form within a meaningful task that perfectly fits with CLT. The learners are concerned with the meaning of the sentences in order to take decisions which they may later have to defend. Meanwhile, the recurrent use of the present vs. past participle makes the form notable and relates the form to its function.

Another activity that can be used for intervention at the input stage is the “input enhancement task.” In this task, the teacher highlights the target language feature through typographic (e.g., underlining, boldening, etc.) or oral (e.g.,

added stress, repetition, etc.) enhancement. This makes the form more noticeable to the learner without explicit formal instruction on the teacher's part. Below is an example extracted from McCarthy et al. (2010):

Listen. Are these statements about manners true in your country? Check (✓) true or false.

1. **Eating food** on a subway or bus is bad manners.
2. It's rude to **cut in line**.
3. You should try to **keep your voice down** in public.
4. You can offend someone by not **shaking hands** when you meet.
5. People might stare at you for **walking around barefoot**.
6. **Having an argument** in public is considered bad manners.
7. It's impolite to walk into someone's home without **taking off your shoes**.
8. **Showing affection** in public – **holding hands** or touching – is inappropriate.

In this task, attention is drawn to recurrent expressions in the target language through typographic enhancement. The learners practice listening, think about the statements and take authentic decisions in relation to their countries. Discussions may even ensue to compare notes among learners. The whole task is perfectly communicative. However, students' attention is simultaneously drawn to form.

A third activity is known as the "structured-based input task." This type of task can be done orally or in writing. It pushes students to process sentences correctly and notice the target form. For example, the following task suggested by Neupane (2009) pushes students to notice the use of causative verbs.

Listen to the statements and answer the questions.

John made Rama clean the room.

The teacher made the student do his homework.

John made an omelette.

The teacher made a diagram.

- a. Who cleaned the room?
- b. Who did the homework?
- c. Who made an omelette?
- d. Who made a diagram?

After listening, the students are pushed to consider the meaning of causative verbs carefully through answering the questions below the sentences. Again, form is highlighted simultaneously with the processing of meaning. It has been noted that in this task some instructors precede the sentences and questions with explicit instruction of the form to ensure that learners' attention will be drawn to the required direction.

B. The Processing Stage

During the processing stage, the L2 teacher can intervene through direct or indirect instruction. In direct instruction, the teacher explicitly explains the target language features whether orally or in writing. The learner can interact with the explanation through questions, requests for clarification, seeking repetition, etc. In indirect instruction, however, the L2 teacher provides learners with the sufficient modified input for discovering the target language features and the learners work out the rules for themselves.

One common technique for intervening at the processing stage is the statement of the rule accompanied by metalinguistic explanation. The following example from medical English is adopted from Spada & Lightbown (2008):

Decide whether the following statements are True (T) or False (F).

1. Freud developed a method for examining mental processes known as psychoanalysis.
2. Pencillin was discovered by Alexander Fleming in 1928.

After marking True or False, the teacher starts asking questions like "What is given more emphasis in the first sentence- Freud or psychoanalysis? What about the second sentence?" Through these and similar questions, the rule is explained using meta-language. The activity directly targets the processing stage through explicit, direct instruction. The meaningful context is still provided through the statements which learners evaluate and which are very relevant to their field of expertise.

Another useful technique is known as "consciousness-raising." In such tasks, learners are provided with sufficient data to help them discover the target rules. Learners often work in pairs or groups and use their intellectual effort to comprehend the target structure and, perhaps, state the rules orally or in writing. The following example, from Ellis (1998), sets a good example:

1. Underline the time expressions in this passage.

I made an appointment to see Mr. Bean at 3 o'clock on Tuesday the 11th of February to discuss my application for a job. Unfortunately, he was involved in a car accident in the morning and rang to cancel the appointment. I made another appointment to see him at 10 o'clock on Friday the 21st of February. However, when I got to his office, his secretary told me that his wife had died at 2 o'clock in the night and that he was not coming into the office that day. She suggested I reschedule for something in March. So I made a third appointment to see Mr. Bean at 1 o'clock on Monday the 10th of March. This time I actually got to see him. However, he informed me that they had now filled all the vacancies and suggested I contact him again in 1998. I assured him that he would not be seeing me in either this or the next century.

2. Write the time phrases into this table.

At	In	On
at 3.00 o'clock		

3. Make up a rule to explain when to use *at*, *in* and *on* in time expressions.

After the learners have completed the tasks, the teacher will often try to engage them in activities that will turn their declarative knowledge as illustrated in their rule-formation, into procedural knowledge through various production activities. It is worth noting that the students worked out the rule after reading through a meaningful short story. Hence, meaningfulness and communicative competence are maintained and addressed.

A last illustrative technique is called the “grammar problem task.” In such a task, the learners are provided with a list of grammatical sentences focusing on a certain grammatical pattern. They are asked to discover the rules through meaningful interaction with their classmates in pairs or groups. In order to formulate the rules, the learners are involved in discussions and negotiations. An example is the following list of sentences:

Formulate a grammatical rule underlying these sentences:

- If I were a millionaire, I wouldn't work.
- They would be happier if they were rich.
- They could communicate faster if they used what'sapp.

The sentences should allow the student to work out the rules related to the use of conditionals in English. The student is, hence, involved in a problem-solving task to work out the grammar rule.

C. The Production Stage

According to El-Dakhs (2014), the production stage “requires learners to integrate their knowledge of the target grammar rules into their production. The demands of the production tasks vary a great deal, between highly controlled text-manipulation exercises (e.g., a substitution drill) and freer production tasks where learners can create their own sentences,” (p.8). Tasks in this stage may have their roots in Swain's output hypothesis which calls for engaging learners in production activities to support their L2 acquisition. According to Swain (1995), pushing students to put their knowledge of the L2 into production will help them notice gaps between their output and the target language. Identifying gaps and discrepancies helps learners improve their language. In addition to the noticing function, Swain postulates that the output aids learners with hypothesis testing and improving their metalinguistic knowledge. Hence, due to these functions, and others that may be suggested, teachers are generally interested in targeting the production stage.

One useful production technique that is highly controlled is the “text manipulation task.” In such a task, a text is manipulated in a way that the target structure is frequently practiced. For example, the following example, adopted from Ellis (1998), forces learners to produce prepositions of time in different expressions. The sentence itself is meaningful, but the learners' output is highly constrained.

Fill in the blanks in this sentence:

Mr. Short was born _____ 1944 _____ a Tuesday _____ May _____ two o'clock _____ the morning.

Another less constraining production technique is known as the “task-essential language.” In this task, learners are required to perform a task which entails the use of a particular language feature. The task provides learners with frequent opportunities to use the target form, and hence, internalize knowledge of the rule. Below are two relevant examples. In the first one, the learner needs to use the comparative forms of the language to compare between the two cities. In the second example, the use of “there is” and “there are” in affirmative and interrogative forms is necessary.

1. Compare Riyadh and Jeddah. You will need to use comparative forms.
2. Identify differences in the pictures. You can ask your colleague questions using “is there” and “are there.”

A third production technique is the “dictogloss.” In this task, the teacher reads a short text twice while the learners listen attentively and take down as many notes as they wish. This is followed by learners working together in pairs or groups to reconstruct the text. The discussions include negotiations, meta-talk and exchange of ideas. After the text is re-constructed, the learners are allowed to compare their constructed text with the original one to compare and analyze the different versions. In addition to the benefit of the discussions, the comparison of the two versions proves extremely beneficial as it allows learners to identify gaps in their knowledge and discrepancies between their production and native speakers' output.

The editing task is yet another interesting activity for production. Similar to the dictogloss, two versions of the same text are used. The teacher hands over an incorrect version to the learners and reads aloud the correct version inviting learners to correct the erroneous texts at their hands. The learners first listen to the teacher attentively. Then, they are allowed to discuss their corrections with their classmates. The discussions involve cooperation, negotiation and reflection, all necessary components for learning. After sufficient interaction, the teacher provides the learners with the correct version to analyze and compare with their own. Explanation of certain language features can be provided as deemed necessary.

A final production technique to be shared here is the “garden path task.” The following example is a good illustration (Nation & Newton, 2008):

- Teacher Here is a sentence using these words: *think* and *problem*. I thought about the problem. Now you make one using these words: *talk* and *problem*.
- Student We talked about the problem.
- Teacher Good. *Argue* and *result*.
- Student We argued about the result.
- Teacher Good. *Discuss* and *advantages*.
- Student We discussed about the advantages.
- Teacher No. With *discuss* we don't use *about*.

It must be clear that the teacher allows the student to make various correct production attempts before facing the challenge of an exception. This technique allows the teacher to only explain the general target rule without the exceptions. Then, through this structured task, the learner is encouraged to over-generalize the rule, and this is when the teacher intervenes to clarify the restrictions on use. It is hoped that this technique will make the restrictions on the rule more memorable.

D. The Feedback Stage

Negative feedback “shows learners which of their utterances are incorrect. This can encourage learners to compare their deviant utterances with correct ones and identify their errors. Again, form is examined in meaningful activities that promote the development of communicative interaction,” (El-Dakhs, 2014, p. 5). Different strategies have been devised to address the feedback stage. An interesting technique is the provision of explicit feedback with metalinguistic terminology. The following example is extracted from Spada & Lightbown, 2006 (cited in Spada & Lightbown, 2008, p.187):

Guessing game

- Student: Is George is in the living room?
- Teacher: You said “**is**” two times, dear. Listen to you-you said, “**Is** George **is** in.... Look on the board. “**Is** George in the” and then you say the name of the room.”
- Student: Is George in the living room?
- T: Yeah
- Student: I win!

In the above example, the students engaged in a guessing game. The teacher highlights a deviant repetition of the copula. The student is directed to the board to use the correct structure. Once, he produced the correction, the guessing game continues and he expresses excitement for winning. The correction was done within a meaningful, communicative context.

Another well-known technique at the feedback stage is known as the “recast.” The recast is a reformulation of erroneous utterances by the learner. Instead of saying that the learner's utterance is incorrect, the teacher reformulates the incorrect form into a correct one indirectly. This is intended to make the learner notice the gap between their incompetent language use and more fluent language use. An example is as follows:

- Student: The girl did a major mistake.
- Teacher: Oh, she made a major mistake.
- Student: Yes, she made a major mistake.

“Output enhancement” is another useful technique. The teacher promotes students to produce output including specific language forms that may not have been internalized in their production yet. To this end, the teacher seizes opportunities to highlight the erroneous production by students without giving a direct correction. This can be done through requests, repetition, metalinguistic cues and elicitation. For instance, if a student produces “He speak English very well.” The teacher can repeat “speak” perhaps with a rising intonation or say “what about the third person singular?” In this way, the teacher invites the students to re-consider their erroneous production and provide corrections themselves. Noticing the erroneous production and correcting it support language learning.

Last, but not least, the technique of “interaction enhancement” may also be useful. This technique guides students to focus on form by providing interactional modifications. The technique implements several strategies including requests for repetition, output enhancement, input enhancement, etc. For instance, the example below starts with a teacher's question inviting output enhancement. Then, the student produces incorrect output, and the teacher requests repetition. Upon the student's successful modification, the teacher repeats the correct statement providing an excellent chance for input enhancement. This is followed by topic continuation.

- T: And any other problem?
- S: I saw rat
- T: You saw what?
- S: A rat.
- T: Uh-huh, you saw a rat in your room. That's terrible.
- (Muranoi, H., 2002, cited in Yu, M., 2013, p. 25)

IV. CONCLUSION

Communicative Language Teaching is widely regarded as the most effective approach to L2 teaching. However, its earlier exclusion of formal instruction has not proved as effective (e.g., Millard, 2000). Hence, in later versions, CLT has accommodated some approaches of formal instruction that can adapt to the CLT's major focus on meaningful communication. A famous approach is the Form-Focused Instruction that aims to address language forms within a communicative context. The integration of FFI within a CLT context has gained increasing support (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 2008; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Numerous studies have examined its implementation in L2 classes and its effect on L2 development (e.g., Farrokhi & Talabari, 1989; Izumi & Bigelow, 2001).

The present paper, however, took a different approach. After surveying the different CLT versions and the evidence in their favour or disfavour, the paper placed special focus on the FFI approach detailing its definition, philosophy and supporting findings. The compatibility between the FFI and CLT is highly emphasized to encourage their integration in L2 classrooms. The paper also provided L2 teachers with various FFI techniques that can be directly implemented in the L2 CLT classroom. The techniques are classified into four stages of instructional intervention; (1) input, (2) processing, (3) output and (4) feedback.

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Towards a Discursive Analysis of Cyrus's Charter and His Will: A Critical Discourse Analysis

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Abstract—This study took a critical discourse analysis approach to investigate vocabulary feature, themes, and topics used in Cyrus Charter and Will. The analytical model was based on Norman Fairclough's (1989) framework. The findings of this study indicated Cyrus as the first founder of human rights, protected emancipation, brotherhood, equality and peace in the world through his charter. Moreover this charter had essential role in reflecting Persian rich culture toward other nations. It seems that by resorting to this charter, most of the ethnic and religious conflicts in modern world could be settled down. Also United Nations can keep peace by applying such rules in the world. In data analysis Spss's bar chart was used to analyze data.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, Cyrus Charter and will, emancipation, ideology, language and power

I. INTRODUCTION

The Discourse analysis of Cyrus charter and will explores discourse structures at the level of phrases, sentences, and interaction between language, power and ideology. Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of discourse, which views language as a form of social practice and focuses on the ways social and political domination is reproduced by text and talk (www.geography2.ruhosting.nl). CDA sees language as social practice and considers the context of language use to be crucial CDA sees discourse – language use in speech and writing – as a form of 'social practice'. Describing discourse as social practice implies a dialectical relationship between a particular discursive event and the situation(s), institution(s) and social structure(s) which frame it: the discursive event is shaped by them, but it also shapes them (www.seangoggins.net). Investigation of Cyrus Charter and Will reveals the mystery of eternality of Cyrus speech. Cyrus was the greatest Persian Emperor and righteous being at the time of victory. He was generous toward defeated people being a freedom. He won the heart of his people permitting them to worship their God. He was extraordinary peerless in all over the word. Comparing Cyrus manner with Semi's rulers, one feels pleasure for Persian liberality and generosity and truly regards as the instructor of human race. Cyrus was the first legislative who issued a number of principles in terms of human rights. Cyrus (600B. C) defeated Medes and founded Achaemenid dynasty as the first Persian Emperor(www.cyrusgreat.com). Cyrus charter consists of two pages that were translated to several languages. After victory over Babylonia, Cyrus the Great presented himself not as a conqueror, but a liberator and the legitimate successor to the crown. He took the title of "King of Babylon and King of the Land". Cyrus had no thought of forcing conquered people into a single mould, and had the wisdom to leave unchanged the institution of each kingdom he attached to the Persian Crown. In 537 BC he allowed more than 40,000 Jews to leave Babylon and return to Palestine. He also declared the first Charter of Human Rights known to mankind, which is written on a clay cylinder (www.forum.persiantools.com).

Why was Cyrus considering a great emperor?

The most civilized and powerful empire until even after the Romans fell, in 559 BC, the Persian king Cyrus the great defeated the Medes controlling what is now Iran, Iraq, and some other countries. Cyrus set out to create a powerful empire. In fact, he created the first empire. the word "Persia" comes from the Greek word "persis" which means empire. the relative strength of the Persian empire at the height of its power was like the relative strength of modern day, china, India, Russia, EU, US and Japan put together. The Persians were the first people in history to give men and women equal rights, abolish slavery and write the very first human and animal bill of rights. they also built in 400s BC the very first stadium, the Apadana in Persepolis (later burnt down by Alexander). The Apadana was able to seat 15 (fifteen thousand) people in it, with space left for a grand ceremony. This massive building was roofed, unlike the coliseum, the architectural and worth of this single building, if it lived through the fire Alexander put it through, would have dwarfed the city of Rome. The Persian empire was a god compared to Rome, when Rome attacked Persia (battle of carhae) with 44 thousand soldiers, a 10 thousand man army from the Persian empire crushed the Romans, and sent their general's head back to Rome (www.urbandictionary.com). Throughout history Cyrus charter played a very important role in the

birth of civilization in the World. Cyrus has made vast contributions to the World, of which some can be briefly listed as the following: world's first charter of human rights, world's first largest empire, first administrative system for Government, first communication lines (www.une.edu.au/irsa/History).

The present English text of Cyrus charter was translation of Antoine Simonin and Shahrokh Razmjo Which comes in appendix. Several translations were available for Cyrus charter, in this study Antoine Simonin's translation ideologically analyzed, especially vocabulary features of Cyrus charter was focused.

According to Norman Fairclough (Fairclough, 1989 *pp.134-135*), text, interaction and social texture are the three dimensions of discourse, for analyzing these dimensions three stages of description, interpretation, and explanation were applied in a text. In this study Norman Fairclough's model was used to present text analysis such as lexical analysis, experimental values, relational values, uses of pronouns, modality, active and passive voice, and mainly vocabulary feature of Cyrus charter analyzed to show what values words reflect (paraphrase). Based on *Norman Fairclough's view 1989, (pp 93-94)*, discourse analysis aims to explores relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and process; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power, and to explores how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is (www.ijhssnet.com). According to *Van Dijk, (dijk, 1993)*, in critical discourse analysis, we need to explore which structures and strategies of text and talk attended to discover patterns of dominance and manipulation.

Ideology

Several definitions used to maintain concept of ideology in critical studies. Based on Van Dijk (Dijk, 2000) ideology have different aspects. Ideologies have something to do with systems of ideas or in a much better word, systems of beliefs, and especially with the social, political or religious ideas shared by a social group or movement. Communism as well as anti-communism, socialism and liberalism, feminism and sexism, racism and antiracism, pacifism and militarism, are examples of widespread ideologies. Group members who share such ideologies stand for a number of very general ideas that are at the basis of their more specific beliefs about the world, guide their interpretation of events, and monitor their social practices (www.discourse-in-society.org/ideo-dis2.htm).

Ideology and discourse are not notions that can be adequately studied in one discipline: They require analysis in all disciplines of the humanities and the social sciences. However, we shall reduce this large number of potential disciplines to three main clusters, namely those involved in the study of Discourse, Cognition and Society. Thus, language use, text, talk, verbal interaction, and communication will be studied under the broad label of 'discourse'. The mental aspects of ideologies, such as their nature as ideas or beliefs, their relations with opinions and knowledge, and their status as socially shared representations, will all be covered under the label of 'Cognition'. And the social, political, cultural and historical aspects of ideologies, their group-based nature, and especially their role in the reproduction of, or resistance against, dominance, will be examined under the broad label of Society. Note that these conceptual distinctions are merely analytical and practical. They do of course overlap: Discourse for instance is part of society, and so are the socially shared ideas of group members. We make the distinction, however, because the concepts, theories and methods of analysis are rather distinct for these three areas of inquiry (www.discourse-in-society.org/ideo-dis2.htm).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The Critical discourse analysis has become the general label for a special approach to the study of text and talk, emerging from critical linguistics, critical semiotics and in general from a socio-politically conscious and oppositional way of investigating language discourse and communication (www.scholar.google.com), Norman Fairclough, who has made a great contribution to the establishment of CDA as a direction of research, maintains that the text doesn't convey meaning through linguistic features but it is generated and realized by its discursive formation reflecting certain ideologies or given ways of controlling and manipulating power relation (www.journals.usb.ac.ir). Similarly, van Dijk (*Dijk, 1988*), develop range of CDA and explained that CDA is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. His analytical method, suggests two levels of analysis: a) micro structure: analysis of the text in term of syntax (grammar) and lexis (vocabulary) and b) macro structure: analysis and description of rhetorical organization of various texts (www.journals.usb.ac.ir).

CDA is characterized by some criteria: it is problem or issue oriented. Its work is inter or multidisciplinary and focus on the relation between discourse and society. Historically CDA is part of a broad spectrum of critical studies in humanities and social science. CDA studies pay attention to all levels and dimensions of discourse; grammar (phonology, syntax, semantics), style, rhetoric, schematic organization, speech acts, pragmatic strategy and those of interaction among others, (*Dijk, 1993*).

The most significant research within CDA has been performed by Teun Van dijk, who combines cognitive psychology and CDA to uncover how ideological structures are hidden in people's memory (www.ijhssnet.com). He focuses on credibility in texts. Norman Fairclough focuses on social conflict and its linguistic manifestations in discourse of dominance, difference and resistance. To understand the nature of CDA and its theoretical realization its necessary to follow Norman Fairclough's CDA model. His model is based on the assumption that language is an

irreducible part of social life. Fairclough's model describes the process and the end product of meaning and how people interpret meanings in text within a variety of social context. Fairclough provide tripartite framework for the analysis of text and discourse: a) the linguistic description of the formal text and discourse (texture, vocabulary, grammar, syntax, text structure (cohesion). b) the interpretation of relationship discursive process and text (intertextually, intentionality, speech acts, implicature, pragmatic meaning, genre, style. c) the explanation of the relationship between discourse and social cultural reality. (Khajeh, Khnmohamadi, 2007)

Wodak and Meyer (2001) stated CDA is not used in its capacity to investigates social inequality as it is expressed ,signaled, constituted by language use in discourse, but rather as analytical tool to analyze text on identity and an integration .

According to Andrew Cifford (2009) interpreters in discourse do need to be concerned with lexicon, but it is only apart of their work. Furthermore, interpreters need to be concerned with deixis, modality speech acts. (Bahador, Hassani, & Ghorbani, 2014).

In the same vein Wodak and Fairclough (Wodak, Fairclough, 2010) characterized CDA partly in terms of its particular recontextualizing principle; a principle for approaching other discourses and bring them into special relation within each other for the purpose of their selection, transmission and acquisition.

Barbara Jonstone (Jonstone, 2008) stated that discourse usually means actual instances of communicative action in medium of language. He characterized discourse analysis usage in answering many different kinds of questions and 6 aspects of shaping text (world, language, participants, prior discourse, medium purpose).

According to Lotfollah Yarmohammadi (Yarmohammadi, 2004) in DA the way of using group power, authority, inequality is created through text and spoken language in social context (p, 4). Yarmohammadi stated that in DA relations between discursive structures and underlying ideological structure is described and analyzed. He introduced four discursive structures including: naming, nominalization, voicing, and using different patterns.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Norman Fairclough attempts to uncover ideological and power patterns in texts. In the description stage morphology and grammatical levels are analyzed. Three kinds of values (experienced, relational, and expressive) are considered in text analysis by Fairclough. The experiential value is concerned with the text produced experience of natural or social word (content, knowledge and belief) relational value reflects the social relationship, which are enacted via text in discourse. Expressive value shows the producer's evaluation of reality (attitudes towards subjects and social identities. In vocabulary analysis Fairclough point out main question related to lexical aspects in the text, i.e., what values do words reflect, are there any ideological traces that words reflect, rewording or over wording, are there any stylistic devices such as synonyms and metaphors. The vocabulary of certain discourse type may represent the ideology of a particular social grouping. Relational values show how the wording of a text depends on and establishes social relation between participants. Expressive values signal attitude toward a certain aspect in the text (Khajeh, Khnmohamadi, 2007.).

The present study attempts to uncover the underlying ideological assumption hidden in the Cyrus Will text according to Fairclough's model. CDA in this study may contribute to a better understanding of political texts and will give insights toward persuasive strategies which place readers in specific ideological position.

IV. METHODOLOGY

Data for study

The present study is an attempt to analyze the Cyrus Will and Charter, under the model of Fairclough in CDA. Cyrus speech is significant in that he was the founder of human rights and the greatest Emperor in Persian. Figure 1. Show Fairclough's model.

Analytical framework of the study

• Description: vocabulary, values
• Interpretation: embedded meaning
• Explanation: social reality, cultural reality

Procedure

In this study vocabulary features of the Cyrus charter and will critically analyzed according to Fairclough's model. The following elements of Fairclough's framework were considered to function as the criteria for the analysis: description (texture, vocabulary, grammar, syntax, text structure), interpretation (intertextuality, intentionality, speech acts), explanation (relationship between discourse, social and cultural reality). All definitions were briefly presented based on Fairclough's elaboration in theoretical framework section. (Bahador, Hassani, & Ghorbani, 2014).

The study was a corpus based analysis of the Cyrus charter and will conducted on a descriptive, comparative based which was carried out on English translation of Cyrus charter and will. The corpus (charter and will) comprised 1400 words in English which whole text was selected for analysis. The data were gathered by analyzing the vocabulary

features, themes, topics and classification of Cyrus charter and will. Furthermore, comparison of themes and topics were conducted between two corpuses (Bahador, Hassani, & Ghorbani, 2014).

V. DATA ANALYSIS

After analyzing the data, the following themes and topics were presented for Cyrus charter (Juraj, 2007).

I am Korosh, king of the world, great king, mightily king, king of quarter.

The marked words describe the role of the king in the country. The phrase 'king of the world', 'great king', signifies that the country was absolute monarchy. The phrase 'I set up a seat of domination' determine ideological lexicon that shows democratic ideology.

1) The sentence 'all the kings who sat in before him' underlies the power of the king and signifies the fact of other king's power relation with Korush. An interesting aspect is king's vocabulary, when he describes himself. According to Fairclough's model king employs over-lexicalization. It means that an excessive usage of synonyms signals the speaker's obsession with a certain ideology.

2) The king's choice of words (king of four garden, Marduk (the name of Persian God), the great God) reflects a very authoritative political governing system in the country.

3) From CDA perspectives the noun 'nation' is used to emphasize the fact that people in Iran determine the internal affairs and that the king has no power without his nation.

4) The usage of pronouns in the king's utterance is related to the spatial dimension of the text which reflects the characteristic of language and power. This reflects how the king positions himself when talking about Iran's nation and his duties.

5) 'I never let anyone oppress any other'. This example shows that the king transfer his duties to his nation and shows his responsibility in front of nation. The king used pronoun 'I' repeatedly to show his power to other nation.

6) 'I am the monarch'; I will never let anyone take position of '. This parallel structure reflects king's ideological stance.

7) 'May' Korush the king who reverse thee'. Modal auxiliary 'may' used in Cyrus speech associated with the meaning of possibility to express commitment to the truth.

8) The analysis of lexical level in Cyrus speech show democratic ideological representation of world. The ideological traces that words reflect ('gather together') present democratic authority in the country. It is argued that high amount of wording (nation, king) shows preoccupation of the king with some aspect of reality.

9) Relational values in Cyrus charter analysis shows the wording of king establishes social relationships between nations.

10) Expressive values signal the attitude toward equality of all nations especially in their rights king expresses that 'I will never let anyone take possession of others'.

12) Cyrus in his speech 'prevent slavery' which showed positive expressive values.

13) In this study (Cyrus charter) agency structure of king (animate process) in sentence are related to the SVO position in sentence which is connected to ideological intention of king in order to stress his responsibility. Majority of sentences structure in Cyrus charter presented in active voice to show active role of king.

14) In terms of topicality, symbols of power, ideology and messages in text cleared out.

15) In terms of thematic, brotherhood, peace, equality, paternalistic themes analyzed. The themes and messages in Cyrus charter signify Iran as glorious country. Its messages may help governors; its messages show friendship and peace. Cyrus charter is ultra nation and ultra time, that is, Cyrus speech not only depended on Iranian nation in the past, but also the nations of others in the past and present. As mentioned in Fairclough's model experimental value is important in lexical analysis. That is, choosing suitable lexicon, their classification, relative meaning formal and informal meaning. Experimental value created in our mind by ideological meaning of lexicon. For instance the experimental value of king in Cyrus will signifies the oppression. King entered Babylon peacefully, not using any war' shows the experimental value of king's power.

16) Cyrus' charter messages are ultra time and ultra nation. It can be beneficial all over the time and everywhere.

In analyzing Cyrus charter dominance of meaning is important, because the symbolic and meaningful lexicon should be dominated and symbolized. The essential themes that can be found in Cyrus charter are: brotherhood, Unitarianism (monotheism), peace, equality, politician, heroism, kindness, paternalistic.

17) These themes within lexical signify significant messages. For instance 'when I entered Babylon' signifies king's power and authority and king's pacifist. Cyrus stops slavery to show the equality in society and also equality between men and women. The feeling of Cyrus toward his country (Pars) was clear from phrase like as "after my death, embalmmen, quickly burry my body to soil.

18) Other themes that was clear in Cyrus charter is his Unitarianism. Cyrus guided nations toward *Ahoramazda* (the only God) while other kings, at the same time imposed their God to nation.

19) The analysis of lexicon in Cyrus charter represent that, in spite of being, *conqueror, militant*, Korus was pacifist, kind and ideal king. When Cyrus entered Babylon, he worships Marduk (Babylon's God) instead of Ahura to show his respect to Babylon's God and proved that there is just one God to worship. According to lexical evidences in Cyrus

charter, Cyrus in Babylon, stopped killing and murdering in Babylon to show his kindness and bravery, he also respect to Babylon's God and made people free in choosing their worship God.

20) Cyrus was the founder of human rights. Cyrus protects human rights, respect to human votes. Cyrus release slavery to show equality and fairness in the society (country). He ordered to reconstruct Tomb to extend Unitarianism (monotheism) among people. Cyrus in his will have used "king" repeatedly that shows his empirical authority and power. He also have used 'may' phrase that refers to his Unitarianism.

21) Cyrus' possessions were several countries that show civilization of Persian in the past time. Cyrus charter glorifies Persian magnificence, friendship and peace.

22) Providence was another theme that is significant in Cyrus speech. His speech was not just for nation of that time, it can be beneficial for all nations in all period.

23) Cyrus in his speech pointed out that he was the emperor of 25 countries that signifies his worldwide power. In all 25 countries, Cyrus issued Persian currency because he believes that king's power related to his wealthy not to his sword because of that Cyrus had powerful treasury.

24) Another theme in Cyrus speech is his intellectuality, as it is cleared from his speech, he was knowledgeable and wise. Cyrus was designer of several objects for the first time. For instance he designed channel, human rights... for the first time. Another theme in Cyrus speech is his trustworthiness and truthfulness, Cyrus hated lying. He tried to be kind and satisfactory with his soldiers and officers. According to Cyrus charter, he was Unitarian, he have used the word my God repeatedly in asking help from his God. Some historian called Cyrus Quran's Zolghamein. That is, they regard Cyrus as prophet. Cyrus charter is the oldest Statement of the human rights .It is a document for pride of Iran. It is a present from Iran to nations who are in war.

In order to arrive at more quantative based result of this analysis, a keyword analysis of frequently used words in Cyrus charter was undertaken, yielding the following results.

The speech consist of 1400 words ,the pronoun 'I' being the absolute champion of this count ,with its absolute occurrences being reaching 39, which can be attributed to an inclusiveness of Cyrus.

Keyword density report for Cyrus charter

Keyword	repeats	density
King	13	10%
Babylon	7	8%
God	10	10%
Nation	6	7%
Kingdom	3	5%
Ahuramazda	4	6%
Monarch	2	3%
Prosperity	6	7%
Region	5	7/5%
Friend	5	7/5%
Fatherland	5	7/5%
Respect	5	7/5%
Enemy	5	7/5%
Worship	4	6%

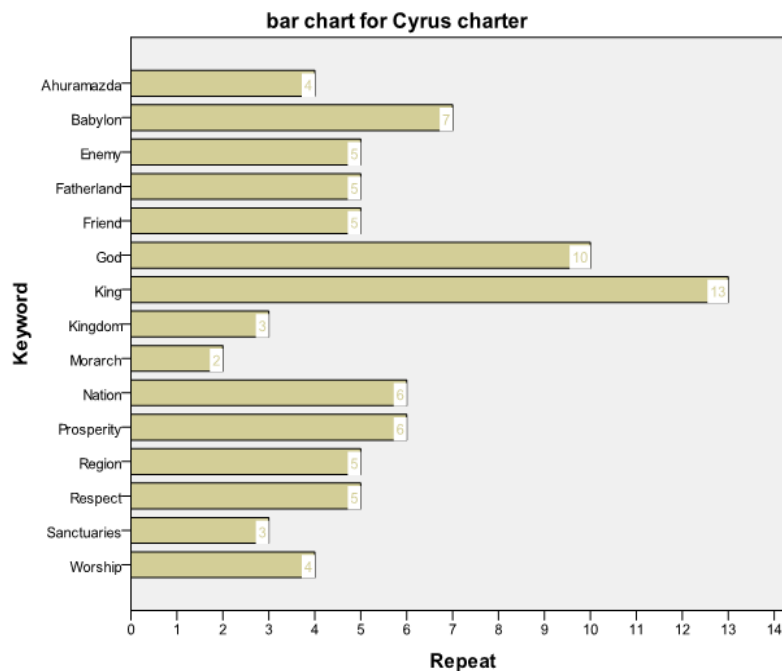


Figure 4 .keyword used in charter and will.

The results of keyword analysis can be interpreted as Cyrus concentrates on the 'king' the most prominent word to present king's power. At the same time the key attribute of Cyrus speech is God, which characterizes Cyrus as monotheism.

Cyrus Will analyzed based on Fairclough's model in the field of description, interpretation and explanation; mainly vocabulary, values in text, embedded meaning, social and cultural reality considered in analysis. Cyrus will consist of different topics, themes and classification; the main topics in Cyrus will were: monotheism, praise, righteous, gratitude avoidance, prosperous, paternalistic, prosperity of Iran and friends, amnesty, respect, faithful friends. The following phrases signify the themes in the text.

'U have never deprive me of your help', signify the monotheism of Cyrus. 'Prosper my wife, children, friends and fatherland', signify the prosperity of Cyrus family, his paternalistic and his love to his land. 'It is queen of Asia', signifies the greatness of Persian land that Cyrus achieved. 'U have learned to respect the old man', signify the importance of respect in Persian culture.

Other themes in Cyrus will were:

- In terms of King's power, Cyrus issued Persian currency in 25 countries.
- Turning to respect, Cyrus made other countries respect to Persian religion and culture that accords with king's power.
- Cyrus stated frequency of clauses with auxiliary 'will' which accords with king's futurity, for instance he recommended strong exchequer and silo to his sun.
- There are numbers of points about vocabulary of the Cyrus will; for instance, avoiding lying emphasizing education, freedom in religion, fairness, that all accords with Cyrus generosity.

themes	charter	will
brotherhood	+	—
peace	+	—
equality	+	+
paternalistic	+	+
monotheism	+	+
fairness	+	+
Righteous	—	+
gratitude	—	+
Praise	—	+
amnesty	+	+
Trustworthy	—	+
Prosperous	—	+
Respect	—	+

Figure 5. Comparison of Themes used in charter and will (mine)

Comparing Cyrus charter and Will, yield following results:

- Cyrus charter is more humanistic.
- Both charter and Will have equal frequency in following themes; brotherhood, fairness, peace, equality
- Charter's focus is toward emancipation of slavery and human rights.
- The similar themes between charter and will refer to king's power, respect, monotheism, equality, amnesty, fairness, paternalistic.
- Prosperity, righteous, gratitude, praise are exclusive themes that just exists in Will.

VI. RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

This paper analyzed the ideological component enshrined in the Cyrus will and charter based on Norman Fairclough's framework in interpreting events, themes, and topics. Analyzing different themes both in charter and will yield different frequencies; for instance frequency of occurrences of emancipation and human rights in charter is a higher level than the Will. Turning to other themes it was clear that equality, brotherhood, and peace emphasized in charter, moreover, amnesty, prosperity, gratitude, monotheism was focused in the Will. Having analyzed the themes of charter and Will, it is concluded that Cyrus was an emperor that nations know him because of his human rights charter. Cyrus had an international and global view in that time. Cyrus's view was extensive in governing country and enacting rules in human rights charter. It seems that observing of charter in modern world will settle down world's religion problems. The analysis of underlined themes in Cyrus charter and will revealed that equality and peace focused by Cyrus in that time. The analysis of embedded meaning of vocabulary in charter revealed that Cyrus was generous towards defeated people; He won the heart of his people permitting them to worship their God. Based on SPSS's bar chart the most repeated word was 'king' which signifies king's power; moreover the pronoun 'I' had occurrence of 39 which also represent Cyrus's inclusiveness. Another more repeated word based on bar chart is the word God which represents king's monotheism. Based on figure 5.(comparison of themes in charter and will), some themes were present in Cyrus's charter which showed charter as more humanistic and peaceful; while Cyrus's will was more prosperous righteous and gratitude. The analysis of sentences and phrases in Cyrus's charter showed that Cyrus was extraordinary peerless in all over the world; He was the first legislative who issued a number of principles in terms of human rights. Cyrus's greatness was because of his abolishing slavery, writing the very first human rights and building the very first stadium (the Apadana in Persepolis). The Consideration of charter rules would be useful for the United Nations to prevent crimes and murders all over the world, nowadays. On the other hand understanding the theme in Cyrus charter and Will yield the following applications.

1. Relying on Cyrus charter will solve the world's problem.
2. Iran would be introduced the founder of human rights.
3. Persian civilization would attract other nations to attend to Persian rich civilization.
3. Cyrus charter will introduce to all nations to apply these rules to solve their problem.

The present study was based on Antoine Simonin's translation; due to availability of several translations other studies are possible based on different frameworks. It is suggested that the next study would hold on the application of the charter in the modern world.

Unfortunately nowadays Cyrus charter ignored to apply in international relations and peace keeping. Cyrus who was founder of human rights should be attended. It is not deserved to destroy Cyrus mausoleum with intentional actions.

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The Application Study of the Interpretive Theory in the College English Course — The Case Study of Qingdao University of Science and Technology

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Abstract—The purpose of College English Course has changed greatly in these years. College English learners are no longer passive ones who take English only as tools for relevant materials, but the real users who can listen with efficiency and speak with fluency. The interpretive theory has provided its comprehension formula and de-verbalization training method for a qualified interpreter. And at same time both the interpreter and non-English majors should listen and understand well. So the essay tries to probe into the connection between the two and the specific application method about the interpretive theory in the College English Course.

Index Terms—College English Course, interpretive theories, comprehension, de-verbalization

I. INTRODUCTION

Danica Seleskovitch and Daniel Gile are great representatives of interpretive theories. They both have a thorough research on the concept of understanding and the factors affecting understanding are clearly pointed out in their monographs. The findings are widely employed in different fields, such as the simultaneous interpreting, the consecutive interpreting, even the practical teaching for English-major students. While these theories of understanding are also of great benefits for non-English major undergraduates in their studies, so the application of the understanding theory in the College English Course is under discussion in this passage.

A. The Concept of Understanding by Seleskovitch

1. General introduction

In the interpretive theory by Seleskovitch the course of interpreting is not a straight line from the source language to the target language but a triangular process as the following figure displays:

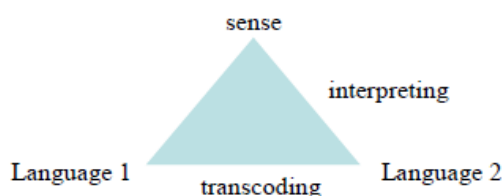


Figure 1 Seleskovitch's Triangular Model of Interpreting

From this figure we can find translation is not a simple mono-directional process, in which an important procedure exists ---- the interpreting of the sense. Seleskovitch (1979) once compare it vividly to unknitting a sweater, where the process of translation from French to English is just like a person undoing a sweater of French style, making a cleaning of the woolen yarn, and knitting it into a new one in British Style. No matter what form it is, either the old French sweater or a new British one, the woolen yarn lying in the mind of an interpreter can not be neglected. Therefore, the process of extraction and conversion of the sense is of great significance for an interpreter.

2. Three stages of translation

The scholars working on the interpretive theory also probe into the translation stages to answer the question “How to extract the underlying sense”. The interpretive theory argues that an interpreter can virtually convert the speaker's speech to the audience of another language via three stages.

Stage one---Interpretation of Discourse. In this stage, the interpreter must catch the linguistic symbols of the source language, and make sure about the information conveyed by these linguistic symbols with the help of linguistic knowledge from the interpreter's former study.

Stage two---De-verbalization. During this stage, the interpreter is to forget the linguistic symbols and language structures of stage one. The conveyed information or the sense exaction is the very thing that he is to commit to memory.

Stage three---reformulation. New sentences of the target language are formed in accordance to the following two

points: the contents are fully covered and the new expressions should follow the linguistic rules of the target language and be easy to understand.

From the study of these three stages, it can be easily found that de-verbalization is an original attainment of the interpretive theory, and it is also an essential procedure in translation. But how can we efficiently extract and convert the sense through de-verbalization to achieve understanding of the highest level? Seleskovitch (1968) pointed out that the generation of sense depends on sufficient common knowledge among the participants. Therefore, in the process of listening an interpreter is not to analyze the language phenomenon, but to recall the cognitive knowledge stored in his brains via a cluster of speeches from the speaker. That is, the production of the sense is the combination of the linguistic knowledge with the cognitive meaning the interpreter perceived in the real world.

3. The feasibility of the interpretive theory for non-English majors

In some capacity, English major students are superior to non-English major undergraduates from the perspective of linguistic knowledge. However, laying more emphases on the language itself, the former have little advantages concerning the cognitive knowledge which can be recalled in the language utilization, whereas the strengths of non-English major college students are fully demonstrated in the following example. "Sodium lauryl sulfate" appearing in the interpretation, for English major students, is no other than a chemical term which is not only difficult to recite but also to some degree something that can never be overcome if they don't know the term. While to the students of chemistry, it is a familiar noun as well as some surfactant which can be applied in the production of tooth paste, shampoo, detergent and even drugs with the features of moistening, decontamination and foaming. The interpreter with the real cognitive knowledge will have little difficulty in understanding and predicting what to translate. So we can find easily that in interpretation the latter is sure to have a better performance than those who have trouble in remembering the special term. From the above analysis, it is obvious that cognitive language is very crucial for English learners to obtain a better understanding. As Seleskovitch remarks "We will never be able to perform a heart transplant, but we must certainly master the terminology well enough to explain it." (Elliott, 1987, p.110)

B. The Understanding Model of Daniel Gile

1. Definition

Daniel Gile (1995), a renowned representative of interdisciplinary empirical approach in ESIT, attached great importance to the significance of understanding in the course of interpreting in his monograph *Basic Concepts and Models for Translator and Interpreter Training*, in which he established basic understanding model: $c=kl+ekl+a$. (c:comprehension; kl: knowledge of the language; ekl: extra-linguistic knowledge; a: deliberate analysis).

This formula indicates that three elements are needed to achieve a rather good understanding: higher level of linguistic knowledge, abundant extra-linguistic knowledge and good capacity of logical analysis. Linguistic knowledge and extra-linguistic knowledge are interdependent, the relationship between which could be best set up by the logical analysis of an interpreter, so that efficient understanding of the source language can show up.

In the past, learning English means to obtain related information in some fields with English as a tool. Whereas, nowadays the goal of College English Course has reversed to fluent communication in English and comprehensive capacity of English utilization, especially in listening and speaking. While a good command of comprehension ability will boost listening correspondingly. And a good listener usually result in a good speaker in English. Therefore, to achieve this purpose, the overall ability for undergraduates should be proportionately developed.

2. knowledge of the language

Knowledge of the language is the basic requirement. As for the present students, most of them began to learn English in their primary school. So at college, they have been endowed with enough foundation and time to grasp some knowledge of language by themselves before lectures. Thus, it is feasible for college English teachers to introduce more theories and practice about comprehensive skills of interpretive theories to them in College English Course.

3. extra-linguistic knowledge

Jean Herbert (1982), a celebrated interpreter, argues that an outstanding interpreter should know everything of something and know something of everything. Professor Zhongshu Kong (1999) also states, an interpreter is to act as an encyclopaedia, who is not only a master of language but also an expert in his major field. For instance, a tourism interpreter should be familiar with the local food culture as well as its local customs and practices; An business interpreter should know business terms and related business affairs as well. As a matter fact, the solid knowledge of language being far from enough, abundant extra-linguistic knowledge can make a trump card for an qualified interpreter.

4. deliberate analysis

In essence, the process of interpreting is a procedure of creation, in which good capacity of logical analysis is the most significant factor. Gengshen Hu (1993), Professor of Tsinghua University, summarizes the stage of interpreting into four words ---- "listening, remembering, thinking, and expressing", all of which are in great relation to logical analysis. "Listening" means not listening passively, but to analyze the source language and filter information to make a good preparation for the next step. "Remembering" includes note-taking and learning by heart. It is storage and extraction of the in-put information after analyzing, filtering, processing and encoding. "Thinking" is the identification, analysis and reconstruction about the source materials. In the end the interpreter should wording carefully to "express" in a fluent way.

C. Comments on the Two Theories

From the above introduction, we can find the both theorists lay emphasis on the factors of better understanding. Cognitive knowledge and extra-linguistic knowledge are put forward, while the two is to some extent of the same connotative meaning. That is, to have a better understanding, the linguistic knowledge is far from enough, the rich outer knowledge can be of a powerful help. In this sense, non-English major college students preponderate over English major ones. So the article is to prove the interpretive theory can be used not only in professional English classes, but also in College English Courses.

II. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A questionnaire on the familiarity of the interpretive theory was conducted among the 500 college students from majors of marketing management, law, software, and physics in Qindao University of Science and Technology. 466 valid copies were collected.

TABLE 1
NON-ENGLISH MAJORS' VIEW ON THE INTERPRETIVE THEORY

options contents	A	%	B	%	C	%	D	%
1. Your familiarity about the interpretive theory?	Rather well.	1.8	Only a little.	39.7	Not much.	43.6	Nothing.	14.9
2. Your opinion about memory training.	Prefer to conduct it.	12.1	Want to have a try.	72.5	No opinion.	9.7	Burdensome and dislike.	5.7
3. Your viewpoint on note-taking training.	Have a fancy on it.	20.4	Want to have a try.	59.9	No opinion.	15	Burdensome and dislike.	4.7
4. Your view on cross-cultural communication.	Have great interest.	45.6	Seems good.	45.4	No opinion.	6.7	Burdensome and dislike.	2.3
5. Ideal training ways	Dual degree lectures.	14.2	Professional training institutes.	16.8	College English Course.	46.8	Selective courses.	22.2
6. Your standpoint on after-class practice.	Glad to do that.	45.2	Not too much is acceptable.	31.9	A little can be accepted.	19.2	Burdensome and dislike.	4.7

As a matter of fact, quantities of students are not satisfied with the traditional teaching mode in College English Class. They are in great desire to improve their listening and speaking capacity, but distressed by no specific and efficient guidance on training and methods.

Whereas, from the above table we can find though the participants have little familiarity on the interpretive theory, yet they have great interest in the detail contents. 46.8% of the candidates show their willingness to learn it in the College English Class, and 45.2% would do after-class training independently, which indicate that a great number of students are willing to accept the interpretive training methods in their College English Courses. Furthermore, the number of students who have interest in cross-cultural knowledge amounts to 90%, which offers a good opportunity to cultivate college students' cross-cultural awareness demanded by College English Curriculum Requirements. (Ministry of Education, 2007).

III. THE APPLICATION STUDY

A. The Application of the Interpretive Theory in the Intensive Reading Class

1. The necessity to reform the current teaching mode

Word explanation, text translation, passage analysis and consolidation exercises are the usual steps in the traditional College English Class. Under this mode the students can not avoid the passive state of listening and taking down notes only no matter how excellent the sentence examples the teacher gives, how clearly the teacher deals with the text, and how thoroughly the exercises are practiced. Under this mode, the number of the willing students to the classroom can never be satisfied no matter how hard the teacher works.

Traditional College Classes can not keep in this condition for good. As a matter of fact, a majority of college students who have realized that their communicative capacity in English for future use is their top priority suffer greatly in the traditional passive class. All above have sounded the note of warning to reform the current intensive reading class.

2. How to perform

Language points such as words and expressions are the bricks for the construction of the language building. We want the building. But what kind of building is it, a hut or a skyscraper? We can choose who are the builders, and who are engineers. Since present undergraduates have been entitled with solid foundation and enough capacity to preview by themselves after years of learning since their primary school. Basic vocabulary can be left for them via reference books or Internet. At this stage, teachers are supervisors to check the process and instruct the key points. Similarly, the main idea of the passage can be made out by learners while teacher's task lies in the explanation of difficult points. Students are to be more active during the course of lecture, in which "student-centered approach" should be adopted. As is seen in the following table.

TABLE 2
LEARNING PROCEDURES OF AN INTENSIVE TEADING PASSAGE

Procedure	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5
Contents	Dealing with difficult sentences	Topic sentences	Key words	Retelling the passage according to the key words	Similar listening materials

From the above table, it indicates that a passage learning means no words, translation and exercises only any longer. With the guidance of the teacher, students learn to find out topic sentences and key words and expressions, according to which a student should represent the passage in his words. Thus, just like a live marionette, the language and information of passage are linked in a string, making them part of their cognitive reservation, which accumulates more and more with the passage of time. Last, one or two listening materials of the similar topic is provided. Some questions are then asked to check how well they understand them. In this case, students can achieve mastery through a comprehensive study of the subject.

Of course the whole procedures are not frozen, teachers should manage the difficulty and pace and convert anytime when necessary according to the students' condition.

B. *The Application of the Interpretive Theory in the Listening Class*

1. Brief introduction of de-verbalization

De-verbalization, an original breakthrough of interpretive theories, is a specific process and positions importantly. The process is compared to a cicada casting off its skin ---to remain the essence (the most important part), which demonstrates that the key point of interpreting is to extract the meaning, and the convey of the meaning is the basic task in interpreting.

To further the discussion, Seleskovitch (1992) proposed a question: "Which one is easier to recite a lecture of 500 words or the plot of a movie about 2 hours?" The answer is obvious. Short as 500-word passage, it is not an easy job than the movie. For the same person, it may take him an hour or so to recite the passage and at the same time it may be a tough job. Whereas, it's much easier for him to remember the movie, much less the details of the plot can be clearly recalled. That is to say, he can remember the whole movie. From the above example, we can find there are two ways to commit something into memory, content-memory method and word-memory method. The feature of the former is that one can easily retell once he understands the content. While the latter may need longer time and repeated memorizing. We can conclude, it may take several hours to recite an article about 1500 words to 2000 words, and the final memorizing must result from the comprehensive understanding and speedy analysis of the contents. However, the audience learns the movie by heart just because he understands it. So the method to remember the movie is the same one to extract the meaning in de-verbalization. Specifically, images only, but no language.

2. De-verbalization in the listening class

Nowadays, the teaching procedure in most college listening class is listening to the material one by one, doing exercises, teacher's explanation, and checking the answers according to the textbooks. Sure, some listening strategies are sometimes introduced and practiced. Here, listening and understanding are the same requirements and phases in interpreting. So it must be feasible and beneficial to introduce the method of de-verbalization to non-English majors in their listening practice.

De-verbalization training in college English listening course can be divided into the following aspects.

a. Divergent thinking practice. Divergent thinking training is of great benefit for kids to develop their imagination and creativity. Active divergent thinking mode can predict efficiently in listening, in correspondence, students can listen better with less difficulty. However, before the national entrance examination, most students are forced just to learn and remember passively. Thus their ability of divergent thinking is greatly curbed. While this ability counts a lot in listening, so teachers should take every means to redevelop it. In fact, the practice is not that difficult. What the teacher should do is to offer the key word for every topic that will be dealt with in the listening material. Then, students are to present anything concerned with the key word. The collected answers are no difference in importance or correction. It's well done that the conclusion is supplied at the end. And the divergent thinking practice will boost jump thinking ability, which will in turn lead to active de-verbalization.

b. Framework constructed by key words. The purpose of divergent thinking practice is to broaden students' thinking scope, producing a substantial amount of information. And this step is to string the seemingly disordered information through some logic. The detail practice is to collect five to eight words which students give in the former practice or from the would-be listening material. Then ask students to make up a paragraph with these words in some logical order. This practice is just like the mentioned knitting process by Seleskovitch. That is the interpreter recall the cognitive knowledge from their minds at the hearing the speaker. Here students' cognitive information awakes and is processed, which is the real conduct of de-verbalization. This step is the key point of de-verbalization training in college English training.

c. Imagery of numbers. Figuring out the framework for a portrait by stringing points is merely a basic step, we need some detailed outlining to make the picture more vivid. Numbers in English passage are this kind of strokes. Because we have different carries in numbers between Chinese and English, students should be familiar with the following units, such as ten thousand, hundred thousand, ten million, and hundred million. On the other hand, the interpreter is required to master big numbers correctly. However, the requirement is much looser for non-English majors. They are only asked

to take down the figures of thousand. The key point for trainees to remember is to write down the numbers they hear quickly in numerical forms, without translating them into Chinese. The practice can be conducted firstly between the teacher and students in class, then among students autonomously, from one sentence to a short paragraph then even longer. Through repeated practice the energy devoted to the numbers in listening must be deducted greatly. Thus the efficiency of listening can be actually promoted.

d. Concretization of the sentence, dialogues and passage. As is known to all there are two types of thinking in our minds ---- left-brain thinking type and right-brain thinking type. Words, speech, numbers and analysis belong to left-brain thinking, which is to some extent a kind of rational thinking. While images, music, shape and color are right-brain thinking type, which features intuitive thinking. So sometimes we define our left-brain as “text brain”, right brain “image brain”. Our right brain will convert what we hear and what we think into pictures and then to think and memorize. Photographic memory, a superb memorizing approach, takes advantage of our right-brain’s image processing ability. For a large chunk of text, our right brain can reflect them in the form of one or several pictures like a camera. In this way the contents of the text can be remembered with a higher speed and for a longer time than left-brain thinking way.

This principle displays the detailed method of de-verbalization in listening practice. That is, at hearing a word, students should learn to form the image of the word in their minds, but not English words or Chinese meaning. For example, about the sentence “An old lady went to the supermarket for some vegetables”, a picture which contains three elements----an old lady, supermarket and vegetables should take shape in students’ mind but not the English sentence or the Chinese translation version. When the information is needed, pictures with information will appear. In this way, full information can be supplied but with no consumption of conversion time. This is so-called removing the language shell, leaving only the meaning. Of course this training needs practicing step by step, from the simple sentence to dialogues and then paragraphs. Actually long-time training, a long passage read to the student, only a few pictures would remain in his mind. But when checked, perhaps, he can handle with few mistakes.

IV. CONCLUSION

Based on the questionnaire on the students of Qingdao University of Science and Technology and the theoretical analysis of the comprehension validity and de-verbalization in interpreting theories, this essay illustrates the specific application practice of some principles of the interpreting theory in the College English Course. From the above analysis we can find non-English majors have more advantages on extra-linguistic knowledge, so they can have a better understanding. In the meanwhile, de-verbalization can facilitate college students’ listening comprehension. All in all with the introduction of new teaching practice in College English Course, students are sure to benefit in their English learning.

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by

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