Journal of Language Teaching and Research

Contents

The Teaching of English as a Second Language: The Case of the National University of Lesotho (NUL)

Beatrice Ekanjume-Ilongo
Department of English, National University of Lesotho, Lesotho

Abstract—The Teaching of English as a second/foreign language is a very thought-provoking, but gratifying exercise. Teachers of English as a second/foreign language encounter several problems while carrying out their profession. This paper argues that teaching English as a second language at the National University of Lesotho (NUL) is a very challenging activity due to several factor. These range from large classes to the level of students admitted at NUL. The paper purports that the students admitted at NUL seem to be unprepared with the content, concepts, and skills they are taught, due to their poor background knowledge from high school. The paper therefore proposes that the English Language curriculum of Lesotho high schools be subject to review by staff members of the Department of English at the NUL, who have a better idea of what they expect of the students from high school. The paper argues that the goal of an English teacher is to excite the students about learning, speaking, reading, writing, and comprehending English.

Index Terms—teaching English, English grammar, second language, challenges

I. INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt, these days, that the English language is becoming the world's language. It is the language of choice in most countries of the word and is playing a very significant role in bringing the world together. The use of English is widespread in science today and in higher education around the world. According to Johansson and Jonsson (2006), 85 percent of all scientific publications in the world are written in English or have a summary in English. In spite of the high interest in the English language, teaching English as a foreign/second language has a lot of difficulties and challenges.

Teaching students who have a limited understanding of the English language is a very demanding and scary task. Since the students of the National University of Lesotho (NUL) speak mostly Sesotho at home and among themselves, some of them hardly utter English words and phrases outside the classroom. This goes a long way to make the teaching of English at NUL difficult, as the students do not practice what they are taught. This is not common only to students of NUL. In fact, most countries which use English as a second or foreign language are faced with the situation of the students underperforming in English as they will always switch to their local languages when challenged by some expressions of English. This is supported by Clegg and Afitska (2011) when they say that "in sub-Saharan Africa, education conducted through a European language is associated with low school achievement. Both teachers and learners may often not be fluent enough to use the language as a medium of instruction. In these circumstances, both also make use of a common African language" (P. 63).

According to Rassool and Edwards (2010) "the dominance of English in many Africa countries is a legacy of colonialism which continues to influence the implementation of multilingual education policies and affects language learning, language use and language choice in bilingual and multilingual communities, schools and classrooms", as is the case with Lesotho. For learners of English language as a second or foreign language, like those in Lesotho, knowing the language does not only provide an extra language for communication, but also represents a vital tool for achieving academic goals and subsequent social mobility (Dhillon & Wanjiru, 2013). In order to establish strategies for successful performance in such target-language detached circumstances, Wray (2006) states that "the development of productive second language teaching and learning initiatives needs to operate alongside a sound understanding of language learning processes".

For the past years members of the English Department have been lamenting about the very poor quality of students we receive from the high school as far as the English Language is concerned. This poor quality cuts across all disciplines in the University, as the English Department teaches all first year students in the common English Language courses called "Communication and Studies Skills" and "Remedial Grammar". These students are noted for being unable to construct correct English sentences both in the written and spoken form, with the spoke form being more scandalous. The situation has been drifting from worse to worst each year and something definitely needs to be done to address the situation before it gets completely out of hand. This paper therefore presents an understanding of the teaching of English at the National University of Lesotho (NUL) and highlights the challenges, difficulties and problems of teaching English at this institution. It also offers an insight of what has to be done by the staff and students

of NUL, as well as the entire NIL community and the Lesotho Government through the Ministry of Education in establishing strategies for successful performance in English. The paper reveals the challenges posed by the context and environment, and the educational system in Lesotho and how these can be overcome.

II. THE LANGUAGE SITUATION IN LESOTHO

Sesotho (or Southern Sotho), a Southern Bantu language, is according to Dalby (2004, p. 576) and Deprez, Du Plessis & Teck (2001, p. 175) the national language of Lesotho, and is spoken by most Basotho. Rosenberg, Weisfelder & Frisbie-Fulton (2005, p. 319), state that "Sesotho was recognized as the national language by the National and Official Languages Bill, ratified by the National Assembly of Lesotho on 12 September 1966, which also established Sesotho and English as the two official languages of the country". The language policy of Lesotho promotes bilingualism (Legère, Fitchat & Akindele 2002) and this is enforced in Chapter one of the Constitution of Lesotho where it is stated that "the official languages of Lesotho shall be Sesotho and English and, accordingly, no instrument or transaction shall be invalid by reason only that it is expressed or conducted in one of those languages" (p. 109).

Baker & Prys Jones (1998, p. 270.) state that "Sesotho is the first language of more than 90 percent of the population and is "used widely as a medium of communication" in day-to-day speech" (p.315). They go further to say that English is reserved for official interactions, such as "government and administration"(p. 270), although the use of Sesotho in politics, religion, and the mass media is growing.

Baker & Prys Jones (1998, p. 361) state that "primary education of children in Lesotho takes place in Sesotho for the first four years, but English becomes the medium of instruction in the fifth year of primary school". According to Legère, Fitchat & Akindele (2002) competence in English is "particularly important ... for educational, political, social and economic transactions in the subcontinent" and facilitates obtaining employment within Lesotho and abroad (p. 114). Although "efforts are made to ensure that Basotho children" learn to read, speak and write English (Webb 1995), many Basotho complete only "basic primary education [and] remain monolingual in Sesotho" (p. 96)

According to Lewis (2009), "an estimated of number 248,000 Basotho speak Zulu (one of the eleven official languages of South Africa); 43,000 speak Phuthi (a Nguni language closely related to Swazi, an official language of South Africa and Swaziland); while 18,000 speak Xhosa (another Nguni language and official language of South Africa)". Speakers of these minority languages typically also speak Sesotho (Baker & Prys Jones 1998: 361). There is also Afrikaans, spoken mainly in South Africa and Namibia, and which according to Lewis (2009), "is mainly an immigrant language".

III. METHODOLOGY

The data for this study was collected by interviewing ten (10) staff members of the National University of Lesotho, five (5) from the Faculties of Humanities and five (5) from the Faculty of Education. Of the ten participants, there were five males and five females. The two Faculties were chosen purposefully because Humanities, through the English department teaches English at the first year to all the students of NUL while Education trains teachers and prepares them for the teaching of English at high schools. The target population in the Faculty of Humanities was staff members from the English Department because these are the people who actually teach English at NUL. In the Faculty of Education, staff members were chosen from those teaching in the Bachelor of Education programme (B.ED), based on availability.

Data was equally collected through interview with some students of the English department. These are students who are doing other courses in the English department, in addition to the common English language courses mentioned earlier. A total of twenty students were used, ten males and ten females. As students majoring in English Language and Linguistics, one would expect their spoken and written English to be of good quality. This is however not the case as they still commit the same spoken and written errors/mistakes committed by students in other majors. The interview was meant to identify the reason(s) why these students find it difficult to use English correctly and what they think can be done to help them. The interview was done orally and the responses were recorded.

The findings of this paper are therefore based on the information obtained from the two groups of participants for this study, and they go a long way to inform the way forward for the teaching of English at NUL in particular and Lesotho in general.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

As already mentioned, the data for this study was collected through interviews with colleagues in the Faculties of Humanities (Department of English) and Education (B.ED Programme), and some students of the National University of Lesotho (NUL).

From the interviews with the lecturers of the two Faculties at NUL, it was generally observed that the major challenge of teaching English at NUL is the poor foundation that NUL students come with from secondary school as captured in the following response from one of the informants:

The teachers of English in most secondary schools in Lesotho (especially the public schools) are themselves poor in the language. Some are even untrained in teaching English as a second or foreign language and therefore cannot provide any good foundation for the students they teach.

Another informant said the following:

These teachers, because of their limited knowledge, make English even more complicated to students and they initiate them into adapting a method which deprives them the communication abilities in English. The teachers therefore tend to make English appeared as a dreadful subject to most students.

The interview also revealed a common concern of the negative attitude that students have towards the English language. Most colleagues have observed that many NUL students are intimidated by English. This, as Clegg and Afitska (2011, p. 65) put it, is partly as a result of the historical reason whereby natives were expected to look up to their British conquerors with fear and respect. The subsequent development and prosperity enjoyed by the Western world placed the English speaking people, their countries and cultures on a high pedestal. As a result, many natives have an innate and unexplained fear of the English language, which makes them shy of handling the language (www.articlesbase.com). The fear of NUL students to speak English was expressed by many informants. The excerpt below is a response from one of the informants with regards to this aspect.

NUL students have been brought up with the attitude of fear speaking English, which now impedes on their learning and handling of the language. They find it difficult and sometimes even impossible to express themselves in English. When they come for assistance to a lecturer, they resort to Sesotho (their native language). Once the lecturer insists that they must speak in English (especially for those lecturers who do not understand or speak Sesotho), the students will simply go away without saying what they came for.

This is a major challenge at NUL and therefore makes the teaching of English difficult, as one is not able to help the students if they are afraid to speak.

One other issue that arose from the interview with both lecturers and students is that of pronunciation. Clegg and Afitska (2011) have observed that "one of the biggest difficulties a teacher faces when teaching English as a second language is to instill proper pronunciation in native speakers". All the teachers of English at NUL are second language speakers of English, and as such they do not have the native speaker's accent. There is therefore the problem of pronunciation not only on the part of the students but also on that of the lecturers. The English language has a number of characteristic features which most foreign speakers do not easily absorb. This explains why different regions have their own English accents leading to the rise of different Englishes. This also explains why many students find it difficult to understand native English. Worse still, the lecturers of English at NUL are from different cultural backgrounds with very different pronunciation in some cases. This can be seen from the following excerpt from one of the students;

The pronunciation of some of the non-Sesotho speaking lecturers confuses us and makes the language even more difficult than it is. We do not understand some of the words they say and we end up writing something different when taking notes during a lesson. It is only when we reproduce those notes in a test for instance, and after being corrected, that we realize that what the lecturer said is not what we wrote down. This makes us get things wrong which we could have gotten right.

It is important to note that the above view was shared by almost all the interviewed students. This therefore implies that there is a gap between the teacher and their student that needs to be addressed before proper teaching and learning can take place.

Another issue that emerged is the fact that the grammar of English has its own set of complicated rules and regulations which students find difficult to master. A good number of NUL students struggle with these rules, and cannot really understand many of the irregularities of English. Most often, the students apply the rules of Sesotho grammar to the English Language and end up with incorrect English sentences. One of the students mentioned in the interview that:

English has a very complex structure unlike my native language Sesotho. So, I prefer using Sesotho all the time and will use English only when it is really necessary like when writing a text, assignment or examination. In fact, if I am given the opportunity to do all these things in Sesotho, I will very happily do so.

Again, this view was shared by almost all the students who participated in this study

There is also a challenge with regards to the poor socio-cultural and financial background of students at NUL vis-à-vis the English Language. Most NUL students come from rural areas with parents who know little or nothing about English. This implies that the students do not speak the language while at home and their performance therefore lacks parental supervision and guidance. Experience has shown that students whose parents live in urban areas and are of a high or even middle class perform better in English because they have the opportunity of speaking or using English outside the classroom. To bridge this gap, the lecturers of English at NUL are expected to expose the students to English as much as possible. This is however difficult to do because NUL students hardly speak in class; and even when they are asked question they are so shy to respond for fear of committing errors and be laughed at by their peers. This is captured in the following excerpt from one of the lecturers:

The poor socio-cultural and financial backgrounds of our students make it difficult for them to fluent in English. Most of their parents do not speak English so they do not use the language at home. Even here at NUL, they always use

Sesotho among themselves because that is the language they are comfortable with. We the lecturers are also not helping them because we also speak Sesotho among ourselves and even to the students all the time.

Another lecturer said the following:

It is true that the society in which our students live is predominantly Sesotho but the students themselves are not making any effort to speak English. When you ask them a question in class, they do not respond not because they do not know the answer but simply because they do not want to speak English. If you ask them the same thing in Sesotho, they quickly respond. I think they are afraid that if they commit errors they will be mocked at by their classmates. As a lecturer, I do not even know how to help them since they do not want to speak the language.

The educational system in Lesotho is another factor which affects the teaching of English language at NUL. It is common knowledge that there exist four main skills the learning of English language namely: the Listening, the Speaking, the Reading and the Writing skills. The educational system in Lesotho seems to concentrate more on the writing skills and probably some little reading, while neglecting and ignoring the Listening and the Speaking skills which play a greater role in communication. Most of the examinations the students do are not language-oriented in terms of testing all the four language skills. Listening is the one basic skill which makes speaking easy. There is no one who can pretend to speak a language without haven listened to it. The lecturers of English and even the students acknowledged during the interview that very little or nothing is done toward the teaching of the listening and speaking skills. This can be seen from the following excerpt by one lecturer.

I think the way we teach English at NUL is also a serious handicap to the students. Although we have a course that is meant to cater for the four language skills, in effect only two of the skills are being taught namely reading and writing. The other two skills, listening and speaking, are not taught partly due to the lack of audio-video material and a language laboratory; and partly because lecturers are not innovative enough to improvise. This is why even the examination paper has nothing to do with listening and speaking skills.

Most of the students had similar views as indicated in the excerpt below.

One of the reasons why I am not confident in speaking English is because I do not trust my speaking skills. In fact, I was never taught speaking skills and so I do not even know what is expected of me. If we can be taught well in all the four language skills, most of us will have the confidence to speak English. So, please, tell our teacher to teach us listening and speaking skills. We do not have a problem with the reading and writing skills because they are taught to us.

One of the lecturers raised the following concerns:

How do I teach the speaking skills to a class of more than 200 students? I cannot get more than 200 students to speak in one class. It cannot work. In fact, even the reading and writing skills are mainly theoretical. It is difficult to do any practical teaching in a large class like mine.

From the above excerpts, it is clear that NUL students are disadvantaged of their speaking abilities due to lack of proper guidance with regards to the teaching of the listening and speaking skills. This may be one of the reasons why they have not been able to speak English in a proper manner. The Department of English should come up with a well-designed and comprehensive course for the teaching of the listening and speaking skills. The NUL management should see to it that lecture halls are equipped with language teaching materials. Lecturers should encourage speaking in the classroom and make sure that the Student Talking Time (STT) is maximized. As Hornberger and Vaish (2008) put it, "insufficient mastery of written and oral expression, inherent in the difficulties arising in respect of language and enhanced by the lack of opportunities for total immersion in a language will lead to inefficient learning" (p. 308).

Another major challenge that emerged from the interviews is that of large numbers of students in the English Language class at NUL. At NUL, most of the practical English Language classes range from 180 to 300 students. This makes the teaching of such classes practically impossible. With a class of these numbers, it is difficult to get a satisfactory knowledge of student's needs. Lecturers of such classes find it difficult to have any close relationship with the students thereby making it impossible to monitor students' progress. Lecturers actually find it difficult to engage all the learners actively in the learning process. Most English language lecturers at NUL therefore are not able to measure the effectiveness of their lessons as well as the degree to which students grasp what is being taught. This remains a major challenge and causes serious problems as far as teaching English at NUL is concerned. The above arguments are supported by the following excerpt from one of the lecturers.

My classes are too big – not less than 200 any given year. With this kind of class, how do you expect me to teach effectively to the satisfaction of all the students? I find it difficult to monitor them, or even assist them since I do not even know their needs. Most often, I do the talking because there is no way I can get all of them to talk. I don't even know most of them, except for the few ones who are always at the front of the class and respond to questions from time to time. I have tried to use several techniques to see how I can solve this problem of class size but my efforts have not been fruitful. If my class is divided into smaller groups of about 50, I will be able to interact with the students and even identify their specific needs. I can then be in a better position to address their individual needs.

Lastly and perhaps the more prominent challenge of teaching English at NUL is the way in which the education system in Lesotho high schools is organized and regulated. Most NUL lecturers of English and those of the Faculty of Education are lamenting on the quality of students received from Lesotho high schools with regards to their knowledge of English. It is a general concern that the English Language syllabus at Lesotho high schools does not equip the

students with the skills they need to grasp what is taught at the university level. NUL English Language lecturers are therefore of the view that the English language curriculum of Lesotho high schools should be subject to review by the English language Department of NUL, in collaboration with the members of the B.ED programme in the Faculty of Education as seen in the following excerpt.

The level of English of the students we admit into NUL is very low and I believe this is not just because of the teachers and their teaching methods and other factors. I think the English syllabus used in Lesotho high schools needs to be reviewed. That syllabus should be given to us here at NUL for review because we know what we expect of the students when they get here. We will be able to guide them on what they should teach so that they prepare the students well enough for the English taught here at NUL.

V. DISCUSSION

Before delving into this section, it is important to note that it is somehow the responsibility of the teachers to see to it their learners are given the assistance they need in order to become skillful in the English language. Several things can be done at various levels to make the teaching of English at NUL more effective, efficient and productive. There are things that need to be done by the lecturers, students, NUL community as a whole and finally the Lesotho government through the ministry of education.

As already mentioned, it is the responsibility of NUL English Language lecturers to see to it that the language is taught effectively and efficiently. They have to look for means of addressing the challenges and difficulties mentioned in the previous section.

Beginning with the issue of class size, it is undoubtedly very difficult for any teacher to deal with large classes. Lecturers of English at NUL have tried several techniques to remedy the problem of large classes, but the efforts have most often been less fruitful as most of the lecturers said during the conversations. None the less, the intensity of the situation can be alleviated if NUL English language lecturers can train their students to work in small groups where each of them could have a chance to participate in an activity, either inside or outside the classroom setting. These groups should include fewer members to avoid any of the students coasting, and they should be given active roles so that they do not rely on other students to do the work and thus become lazy. In practical English language lessons, pair work is a good alternative to practice conversations, exercises and other language activities. NUL English language lecturers should therefore pair their students so that they spur each other to speak. The lecturers might decide to pair the weaker students with the stronger ones while at the same time making sure that the weaker students are not or do not feel intimidated by the stronger one(s). In this way, the idea of class size being a handicap to the teaching of speaking skills can be alleviated.

NUL lecturers of English have to understand the needs of each of the students they are teaching. While teaching English as a Second language, it is very common to find that the English language proficiency and academic experience of the students varies greatly. In order to help every student improve, NUL English Language lecturers have to understand every individual student's level of language proficiency and educational history. This will enable them to know how to adapt their teaching material, and also the pedagogical method to use while teaching so that none of the students will feel being left out.

It is also very important for NUL English language lecturers to establish a more personal relationship with every student. By simply making each student aware that you as a lecturer are taking interest in their studies, you are in effect creating an enjoyable learning environment which serves as a motivation for the student. Despite the large classes at NUL, English language lecturers can still have this personal relationship with their students through the use of technology which will ensures that every student has time to connect with the teacher. This can be done through the use of a blog or email, WhatsApp, and particularly through THUTO – the intranet system developed by NUL. This will give the students the opportunity to express themselves without fear of committing errors. It will also go a long way to help shy students and others who are usually reserved to express themselves more freely and open up to the lecturer as they become more and more comfortable

Lecturers of English at NUL should make sure that the students they teach are aware of what is actually happening in each lesson. Some NUL students may not be able to understand certain instructions that are provided by their teachers due to their limited knowledge of the English language. They may therefore not be aware of what is actually taking place in a particular lesson or class. It is a very common phenomenon that NUL students shy from asking questions in class. NUL English Language teachers have to encourage their students to interact in class by asking for clarification when they do not understand certain instructions. Hongmei (2013), "by reminding the students of noticing the communication obstacles and providing enough repetitions of knowledge about language, the teacher and students can collaborate well to realize the teaching aim through classroom interaction" (p. 124). Classroom interaction is very important as it helps the students to use the language they are being taught and also enables the teacher to see if the students are grasping what is being taught. This is supported by Walsh (2006: 130) who claims that Possessing Classroom Interactional Competence becomes one essential language capability for a lecturer who is teaching English as a foreign or second language. NUL English language lecturers should use reflective and exploratory teaching as good ways to build the knowledge on English for classroom interaction. They should make the students aware of the vital information they are passing across in each lesson and allow enough time for questions from the students. The lecturers

should request the students to present in writing what they understood in each lesson, and also what they did not understand. The information given by the students can be used as a starting point for the subsequent lesson. This will not only enable NUL lecturers of English to have control of the class, but will also serve as a motivating factor to the students.

Learning a second language requires an ability to overcome a fear of saying the wrong thing. Students are afraid to speak because they do not want to commit mistakes. As a result they are often speechless even when they have something to say. To make speaking much easier for NUL students, the lecturers should make the classroom a comfortable setting. This is because once the students feel threatened or intimidated, they will resort to silence. The correction of students' errors should therefore be done cautiously, so as not to scare them from speaking. Also, the listening and speaking skills should be taught irrespective of the challenges. Lecturers should be innovative and creative enough to come up with solutions on how to teach these skills.

NUL English language lecturers do not have to attempt to abolish accents when teaching pronunciation of English words to their students. What is essential is for the students to be able to speak lucidly. The lecturers themselves must communicate clearly and reiterate on those words that are problematic to articulate. They should be able to assist their students with how specific sounds (particularly the difficult ones) are produced. Encouraging learners to speak slowly may go a long way in making them pronounce words in the correct way.

There is no way NUL students can make a better progress in the learning of English, if they are not encouraged to converse more frequently in English. NUL Lecturers of English should request their students to communicate more in the English Language outside the classroom and where possible participate in those activities that require the use of English. The lecturers should give the students as much reading exercises as possible as well as oral presentation exercises to enable them express themselves in English as frequently as possible.

NUL staff members as a whole should help NUL students to speak English more often and comprehensibly. There is a tendency at NUL for staff members (both teaching and non-teaching) to speak Sesotho (their native language) all the time. Both the academic and non-academic staffs as well as the students seem to be intimidated by the English language and therefore have developed an attitude towards the language. This attitude should be discouraged by making English the official working language at NUL. This will give the students of NUL the opportunity to have a population with whom they can regularly speak English (especially those ones who come from backgrounds where English is never spoken), and put into practice what they have learned.

NUL students on their part should develop a positive attitude towards the English Language. They should be aware of the fact that English, not Sesotho, will open many doors for them into the world at large and should therefore embrace the language with determination and commitment. They should be equally active in developing successful language learning strategies. NUL students should adopt learning strategies that involve the use of minimal teaching resources and which can support their learning of English as a second or foreign language and at the same time serve as a tool for reflective language learning. By so doing, they will as Dhillon and Wanjiru (2013) put it, "promote self-motivation, autonomy and inventiveness amongst themselves and hence support their development as learners as well as their proficiency as language users" (p. 23).

In addition to the above suggestions, the issue of the English language curriculum and syllabus at Lesotho high schools should be taken seriously. It is important to note that education is not just about teaching and learning, but is most often the best and essential means of laying the foundations for any economic, social or cultural development of a nation vis-à-vis other nations. This is supported by Rassool and Edwards (2010: 279) who say that an education system accordingly develops in accordance with not only the specific characteristics of its own country but also international norms as reflected in the system of some other country. The English language syllabus in Lesotho high schools should be developed according to a frame of reference that extends beyond the nation and the region taking into consideration the knowledge and savoir-faire existing in the immediate environment.

The education system in Lesotho should not be based on an approach to the organization of school work and a rate of learning centred on the teacher, who is regarded as the learners' only interlocutor. The system should put in place mechanisms that will encourage usage of the English both in and out of classroom situation, by organizing for instance regular after class activities such as debates and others that will give the learners the opportunity to use English as often as possible.

The Lesotho education system, like most others in Africa, is mostly centered on teaching toward passing an examination. The teachers at high school therefore use teaching methods that lead students develop cramming and memorising tactics. These tactics do not encourage students to think on their own. Rather, they rely on notes given by the teachers. This should be discouraged at all cost. Creative thinking in classroom should be introduce right from high schools so that by the time the students get to the university they are already independent thinkers who do not have to rely strictly on the lecturer. Urging students to think helps them to implement a skill that will undoubtedly benefit them even after their studies.

VI. CONCLUSION

This article has highlighted and discussed the challenges involved in teaching English as a second language at the National University of Lesotho (NUL). The discussions are based on teachers and students perception of the teaching of

English at NUL. The findings show the intricate and varied challenges for teaching English at NUL. The English language foundation that NUL students come with from high school was found to be one of the main contributing factors to the challenges faced by NUL lecturers in the teaching of English. It is observed that there is a conflicting and un-enforced school language policy in Lesotho in general which leads students to seem to prefer using Sesotho (their Mother Tongue) to English at school, and this adds to the complexity of the challenges faced by lecturers of English at NUL.

Moreover, an examination-oriented educational system, like the one found in Lesotho leads to what Dhillon and Wanjiru (2013) refer to as, "instructional pressure and literacy focused learning of English leaving little space for creative and innovative communicative language learning opportunities". At NUL, the situation is compounded by the improper staff versus student ratio. Because of the high numbers, lecturers are not able to focus on the four basic skills of English language – Listening, Reading, Speaking and Writing. These challenges may suggest that the teaching and learning of English at NUL is languorous. However, the lecturers are making tremendous efforts in finding successful strategies for the teaching of English at NUL. This includes the use of varied instructional approaches, the creation of a convenient and suitable classroom environment and making the students to be psychologically contented and prepared to engage in all the activities of language learning including seeking assistance from their lecturers even outside the classroom. Lecturers of English at NUL are also encouraged to introduce creative thinking in their classroom. This could be done through group projects where students can create concepts of their own all in English and present them to their classmates, or simply by asking questions that drive them to think beyond their common opinions.

The paper has equally shown that classroom interaction goes a long way to help students in mastery what they are being taught, as well as helping the teachers to assess the teaching/learning situation in their classes. Since interaction carries more meanings in a classroom context, NUL lecturers of English should focus enough attention to it making sure that they give the students enough opportunities to use the English language in classroom through interaction. The classroom interaction will prepare the students for public speaking and give them enough practical knowledge of the language.

REFERENCES

[1] Asfaha, Y. M., and Kroon, S. (2011). Multilingual education policy in practice: Classroom literacy instruction in different scripts in Eritrea. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 41(2), 229-246.

[2] Baker, Colin; Prys Jones, Sylvia (1998). Encyclopedia of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education. Multilingual Matters Ltd: UK

[3] Clegg, J., and Afitska, O. (2011). Teaching and learning in two languages in African classrooms. *Comparative Education*, 47 (1), 61-77.

[4] Dalby, Andrew (2004) [1998]. Dictionary of Languages: The Definitive Reference to More Than 400 Languages. New York: Columbia University Press.

[5] Deprez, Kas; Du Plessis, Theo; Teck, Lut (2001). Multilingualism, the Judiciary and Security Services: Belgium, Europe, South Africa, Southern Africa. Van Schaik.

[6] Dhillon, J. K. and Wanjiru, J. (2013). Challenges and strategies for teachers and learners of English as a Second Language: the case of an urban primary school in Kenya. *International Journal of English Linguistics*; Vol. 3, No. 2: 14 – 24.

[7] Hongmei Zhu (2013). Constructing EFL Classroom Interactional Knowledge in Teacher Education. *International Journal of English Linguistics*; Vol. 3, No. 6: 119 - 127

[8] Hornberger, N. H., and Vaish, V. (2008). Multilingual language policy and school linguistic practice: Globalization and English-language teaching in India, Singapore, and South Africa. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative Education*, 39 (3), 305-320.

[9] Johansson, I. and Jonsson, B. (2006). Effects of Teaching in English at Swedish Universities. Proceedings of the EDU-COM 2006 International Conference. Engagement and Empowerment: New Opportunities for Growth in Higher Education, Edith Cowan University, Perth Western Australia, 22-24 November 2006. Retrieved from http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ceducom/80 on 4th September 2014 at 10am.

[10] Legère, Karsten; Fitchat, Sandra; Akindele, Femi Dele, eds. (2002). Talking freedom: Language and democratisation in the SADC Region. Windhoek: Gamsberg Macmillan.

[11] Lewis, M. Paul (ed.), (2009). Ethnologue: Languages of the World, Sixteenth edition. Dallas, Texas: SIL International. Retrieved from http://www.ethnologue.com/16 on 7th September, 2014 at 3pm.

[12] Mazrui, A. M., and Mazrui, A. A. (1992). Language in a multicultural context: The African experience. *Language and Education,* 6 (2-4), 83-98.

[13] Rassool, N., and Edwards, V. (2010). Multilingualism in African schools: Constraints and possibilities. *Language and Education*, 24 (4), 277-81.

[14] Rosenberg, Scott; Weisfelder, Richard F.; Frisbie-Fulton, Michelle. (2005). Historical dictionary of Lesotho. Lanham, Maryland: Scarecrow Press.

[15] The Constitution of Lesotho" (PDF). ACE Electoral Knowledge Network. (1993). Retrieved from http://www.ecs.sc/pages/legislations/constitution.aspx on 8th August 2014 at 4pm.

[16] Walsh, S. (2006). Investigating the Classroom Discourse. Routledge: New York.

[17] Webb, Victor N., ed. (1995). Empowerment through language: a survey of the language situation in Lesotho and selected papers presented at the Second International LiCCA Conference, the LiCCA (Lesotho) report. LiCCA Research and Development Programme.

[18] Yang, X.-Y. (2003). The review of western researches on foreign language classroom interaction. *Foreign Language Teaching,* 1, 51-62.

Beatrice Ekanjume-Ilongo was born in Cameroon in 1974 and did her tertiary education in the University of Yaounde 1 Cameroon where she obtained a PhD in Linguistics in 2006.

She is an Associate Professor of Linguistics in the Department of English and the Dean of the Faculty of Humanities at the National University of Lesotho. She has previously worked in the universities of Yaounde 1 Cameroon and Burundi. Her research interests include Phonetics, Phonology, Morphology, Sociolinguistics, African Linguistics, Error Analysis, Onomastics, Communication and Pragmatics.

Prof. Ekanjume-Ilongo is a member of the West African Linguistic Society, Names Society of Southern Africa, AILA Africa ReN (Applied Linguistics and Literacy in Africa and the Diaspora), Linguistic Association of SADC Universities, and Cameroon Association of African Linguistics. She has published in several accredited journals in her areas of research interest, including a book on Phonology and a forthcoming one on Phonetics.

Learner Autonomy: The Role of Motivation in Foreign Language Learning

Hui-ju Liu

Department of English, Da-Yeh University, Changhua, Taiwan

Abstract—Among the many learner variables that may influence language learning, autonomy is a very unique one because it involves learners being responsible for their own learning. In the current study, autonomy is operationally defined as a construct comprising three components: sense of responsibility, engagement in learning activities, and perceived ability. This study aimed to provide insights into the construct and gain a further understanding of its relationship with motivation among students learning English as a foreign language. The sample included university freshmen who were non-English majors and were taking required English classes at the time of the study. The results suggested that participants possessed a satisfactory level of autonomy when asked about their perceptions of responsibility, whereas they tended to possess an unsatisfactory level of autonomy regarding engagement in learning activities inside or outside the classroom. In addition, the results indicated that students of all three proficiency levels tended to perceive their ability as being mediocre. Significant differences in all three aspects of learner autonomy were observed for participants with different motivation levels. Furthermore, the findings establish that motivation and autonomy had a high level of positive correlation. Engagement frequency of learning activities had the strongest association with motivation, followed by perceived ability and responsibility. Finally, the results revealed that motivation effectively contributed to predicting autonomy, accounting for a relatively high amount (50%) of variance in the dependent variable.

Index Terms—language learning, autonomy, motivation, English proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning a second language has often been considered a complicated process because of various factors that may affect both the linguistic and nonlinguistic outcomes of learners (Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999). Some of the factors are affective variables (e.g., motivation), whereas others are cognitive variables (e.g., learning strategies) (Arnold & Brown, 1999). The importance of individual differences associated with language learning has been recognized in numerous studies. Modifying instructions according to the individual requirements of language learners and enabling learners to become more motivated is an educational goal that should be integrated into learning activities inside and outside the classroom. Moreover, researchers such as Benson (2001 book) have indicated that students should learn to adjust to a learner-centered learning approach because education is gradually shifting away from the traditional authority-oriented mode (Chen, Chen, & Lee, 2008; Egel, 2009; Sakai, Takagi, & Chu, 2010; Yu, 2005).

The aim of this study was to investigate comprehensively the association between motivation and autonomy, two variables that have been found to be closely related (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Liu, 2012 eFLT). Ushioda (1996) defined autonomy as "being involved in and taking responsibility for one's learning in all its aspects," and motivation as "taking charge of the affective dimension of that learning experience" (p. 2).

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Foreign Language Learning Motivation

According to Masgoret and Garder (2003), a motivated learner "expends effort, is persistent and attentive to the task at hand, has goals, desires, and aspirations, enjoys the activity, makes attributions concerning success and/or failure, is aroused, and makes use of strategies to aid in achieving goals." As maintained by Oxford and Shearin (1996), motivation is a crucial determinant of the extent to which learners are actively involved in learning a second or foreign language. Extensive studies have been undertaken to examine the role of motivation in language learning because not only instructors but also researchers have considerable interest in this crucial variable. In addition, various attempts have been made to define motivation by applying different models and theories, such as the socioeducational model (Gardner, 1985, 1988; Gardner & Smythe, 1975), expectancy–value theory (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000; Wigfield, Eccles, & Rodriguez, 1998), and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b).

Gardner and Lambert (1959), the pioneers of research in this area, first proposed instrumental–integrative dichotomy, and since then, their study has inspired numerous studies on motivation. Instrumental orientation refers to a learner's desire to learn a foreign language for pragmatic purposes, and integrative orientation refers to a learner's desire to identify with the target language culture. In the socioeducational model later proposed by Gardner and Smythe (1975; Gardner, 1985), the two variable categories of integrativeness and attitude toward the learning situation were posited to

influence motivation in the language learning process. Integrativeness can be measured according to attitude toward the target language group, interest in foreign languages, and integrative orientation. Attitude toward the learning situation can be assessed through attitude toward the language course and teacher. Motivation in this model is composed of three components: (1) effort expended to achieve a goal, (2) desire to learn the language, and (3) attitude toward the task of learning the language (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

The other influential motivation theory is the self-determination theory. Ryan and Deci (2000a, 2000b) conceptualized motivation on a continuum from the lowest to the highest levels of self-determination, with amotivation and intrinsic motivation at opposite ends. Furthermore, from the lower end to the higher end, four more extrinsic motivation levels can be distinguished, namely, external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000; Otis, Grouzet, & Pelletier, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Intrinsically motivated learners may determine to participate in an activity for pure interest, enjoyment, and satisfaction, whereas extrinsically motivated learners act for utilitarian benefits such as passing an exam.

Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) conducted a large-scale study, evaluating the internal structure of motivation by using structural equation modeling to analyze the data of 4765 Hungarian elementary school-aged children. The researchers examined the interrelationships among seven motivational components: instrumentality, attitude toward the target language speakers or community, cultural interest, vitality of the target language community, perceived influence of significant others, and linguistic self-confidence. The results established that integrativeness, the original concept proposed by Gardner, was the most crucial factor in the theoretical framework. Attitude toward the target language speakers or community and instrumentality were found to be the two antecedents of integrativeness. On the basis of the results, Csizér and Dörnyei redefined integrativeness as the "Ideal [Second Language] Self" (p. 30). In addition, they provided a new definition of motivation: "the desire to achieve one's ideal language self by reducing the discrepancy between one's actual and ideal selves" (p. 30).

Considerable efforts have been exerted in exploring the relationship between motivation and other language learning-related variables, such as academic performance (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Liu, 2010; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996) and learning strategy use (MacIntyre & Noels, 1996; Okada, Oxford, & Abo, 1996; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001). Positive connections between motivation and the abovementioned variables have been consistently found in existing studies. For instance, to afford insights into motivation, Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy (1996) constructed a 100-item questionnaire for measuring student motivation, preference for instructional activities, and learning strategies. According to data collected from 1554 adult learners of three proficiency levels, the results revealed a three-dimensional model that may account for 85% of the variance of motivation, namely, a model comprising affect (intrinsic motivation), goal orientation (extrinsic motivation), and expectancy (positive thinking). The construct of motivation was related to preferences for certain instructional activities, learning strategies, and language proficiency. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) demonstrated that motivation is the most influential factor affecting strategy use; learners with high motivation used various strategies more frequently than did learners with low motivation. Similarly, in a study conducted by Lan and Oxford (2003) on a sample of 379 elementary school children in Taiwan, the degree of liking English, an indicator of learning motivation, strongly affected the choice of learning strategy, followed by gender and language proficiency. In another study conducted in Taiwan involving ability-grouped university students, Liu (2010) concluded that there is a moderate and significant correlation between student listening proficiency and English as a foreign language (EFL) motivation ($r = .40$). In addition, there is a slightly lower correlation between student reading proficiency and motivation ($r = .37$).

B. Autonomy and Language Learning

Benson (2001) considered autonomy as the capacity to "take control of one's own learning" (p. 47). Over the past few decades, autonomous learning has been considered crucial for several reasons. First, assisting students to become more effective and independent learners it is an educational goal for teachers (Smith, 2008). Second, language education is shifting toward a learner-centered approach (Benson, 2001; Ciekanski, 2007; Egel, 2009; Sakai, Takagi, & Chu, 2010; Sims, 2012; Ushioda, 1996), particularly when there is easy access to multimedia resources to help learners learn independently outside the classroom. Third, autonomy is considered a fundamental human need that can enhance learners' intrinsic motivation (Little, 1989, 2007; Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan, 2002).

According to Ryan and Deci (2000a), to foster intrinsic motivation, the basic needs to feel related, competent, and autonomous must be supported. Autonomy enables learners to gain the experience of being self-determined rather than being controlled. Ushioda (1996) contended that "without motivation, there is no autonomy" (p. 40). The association between autonomy and motivation in language acquisition has been recognized by many researchers, such as Fukuda, Sakata, and Takeuchi (2011) and Ushioda (1996). Dickinson (1995) claimed that autonomy can reinforce motivation. Zhou, Ma, and Deci (2009) distinguished between "autonomous motivation" and "controlled motivation," revealing the importance of autonomy in motivating Chinese children (p. 492). In a study exploring relations among language anxiety, motivation, autonomy, and proficiency among university students in Taiwan, Liu (2012) established that autonomy and motivation are strongly correlated. Although motivation had a high level of association with language proficiency, autonomy was the best predictor of language proficiency among the studied variables.

The link between autonomy and motivation was also supported by Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan (2002), who

reported that more motivated language learners tended to engage in more autonomous learning practices outside class. In an investigation conducted in Hong Kong, university students' perceptions of their responsibilities, activities inside and outside the classroom, decision-making abilities in learning English, and their motivation levels were measured. The results not only supported the positive relation between autonomy and motivation but also revealed that a lack of motivation may debilitate the development of learner autonomy.

Pu (2009) examined autonomous learning and its relationship with motivation in a web-based computer-assisted language learning context in southern China. The participants comprised students from five universities. Findings of the study revealed that autonomous learning capacity was strongly linked to motivation in the technology-based English classroom. Although the results indicated an intermediately high level of autonomous learning capacity and a medium level of motivation among the participants, Pu suggested that students require more guidance from teachers to learn more effectively in the new nontraditional environment.

C. Research Questions

This study provided a comprehensive examination of the relationship between learner autonomy and motivation. The major research questions addressed include the following: (1) What is the general profile of learner autonomy among the students of different proficiency levels? (2) Do students with varying motivation levels differ significantly regarding learner autonomy? (3) Is motivation a significant predictor of learner autonomy? If it is, how much does it contribute to the prediction of autonomy? The findings of this study can be a crucial reference for EFL teachers and promote more effective and independent language learning among EFL students.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The sample comprised 150 first-year university students (70 men and 80 women) who were non-English majors enrolled in a regular private university in Central Taiwan. They all participated in an English proficiency placement test before taking required English four-skill courses. Two classes of students from three ability levels were recruited to participate in the study: 45 basic-, 53 intermediate-, and 52 advanced-level students.

B. Instruments

A 26-item Chinese version of a motivation scale adopted by Liu (2012) was used to measure the participants' motivation in the present study. The scale was adapted from the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery by Gardner (1985) and consisted of three subscales: attitude toward learning English (nine items), motivational intensity (eight items), and desire to learn English (nine items). All items were scored on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). The internal consistency reliability index for the complete scale was .90.

A 43-item questionnaire based on the instruments developed by Chan, Spratt, and Humphreys (2002) and adapted by Üstünlüoğlu (2009) was used to measure learner autonomy in the present study. The 5-point Likert-type Chinese version was developed by Liu (2012) and consisted of three sections: sense of personal responsibilities (1, *not at all*; 2, *a little*; 3, *some*; 4, *mainly*; 5, *completely*), frequency of engaging in both extracurricular and in-class activities (1, *never*; 2, *rarely*; 3, *sometimes*; 4, *often*; 5, *always*), and a self-evaluation of personal decision-making ability (1, *very poor*; 2, *poor*; 3, *OK*; 4, *good*; 5, *very good*). Students rated their responses to each item on the 5-point Likert scale. The alpha coefficient for the complete scale was .89.

C. Data Analysis

To depict the general profile of autonomy among students of different proficiency levels, descriptive statistics of the autonomy scale and subscale scores categorized into three ability levels were computed. To determine whether learner autonomy varied substantially according to language motivation levels, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted on the autonomy (1) overall scale, (2) subscale, and (3) individual item scores. To ascertain the relationship between autonomy and motivation, Pearson's product–moment correlations of all overall scale and subscale scores of the related variables were obtained. Finally, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted on the data to assess the predictive power of motivation on learner autonomy.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations of the autonomy scores for each proficiency level. Except for the scores for sense of responsibility for the intermediate-level students that were lower than those for the basic-level students, autonomy subscale and overall scale scores increased as learner levels of proficiency improved. Because all items in the autonomy scale were rated on the 5-point Likert scale, assuming that an average item score exceeding 3.5 indicates a satisfactory positive indication of learning autonomy is reasonable. By contrast, according to the criterion established by Oxford (1990) for evaluating learning strategy use, a score below 2.5 signifies a poor level of autonomy, and any score between 2.5 and 3.5 suggests a mediocre level of autonomy. The results in Table 2 show that students, regardless of their English proficiency level, had quite a strong sense of responsibility about their academic performance. Of the 12 items on this subscale, scores of seven items (seven item scores; 58%) exceeded 3.5 for basic-

and intermediate-level students. The top three items with the highest scores for the two groups of students were (1) deciding how long to spend on each learning activity (Item 9), (2) deciding what to learn outside class (Item 12), and (3) compelling oneself to work harder (Item 5). For advanced-level students, nine items (75% of the items in this subscale) had an average score exceeding 3.5, with the highest scores for Item 2 (4.37, ensuring that one would make progress outside English class), Item 5 (4.35), and Item 12 (4.27).

TABLE 1
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF AUTONOMY SCORES BY STUDENTS AT DIFFERENT PROFICIENCY LEVELS

Autonomy Subscale	Basic		Intermediate		Advanced	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Responsibility	43.00	5.42	42.31	8.98	45.98	4.65
Activities	46.11	9.86	49.83	10.80	58.60	8.17
Extracurricular	34.69	7.78	36.55	8.93	43.89	7.20
In-Class	11.42	3.09	13.28	3.35	14.71	2.41
Ability	26.86	6.12	29.47	7.24	32.52	5.50
Overall	115.96	14.81	121.61	22.27	137.10	14.20

Note. Basic = Basic English proficiency level; Intermediate = Intermediate English proficiency level, Advanced = Advanced English Proficiency Level; Overall = Autonomy Overall Scores

TABLE 2
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF STUDENT RESPONSES TO INDIVIDUAL ITEMS ABOUT LEARNER AUTONOMY

Item No.	Basic		Intermediate		Advanced	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Responsibility						
1	3.57	.94	3.66	.96	4.15	.61
2	3.86	.92	3.64	1.04	4.37	.63
3	3.27	.77	3.09	.95	3.56	.85
4	3.68	.82	3.70	1.03	3.85	.78
5	4.07	.50	3.79	1.06	4.35	.65
6	3.40	1.03	3.68	1.09	3.85	.80
7	3.21	.99	3.35	.98	3.46	.85
8	3.55	.84	3.36	.98	3.69	.70
9	4.19	.65	4.02	1.01	4.15	.85
10	2.86	1.06	3.02	.95	3.00	.97
11	3.26	.91	3.26	1.08	3.29	.85
12	4.09	.85	3.74	1.18	4.27	.72
Average1	3.58	.45	3.53	.75	3.83	.39
Extracurricular Activities						
13	1.82	.78	2.04	.78	2.33	.65
14	2.07	.84	2.40	.97	2.63	.74
15	2.64	.88	2.70	.93	3.44	.94
16	1.69	.82	1.90	.81	2.29	.85
17	1.96	.85	2.25	.92	2.69	.85
18	2.42	1.16	2.57	1.05	3.08	1.12
19	1.44	.62	1.47	.67	1.98	.80
20	1.82	.86	2.09	.99	2.48	1.06
21	3.96	.98	3.64	.96	4.35	.71
22	1.69	.67	2.04	.94	2.46	.85
23	1.71	.84	1.98	.84	2.37	.69
24	2.00	.83	2.02	1.01	2.42	.85
25	3.67	1.19	3.60	1.31	4.19	.79
26	1.40	.62	1.57	.72	1.88	.78
27	2.56	1.16	2.08	1.05	2.83	.98
28	1.84	.71	2.21	.95	2.46	.87
In-Class Activities						
29	2.04	.74	2.49	.91	2.65	.91
30	3.22	1.00	3.57	.97	4.15	.78
31	1.80	.79	1.96	.94	2.19	.95
32	1.93	.72	2.40	.99	2.58	.78
33	2.42	1.08	2.87	.90	3.13	.77
Average 2	2.20	.47	2.37	.51	2.79	.39
Decision-Making Ability						
34	2.82	.81	2.96	.76	3.40	.63
35	2.56	.92	2.87	.88	3.25	.86
36	2.84	.82	3.04	.96	3.23	.58
37	2.64	.91	2.98	1.03	3.15	.78
38	2.73	.89	2.94	.99	3.12	.78
39	2.73	.86	2.91	1.06	3.25	.79
40	2.64	.91	2.98	.89	3.31	.81
41	2.68	.90	3.00	.96	3.31	.83
42	2.73	.96	2.98	1.07	3.29	.89
43	2.47	.79	2.81	.88	3.21	.70
Average 3	2.69	.61	2.95	.72	3.25	.55
Overall1	2.70	.34	2.83	.52	3.19	.33

Note. Average 1 = Average Item Score for Responsibility Subscale; Average 2 = Average Item Score for Activity Subscale ; Average 3 = Average Item Score for Ability Subscale ; Overall1 = Overall Average Item Score for the Autonomy Scale

By contrast, although participants showed a satisfactory level of learning autonomy when asked about their perceptions of responsibility, they tended to have an unsatisfactory level of autonomy regarding their engagement in learning activities inside and outside the classroom. For basic-level students, engagement in learning activities was limited. Of the 21 items on this subscale, only two item scores exceeded 3.5 (Items 21 and 25), and 16 item scores were below 2.5. For intermediate-level students, the situation was similar; 15 item scores were below 2.5, only three item scores exceeded 3.0 (Items 21, 25, and 30), and 10 item scores were below 2.5. The frequency of involvement in learning activities was improved for the advanced-level students, who showed a mediocre level of autonomy. However, only three item scores exceeded 3.5 (Items 21, 25, and 30). The three autonomous English learning activities that seem to be the favorite activities for Taiwan EFL students were (1) listening to English songs, (2) watching English movies, and (3) taking notes while listening to the teacher. Regarding the decision-making ability of the learners, the results showed that students of all three proficiency levels tended to perceive their ability as being mediocre. None of the items scored above 3.5. In summary, the results suggested that the students had a satisfactory sense of responsibility and perceived an average level of ability; however, students generally lacked motivation to spend more time on learning activities autonomously.

To ascertain whether autonomy significantly varied according to the level of motivation, participants were grouped into three levels according to their scores on the motivation scale. Students in the lowest level accounted for the bottom 25% of the score distribution, and students in the highest level accounted for approximately the top 25%. The remaining 50% of the students were in the middle. Table 3 presents the distribution of students in the three motivation levels. MANOVA results of the motivational effect on autonomy scores are listed in Table 4.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF STUDENTS WITH DIFFERENT DEGREES OF LEARNING MOTIVATION

Level	Number	Percentage	Mean			
			Responsibility	Activity	Ability	Overall
Low-Motivation	38	25.3%	40.22	42.37	25.78	108.36
Mid-Motivation	74	49.3%	43.58	52.34	29.16	125.08
High-Motivation	38	25.3%	47.76	60.01	34.84	142.62

Significant differences in learner autonomy were found for all scale and subscale scores of students with different motivation levels. In addition, follow-up test results indicated that students with a high level of motivation scored significantly higher on all autonomy scale and subscales than did those with an intermediate or a low motivation level. Similarly, students with a medium motivation level had significantly higher autonomy scores than did those with a low motivation level. All differences were highly significant. The results revealed a close association between motivation and autonomy, corroborating the findings reported by Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan (2002) and Pu (2009).

TABLE 4
MANOVA TEST RESULTS OF DIFFERENCES IN AUTONOMY BY STUDENTS AT DIFFERENT MOTIVATION LEVELS

Dependent Variable	SS	df	MS	F	Sig
Responsibility	1088.64	2	544.32	13.57	.000**
Activities	5962.41	2	2981.21	36.96	.000**
Extracurricular	3356.82	2	1678.41	29.14	.000**
In-Class	371.98	2	185.99	23.02	.000**
Ability	1610.75	2	805.38	23.27	.000**
Overall	22299.96	2	11149.98	46.40	.000**

$**p < .01$

Table 5 shows the greatest differences in the three aspects of autonomy between students at two ends of the motivation scale. Comparison of the subscale scores at the two motivation levels indicated that only five items had average scores exceeding 3.5 (42%) at the low motivation level, and 11 items had average scores above 3.5 (92%) at the high motivation level. The results revealed that regarding learner perception of responsibility, the students with the two motivation levels differed the most significantly in (1) deciding the objectives of the English course, (2) enhancing personal interest in learning English, (3) ensuring that personal progress is made during English lessons, and (4) evaluating personal learning. For example, although only 18.4% of the low-motivation students perceived that enhancing their own interest in learning English was mainly or entirely their own responsibility, 65.8% of the high-motivation students answered "mainly" or "completely" to this item.

Regarding learning activities, 18 item scores (86%) indicated a poor level of autonomy among low-motivation students, whereas only seven items (33%) had average scores, reflecting a low level of autonomy for high-motivation students. The greatest discrepancies between the two groups of students were in (1) listening to English radio programs, (2) doing assignments that were not compulsory, (3) seeking assistance from the teacher for English schoolwork, and (4) asking the teacher questions when not understanding. All of the differences were highly significant. For example,

according to Item 29, 81.6% of the low-motivation students never or rarely asked the teacher questions when they did not understand, whereas only approximately half as many students (40%) responded to this item in the same manner. None of the students with low motivation frequently or always asked questions, whereas 23.7% of the students with high motivation frequently or always asked questions. The results suggested that students generally have insufficient motivation to engage in autonomous learning activities. For low-motivation students, only one item scored above 3.5 (Item 21, listening to English songs) and for high-motivation students, only three items scored above 3.5 (Item 21; Item 25, watching English movies; and Item 30, taking notes during English lessons). The results were inconsistent with those reported by Üstünlüoğlu (2009), who indicated that even though Turkish freshmen did not perceive responsibility for their learning, most of them occasionally engaged in autonomy-related learning activities. The findings were similar to those reported by Chen (2014), that EFL freshmen in Taiwan do not frequently spend time on learning activities. Chen found that the frequency of engaging in learning activities outside class was significantly related to both intrinsic and extrinsic student motivation. The EFL environment in Taiwan is traditionally a teacher-centered and examination-oriented learning environment that can negatively affect learner motivation. Lack of opportunities to practice English and little sense of achievement can lower the level of participation in learning activities.

Finally, 50% of the items received average autonomy scores in the medium range for both low- and high-motivation students. However, 50% of the items received scores in the poor autonomy range for low-motivation students, whereas the other half received scores in the satisfactory autonomy range for high-motivation students. Students at opposite ends of the motivation scale appeared to have the most distinct differences regarding perceived ability in (1) selecting learning materials outside class, (2) deciding on learning objectives outside class, (3) selecting learning materials in class, and (4) deciding what should be learned next. All differences were highly significant (Table 5). For example, when students were asked to evaluate their ability to decide what they should learn next in English, only 7.9% of the students at the lower end of the motivation scale selected "good" or "very good", whereas almost 50% of the students at the higher end of the motivation scale selected "good" or "very good."

TABLE 5
PERCENTAGES OF TOP FOUR MEAN DIFFERENCES IN AUTONOMY SUBSCALE SCORES BETWEEN STUDENTS AT LOW- AND HIGH-MOTIVATION LEVELS

Item No.	Low (Mean)			High (Mean)			Differences
	1 or 2	3	4 or 5	1 or 2	3	4 or 5	
Responsibility							
6 Deciding the objectives of my English course							
	21.1	50.0	28.9 (3.13)	2.6	18.4	78.9 (4.03)	-.90
3 Stimulating my interest in learning English							
	21.1	60.6	18.4 (2.94)	5.3	28.9	65.8 (3.82)	-.88
1 Ensuring I make progress during English lessons							
	18.4	34.2	47.3 (3.33)	2.6	10.5	86.8 (4.16)	-.83
11 Evaluating my learning							
	23.7	50.0	26.3 (2.98)	2.6	36.8	60.5 (3.18)	-.78
Activities							
20 Listening to English radio programs							
	86.8	13.2	0.0 (1.50)	42.1	36.8	21.1 (2.03)	-1.18
14 Doing assignments which are not compulsory							
	86.8	5.3	7.9 (1.87)	23.7	57.9	18.4 (2.92)	-1.05
28 Going to see my teacher about my English schoolwork							
	89.5	10.5	0.0 (2.16)	47.4	34.2	18.4 (2.74)	-1.03
29 Asking the teacher questions when I did not understand							
	81.6	18.4	0.0 (1.71)	39.5	36.8	23.7 (2.89)	-1.00
Ability							
39 Choosing learning materials outside class							
	44.7	44.7	10.5 (2.47)	7.9	44.7	47.4 (3.55)	-1.09
37 Choosing learning objectives outside class							
	44.7	44.7	10.5 (2.45)	7.9	44.7	47.4 (3.53)	-1.08
38 Choosing learning materials in class							
	44.7	50.0	5.3 (2.45)	7.9	50.0	42.1 (3.50)	-1.05
40 Deciding what I should learn next in my English lessons							
	39.5	52.6	7.9 (2.50)	13.2	39.5	47.4 (3.50)	-1.00

Before regression analysis was conducted, correlation coefficients among all autonomy and motivation subscale and scale scores were calculated; the results are shown in Table 6. The results revealed that motivation and autonomy had a highly positive relationship ($r = .71$, $p < .01$). Among the autonomy subscales, the engagement frequency of learning activities had the strongest association with motivation ($r = .65$), followed by perceived ability ($r = .60$) and responsibility ($r = .41$). Furthermore, among motivational subscales, autonomy had the highest level of correlation with learner desire to learn the target language ($r = .68$), followed by attitude ($r = .63$) and intensity ($r = .51$), which signifies

the student effort exerted on learning the language.

TABLE 6
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN AUTONOMY AND MOTIVATION FOR THE FULL SAMPLE

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Autonomy								
1. Responsibility	—	.32**	.35**	.64**	.41**	.28**	.36**	.41**
2. Activities	.32**	—	.65**	.89**	.54**	.47**	.66**	.65**
3. Ability	.35**	.65**	—	.83**	.55**	.43**	.55**	.60**
4. Total1	.64**	.89**	.83**	—	.63**	.51**	.68**	.71**
Motivation								
5. Attitudes	.41**	.54**	.55**	.63**	—	.54**	.74**	.89**
6. Intensity	.28**	.47**	.43**	.51**	.54**	—	.56**	.80**
7. Desire	.36**	.66**	.55**	.68**	.74**	.56**	—	.90**
8. Total2	.41**	.65**	.60**	.71**	.89**	.80**	.90**	—

Note. Total1 = Overall Autonomy Score; Total2 = Overall Motivation Score
** *p* < .01

Finally, to gain a more comprehensive insight into the relationship between autonomy and motivation, stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed on the data (Table 7). The regression model using motivation as the predictor was found to be highly significant ($F = 73.13$, $p < .01$). The results suggested that two motivation components, the desire to learn a language and attitude toward learning a language, contributed significantly to the prediction of learner autonomy, accounting for a relatively high amount (50%) of the variance in the dependent variable. In short, all statistical analyses established that motivation plays an imperative role on affecting learner autonomy in learning a language. The results are consistent with many previously reported results, such as those by Oxford and Shearin (1994) and Ushioda (1996), that motivation plays a significant part in effectively learning a target language. Students probably will not become autonomous learners if they are unmotivated (Fazey & Fazey, 2001; Fukuda, Sakata, & Takeuchi, 2011; Scharle & Szabó, 2000).

TABLE 7
RESULTS OF MULTIPLE REGRESSION MODEL FOR PREDICTING LANGUAGE LEARNING AUTONOMY BY MOTIVATION

Variable	Regression coefficient	Standard error	Beta	*t*	*p*
Desire	1.19	.22	.47	5.44	.000 **
Attitude	.77	.23	.29	3.30	.001 **

Model: R^2 = .50; Adjusted R^2 =.49; $F(2, 147)$ = 73.13;

** *p* < .01

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study aimed to investigate the learner autonomy of EFL students in Taiwan and the role motivation plays in influencing the construct. The main findings indicate that first, the students appeared to have a satisfactory sense of responsibility for their own learning; however, they were insufficiently motivated to accomplish autonomous learning activities inside or outside the classroom. The situation tended to improve when students had higher language proficiency. Second, there were significant differences in all the three dimensions of autonomy at different motivation levels. With greater motivation, students were able to achieve a higher level of autonomy. Furthermore, motivation and autonomy were highly, positively correlated. Motivation contributed to half of the variance in autonomy, serving as a strong predictor for and an indispensable factor influencing the degrees of learner autonomy. As Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan (2002) claimed, motivation must be promoted before autonomy can be developed and exercised.

Several implications of the research findings must be acknowledged. First, although students were generally aware of and accepted their responsibility for learning, they tended to lack motivation to engage in learning activities. According to Schmidt, Boraie, and Kassabgy (1996), various factors, such as personal goals, success expectations, confidence, and language ability, can influence student motivation to learn, as can teaching materials, methods, and styles (Dörnyei, 1994). Liu (2010) indicated that because opportunities to interact with native English speakers and practice the target language in the EFL context are limited in Taiwan, unsatisfactory learning outcomes can contribute to a "vicious cycle" affecting motivation in the learning process (p. 7). Pu (2009) suggested that when learners are more involved in decision making, their motivation possibly improve. Although enhancing motivation can be extremely challenging for EFL teachers, nurturing and maintaining motivation is imperative. In fact, motivating students to become more independent life-long learners should be the ultimate goal of language teachers.

Second, constant monitoring of student learning activities is required. Nunan (1997a) considered students taking full

charge of their own learning to be "ideal" (p. 193). Although there has been a shift toward learner-centered orientation in pedagogic practice (Aliweh, 2011; Ciekanski, 2007; Egel, 2009), few teachers will disagree that students still require occasional guidance and support. Students need guidance to enable them to set goals, make choices, or develop interest in various learning tasks, and to be more actively involved in learning activities. Moreover, teachers must be aware of the progress made or difficulties encountered during autonomy-related learning activities so that immediate and appropriate support can be offered. In addition to playing the role of an instructor, teachers can play the role of a "facilitator" or "counselor" (Scharle & Szabó, 2000, p. 5).

Third, there is a potential to develop a higher level of autonomy among the learners. As Little (2007) and Snodin (2013) maintained, learning autonomy is not innate, but requires support from others and practice (Benson, 2001; Chang, 2007). Chan (2003) suggested that autonomy "grows out of the individual's acceptance of his or her own responsibility for learning" (p. 33). Because students in the current study primarily had a satisfactory sense of responsibility, a satisfactory foundation for developing autonomous learning has been built among the students; however, they still must learn to take greater control of their learning. Teachers typically play a dominant role in the classroom in the Taiwan EFL context. More encouragement from teachers and more task-based activities inside or outside the classroom are necessary for students to become more autonomous learners.

REFERENCES

[1]   Aliweh, A. M. (2011). The effect of Electronic portfolios on promoting Egyptian EFL college students' writing competence and autonomy. *Asian EFL Journal,* 13(2), 90-132.
[2]   Arnold, J., & Brown, H. D. (1999). A map of the terrain. In Jane Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp.1-24). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
[3]   Benson, P. (2001). Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning. London: Longman.
[4]   Chan, V. (2003). Autonomous language learning: The teachers' perspectives. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 8(1), 33-54.
[5]   Chan, V., Spratt, M., & Humphreys, G. (2002). Autonomous language learning: Hong Kong tertiary students' attitudes and behaviours. *Evaluation and Research in Education*, 16(1), 1-18.
[6]   Chang, L. Y.-H. (2007). The influences of group processes on learners' autonomous beliefs and behaviors. *System*, 35, 322-337.
[7]   Chen, C.-W. (2014). A study of language learning motivation, anxiety, and out-of-class learning activities of regular and vocational high school students (Unpublished Master's thesis). Da-Yeh University, Taiwan.
[8]   Chen, P.-F., Chen, P.-C., & Lee, M.-Y. (2008). An empirical study on cultivating young EFL learners' autonomy through Internet-assisted language teaching. *Studies in English Language and Literature*, No. 22, 81-90.
[9]   Ciekanski, M. (2007). Fostering learner autonomy: Power and reciprocity in the relationship between language learner and language learning adviser. *Cambridge Journal of Education,* 37(1), 111-127.
[10] Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The internal structure of language learning motivation and its relationship with language choice and learning effort. *The Modern Language Journal,* 89(1), 19-36.
[11] Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior. New York: Plenum.
[12] Dickinson, L. (1995). Autonomy and motivation: A literature review. *System*, 23(2), 165-174.
[13] Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), 273-284.
[14] Egel, İ. P. (2009). Learner autonomy in the language classroom: from teacher dependency to learner independency. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 1, 2023-2026.
[15] Fazey, D. M. A., & Fazey, J. A. (2001). The potential for autonomy in learning: Perceptions of competence, motivation and locus of control in first-year undergraduate students. *Studies in Higher Education*, 26(3), 345-361.
[16] Fukuda, S. T., Sakata, H., & Takeuchi, M. (2011). Facilitating autonomy to enhance motivation: Examining the effects of a guided-autonomy syllabus. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 8(1), 71-86.
[17] Gardner, R. C. (1985). Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation. London: Edward Arnold Publishers.
[18] Gardner, R. C. (1988). The socio-educational model of second-language learning: Assumptions, findings, and issues. *Language Learning,* 38(1), 101-126.
[19] Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second-language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology,* 13(4), 266-272.
[20] Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1991). An instrumental motivation in language study: Who says it isn't effective? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 13, 57-72.
[21] Gardner, R. C., & Smythe, P. C. (1975).Second language acquisition: A social psychological approach. *Research Bulletin*, 332. (ERIC DOC ED 163 754)
[22] Lan, R., & Oxford, R. L. (2003). Language learning strategy profiles of elementary school students in Taiwan. *IRAL*, 41, 339-379.

[23] Little, D. (1989). Learner autonomy: Drawing together the threads of self-assessment, goal-setting and reflection. Retrieved July 11, 2011, from http://archive.ecml.at/mtp2/Elp_tt/Results/DM_layout/00_10/06/06%20Supplementary%20text.pdf.

[24] Little, D. (2007). Language learner autonomy: Some fundamental considerations revisited. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching,* 1(1), 14-29.

[25] Liu, H. J. Motivation to Learn in the Ability-Grouped Foreign Language Classroom. Taipei: Crane Publishing Co., Ltd., 2010.

[26] Liu, H. J. (2012). Understanding EFL undergraduate anxiety in relation to motivation, autonomy, and language proficiency. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 9(1), 123-139.

[27] MacIntyre, P. D., & Noels, K. A. (1996). Using social-psychological variables to predict the use of language learning strategies. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29(3), 373-386.

[28] Masgoret, A.-M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and Associates. *Language Learning*, 53(1), 123-163.

[29] Noels, K. A., Clément, R., & Pelletier, L. G. (1999). Perceptions of teachers' communicative style and students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(1), 23-34.

[30] Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., Clément, R., & Vallerand, R. J. (2000). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning*, 50(1), 57-85.

[31] Nunan, D. (1997). Designing and adapting materials to encourage learner autonomy. In Benson & Voller (Eds.), *Autonomy and independence in language learning* (pp. 192-203). London: Longman.

[32] Okada, M., Oxford, R. L., & Abo, S. (1996). No all alike: Motivation and learning strategies among students of Japanese and Spanish in an exploratory study. In Rebecca Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century.* (Technical report #11, pp. 105-119). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

[33] Otis, N., Grouzet, F. M. E., & Pelletier, L. G. (2005). Latent motivational change in an academic setting: A 3-year longitudinal study. *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 97(2), 170-183.

[34] Oxford, R. L. (1990). Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

[35] Oxford, R. L., & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *Modern Language Journal,* 73(2), 291-300.

[36] Oxford. R., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal,* 78(1), 12-28.

[37] Oxford, R. L., & Shearin, J. (1996). Language learning motivation in a new key. In Rebecca Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century* (Technical Report # 11, pp. 121-144). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.

[38] Pu, M. (2009). An investigation of the relationship between college Chinese EFL students' autonomous learning capacity and motivation in using computer-assisted language learning. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Kansas.

[39] Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000a). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68-78.

[40] Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000b). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology,* 25, 54-67.

[41] Sakai, S., Takagi, A., & Chu, M.-P. (2010). Promoting learner autonomy: Student perceptions of responsibilities in a language classroom in East Asia. *Educational Perspectives*, 43, 12-27.

[42] Scharle, Á., & Szabó, A. (2000). Learner Autonomy: A guide to developing leaner responsibility. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[43] Schmidt, R., Boraie, D., & Kassabgy, O. (1996). Foreign language motivation: Internal structure and external connections. In Rebecca Oxford (Ed.), *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century*. (Technical report #11, pp. 9-70). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

[44] Schmidt, R., & Watanabe, Y. (2001). Motivation, strategy use, and pedagogical preferences in foreign language learning. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical report #23, pp. 313-359). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

[45] Sims, J. (2012). Perceived changes in the English language ability of freshmen at a university in Taiwan. *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics,* 16(1), 33-54.

[46] Smith, R. (2008). Key concepts in ELT: Learner autonomy. *ELT journal*, 62(4), 395-397.

[47] Snodin, N. S. (2013). The effects of blended learning with a CMS on the development of autonomous learning: A case study of different degrees of autonomy achieved by individual learners. *Computers & Education*, 61, 209-216.

[48] Spratt, M., Humphreys, G., & Chan, V. (2002). Autonomy and motivation: Which comes first? *Language Teaching Research*, 6, 245-266.

[49] Tremblay, P. F., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). Expanding the motivation construct in language learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 79(4), 505-520.

[50] Ushioda, E. (1996). Learner autonomy 5: The role of motivation. Dublin: Authentik.

[51] Üstünlüoğlu, E. (2009). Autonomy in language learning: Do student take responsibility for their learning? *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education*, 5(2), 148-169.

[52] Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (2000). Expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology,* 25, 68-81.

[53] Wigfield, A., Eccles, J. S., & Rodriguez, D. (1998). The development of children's motivation in school contexts. *Review of Research in Education,* 23, 73-118.

[54] Yu, C.-F. (2005). Soochow's self-directed learning website for two general English courses. *Soochow Journal of Foreign Languages and Literature,* 20, 111-140.

[55] Zhou, M., Ma, Wei, J., & Deci, E. L. (2009). The importance of autonomy for rural Chinese children's motivation for learning. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 19, 492-498.

Hui-ju Liu is an associate professor in the Department of English at Da-Yeh University in Taiwan. She received her doctoral degree from the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Minnesota, USA, in 1998. Her research interests include ability grouping and individual differences in foreign language learning.

A Paradigm Shift in Academic Translation Teaching and Its Reflections on the Localization Industry in the Digital Age[*]

Mehmet Cem Odacıoğlu
Department of Translation Studies, Sakarya University, Sakarya/Adapazari, Turkey

Şaban Köktürk
Department of Translation Studies, Sakarya University, Sakarya/Adapazari, Turkey

Abstract—**This paper aims at showing the advantages of a new translator training based on Kiraly's social constructivism approach compared to a traditional transmission approach. It is already believed that the modern translator training must be conducted according to a social constructivist approach suggesting a paradigm shift in the academic translation teaching. So far historical translation theories (mostly literary) have generally overlooked needs and technology driven localization market and could not go beyond a theoretical point. Functional theories have succeeded in the practical field of translation but they must be revised with the immsense rise of communication and information technologies,which means an increasing amount of (real time) translation tasks in the field of ICT. In the light of this, the study tries to discover the underlying reasons for the acceptence of a new paradigm in the translation teaching as well as questioning the so called new paradigm in the academic translation teaching to legitimate the localization paradigm in general and evaluating this new field of translation in terms of its theoretization and its position under the Translation Studies.**

Index Terms—**social constructivism, localization, lozalization paradigm, transmission approach, lozalization theory**

I. INTRODUCTION

There has been so far a little research connecting the localization industry as an applied branch of Translation Studies to the theoretical basis probably due to the fact that localization is an industrial discourse and it has allegedly no theoretical value compared to the historical translation theories. Many years ago, James Holmes drew a map of translation studies in his famous seminal paper entitled "The Name and Nature of Translation Studies" in 1972 and divided the discipline into two branches: Pure Translation Studies and Applied Translation Studies. In Pure Translation Studies, translation scholars dealt with issues on theoretical (studies on general or partial translation theories) and descriptive fields (studies on translational product, function and process). However, Applied Translation Studies category was designed with four sub-branches: translation criticism, translation policy, translation aids and translation teaching (see Holmes, 1972/2000). The focus of our study, localization as an umbrella term can be discussed under the subheading of translation aids which, however, was not originally designed to include this industry at the beginning but instead included lexicographic, terminology aids and grammar (see Zhang and Cai, 2015). It is however a well known fact that what is dominant today in the translation practice belongs to the translations of non-canonical texts which are done with the help of technological tools brought by the digital technologies. Therefore, Holmes's map of translation studies must be re-designed in a way to include technological tools (this topic is discussed later in the study). In addition, the number of theoretical studies must be increased to see the effects of technology on the translation practice within Translation Studies. We therefore refer back to Kiraly's social constructivism approach to show the paradigm shift in the translation teaching in the context of localization. Then, we try to explain the contribution of this paradigm shift[1] to the localization industry mostly in terms of its theoretization.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Especially Kiraly's *A Social Constructivist Approach to Translator Education* (2000) suggests a new approach or in other words a new paradigm from transmissionism to social constructivism in the academic translation teaching because of the latest developments possibly triggered by the digital age. Such writers as Kosaka and Itagaki link this new paradigm to the localization teaching. Therefore we think that localization teaching allows this paradigm to

---

[*] Our study presents a reflective writing foregrounding the relationship between the social constructivist approach and localization, thus trying to question the legitimacy of the localization paradigm.

legitimate the localization paradigm. If it is so, the localization industry can in parallel present a theoretical value and a new paradigm. To show our claim further, we therefore benefit in the study from exactly twenty five sources all of which serve as primary sources to explain the relationship between technology and translation. While Kiraly's book is our starting point, Kuhn's *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions* (1962) lays a foundation for the theoretical part of the study. So far, many books might have been written on the social constructivist and transmission approach. What we do here is however to link the new paradigm of social construvist approach to the legitimacy of the localization paradigm.

Research Questions

- • Can the current academic translation teaching legitimate the localization paradigm?
- • What can be the effect of the social constructivism on the localization teaching?
- • What is the reason for a paradigm shift from transmission approach to a social constructivist approach in the academic translation teaching?
- • What is the difference between classical translation theories and localization industry which is on its way to theoretization?
- • Can Holmes's map be redesigned according to current technological innovations brought by ICT?

III. THE EFFECT OF SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVISM ON THE LOCALIZATION TEACHING, THE QUESTIONING OF THE PARADIGM OF SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVISM IN TERMS OF LOCALIZATION TEACHING AND ITS CONTRIBUTION TO THE LEGITIMACY OF THE LOCALIZATION PARADIGM

The Position of Paradigms in Translation Studies: More Emphasis on Localization

Translation Studies has witnessed many kind of turns or paradigms that shift from linguistic to culture and recently to technology (Cronin, 2010, Snell-Hornby, 2006). Between 1960s and 1970s, the dominant paradigm in Translation Studies was linguistic oriented translation approaches which were replaced later by functional translation theories and a new concept, cultural turn (see Lefevere and Bassnett). Descriptive Translation Studies under the influence of Polysystem theory, and cognitive approaches (see Hӧnig, Wills) were also accepted as the emerging paradigms of Translation Studies in the second half of the twentieth century.

According to Handa, social conditions are the determinant factors of paradigm shifts in social sciences (Handa, 1986), which can change quickly or regenerate itself within a short period of time. Thanks to this dynamism, there may be more than one paradigm in social sciences under different categories, which implies a difference from the paradigms of natural sciences because in natural sciences while Newton's law of gravitation was accepted as a paradigm, there was not any other one until the former was refuted by Einstein's Theory of Relativity (see Kuhn, 1962). From Handa's perspective, our study shows that there may be many paradigms in Translation Studies (as one of the branches of social sciences) at the same time whose objectives and functions differ from each other. Whereas Descriptive Translation Studies paradigm foregrounds a translation product, cognitive paradigms of Translation Studies focus on the translator's mind, therefore the issues related with the translation process. Then, one might also ask the question whether Kiraly's social constructivism can be the new paradigm of the translator teaching and this paradigm feeds the localization industry by combining theory and practice in interactive classroom activities, which in a way gains a technological turn to translation teaching and Translation Studies in general (see Snell Hornby, 2006).

In the the digital age, what translation students need to know in the translation process is not "know that"but "know how" (Ho, 2008, p.7). Then, today's translators apart from being regarded as bicultural and bilingual experts (see functional translation theories) are also technical communicators (see Pym), one of the features brought by the technological turn to Translation Studies. The technological turn in nature includes the use of technological tools such as translation memories, electronic corpora, electronic dictionaries, online glossaries, termbases, all of which are used in the localization industry, a new term instead of the translation (industry). What is then localization defined? Localization means more than simply cultural adaptation or tailoring. It can be defined as "taking *a product* and making it linguistically and culturally appropriate for the target *locale* (country/region/language) where it will be used and sold" (emphasis intentional) (qtd. Esselink, 2000, p. 3 from LISA). Translation has transformed into a big business and created huge translation markets in the digital age especially through the localization industry, a superordinate term encompassing translation (see Munday, 2008, p.191). The fact that localization was first associated with the concept of industry and thus accepted as an industrial discourse caused Translation Studies to ignore this field of translation mostly on a theoretical basis. However, as the number of writings on localization has increased day by day with the contribution of translation scholars interested in translation technologies (see Austermuehl, Raído, O'Hagan, Mangiron, Ashworth etc), courses on the relevant field are in parallel on the rise. In this way, translation trainees can be accustomed to real world conditions and new translation areas of employment (Pym, 2004, p.1). Still, the conceptualisation of localization among translation theories is a process which has so far not been fully achieved. This gives the impression that there are imbalances among translation scholars against technological issues within Translation Studies. Though increasing, the number of writings on the translation technology has a restricted category among the historical translation theories. This causes machine translation systems and translation memories which can both feed the localization industry to be less influential on the translation discipline and thus localization studies from a

theoretical perspective. However, it should be remembered that translation technologies actually facilitate the translation task performed by a human translator (O'Hagan ve Mangiron, 2013, p. 98). Because of this reason, the translation technology as an emerging area of translation both on theoretical and practical reasons cannot be discarded and this is similarly true of the localization industry.

In parallel with the statements above, Kosaka and Itagaki assert that in localization teaching there is a paradigm shift from the transmission approach to the social constructivism (see Kiraly, 2000). In the traditional transmission approach, information is simply transferred from a teacher to a group of students. This model is generally used in societies which do not have access to the proper education and technological tools due to the financial problems or the economic underdevelopment (Kosaka and Itagaki, 2003, p. 232). However, in social constructivist approach, information is constructed mutually and therefore classroom learning must be re-ordered according to this method (Pym, 2011, p.318). As also can be seen from these explanations, the reason for a paradigm shift in the translation education might be that the teaching of basic translation skills and its transferrence from a teacher to his/her students via a classical method are not enough for an effective learning setting in the digital age (Kosaka and Igakaki, 2003, p. 248). Besides, in the classical methodology of the translation teaching, the translation task performed by students is evaluated based on that of the teacher. Therefore, this approach does not meet today's criteria in terms of the modern academic translation teaching. Translators from this point on are expected to have some non-translation skills such as the ones related to computer and software engineering, programming, graphic designing and so forth (see Koby and Baer, 2003, p. 212). Then a new approach has been necessary, as repeatedly emphasized i.e social constructivism.

Similar to the statements in the previous paragraph, students are subjects rather than an object in the educational process and they actively participate in the building of knowledge (Austermuehl, 2010, p.7) in the social constructivist approach. Then, in this approach, there is a collaborative attitude between teacher and students to build knowledge and skills (see Kosaka and Itagaki, 2003, p. 232). This collaborative approach, if properly gained to translation trainees during their education, can be more consciously sustained on real-time translation markets or be encouraged in every localization projects. At this point, it would be appropriate to mention that translation (even the literary translation) with the arrival of social constructivism has lost its character of isolation thanks to new tools and new resources though it was once conducted as a solitary activitiy (see Rosas, 2004). Considering these developments, it can be asserted that for a healthy learning setting supported by the social constructivist approach, a collaborative construction of knowledge and personel experience are required to create a true expertise and an authentic situated action (Kiraly, 2003, p.3).

In parallel with the above-mentioned statements, one can also assume that in the digital revolution, education has been virtualised and distance learning has been made possible which both have paved ways for translation trainers to have a group of students who are conscious about translation related real markets and are used to interactive and computerized courses instead of classical face to face and paper based education (O'Hagan and Ashworth, 2002, p. 109). Then, what can exactly be said about the direction and orientation of the translation training in our modern day? As Samson (2005) also puts it (p.102), translator's workstations have changed and therefore academic translation teaching must focus on how translator candidates can generate digital texts, manage files, use Internet and other technological tools, all of which bring to the mind a paradigm shift affecting the whole translation education. According to Shreve (2000), the translation industry is also an eco-system where changes in a setting might affect the other. Especially, the development of the contemporary language industry has brought some content related and methodological challenges in the translation teaching. Technological alterations and innovations have expanded the scope and diversity of texts in the translation field and as a result many translator tools have come out (Koby and Baer, 2003, p. 211).

Sin Wai also argues in *The Routledge Encylopedia of Translation Technology* (2015) as an editor of the book that the translation practice has changed in the recent years as a result of the integration of Translation Studies with (probably IT) based disciplines and fields such as computer engineering, computational linguistics, computer programming and so forth. He similarly believes that there is a paradigm shift in the translation teaching with the popularisation of translation technologies contributing in general to the translation or localization industry (see Sin Wai, 2015).

The reason why the social constructivism approach as a new paradigm of the translation teaching has been put forward so as to make localization teaching popular among translation curricula might be the increase of (real time) translation volumes in the localization industry. Therefore, this industry, apart from its industrial aspect can be theorized by the encouragement of translation scholars (see Pym, Austermüehl etc.) just like literary and cultural translations. While the objective of the former is to commercialize a product, the latter focuses on the entertainment, ideology, gender, culture and so forth. Generally most of historical translation theories centre around literary and cultural translations and paradigms of translation theories are mostly formed from these two fields of translation. If translation scholars (see for instance Pym, Austermüehl, O'Hagan) increase their research on the localization industry, they can also find remarkable clues to theorize the industry and turn it into a new paradigm. The first step has been taken from the idea that the social constructivism is an educational paradigm and feeds the localization teaching by causing a paradigm shift and in this way affecting the localization industry. Besides, it should be considered that in social sciences, there might be more than one paradigm, each of which serves differently. Therefore, localization can also be handled theoretically and as a paradigmatic change from lexicographic (terminological) and grammatical issues under the sub-branch of translation aids to new concepts such as computer tools, computer assisted translation tools and localization tools. The presence of such tools as translation aids would also mean the increase of ampirical studies on

technological tools. Crespo (2011), for instance, discusses error typologies and seeks to find a more objective approach to measuring quality in localization by benefiting from corpora assisted approaches which encourage ampirical studies.

Towards the End...

One might also argue that functional translation theories are frequently related to the technical translation like the area of localization but we assert that they only give translators a meta perspective before beginning the translation process to understand and detect the expectations of the target audience or translation theories in advance. However, in localization which can be more associated with the translation practice are also important points in terms of the theoretization. The tools in the field of localization, for instance, require a syntagmatic approach to the translation which emphasizes the paradigmatic imposed on the sygtagmatic (Pym, 2001, p.1). Then, in the translation of today's technical texts, there is not a narrative style and translators translate segment by segment which sometimes forces them to do decontextualized translations. In parallel with this, there is now no a single source text but a database of source materials and their translations. These paradigmatic/syntagmatic comparisons and other developments brought by the technology (for instancethe fact that there is no a single source text but technology driven databases etc.) can legitimate the localization concept as an emerging translation theory or at least direct new questions supported by descriptive and ampirical studies to theorize the so called field of translation.The fact that translation theories might not have historical effects on industrial practices in localization field (see Pym, 2014, p.38) must not be a pretext.Therefore, translation theories must be reviewed and reformed to include this industry by starting to climb up from the localization teaching which is supported by an educational paradigm of the social constructivism. In the academic translation teaching, translation scholars might have slowly adapted them or showed less attention to the integration of translation technologies to the translation process (Austermuehl, 2013, p.326) and besides, most translation trainers might not have specialty on translation technologies in the translation teaching (see Austermuehl, 2013, p. 327), which as a result means possibly less attraction to the localization industry within Translation Studies. However, when new technological improvements are considered within Translation Studies, this tendency must be left and Holmes's classical taxonomy or mapping must be refreshed and re-ordered (see Quah, 2006) in terms of the latest developments in the translation technologies. As known, Holmes (1972) divides the discipline into two categories as Pure Translation Studies and Applied Translation Studies. For the use of technological tools, Applied Translation Studies category is especially of importance since technological tools fall best under the sub-headings of translation aids and translation teaching apart from other sub-headings such as translation policy and translation criticism under the category of Applied Translation Studies. However, there is still a gap between Pure Translation Studies and Applied Translation Studies in terms of linking technological tools to the former that brings to the mind the theoretical basis. In other words, one can argue that technological tools have not been well studied on a theoretical (descriptive, ampirical, etc) basis so far, which causes the gap to increase more between theory and practice (see O'Hagan, 2013, p. 507-508). However, the increasing popularity of technological tools can encourage technology oriented studies and therefore the Translation Studies map might be redrawn (O'Hagan, 2013, p. 514). In parallel, Bowker believes that the integration of the technology into the translation teaching will stimulate the increasing of basic translation skills, supply data for ampirical studies, create new areas of study in terms of the evaluation of the effect of the technology in the translation teaching and its practice, also of the human-machine integration (Bowker, 2002, p. 21). Here, it would be appropriate to refer back to the social constructivism concept because the social constructivist approach might achieve the reconciliation of the technology and translator training. In connection, as also put forward before, a collaborative model, one of the characteristics of the social constructivism is of paramount importance to the translation process.In collaboration, while the role of the teacher is relagated to consultancy or guidance, students are expected to take more responsibilities and roles such as being project manager, translator, proofreader, reviser, tester during the training (see Samson, 2005, p. 109) accompanied by the social constructivism. This fact is also expressed by Kosaka and Itagaki. They believe that students get accustomed to their new roles required by ICT through simulated translation tasks[2]. To Kosaka and Itagaki, users are also replaced by students and they might be asked to take different roles on a simulated translation task in classroom activities. Besides, some of the students might play the role of the project manager, terminologist, editor and translator whereas the teacher might be a localization engineer or project manager (see Kosaka and Itagaki, 2003, p. 239 and see Samson, 2005). Then one might think that the translation teaching has shifted from learning by translating to simulated translation practice targeting the professional localization market (see. Alcina, Soler ve Granell, 2007, p. 230). By creating simulated translation tasks, social constructivism can also bring to the mind a new concept known as student-centered instruction (SCI) in which students influence the content, activities, materials and learning speed. This instructional approach places students in the center of the learning process. In this way, students can learn independently (Collins & O'Brien, 2003).

---

[2] Social constructivist approach in translator training requires the simulation of a real translation market and that's why the way how would-be translators can use technological tools is taught in the interactive classroom activities. Social constructivist approach in translator training, with new technological devices constitutes a paradigm shift. Bowker (2005) compares three student groups in an experiemental research and finds out that students using technological tools complete the translation task on time whereas translators without the intervention of technological tools cannot complete it on time though they enhance the quality. However, what digital technologies prioritize today is not the quality but the productivity. Productivity is only achieved through computerized devices.

IV. CONCLUSION

For the maturation of Translation Studies whose status was promoted to an independent discipline especially with the contribution of Holmes's seminal paper in 1972, newer paradigms must be sought and experimentalized in a way combining practical and theoretical field of translation. In the digital age, the translator's workstation has also radically changed and computerized tools are on the rise. That's why a paradigm shift in the academic translation teaching has first been suggested by Kiraly and later other colleagues by considering the latest technological developments in the field. With respect to this, the localization teaching has been popularized and added into translation courses in most of the translation and interpretation departments in the world. We believe that all technological developments contributing to the Translation Studies are paradigm shifts (see also Austermüehl). From this perpective, some translation scholars believe that in localization teaching there has been a paradigm shift. If so, the underlying reason for this fact might be the localization industry itself as it includes nearly 95 percent of the translation markets.

As known, the translation activity except literary translation which is done to entertain readers, generally focuses on the translation/localization industry. In parallel, functional translation theories were also created for the technical texts or in other words the translation industry. In the digital age, we however believe that it is highly time to create new translation theories and paradigms targeting the commercial translation or more appropriately localization markets. Therefore, we also think that the localization industry just like the translation industry can trigger a paradigm shift with new approaches. Pym has already used "localization theory"and "localization studies" concepts in his papers. It is therefore possible to discuss whether localization can be a paradigm or not for translation scholars.

In addition, it is not necessary for a theory to address all scientists, which means that it can be a paradigm for only one scientific community which especially constitutest he group of people who are in search of novelties in the science by leaving former theories and approaches. As mentioned before, in social sciences there may be more than one paradigm having different functions. Then, localization as a paradigm can be pleasantly embraced by some of the translation scholars as paradim as well.

REFERENCES

[1] Alcina A., Soler V, and Granell J. (2007). "Translation Technology Skillls Acquisition", Perspectives: Studies in Translatology, (4), London: Taylor and Francis, p. 230-244.
[2] Austermüehl, F. (2013). "Future (and not-so-future) Trends in the Teaching of Translation Technology", *Formació i tecnologies de la traduccióRevistaTradumàtica: tecnologies de la traducció*, (11), p. 326-337.
[3] Bowker, L. (2002). Computer Aided Translation Technology: A Practical Introduction, Canada: University of Ottowa Press.
[4] Bowker, L. (2005). "Productivity vs Quality: A Pilot Study on the Impact of Translation Memory Systems, Localisation Focus". *The International Journal for Localisation*, Vol: 4, No: 1 (March 2005), p. 13-20.
[5] Collins J. W., 3rd, and O'Brien. P. (Eds.). (2003). Greenwood Dictionary of Education.Westport, Greenwood: CT.
[6] Cronin, M. (2010). "The Translation Crowd", *Traducciói la Communicació*, No:8, p. 1-7.
[7] Esselink, B. (2000). A Practical Guide to Localization, Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
[8] Handa M.L. (1986). "Peace Paradigm: Transcending Liberal and Marxian Paradigms", New Delhi, India.: International Symposium on Science, Technology and Development.
[9] Ho, G. (2008). Globalization and Translation: Towards a Paradigm Shift in Translation Studies, Saarbrücken: VDM Verlag Dr. Müller.
[10] Holmes, J. (1972/2000). "The Name and Nature of Translation Studies," *Translation Studies Reader* (ed. Lawrence Venuti), London and New York: Routledge, p. 172-185.
[11] Kiraly, D. (2000). A Social Constructivist Approach to Translator Education, New York: Routledge.
[12] Koby, G. S and Baer B.J. (2003). "Task Based Instruction and the New Technology", Beyond the Ivory Tower,(ed. Brian James Baer and Geoffrey S.Koby), Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, p. 211-227.
[13] Kosaka, T.and ITAGAKI M. (2003). "Building Curriculum for Japanese Localization Translators", *Beyond the Ivory Tower*,(ed. Brian James Baer and Geoffrey S.Koby), Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, p. 229-249.
[14] Kuhn T. S. (1962/2008). The Structure of Scientific Revolutions- Bilimsel Devrimlerin Yapısı (trans. Nilüfer Kuyaş), İstanbul: Kırmızı Yayınları.
[15] Jiménez-Crespo, Miguel A. (2011). "A Corpus Based Error Typology: Towards a More Objective Approach to Measuring Quality in Localization", *Perspective Studies in Translatology* 19:4,, London and New York: Taylor and Francis, p. 315-338.
[16] Munday, Jeremy. (2008). Introducing Translation Studies Theories and Applications, London and New York: Routledge.
[17] O'Hagan, M.and Ashworth D. (2002). Translation-Mediated Communication in a Digital World, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
[18] O'Hagan, M.And Mangiron C. (2013). Game Localization:Translating for the Global Digital Entertainment Industry, Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
[19] O, Hagan, M. (2013). "The Impact of New Technologies on Translation Studies: A technological Turn?" *The Routlege Handbook of Translation Studies*,(ed. Carmen Millán and Francesca Batrina), London and New York: Routledge, p. 503-517.
[20] Pym, A. (2004). "Localization from the Perspective of Translation Studies: Overlaps in the Digital Divide", Katmandu: Scalla Conference, p.1-7.
[21] Pym, A. (2011). "Training Translators", *The Oxford Handbook of Translation Studies*,(ed. Kirsten Malmkjaer and Kevin Windle), Oxford University Press, p. 313-321.
[22] Pym, A. (2011). "What Technology does to Translating, Translation & Interpreting" (p. 1-9), Vol: 3, No:1.

[23] Pym, A. (2014), "Localization, Training and Instrumentalization", Tarragona, Spain: Intercultural Studies Group, Universitat Rovira i Virgili, Translation Research Projects,(ed. Esther Torres Simon and David OrregoCarmona), p. 37-50.

[24] Rosas, M. (2004). "Don Kiraly's A Social Constructivist Approach to Translator Education", Translation Journal, http://translationjournal.net/journal/30review.htm Accession: 27. 03. 2015.

[25] Samson, R. (2005). "Computer Assisted Translation", Training for the New Millenium, (ed. Martha Tennet), Amsterdam and Phiadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, p. 101-26.

[26] Sin Wai C. (2015). "The Development of Translation Technology" *The Routledge Encylopedia of Translation Technology* (ed. Chan-Sin Wai), London and New York: Routledge, p. 3-31.

[27] Snell-Hornby, M. (2006). The Turns of Translation Studies, Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

[28] Zhang, Chengzhi ve Cai Hui. (2015). "On Technological Turn of Translation Studies: Evidences and Influences", *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, (6:2), p.429-434.

Mehmet Cem Odacıoğlu was born on July 6, 1985 in Konya in Turkey. He earned his B.A..from english translation and interpretation department at Atılım University and M.A. in translation studies from Hacettepe University. He is now working as a research assistant at Sakarya University in the department of translation studies and writing a phd thesis regarding translation technologies on a theoretical perspective. His area of research includes translation theories, translation technologies, localization industry, linguistics, pragmatics, discourse analysis, applied translation studies, etc. He has presented a paper in the 7th World Conference on Educational Sciences in Greece in 2015 about the effects of technology on translation students in the context of academic translation teaching in cooperation with Şaban Köktürk. The author's other articles can be found online on http://www.codacioglu.sakarya.edu.tr/.

Şaban Köktürk was born on October 10, 1971. He earned his B.A. from german linguistics and english language and literature at Eberhard-Karls Tübingen, German. He pursued his M.A. at the same university in the same department and later PHD in the department of applied linguistics. He works as an assistant professor at Sakarya University in the department of translation studies and his research area includes linguistics, pragmatics, semantics, applied linguistics, applied translation studies, etc. He has so far published many articles on translation studies which can be seen on his personal webpage, http://www.skokturk.sakarya.edu.tr/tr.

Functional Definition of Roles in Complex Multilingualism: The Example of Lokoja, Kogi State, Nigeria

Gbenga Ibileye
Department of English and Literary Studies, Federal University Lokoja, Lokoja, Nigeria

Bunmi Balogun
Department of English and Literary Studies, Federal University Lokoja, Lokoja, Nigeria

Abstract—**Lokoja, Nigeria is arguably one of the most multilingual communities in the world. The multilingual situation of Lokoja, North Central Nigeria is intriguingly much for its complexity and Lokoja which connects the broad geographical regions of Nigeria as a result of its centrality is resident to people of diverse multilingual backgrounds, such that a typical inhabitant can speak as many as nine Nigerian languages. In the midst of this multilingualism arises the problem of domain of influence and functions of the respective languages which the inhabitants speak and the different functions which the respective languages serve are dependent on a variety of factors which range from formality, familiarity to strict informality. However, there is sometimes role conflict as a result of multi-lingual complexity. The goal of this paper is to examine the socio-linguistic motivational differentials in the functions of the languages in contact in Lokoja, Kogi State, Nigeria.**

Index Terms—**functional roles, domain influence, role conflict, motivational differentials, code switching and code mixing, language conflict, domain-speaker conflict, multilingual complexities**

I. INTRODUCTION

Multilingualism is a prevalent linguistic phenomenon in Lokoja, Nigeria. This is as a result of the convergence of various people with different linguistic backgrounds in the domain. An average language user in this domain speaks a minimum of four to nine languages, some of which are used simultaneously.

The definition of multilingualism is a subject of debate. Some linguists see it as complete competence and mastery in more than two languages. They assume that a multilingual person will have complete knowledge and control over the language before he/she can pass for a multilingual, while some others consider it as being less than native-like, but still able to communicate in two or more languages.

Trudgill (1995) sees multilingualism as 'the use of different languages within the given recognized geographical entity' (P.53). In his definition of multilingualism, he is not definite, as 'different languages' means assorted languages without a specific number. Therefore, there is no clear-cut number of languages a speaker will have competence in before he or she can be considered a multilingual.

Mulitilingualism is the linguistic phenomenon in which the member of a speech community is fluent in more than two languages. Multilingual speakers have acquired at least one language from birth, the mother tongue. There are different conditions under which users of language become multilingual: some people grew up in a multilingual home, some married a partner who is multilingual in nature or who speaks a different language from their partner's, some learn new languages from school, others learn it in a multilingual society.

Lokoja is a speech community where diverse languages and cultures ranging from Yoruba, Ebira (Okene), Ebira (Koto), Bassa (Nge), Bassa (Komu), Igala, Pidgin, Hausa, Nupe, Igbo, English, etc. co-habit. The languages are used in varying degrees for interactional, transactional, and governmental communication in their respective domains of operation. The residents of Lokoja characteristically speak several languages, perhaps one or more at home, another in the town, another at work, still another for purposes of trade and yet another for contact in the outside world of wider social and political organization. Most of these multilinguals acquire these various languages naturally and unselfconsciously, and the shifts from one to another are made without hesitation.

Each of these languages has its own rules: lexically, phonologically, grammatically, and discourse wise. Therefore, each is used as a code of communication among the people.

II. METHODOLOGY

The data for this paper were got through observation. The researchers took samples of selected multilingual families, studied their language use to know what codes they choose at different situations and what motivated their choices. Families A B C D E F G H I J K L and M were selected for sampling by the researchers. The observations carried out

on these families were done surreptitiously. The researchers spent time with each family and in the course of this discovered that families E J K use only two codes. This does not fit into the definition of multilingualism as portrayed by this paper. Although most of the observations were done in the homes of these subjects, the researchers also studied their choices of codes outside the contexts of their homes: work places, market, streets, and a religious centre.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Code Switching and Code Mixing

In a complex multilingual society like Lokoja, it is normal for words from many languages that co-habit to occur in the multilinguals' everyday speech. Code switching is a language act which involves the movement of language use by a speaker from one language to another within the same discourse. On the other hand, code mixing is the borrowing of words, phrases, clauses, from one language to another within a sentence.

Although these linguistic phenomena are considered as separate entities, some linguists argue that the term code switching may be used to encompass both types of language behaviours.

The term code switching according to Milroy and Gordon (2002), describe a range of language (or dialect) alternation and mixing phenomena whether within the same conversation, the same turn, or the same sentence-utterance.

Each of the two languages has its own distinct phonological, lexical, and grammatical features. People who speak more than one language are generally very sensitive to the differences in the variety of the languages they use and are equally aware that in some contexts one variety will serve their needs better than another, Meyerhoff, (2006). Therefore, the variety they use may change depending on the context.

Many linguists hold the opinion that code switching is associated with in-group membership, an index of solidarity. Therefore, code switching may be associated with a series of unmarked choices when aspects of the context such as a change in topic or in the person addressed make a different language variety more appropriate. In the following, a visitor to Federal University Lokoja Kogi State spoke with one of the security men at the Main Gate in English Language, the usual language for such interactions between and amongst strangers. When the security man discovered the visitor is from his ethnic group, he switched to their joint ethnic language, Igala, which signified their common identity and marked the relationship as the one between "ethnic brethren" rather than strangers. When another visitor approached, the security man switched back to English to address him, when the visitor spoke Yoruba language (which the security man has competence in), he switched to Yoruba language.

This phenomenon of moving between distinct varieties is known as code switching. According to Meyerhoff (ibid) when code switching is constrained by where speakers happen to be, it can be called domain-based or situational code switching.

Multilingualism is highly characterized by predictable domain-based code switching. Lokoja users of language just like other multilinguals around the world choose different languages depending on where they are, who they are talking to and what kind of impression they want to communicate to their interlocutors. The difference between multilinguals in Lokoja and other multilinguals is that the number of languages in which the former have competence is comparatively higher than among multilinguals because of the complex multilingual nature of Lokoja.

A. Language Conflict in the Multilingual Brain

The large majority of Lokoja language users are more or less fluent in four or even more languages. This raises the fundamental question how the language network in the brain is organised such that the correct target language is selected at a particular occasion. A research carried out by Heuven (2008), reveals that multilingual processing leads to language conflict in the multilingual brain even when the multilingual's task required target language knowledge. This finding demonstrates that the multilingual brain cannot avoid language conflict, because words from the target and non-target languages become automatically activated during speaking.

This research paper recognizes the fact that despite the presence of five or more languages in the memory, a multilingual person is able to speak in one language at a time because his or her language system selects words from the target language, and those from the non-target languages are ignored. In most situations, multilinguals are successful in selecting the intended language. However, sometimes a word of the non-target language intrudes and a cross-language speech error arises. This common observation indicates that in the multilingual brain, words from the different languages compete with one another. It is not uncommon to see a speaker of Igala Language in one context unconsciously having words from Yoruba Language intrude into his speech. Such interference between languages can be characterized as language conflict. For instance, Speaker L, a multilingual speaker of about five languages including English, Hausa and Yoruba had the intrusion of both Hausa and Yoruba words in one of his sampled conversations. Here is the conversation between him and a maize seller, a speaker of English, on a street away from his place of work:

Speaker F: Hope your *masara* is sweet today

Seller: It's very sweet, you already know that I don't sell stale things

Speaker F: (mimicking her) "You already know that I don't sell stale things" *Shey* you know that the one I bought yesterday was not sweet. It was as tasteless as wood. *Abi* you want to deny it?

Seller: Smiled……………..how many do you want now?

Speaker F: *Daama*, how many do you think I will buy? Give me one *jare*

Seller: Take (hands over the maize to him)

Speaker F: (collects it and hands over money to her)

Seller: Customer, this money is too old o

Speaker F: Go and spend it *jor*, if you reject it now, that will be the end of your money *faa,* tor.

From the above dialogue, the Hausa words *masara, daama, tor, faa* and the Yoruba words *shey, abi, jor, jare* intruded into his speech without him being conscious of it.

Another form of conflict realized is domain-speaker conflict. This is the conflict within a speaker of which code to use to be able to get along in a situational context of many multilinguals.

An appropriate example that shows how domain and speaker (addressee) influences can blur into each other are the factors determining which language one might speak at Old Market, in Lokoja. Sellers are likely to show favour in the prices of goods to their buyers with whom they speak the same language. The local community uses people's language skills as a means of identifying in-group members over out-group members to favour them.

On the other hand, if one has business to conduct at the Guarantee Trust Bank, Lokoja, for instance, one should better speak English. Banks draw on a national pool of employees, so many are non-speakers of Igala, Ebira, Nupe etc. and simply will not understand the speaker unless they speak English. Therefore, a multilingual who does not speak English will have to look for either an interpreter or an employee who speaks one of the languages he or she speaks in order to be able to make transactions. And when he meets a banker who speaks one of the multiple local languages he has competence in, he is likely to receiver more attention, explanation, explanation, patience, if the need be, from him.

The above examples not only show that domain (where you are) is important in determining which language variety you would choose to use in Lokoja but they also very clearly show that deciding which variety to use requires a good deal of cultural knowledge. The use of English in the bank is not just dictated by the domain, it is also determined by who one's interlocutor is likely to be, their linguistic skills. A multlingual who has a couple of languages in his brain may stand the risk of not knowing the best code to select for use in certain situations. Therefore, using certain codes in some situations may seem inappropriate. Speaker L is a speaker of English, Hausa, Nupe and Pidgin; his superior has competence in English, Hausa and Pidgin. Based on their level of familiarity, they use Hausa as a code of interaction in non-formal situations. However, in a meeting with his superior where he was to explain the content of the proposal he had been directed to write, unconsciously, he did that in Hausa, rather than English which is the language for official matters.

B. Contexts of the Usage of Different Languages

Multiple languages constitute the speech repertoire of most of the members of Lokoja society. Within the members of the society, these languages are assigned similar or totally different roles/functions depending on the situational context the speaker or user finds himself. So for example, speaker F who is Ebira attended Government Secondary School, Dekina, a predominantly Igala speaking community. During the period of his studies there, he got to be speaking Igala; he is married to a Bassa (Nge) woman from whom he learnt the language. At a point in his life, he lived in Lagos where he learnt to speak Yoruba. Now, he is surrounded by Hausa – speaking neighbours who greatly influenced his understanding of Hausa. He also has competence in Pidgin. In all, he has competence in about seven languages including English Language. Therefore, he knew that things would work more easily for him with his landlord for him when he asked for the renovation of his house using Pidgin which the landlord has competence in. Furthermore, the same resident who wanted his document signed by the Chief Judge had to use Standard English for him to get along with and get the judge do what he needed to do. However, when he got home, he code switched between Ebira and Bassa (Nge), to narrate his ordeal at the court to his wife. Again, going to the pub in the evening, he decided to narrate his experience in Ebira language to his Ebira- speaking friends.

Deciding when to use which code, speakers may conceptualise the relationship between location, addressee, and in-group identity in different ways. Sometimes the domain and addressee factors, according to Meyerhoff (2006), pile up on each other that speakers felt that one decision follows another before they would come to a decision about which variety to use.

At other times, the decision is simple and a "yes" would take them directly to the choice of one variety rather than another. The table below is modeled after Meyerhoff's Decision Tree. It is used to describe which code or codes are usually selected for use in different situations in Lokoja. Examples of domains could include the family, education, employment, friendship, government administration, religion, street, etc.

DECISION TREE
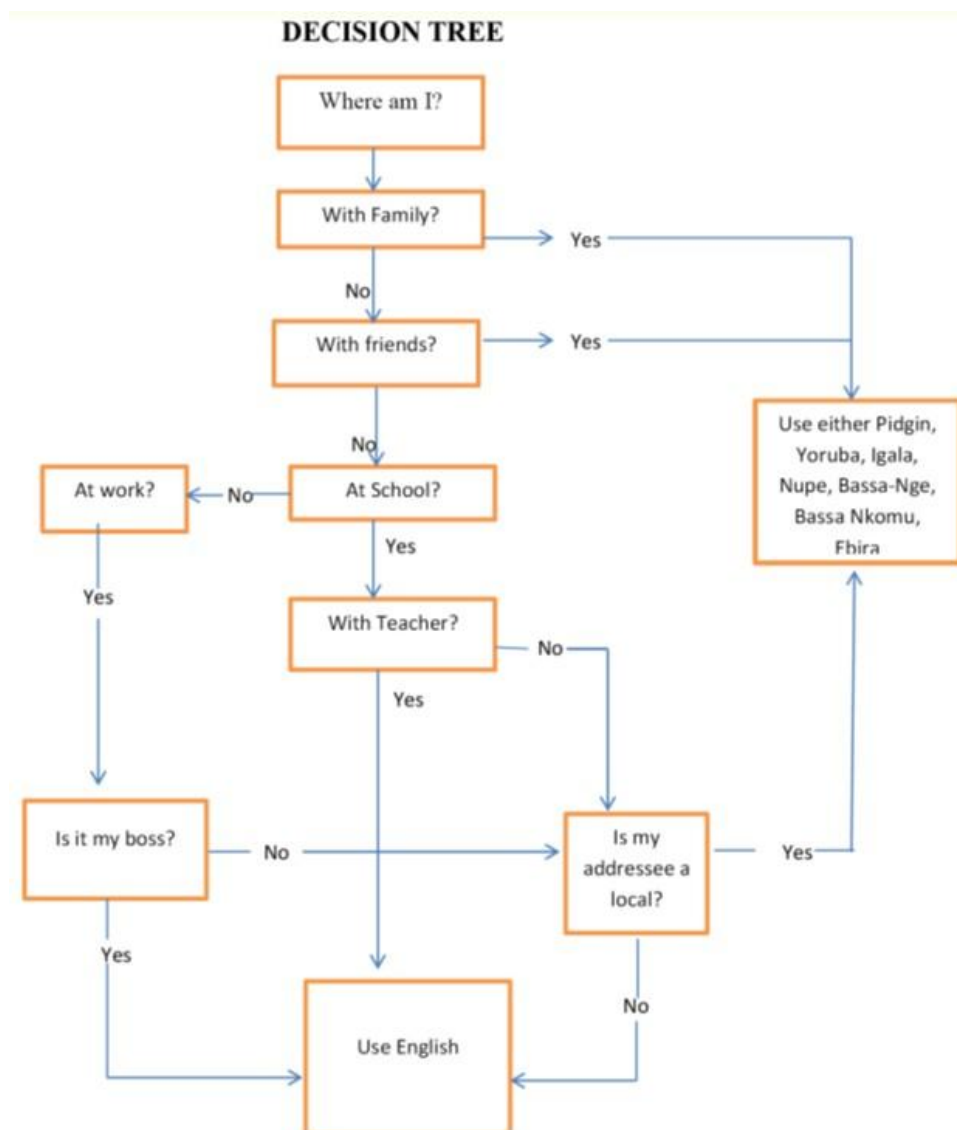
Adapted from Miriam Meyerhoff (2006)

The table above is used to explain the various domains in which multilinguals use different codes but it does not describe multilingual complexities such as Lokoja's. For example, one may not at all times speak English Language with one's boss at work. The selection of code depends on the purpose of interaction. Speaker B whose subordinate lost his child preferred to use Hausa Language to express his condolences. This is because he felt speaking English Language would not convey the message or would not express the kind of feeling he wanted. Again, one cannot draw the conclusion that when with one's family members, languages such as Pidgin, Yoruba, Igala, Hausa, Igbo, Ebira (Ebira/Koto), Bassa (Nge/Komu) will be used, as suggested by the table. For example, because speaker C is Yoruba and his wife Igbo, they both use English Language as a code of communication at home.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In summary, multilinguals' choice of languages is determined by:

1. Interlocutor: the participants in a speech situation would determine the choice of language to be used in a multilingual context. An addressee who is monolingual in nature will be compelled to use that one language he has competence in. Speaker M who is speaker of Nupe, Ebira, Igbo, Hausa, English and Pidgin would rather speak English to his girlfriend who is also a speaker of those languages. He chose to use English with her because English would serve him easier in having a romantic conversation with her though same thoughts can be expressed in other languages he has competence in. Meanwhile, when he wanted to converse with his younger brother, he used pidgin which is the language they were trained in and turning to his friend he spoke Yoruba, which is the language they both use for interaction.

2. Role Relationship: where the same interlocutors have multiple relationships (e.g., a family friend, and a public school teacher), the language choice may be governed by role relationship (Clyne) in Meyerhoff (2006)

One of the variables that come into play in determining language choice in a multilingual society as Lokoja is role relationship. Speaker D, a medical personnel at Kogi State Specialist Hospital, who has his boss as also his confidante, will choose to speak English to discuss official matters with his boss. But when he wants some pieces of advice on private issues from his boss, he prefers to use Igala Language with him. This is because he "feels at home" and more relaxed when he uses his local Language to discuss his private affairs. Another example is speaker F who is a high school girl and who has her class teacher as her neighbour. It is expected of her that when she is in the class she uses Standard English to interact with the teacher but as soon as she gets to their compound, back home, she uses Pidgin or Nupe to communicate with her. A person may be addressed in a different language depending on whether he is acting as a teacher, as a friend, as a father or as a customer in the market-place. In Phase 2, a high-brow residential area in Lokoja for instance , speaker H, a teacher insists on Standard English from his students, his sons use Igala, their tribal language, to communicate with him, his friend, Ade, interacts with him in Yoruba, and while in the market place he is addressed in Pidgin.

In addition, the status of speakers may be relevant in selecting the appropriate code. A high-status official in Lokoja like the Vice-chancellor of Federal University Lokoja will be addressed in Standard English in many contexts. Holmes (1992) opines that typical role-relationships are teacher-pupil, doctor-patient, soldier-civilian, priest-parishioner, and official-citizen.

3. Domain: this is the conceptualized sphere of communication, e.g., home, work, school,   religion, transactional, leisure or friendship, community group, Cooper (1989).

Domain is an important determinant of language choice. It is clearly a general concept which draws on three important social factors in code choice- participants, setting and topic. It refers to the context of language use, for instance, that of family, friendship, neighborhood, education, government, transaction etc. Therefore, speaker A, for instance is Bassa but her mother is Nupe and so she understands Nupe, she chooses to interact with her husband in Nupe Language. But because her children are not raised in both Languages she communicates with them in English Language, the national language. So in the domain of her home she uses the two languages. As soon as she comes out into her compound, she changes her choice of code to Yoruba Language, a language she learnt from her mistress, in order to be able to interact with her first neighbor. Furthermore, when she walks down her street to a shop to buy some goods, she chooses to speak Pidgin which at that context seems most appropriate. When she gets to work, she uses Igala as a medium of interaction with her office –mates because most of them are Igala speakers and she also has competence in it.

Religious worships at Lokoja Central Mosque are mostly conducted by the Imam in Arabic and Hausa (there could be a mix of English Language). But the codes change after the worship, at the mosque premises between the imam and one of his congregants who neither speaks Hausa, Arabic nor English when discussing the just concluded worship service.

From the above illustrations it could be drawn that English is favoured by education and employment as domains while Bassa, Nupe, Yoruba, Pidgin, Igala and Ebira are favoured in intimate domains such as family, friend, neighborhood, transaction and other informal contexts.

4. Topic: this overlaps slightly with the domain. Different types of experience associated with the languages will cost some people to switch languages, to talk about their jobs, their present leisure activities, school, new technological developments, trade, or particular forms of sport, to give a few examples, Haugen (1966). People may select a particular code because it makes it easier to discuss a particular topic, regardless of where they are speaking. For instance, if X and Y are discussing general matters in the office about their work in English Language, they may decide to change their code when they want to gossip about their colleague. Particular topics may regularly be discussed in code rather than another. The family of speaker I conducts their prayer sessions at home using English Language even though they use Ebira Language as a code of interaction at home. The wife of speaker A, cited earlier, a speaker of Nupe Language, when rebuking her kids of a bad act, uses Nupe even though the kids are raised in English Language and do not understand much of Nupe. Therefore, particular situations may require codes or styles that suggest respect, friendliness, anger, fight, secrecy, danger.

5. Channels of Communication: some people who use one language for face-to-face communication will employ another for telephone communication. Some will speak one language to each other but write another. Most multilinguals in Lokoja use different native codes in different situations but prefer to write letters, send phone messages, short notes in English Language regardless of their ethnicity. Also, irrespective of their local codes, when they apply for jobs, they use Standard written English on the application form.

6. Types of Interaction: The kind of interaction a multilingual finds himself/ herself in most cases determines the code(s) he/she uses. Formal situations such as the one in a classroom setting, an interview for official post, administrative and governmental meetings etc. will attract a formal language such as English Language. Although most Heads of Departments in Federal University Lokoja are multilinguals, they use English as a medium of communication whenever they hold meetings with the Vice Chancellor. But they change to less-formal codes right at the venue of the meeting when it is declared closed.

Official languages are often associated with formal interactions and vice versa. For instance, irrespective of an interlocutor's level of familiarity with a public official, when he is on official assignment, the interlocutor will address

him in English. When the Chairman of Civil Service Commission was taken round on inspection in Harmony College, Lokoja, by speaker H, who is the principal of the college and his brother, he used English as a code of interaction to explain the strengths, weaknesses, the developments that had taken place in the school since the last inspection, and answering the questions he was asked. Although the interlocutors are brothers, he did not deem it fit to use the local codes they both share in that context. These local codes are used in non-formal situations such as partying, friendship etc.

Finally, this paper is on the definition of roles in complex multilingualism. It has been able to examine the different roles involved in a complex multilingual setting such as Lokoja. These roles include channels of communication, topic, domain, role relationship and interlocutor. Multilingualism has been seen as a major factor responsible for the issue of code-mixing and code-switching among the dwellers of Lokoja.

REFERENCES

[1]   Cooper, R. (1989). Language Planning and Social Change, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[2]   Coulmas, F. (1998). The Handbook of Sociolinguistics, (ed), Oxford: Blackwell.
[3]   Fromkin, V., Robert R. et al. (2009). An Introduction to Language, (9th edn.) Canada: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.
[4]   Haugen, E. (1966b) Language Conflict and Language Planning. Cambridge Mass: Harvard University Press.
[5]   Heuven, W. (2008). Language Conflict in the Multilingual Brain. www.languageinindia.com (accessed May 2nd, 2014)
[6]   Holmes, J. (1992). An Introduction to Sociolinguistics, Harlow: Addison Wesley Longman.
[7]   Llamas, C. et al. (2006). Sociolinguistics, New York: Taylor & Francis e- library.
[8]   Meryer-Scotton, C. (1993). Social Motivations for Code-switching: Evidence from Africa, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[9]   Mestarie, R., Swann J. et al. (2009). Introducing Sociolinguistics (2nd ed.), Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
[10] Meryerhoff, M. (2006). Introducing Sociolinguistics, London: Routledge.
[11] Milroy, L. Mathew, G. (2002). Sociolinguistics: Methods and Interpretation, Oxford: Blackwell.
[12] Rahman, M. (2008). What Determines the Choice of Language with Friends and Neighbours. www.languageinindia.com (accessed April 30, 2014).
[13] Trudigil, P. (1995). Sociolinguistics: An Introduction to Language and Society (3rd edn.), Harmondsworth. England: Penguin Books.

Gbenga Ibileye has been a lecturer for over two decades; he started his teaching career at the Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria and currently teaches in the Department of English and Literary Studies, Federal University Lokoja, Nigeria. His research interest cuts across the broad spectrum of Applied Linguistics, Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics. He has worked extensively on courtroom discourse, the pragmatics of the language of the constitution, the new media as well as forensic analysis.

Bunmi Balogun is a young academic in the Department of English and Literary Studies, Federal University Lokoja, Kogi State, Nigeria. Her areas of interest are Syntax, Psycholinguistics, and Morphology.

Students' Attitudinal Factors in Learning English as a Foreign Language

H. Herman Mustafa
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Muhammad Amin Rashid
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Haryanto Atmowardoyo
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Syarifuddin Dollah
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Abstract—**This study investigates the interplay of students' attitudinal factors in learning English as a foreign language. The researchers carried out a descriptive research by applying an attitudinal scale in studying the interplay of the attitudinal factors. The respondents of this study were the second-year students of Indonesia English Education Department academic year 2014-2015. The instrument of this research was a questionnaire. This questionnaire was designed to study the interplay of attitudinal factors in learning English as a foreign language. The attitudinal factors were *attitude, motivation, achievement motivation, interest, perseverance,* and *self-esteem*. The results show that the students have high or positive attitudinal factors in learning English as a foreign language. It indicates that the students' attitude toward English language learning can, to a certain degree, influence their learning results. There is a positive correlation between attitude and motivation and the students' enthusiasm, commitment and persistence are the key determinant of success or failure, the more favorable the attitudes the students have the higher the motivation the students possess. It was found that instrumental reasons were considered the primary source of the students' attitude towards learning the English language. Students' attitudinal factors can be improved by involvement in learning process and effective language teaching methods can encourage students to be more positive towards the language they are learning.**

Index Terms—**interplay, attitudinal factors, and learning English**

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning a language is influenced by a variety of factors. Some of them are attitudinal factors in learning a language. Understanding the attitudinal factors as well as variables that influence the attitudinal factors is important. It is important to study attitudinal factors because in the field of second or foreign language learning, attitudinal factors have been identified as one of the key factors that determine second or foreign language success and achievement. They serve as stimulus to produce learning firstly and then as a supporting power for the tiresome process of obtaining a second or foreign language (Cheng & Dornyei 2007) (1). As a result, some of approaches to attitudinal factors can focus on cognitive behaviors (such as monitoring and use of strategies), non-cognitive aspects (such as perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes), or both (Lai, 2011, p. 2). (7)

A. Focus of the Study

This study investigated the attitudinal factors of Universitas 45 Makassar students have in English Foreign Language (EFL) learning and how the attitudinal factors interplay in EFL learning. The focus of this study has two aspects. First, current researches within the background of EFL learning (Liuolienė & Metiūnienė, 2006; (8) Cheng & Dornyei, 2007; (1) Lai, 2011), (7) which have indicated that EFL students learn English instrumentally and/or integratively, did not examine how individuals' motivations for learning a foreign language interplay with their language learning goals. Second, English has been learned in Indonesian universities, but, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no study has examined the interplay of attitudinal factors in Learning English as a foreign language as vital elements in the English learning process by the universitas 45 Makassar students. So, the recent research is conducted to study these two facets and confer their educational consequences for the teaching of English to Indonesian university students.

In relation with the problem statement above, the researcher formulated the research questions as follows:

1. How is the students' attitude, motivation, achievement motivation, interest, perseverance, and self esteem toward Learning English as a Foreign Language?

2. How do the attitudinal factors interplay in Learning English as a Foreign Language ?

B. Objectives

In relation to the problem statement and the research questions above this research aims at finding out:

1. The state of the attitude, motivation, achievement motivation, interest, perseverence, and self esteem of Universitas 45 Makassar students toward Learning English as a Foreign Language.

2. The interplay of the attitudinal factors in learning English as a Foreign Language.

C. Significance of the Research

The result of the research is expected to be useful information for educators especially English lecturers in evaluating and encouraging attitudinal factors in Learning English as a Foreign Language. The analysis of the attitudinal factors in English foreign language learning of Universitas 45 students theoretically will offer significant data for lecturers, managers, and language course designers. This will aid them to make the correct choices with regard to teaching English to university students. So, they can manipulate certain instructional practices to enhance students' motivation in studying English. It is hoped by reading the result of this research, English lecturers can determine what type of instructional practices they should use in attempting to give students more autonomy or control over their own learning.

D. Scope of the Research

By discipline, this research is under psycholinguistics. By content, this research investigated the attitude, motivation, achievement motivation, interest, perseverance, and self-esteem of Universitas 45 Makassar. By activity, this research is specified on investigating the interplay of students' attitudinal factors in studying English as a foreign language.

The participants were Indonesian university students from Universitas 45 Makassar. There were 7 participants. The participants were two students with high achievement in English learning, two students with moderate achievement, and three students with lower achievement in English learning.

E. Previous Related Studies on Attitudes toward Learning English as a Foreign Language

A more recent study that falls in the socially relevant factors was developed by Duisberg (2001), (4) who explored language attitudes of high-school level heritage learners of Spanish. Five varieties of Spanish were presented to 238 students. The results showed that students had a marked preference for standard varieties of Spanish. According to the researcher, there is a need to extend students' familiarity with divergent speech styles.

Gardner (2008) (6) questioned whether attitudes and motivation influence how well someone learns a second or foreign language. His research suggests that deviations in attitudinal factors evaluated at the time may be highest where the programs contain new practices of rather brief period. He wrote, "There is little to suggest that changes in attitudes result because of differential grades obtained in the class (p. 106).

F. Previous Related Studies on Motivation in Learning English as a Foreign Language

Fortier, Vallerand, and Guay (1995) (5) conducted a research to examine the relationship among intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and autonomy. This research used the French form of the Academic Motivation Scale. The scale assessed intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, interjected regulation, external regulation, and motivation. This research established the model using the motivation subscales that measure aptitude, self-determination, and autonomy. This model supports previous study conducted by Cordova and Lepper (1996). (2) This research reports that this test has been found to have internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and repeatedly supported the results of the past. Nevertheless, there are a lot of features of extrinsic motivation that are not accounted for in this inventory such as, power motivation or anxiety of failure. This study also did not account the interplay among the competence, self-determination, and autonomy.

Pelletier & Vallerand (1996) (9) reported that the energy range of intrinsic motivation and behavioral psychological processes which the main reward is the experience of competence and autonomy. It is postulated that the fulfillment of these needs motivates ongoing process of looking for an interesting situation, which represents the optimal challenges, and that requires the use of creativity and resourcefulness.

Schimdt, Boraie and Kassabgy (1996) (10) used the dichotomy of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation of their questionnaires. A questionnaire for the motivation factor includes 50 items: Intrinsic Motivation 5 items, extrinsic motivation 15 items, personal goals 5 items, hope/control components 9 items, attitude 4 items, anxiety 6 items, and motivational strength 6 item. Factor analysis produced nine factors: determination, anxiety, instrumental motivation, socialization, cultural attitudes, foreign residence, intrinsic motivation, beliefs about failure, and enjoyment.

Extrinsic motivation is motivation to get an external reward and intrinsic motivation as motivation to get satisfactory rewards from the activity itself. Intrinsic-extrinsic distinction is similar to the integrative-instrumental distinction, but not identical. Both instrumental and integrative motivation can be seen as subtypes of extrinsic motivation, because both are related to the goals and outcome. Instrumental and integrative motivation are not a dichotomy, and that there are several good students who are both instrumentally and integratively motivated to learn a foreign language and those who are not instrumentally or integratively motivated (Schmidt et al. (1996). (10)

Dev (1997) (3) advanced the Children's Academic Intrinsic Motivation Inventory, it is designed to test the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation on four different subjects: math, English, science, and geography. The researchers may find that he/she is extrinsically motivated when completing mathematical tasks. An educational intrinsic inventory for

university learners should be developed keeping in mind all of the problems with past records. Many extrinsic factors have not yet been categorized as extrinsic motivators and need to be known in order to apply this information to real academic world.

II. Methodology

The method of the research was qualitative and quantitative research (mix method). This research was concerned with discovering and describing the interplay of attitudinal factors in learning English as a Foreign Language in naturally occurring settings, without experimental manipulation. This study was carried out by means of case studies, while surveys, interviews and observations constituted some of the distinctive methods of data collection. It fit into the descriptive model as it aimed to detect and describe systematically, factually and accurately, the qualities of a pre-conceived phenomenon (the interplay of attitudinal factors) in a naturally occurring context (in Learning English as a Foreign Language) through questionnaire-based survey data This study was case studies of seven students within this setting, exploring attitudinal factors through reflection and discussion, as a means of understanding the interplay of the attitudinal factors in English Foreign Language learning. Case studies were seen to be a chiefly appropriate study method as they "disclose the diversity of factors which have interrelated to yield the distinctive character of the object that was the subject of the study through description, explanation, assessment and prediction. This research has two variables. They are attitudinal factors and English foreign language classroom. The attitudinal factors are attitude, motivation, achievement, interest, perseverance, and self-esteem; each learner has different attitudinal factors in Learning English as a Foreign Language.

The population of this study was the English Educational students of Universitas 45 Makassar that consist of 78 students. For this study, purposive sampling was used to identify seven students within the population that met specific criteria.

The attitudinal scale was used for this research targetted both, as it contained close-ended sections that required students to answer to statements on a five point Likert scale, as well as open-ended questions that requested students to describe or comment on an issue in detail.

III. Result and Discussion

The overall results reveal that the students have high or positive attitudinal factors in learning English as a foreign language. These findings answer the research questions of how the students' attitude toward learning English as a foreign language is, how the students' motivation, achievement motivation interest, perseverance, and self-esteem in learning English as a foreign language.

All the respondents have positive attitude in learning English. They learn English because English is important that it will make them more educated. This indirectly indicates that all the respondents have intrinsic motivation to study English and this can be inferred that the more positive the attitude of the students the higher the motivation the students have. The students' attitude is said to reflect their belief or opinions about English language learning. The researcher believes that attitude and motivation are closely related. The students' attitude and motivation mean scores can be seen in the following chart.
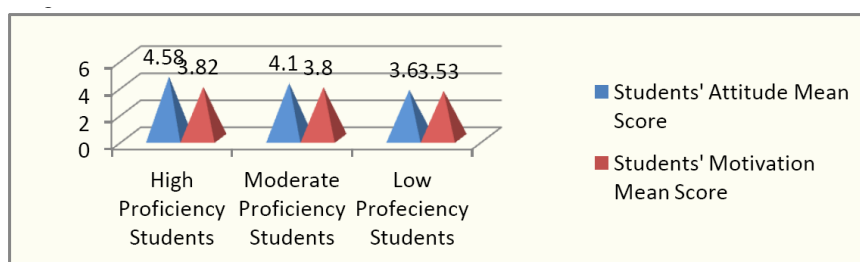
Figure 1. Chart of students' attitude and motivation mean scores

Since the students have positive attitude, high motivation, high self-esteem, and high perseverance, they wish they could have many English speaking friends and knowing English is an important goal in their life. So, it can be concluded that for high proficiency students, positive attitude can engender high motivation, stimulate achievement motivation, encourage interest, support perseverance, and maintain self-esteem. All the discussions on the findings of the students' attitude toward learning English as a foreign language above can be visualized as follows.
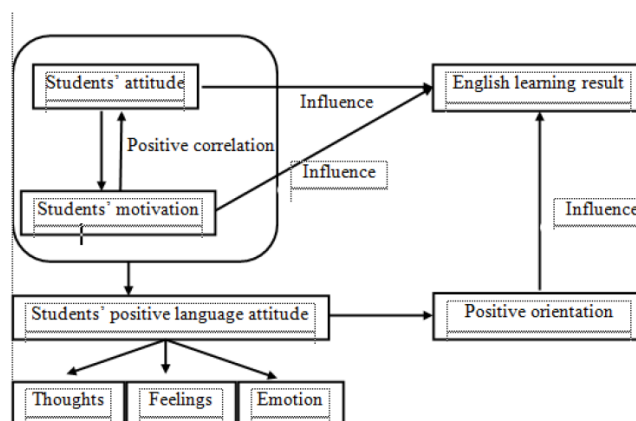
Figure 2. Visualization of the students' attitude toward learning English as a foreign language.

The findings indicated that the most common reasons for studying English as a second language because the students find English useful for them and they wish they could have many English speaking friends. These findings were related with the work of Gardner (2008: 6) (6) which suggested that a person's need for studying a second language is for the ability to socialize with the learning language community or integrative motivation and the ability to gain knowledge applied from that learning language or instrumental motivation.

Based on the attitudinal scale and interview, it is exposed that the learners are somewhat more strongly instrumentally motivated to study English which can answer the research question of the motivation found is more integrative or instrumental. All these findings have relevant implication and should therefore lead to recommendations for further studies. It was found that motivation is an important factor in English foreign language learning. It is an individual's attitude, desire, and effort. Motivation is one of the key factors that determine the achievement and attainment of English language. It serves as an impetus to produce learning initially and then as the tedious process of obtaining English as the target language. Attitude is a factor of motivation, which denotes to the combination of effort plus desire to attain the aim of learning plus positive attitudes towards learning the language.

Motivation is considered significant in its role in English learning success. Learning makes the participants gain new knowledge and skills and motivation pushes them or encourages them to go through the learning process. All the students study English to get a better job in the future, so they sign up the English classes that will prepare them for the future. It indicates that they have high extrinsic or instrumental motivation to study English (getting a better job). The students' inclination toward instrumental motivation could be a great value of Universitas 45 Makassar for the improvement through novel focusses on the Institution's English language development programs. At the same time the institution should also take into account the capabilities and policies for the learners' integrative motivation to study English as a foreign and eventually increase the students' ability. Based on the findings of this research, the results are distinctive for these specific learners; i.e. their high motivation in both instrumental and integrative facets and even with a slender domination in instrumental motivation. Furthermore, the research of the students in other universities with mainly dissimilar setting may produce meaningfully diverse outcomes. Future research should also contain more and several of institutions or universities.

As the English motivation is one of the greatest significant learning elements, the necessity to define the definite motivation circumstances of any learners group is valuable. This is for the advantage of their English language learning efficiency and aptitude.

It was found that the students have a desire to communicate in English, which includes a curiosity in a discussion of important impressions, thoughts and anxieties about a wide range of topics, and not just a disposition feature of extraversion and/or talkativeness. The interview showed that lower students hold more instrumental motivations, which means that they are more likely to learn an English for utilitarian purposes. The students may be motivated by the novelty of finding new words for familiar stimuli, from the fear of failure, or achievements.

Based on the findings above it can be identified that motivated students are probable to study more and teach more rapidly that learners who are less motivated. In certain learning condition, learners who are less motivated are possible to miss their attention, misbehave and cause discipline difficulties. On the contrary, learners who are more very interested will contribute actively and pay more responsiveness to a definite learning assignment or activity. Motivating student is one of the greatest challenges that lecturers face, lecturers always play a vital role to influence the students, indeed lecturers instructional choices can make a positive impact on student motivation.

Based on the attitudinal scale and the interview, it can be concluded that the correlation between language-related attitudes and achievement were not only be based on language skills, but also on emotions associated with language learning.

Once poor performance is likely to reflect poor aptitude, a condition of high threat is produced to the student's intelligence. On the other hand, if an excuse permits poor performance to be attributed to a aspect underrated to aptitude, the threat to self-esteem and the student's intellect is much lower. All students, except the moderate students,

study best when they are alone. Based on the interview, the higher students and the lower students prefer to study alone because they can proactive in studying. They can study whatever and whenever they want. They have their own study styles. For example, some students want to have something to eat when they are studying, some want to lie down with a book in their hand, while still some want to study without anything doing. And when students study alone, they can take their favorite way and need not regard what others feel.

Receiving a good score in English class is the most satisfying thing for the higher students and the most significant thing for them is improving their overall score point average, thus their chief anxiety for English class is receiving a good score. It indicates that achievement motivation is one of the crucial psychological factors determining future academic and occupational success and achievement motivation is closely related with extrinsic or instrumental motivation.

Since necessity for attainment differ from single learner to another, it might aid in scheduling accomplishments to recognize where learners stands which learners, for example, possess high attainment desires which are low in attainment and which looks mainly encouraged by a necessity to dodge disappointment. Those who are more very encouraged to attain are possible to answer well to stimulating tasks, severe rating educative response, novel or uncommon difficulties and the chance to attempt again. However, fewer stimulating tasks, simple support for achievement, minor stages for each assignment, lenient rating and protections from embarrassment are perhaps more positive approaches for those learners who are very keen to dodge disappointment.

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that the students' achievement motivation is influenced by the students' attitude and the students' motivation. The more positive the attitude of the students and the higher the students' motivation in learning English as a foreign language the greater the achievement motivation of the students.

Achievement motivation is one of the personality variables in which the success of a student in his study depends strongly on it, so it is an important and effective factor in raising competence and productivity of a student. It can be inferred that high interest will cause high self-esteem in studying English.

Interest may be conceptualized as a component of intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation may have a variety of sources, including needs for competence. The results showed that it is worth fostering interest-triggered learning in school and elsewhere.

Students' interest in this study consists of two types, they are situational interest and individual interest. These interests are component of intrinsic motivation.

All the students do not put off their English homework as much as possible. For high and moderate students, English language is not difficult and is not complicated to learn; whereas for the lower students, English language is difficult and complicated to learn. It indicates that the high and moderate students have high perseverance in studying English and the lower students have low perseverance in studying English. And it indicates that the higher and the moderate students have higher perseverance than the lower ones. High achievement motivation will cause high perseverance.

All the students have not achieved an English goal that took years of study. It indicates that the English instruction have not success in teaching-learning process. The findings concluded that strong academic performance confirm positive mindsets, increases perseverance, and reinforces strong academic behaviors.

In studying English and in communicating in English the average mean score of the students' self-esteem is high. It means that they have high self-esteem in studying English and in communicating in English. Due to this great self-esteem, they usually contribute actively in the learning process. The learners are more confident, active and interested towards learning English as a foreign language. The students usually perform better in examination. It was found that there is close relationship between self-esteem and high rate of academic achievement. The students contribute enthusiastically in the instructional process. They do not keep on silent, active and possess a positive attitude towards learning activities.

Based on the findings above it was found that learners with great self-esteem and great achievement motivation desired a deep processing learning style. In contrast, learners with low self-esteem and self-doubt desired a surface processing style. Higher students' score is higher on self-esteem as compared to moderate and lower students. Students who develop higher self-esteem will be encouraged to study in ways that will aid them improve greater aptitude in English. Self-esteem may be channeled into active learning and subsequently can produce good academic performance whereas low self-esteem may lead to low academic achievement and deviant behaviour.

It can be indicated that a great self-esteem yields confidence which permits learners to improve a wish to converse. By the same token, learners with low self-esteem will do with less efficacy and satisfaction since they have developed moods of being no self-worthy and a disappointment.

The attitudes of all the students toward English learning as a foreign language are positive. The students' attitudes reflect their belief or opinions about English language learning. The researcher believes that attitude and motivation are closely related because all the students who have positive attitude toward English learning as a foreign language also show high motivation in learning English. It indicates that attitude and motivation have positive correlation, the more favorable the attitudes the students have the higher the motivation the students possess.

It was found that achievement motivation of the students is only influenced by the extrinsic motivation of the students (getting a better grade), intrinsic motivation of the students does not influence the achievement motivation of

the students. The students' achievement motivation is also influenced by the students' attitude.

The students' interest may be conceptualized as a component of the students' intrinsic motivation. It was indicated that the higher the intrinsic motivation the students possess the higher the interest the students show in learning English as a foreign language. The students' perseverance in learning English as a foreign language is also high. It was indicated that the students' high motivation, both extrinsic and extrinsic, cause high perseverance of the student in learning English as a foreign language. The students' self-esteem is moderate. It indicates that there is interplay between achievement motivation and self-esteem. Low degree of achievement motivation will show low degree of self-esteem and high degree of achievement motivation will results high degree of self-esteem.

All the discussions on the findings of the interplay of the attitudinal factors in learning English as a foreign language above can be visualized as follows.
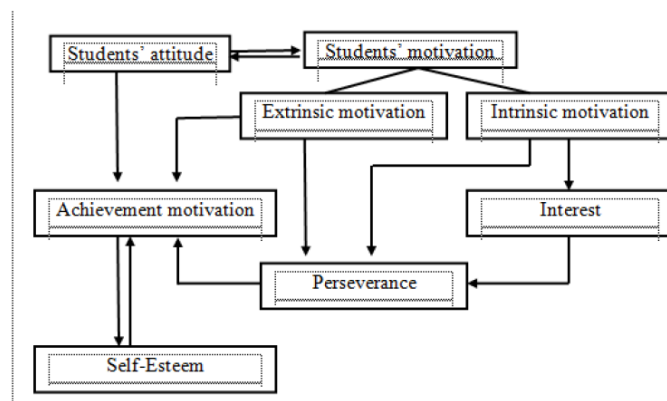
Figure 3. Visualization of the interplay of the attitudinal factors in learning English as a foreign language.

IV. CONCLUSION

a. The overall results reveal that the students have high or positive attitudinal factors in learning English as a foreign language. There is a positive correlation between attitude and motivation and the students' enthusiasm, commitment and persistence are the key determinant of success or failure, the more favorable the attitudes the students have the higher the motivation the students possess. Students' attitudes can be improved by involvement, effective language teaching approaches can inspire learners to be more positive towards the language they are learning.

b. Students' motivation toward English learning as a certain degree, influence their learning results. The more positive the students' attitudes the greater motivation the students to learn English both intrinsic and extrinsic.

c. Based on the attitudinal scale and the interview, it can be concluded that the correlation between language-related attitudes and achievement were not only be based on language skills, but also on emotions associated with language learning. There was positive relationship between integrative motivations (subtypes of extrinsic motivation/related to the goals and outcome) and the students' grades in English learning. The students' achievement motivation is also influenced by the students' attitude. The more positive the attitude of the students and the higher the students' motivation in teach English, the greater the achievement motivation of the students.

d. The students have high situational interest in learning English as a foreign language. It was indicated that the higher the intrinsic motivation the students possess the higher the interest the students show in learning English as a foreign language.

e. High motivation of the student will cause high perseverance of the student in learning English as a foreign language. Positive attitude and high motivation will cause strong perseverance. It was found that strong academic performance confirm positive mindsets, increases perseverance, and reinforces strong academic behaviors, the students' high motivation, both extrinsic and extrinsic, cause high perseverance of the students in learning English as a foreign language.

f. There is close relationship between self-esteem and high rate of academic achievement. It is composed of two distinctive scopes, aptitude and value. The aptitude aspect (efficacy based self- esteem) denotes to the degree to which the students get themselves as proficient and worthwhile. The value dimensions (worth based self- esteems) refer to the degree to which the students feel they are the individuals to be valued.

The students' high self-esteem seems affect the learning process. It is stated that each positive involvement is a chance to reinforce self-esteem, aid gain more self-confidence, and increase the feelings of self-worth. Learners with high self-esteem are eager to study and effort harder in the classroom, and finally, these learners succeed in college. Self-esteem may be channeled into active learning and consequently may generate good academic performance whereas low self-esteem may lead to low academic achievement and deviant behaviour. By the same token, learners with low self-esteem will do with less efficacy and satisfaction since they have developed feelings of being no self-worthy and a disappointment.

REFERENCES

[1] Cheng, H. F. & Dornyei, Z. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching Journal* 1, 153-174.
[2] Cordova, D. I. & Lepper, M. R. (1996). Intrinsic motivation and the process of learning: Beneficial effects of contextualization, personalization, and choice. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 88, 715.
[3] Dev, P.C. (1997). Intrinsic Motivation and Academic Achievement: What does Their Relationship Imply for the Classroom Teacher?" *Journal of Remedial and Special Education*, 18.1, 12-19.
[4] Duisberg, S. (2001). High School Heritage Learners of Spanish: an Investigation on Language Attitudes. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arizona, Arizona.
[5] Fortier, Michele S., Robert J Vallerand. & Frederic Guy. (1995). Academic Motivation and School Performance: toward a Structural Model. *Canada: Journal of Contemporary Educational Psychology* 20, 257 – 274.
[6] Gardner, R.C. (2008). Individual Differences in Second and Foreign Language Learning. In N.Van Deusen-Scholl & N.H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Language and 213 Education,* 4. [*Second and Foreign Language Education*] (pp. 29-40). Accessed on August 2, 2012, retrieved from http://www.Springer Science+Business Media LLC.
[7] Lai, Emily R. (2011). Motivation: A Literature Review. London: Pearson.
[8] Liuoliene, Alvyda. & Regina Metiuniene. (2006). Second Language Learning Motivation." Santalka Filologija Edukologija. Online. Retrieved from: www.cpe.vgtu.lt/index.php/cpe/article/download/coactivity. Pdf, Accessed on 17 July 2013.
[9] Pelletier, Lucg. & Vallerand, Rober J. (1996). Supervisors' beliefs and subordinates' Intrinsic Motivation: A Behavioural Confirmation Analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 71.2, 331 – 340.
[10] Schmidt, R., Borai, D. & Kassabgy, O. (1996). Foreign Language Motivation: Internal Structure and External Connections. In Oxford, R. (Eds). *Language learning motivation: Pathways to new century*11, 9-70.

H. Herman Mustafa, M.Pd. a lecturer at English Education Department Teachers training Faculty Universitas "45" Makassar. He was born in Bule, Enrekang Regency South Sulawesi Province on December, 31 1963,by the marriage of H. Mustafa and Hj. Masija. He has nine brothers. He graduated his elementary school at SD 39 Cakke in 1976, Junior High School scholl at SMP Negeri 452 Cakke in 1980, Senior High School at SMA Negeri 229 Cakke in 1983. He acquired his Doctorandus degree at English Department Universitas Hasanuddin in 1988. In 2009 He graduated his Master degree at English education Department Makassar State University. He has been teacing at Universitas "45" since 1991; He was elected as a secretary of English Department in 1991-1992; as a deputy Dean of Academic Affair English Department in 1992-1998. As a Dean of Faculty of Letters Universitas "45" in 1998-2006. He has ever been a Vice of Andi Sose Foundation in 2006-2007.For the same year He was elected again as a Dean of Faculty of Letter from 2007-2012. And in 2012 to 2013 He was elected as a Dean of Teachers Training Faculty. On September he followed a sandwich Program in Flinders University Australia for 3 months. So far He is an English Coordinator at Universitas "45" since 2000 until now. He has visited 15 countries since 2000 to 2012

Muhammad Amin Rashid was born in Gilireng, Wajo on June 7, 1955; by the marriage of Abd. Rashid Sanggung Pawawo Daeng (Bone) and Tenri Abang (Wajo).He Graduated at Sekolah Pendidikan Guru Negeri 60 Sengkang in 1973; Bachelor (BA), English Department Faculty of Teaching literature and art (FKSS) which is now called the Faculty of Language and Literature (FBS), Institute of Teacher Training and Education (Teachers' Training College) Ujung Pandang, which now called State University of Makassar (UNM), 1977. Doctorandus (Drs) English Department FKSS Ujung Pandang-Teachers' Training College (IKIP) in 1979. Diploma of Teaching English as a Second Language (Dip.TESL) English Language Institute (ELI), Victoria University Wellington, New Zealand in 1981. Diploma Act V in 1988. Master of Art (MA) with the predicate Cumlaude in the field of English language skills Studies on October 28, 1992. Sandwich Program Hasanuddin University with the University of manchester, England, United Kingdom, sponsored by the British Council in Jakarta. And Ph.D. in the field of English Language Studies on October 28 1992.

1978 he was appointed as Lecturer' asistent in Ujung Pandang FKSS Teachers' Training College. Professor of Functional position acquired on June 30, 1997 in the field of Teaching English as Foreign Language and research in ELT.

Structural positionHe has ever adopted; Acting as a Head of theLangauge Laboratory, Teachers 'Training College Makassar in 1982, Head of Teachers' Training College Library FBBS Ujung Pandang, 1983-1997, Head of the Teachers 'Training College Publisher Ujung Pandang 1992-1994, Head of Library P.A Pettarani Teachers' Training College 1994-2008 Ujung Pandang, andas a Dean of Faculty of Language and art 1999-2007. In 2007-2008 Chairman of the Working Group BSNP Library. The Chairman of the Council of Professors Makassar State University in 2009.

Some books has been published : Build Up Your Word Power (January 1995), Seluk-beluk Kata Kerja Bahasa Inggris (March, 1995), Let Us Speak English (August 1995), Point of Discussion (September 1995) Dialogues: From Models to Practice (October, 1995), Seluk beluk Kata benda Bahasa Inggris 1998), English & Joy (April, 1995), English for Beginners Book 1 (2000), and English for Beginner 2 (2000).

Haryanto Atmowardoyo is a professor of English Education at English Department of State University of Makassar. He was born in Purbalingga, Central Java on October 29, 1959. He cmpleted his Elementary education in SD Galuh, Purbalingga in 1971;

Junior High school at SMP Borroneus Purbalingga in 1974; and Senior High school at SMA Negeri Purbalingga 1977. Then he completed S1 degree in English Education at IKIP   Malang in 1994; and S degree (doctor) in English Education at IKIP Jakarta in 1999. From Septem,ber 2009 to January 2010, haryanto Atmowardoyo participated in academic Recharging Program in OHIO State University, Columbus, OHIO, USA.

   He has published sveral books : Isu Pendidikan dan Pengajaran Bahasa (2001), published by State University of Makassar Press; dasar-dasar Penulisan Proposal penelitian (20080), a collaborative work with Sukandarrumidi, of Gajah mada University, publisehed by gajah Mada Press (2008); and Metodology Penelitian Kualitatif; Teori Dasar (2008) published by State University of Makassar press.

   Some articles have also been published either in newspaper, in on line journal, or in printed scientific journals; cara Mudah Belajar bahasa Inggris, Lokalisasi Pengajaran bahasa Inggris; Fisibilitaqs Lokalisasi Pengajaran bahasa Inggris; and perlukah Revolusi Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris published in fajar and pedoman Rakyat in 1994; Critical analysis on teacher's Made Test (performance, 1995); Laboratorium bahasa multilmedia dan Fungsinya dalam Pembelajaran Bahasa Asing (20050, Pendidikan Network);Peranan Faktor Motivasi dan Strategi belajar dam Pembelajaran bahasa Inggris (Pancaran Pendidikan, Jember University, 2007);Kajian tentang Pembelajar bahasa Inggris yang berhasil (Humaniora, Hasanuddin University, 20070; and Communication Formats Compatible to Multimedia Language Laboratory (2007, Pendidikan Network).

   Haryanto Atmowardoyo has presented some papers in international conferences as well ; Research Methods in TEFL; Grammatical Error in Indonesian EFL Learners' Writing (May 2007, Jakarta, Annual Linguistic Conferences of Atmajay University); A Lesson for Intenational Journal (Haroi, vietnam, August 2010, the 8 th Asia TEFL Conference); and Qualitative research in TEFL Studies (Makassar, 2 nd ICOLE Conference, December 2010).

   Syarifuddin Dollah, M.Pd, a lecturer at the English Department, faculty of Languages and Literature of Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM). He was born in Bua-Bua II, district of Pinrang, South Sulawesi province in 1963. He graduated his elementary school in 1976 in Bua Bua II and Junior High School in 1979 in Pinrang. He graduated his Senior High School in 1982 in Pare Pare. He acquired his Doctrandus degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from the Faculty of Languages and Arts of Institutes of teacher Training and Education (IKIP) Ujung Pandang in 1988. In 1996 he graduated his Master degree from Graduate Program of Institutes of Teacher Training and Education (IKIP) Malang in Malang, East Java. He got his Ph.D bin English Language Studies (Linguistics) from Universitas Hasanuddin. As a lecturer, he has actively taught at some universities or colleges and other institutions since 1988. So far he has published books on *Vocabulary* (1990), *Pengembangan Kemampuan Berbahasa Inggris untuk Taman Kanak Kanak* (2002), Oral *Communication for EFL Learners* (2002), and *English for Presentation* (2003).

Saudi Students' Willingness to Communicate and Success in Learning English as a Foreign Language

Majed Alqahtani

Department of English, Salman Bin Abdulaziz University, Al-Kharj 11942, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—Background: Willingness is an important factor that is instrumental in carrying out an activity successfully. Learning a foreign language is useful for having a meaningful and effective way of communication with different members of a society. This paper examines willingness among Saudi students towards learning English as a second language. It will also explore some of the difficulties that are faced by students learning English. Method: The paper used mixed methodological approach i.e. qualitative (literature) and quantitative data (survey). A survey was conducted where questionnaires were used for gathering information related to the research topic. There were 658 participants who belonged to the educational institutions of Saudi Arabia. Results: 50 % of the participants showed that they had a willingness to learn English as a second language. It was also examined that students were willing to learn and communicate in English with individuals in their groups that had English as a native language. Findings: It was revealed that there are several factors such as motivation level, social and cultural factors that affects students' willingness to learn and communicate in English. Conclusion: Therefore, this study concludes that Students in Saudi Arabia are willing to learn and communicate in English as their second language. Moreover, the paper suggests some recommendations for overcoming EFL students' willingness to communicate in English.

Index Terms—Saudi students, EFL, willing to communicate and communication strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning a foreign language provides additional characteristics within the personality of an individual. There is a lot of variability within human behaviors that are distinguishes from social sciences towards natural sciences. Differences among individuals play important role in their learning behaviors. The research study of Baghaei (2011) has explained that Individual differences are the characteristic or trait among individuals that differ from one and other. Further, it has been identified that Individual Differences has become a nuisances which prevents in formulating general principles that are taken into account for describing a human behavior. Recently, individual difference variables have been introduced within the research conducted related to Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and this is also termed as willingness to communicate (WTC). According to the research study of Baker & MacIntyre (2000a) it has been explained that WTC is a predisposition towards or away from communicating in accordance with the choice given to the students. Further, the research work of Baker & MacIntyre (2000b) has examined that there are several factors that have an impact on the willingness of individuals to communicate. Some of the factors discussed in this study include fear associated with speaking, lack of self-esteem, issue of extroversion or introversion nature of individuals and etc. Hence, it is clear that evaluation of WTC effect in success of SLA is important.

As stated in the research study of Clement et al., (2003) main purpose of learning a foreign language is to utilize it for meaningful and effective communication. It has been identified that Willingness to Communicate (WTC) is a model that provides integration within the psychological, linguistic and communicative variables for describing, explaining and predicting second language communication i.e. L2. At the same time the research study of Dörnyei (2005) has examined that WTC is a state of readiness at which an individual can enter in a discourse at specific time duration with a specific person that is using second language (L2). There are many factors that influence EFL learners in Saudi Arabia.

Research Aim and Objectives

Therefore, the aim of the study is to explore EFL student's willingness towards communication and learning English. In addition, the research also explores some of the personality traits that impact on the willingness of Saudi students for communicating and learning English as a second language. Thus, the following section provides a brief review related to the literature which is relevant in illustrating willingness towards communicating and learning English as a second language.

II. LITERATURE

English language has been termed as international language since it is more recognized in current society culture and the economy. It has established its position as the language of business communication. The research study of Dörnyei

& Skehan (2003) has stated that English is one of the complete languages in the present global economic environment. Saudi Arabia is one of the top destinations where international labor and foreign investment in the world. Therefore, there is a lot of need for using English as a tool for international and intercultural communication for interacting with different authorities in a country. For examining the motivation level of the students, WTC model of communication is a new trend within the research studies conducted related to the second language acquisition by individuals. WTC plays an important role in second language acquisition by individuals especially in countries like Saudi Arabia.

There are several factors that affect willingness of learners towards English Language. The research study of Hashimoto (2002) has stated that one of the primary factors that have an impact on the readiness towards learning and communicating in English is learner's motivation level. The research was able to identify that motivation has a direct impact on the ability of students to learn English as a second Language. It was also identified that there is a direct relationship between motivation and willingness to communicate.

Many linguistic and non-linguistic factors play major roles in communication. It was signified in the research study of Hopp (2006) that psycholinguistic and socio-cultural factors are related with the willingness among Saudi students for communicating and learning English as a second language. In addition, a research study was conducted by Hughes (2003) which illustrated that some of the personality traits have a strong impact on the interest level of students for learning English as a second language especially in Arab context. On the other hand, research study conducted by Lee-Ellis (2009) has stated that willingness towards learning and communication in English depends upon the personality of an individual. Willingness to learn and communicating in English depends upon overcoming the fear. Therefore, personality traits indicate whether individuals choose to speak or avoid having a conversation in English.

The research work of Hamouda (2013) examined Saudi students and found that they were reluctant in learning as a second language. The study has mentioned different communication barriers due to which Saudi students are reluctant in opting English as a foreign Language.

The research study of Jaidev (n.d) for investigating EFL among three Saudi students that they find difficulty in using English language due to which they are not interested in choosing English as a foreign language.

Another research study of Mahdi (2014) has identified that Saudi students have willingness to learn English as a Foreign Language. However, it is important that there should be made several rectifications in English language course so that it increases interest of the Saudi Students towards learning English as a Foreign Language.

Moreover, a research study was conducted by MacIntyre et al. (2002) that took into consideration Saudi Students for investigating the reasons that affects EFL students that are not motivated towards learning English. Some of the reasons identified included poor proficiency of English, having fear of speaking in front of other class members, shyness, lack of confidence and fear associated with making mistakes. Therefore, these reasons were gathered as a result of conducting survey among students that were non-English students and were enrolled in EFL course as their majors in different universities.

Recently, the research study of (Schmid & Dusseldorp (2010) investigated that many individual factors affect willingness to learn or communicate by using English language. In addition, it was found that differences in the individual backgrounds also influences on the willingness towards acquisition of second language like English. Apart from these, there are several cultural factors that have an impact on the motivation level among students for learning English as a second language (Wang, 2004).

On the contrary, it has been identified that students having English as a second language face difficulties in communication. According to the literature mentioned in the research of Yashima (2002) it was discovered that there is a relation existing between the willingness and personality traits that lead towards an impact on the oral communication in English. It has been observed that some students like to speak actively and freely without having fear of mistakes and some individuals speak only when it is necessary. Therefore, individuals that speak freely are willing to learn and communicate in English so that they can interact or socialize with the people belonging to different countries. As English today is a global language. Thus, this study provides certain solutions that are required for boosting willingness among students for learning and communicating in English as a second language. Following section will explain the methodological approach that is adopted for collecting first hand information related to the topic chosen.

III. METHODOLOGY

The methodology used for this research is mixed approach which includes use of both qualitative and quantitative data. In order to collect qualitative researchers will use different secondary sources of data is done where information is gathered from journals, articles, business magazines and through many internet sources. At the same time, previous literature is also considered that was available on different internet sources and published in journals that will help in developing a better analysis related to the willingness among students in learning and communicating in English as their second language.

On the other hand, researchers also use primary technique i.e. survey for including updated information and views of students related to their willingness for learning and communicating in English. Researchers need to be vigilant when collecting primary data because it should be recent, unbiased, relevant and accurate according to the research topic of the study.

Participants and Instruments

For purpose of this study a sample of 800 secondary school students was selected. The Willingness to Communicate in a Foreign Language Scale (WTC-FLS) developed by Baghaei (2011) was modified and given to the participants. The questionnaire with 19 statements about respondents readiness to initiate communication under different circumstances, different contexts and with different people is attached in the Appendix. The questionnaire was conducted in Arabic language to make it easier for the participants and translated into English.

Thus, use of both qualitative and quantitative data enhanced the reliability of the research. Mixed methodological approach facilitated in providing a combination of past and present data related to the willingness among Saudi students for learning or communicating in second language that is English. However, certain limitations were faced while collecting data but these hurdles do not have an impact on the conclusions drawn. Many of the ethical issues are involved while conducting a research. Research ethics demands certain consideration that is often referred to as norms, and are adhered to so as to make the process, the findings and the recommendations credible.

While reporting, data, results, methods and procedures, and publication status, this should be mentioned appropriately. It should not be fabricated, falsified, or misinterpreted (Creswell, 2013). Following section discusses results that are gathered from questionnaires distributed among the participants selected for the research.

IV. RESULTS

After administering the questionnaires, results obtained were analyzed and interpreted for finding out the Willingness among Saudi students for learning and communicating in English as their second language. Following table shows the gender distribution of the students among which the questionnaire was distributed. There were more of female students as compared to male who were inquired related to the willingness behind communicating in English as a second language.

In addition, following tables shows results related to the willingness among students that were at different levels of education within Saudi Arabia. However, there were 4 individuals who did not responded to the questions. According to the results it was clear that students at Third Secondary Stage were more willing towards communicating in English language as compared to the students at different stages of education.

The table illustrated in Appendix summarizes responses of the students related to the motivation or efforts made by students for either learning or communicating by using their second language i.e. English. Moreover, it was also agreed by the respondents that they are accompanying some of the native speakers for learning and communicating in English as they have become a tour guide. Table 13 shows that there were 211 students who agreed they have interacted with non-native speakers who face difficulty in speaking Arabic language. Thus, these people are used for speaking English language and bringing improvement in their English vocabulary and communicating ability. Table 17 shows that it was agreed by 221 students that they are willing to bring improvement in their English communication by asking questions in English within the class. At the same time there were 213 students (table 21 in Appendix) who had agreed that they were confident and willing to give presentation in English in front of their class. As shown in the table 22 attached in the Appendix that individuals are willing to speak English among the students within a group or friends in a group. Therefore, it was found that many students were willing to adopt different methods in order to learn or communicate in English within their schools and community.

V. DISCUSSION

This section will provide discussion on the basis of which conclusions will be drawn related to the willingness among students of Saudi Arabia for learning and communicating in English Language. It is mentioned in the above responses provided that there are several factors that have an impact on the willingness among Students in Saudi Arabia for learning and communicating in English. It was evident from the results above that EFL students had preferred communicating more through interpersonal conversations and group discussions like in meetings and public speaking. The findings mentioned above have stated that there is a significant positive correlation between different personality traits and the willingness among students for learning English as a second language.

Literature gathered from various sources was able to identify different factors that have a direct impact on the motivation level among students towards learning and communicating in English language. It was examined that students personality characteristics based upon the cultural, social and psychological factors have an impact on the willingness towards learning English as a second language.

In terms of personality traits it was also examined that students have extrovert nature were more confident in learning English and like to communicate by using English with other people in a community.

Furthermore, it is also found that students especially in the third stage of their education are more motivated towards learning and communicating in English language within a classroom or with people living in a society.

It was also discussed in the information mentioned that many students are hesitant in learning or speaking English language due to fear of speaking in a group, public or in their class. Other than that there are several other factors due to which Students in Saudi Arabia do not communicate or they are not interested in learning English because of shyness, lack of self confidence and fear of mistakes.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is clear that there is direct association between the willingness and ability towards learning English as a second language. There are various personalities, social and cultural factors that have an impact on communicating in English as a second language. Students especially in the third stage of education are willing towards learning and communicating in English as a second language. Based on the information mentioned in the above research that teaching can bring improvement in student's willingness towards communicating in English language. It is recommended that schools and universities should conduct advance speaking course i.e. Speech Workshop Course. The theoretical component help students in building confidence by responding to the questions and participating in conversations conducted in English as a second language. It is essential for students that they should seek help of their teachers and colleagues for overcoming their mistakes and errors. Another way through which students can bring enhancement in their English language is through adopting a sympathetic behavior where listeners have to develop a positive response and guidance for learning English as a second language. Hence, students especially in Saudi Arabia should adopt various ways through which they can enhance their willingness in learning or communicating in English Language.

In a broader context, research that was conducted on Willingness among students for learning EFL should take into consideration Saudi Culture, social background of the study and proficiency in English. It is also recommended that future research studies must explore relationship between the personality characteristics and willingness among students mother tongue. Therefore, further investigations are recommended that can be examined in greater detail by considering communication abilities especially among Saudi Students.

APPENDIX A. TABLES

TABLE 1
GENDER:

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	302	45.9	45.9	45.9
	Female	356	54.1	54.1	100.0
	Total	658	100.0	100.0	
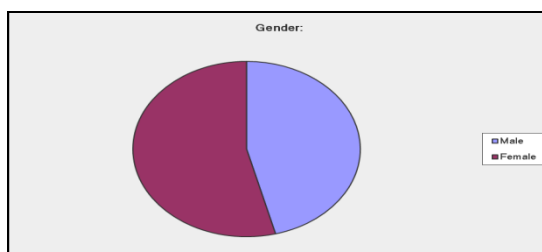
TABLE 2
STAGE OF STUDY?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	First Secondary Stage	249	37.8	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	409	62.2		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 3
STAGE OF STUDY?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Second Secondary Stage	155	23.6	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	503	76.4		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 4
STAGE OF STUDY?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Third Secondary Stage	251	38.1	100.0	100.0
Missing	System	407	61.9		
Total		658	100.0		
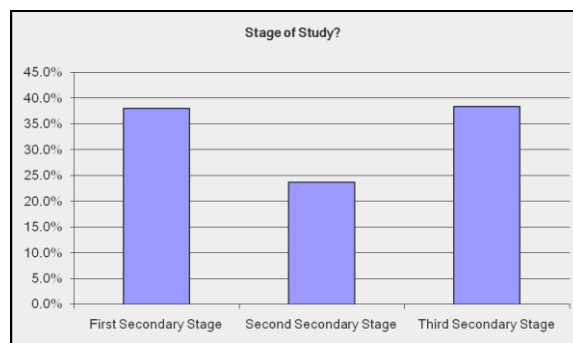
TABLE 5

1. If I encountered some native speakers of English (British, American, Canadian, and Australian) in the street, restaurant, hotel etc., I hope an opportunity would arise and they would talk to me.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	397	60.3	60.5	60.5
	Strongly Agree	112	17.0	17.1	77.6
	Neutral	99	15.0	15.1	92.7
	Strongly Disagree	14	2.1	2.1	94.8
	Disagree	34	5.2	5.2	100.0
	Total	656	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.3		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 6

2. If I encountered some native speakers of English (British, American, Canadian, and Australian) in the street, restaurant, hotel etc., I would find an excuse and would talk to them.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	192	29.2	29.4	29.4
	Strongly Agree	83	12.6	12.7	42.0
	Neutral	166	25.2	25.4	67.4
	Strongly Disagree	62	9.4	9.5	76.9
	Disagree	151	22.9	23.1	100.0
	Total	654	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	4	.6		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 7

3. If I encountered some native speakers of English (British, American, Canadian, and Australian) who are facing problems in my country because of not knowing our language I take advantage of this opportunity and would talk to them.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	273	41.5	42.3	42.3
	Strongly Agree	185	28.1	28.6	70.9
	Neutral	106	16.1	16.4	87.3
	Strongly Disagree	26	4.0	4.0	91.3
	Disagree	56	8.5	8.7	100.0
	Total	646	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	12	1.8		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 8

4. I am willing to accompany some native speakers of English (British, American, Canadian, and Australian) and be their tour guide for a day free of charge.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	214	32.5	32.9	32.9
	Strongly Agree	112	17.0	17.2	50.2
	Neutral	112	17.0	17.2	67.4
	Strongly Disagree	62	9.4	9.5	76.9
	Disagree	150	22.8	23.1	100.0
	Total	650	98.8	100.0	
Missing	System	8	1.2		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 9

5. I am willing to talk with native speakers of English (British, American, Canadian, and Australian).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	278	42.2	42.7	42.7
	Strongly Agree	121	18.4	18.6	61.3
	Neutral	131	19.9	20.1	81.4
	Strongly Disagree	39	5.9	6.0	87.4
	Disagree	82	12.5	12.6	100.0
	Total	651	98.9	100.0	
Missing	System	7	1.1		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 10

6. If someone introduced me to a native-speaker of English (British, American, Canadian, Australian) I would like to try my abilities in communicating with him/her in English.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	316	48.0	48.9	48.9
	Strongly Agree	211	32.1	32.7	81.6
	Neutral	76	11.6	11.8	93.3
	Strongly Disagree	26	4.0	4.0	97.4
	Disagree	17	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	646	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	12	1.8		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 11

7. If I encountered some nonnative speakers of English (Japanese, Pakistani, French,etc.) in the street, restaurant, hotel etc., I hope an opportunity would arise and they would talk to me.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	202	30.7	31.3	31.3
	Strongly Agree	69	10.5	10.7	42.0
	Neutral	174	26.4	27.0	69.0
	Strongly Disagree	75	11.4	11.6	80.6
	Disagree	125	19.0	19.4	100.0
	Total	645	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	13	2.0		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 12

8. If I encountered some nonnative speakers of English (Japanese, Pakistani, French,etc.) in the street, restaurant, hotel etc.. I would find an excuse and would talk to them.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	162	24.6	24.9	24.9
	Strongly Agree	60	9.1	9.2	34.1
	Neutral	152	23.1	23.3	57.5
	Strongly Disagree	105	16.0	16.1	73.6
	Disagree	172	26.1	26.4	100.0
	Total	651	98.9	100.0	
Missing	System	7	1.1		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 13

9. If I encountered some nonnative speakers of English (Japanese, Pakistani, French,etc.) who are facing problems in my country because of not knowing our language I take advantage of this opportunity and would talk to them.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	211	32.1	32.5	32.5
	Strongly Agree	61	9.3	9.4	41.9
	Neutral	174	26.4	26.8	68.7
	Strongly Disagree	61	9.3	9.4	78.1
	Disagree	142	21.6	21.9	100.0
	Total	649	98.6	100.0	
Missing	System	9	1.4		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 14

10. I am willing to accompany some nonnative speakers of English (Japanese, Pakistani, French, etc.) and be their tour guide for a day free of charge.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	198	30.1	31.5	31.5
	Strongly Agree	66	10.0	10.5	42.0
	Neutral	109	16.6	17.4	59.4
	Strongly Disagree	98	14.9	15.6	75.0
	Disagree	157	23.9	25.0	100.0
	Total	628	95.4	100.0	
Missing	System	30	4.6		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 15
11. I am willing to talk with nonnative speakers of English (Japanese, Pakistani, French,etc.).

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	227	34.5	36.0	36.0
	Strongly Agree	97	14.7	15.4	51.4
	Neutral	125	19.0	19.8	71.3
	Strongly Disagree	73	11.1	11.6	82.9
	Disagree	108	16.4	17.1	100.0
	Total	630	95.7	100.0	
Missing	System	28	4.3		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 16
12. In order to practice my English I am willing to talk in English with my classmates outside the class.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	270	41.0	42.6	42.6
	Strongly Agree	153	23.3	24.1	66.7
	Neutral	114	17.3	18.0	84.7
	Strongly Disagree	32	4.9	5.0	89.7
	Disagree	65	9.9	10.3	100.0
	Total	634	96.4	100.0	
Missing	System	24	3.6		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 17
13. I am willing to ask questions in English in the classes at the class.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	221	33.6	35.2	35.2
	Strongly Agree	102	15.5	16.3	51.5
	Neutral	146	22.2	23.3	74.8
	Strongly Disagree	61	9.3	9.7	84.5
	Disagree	97	14.7	15.5	100.0
	Total	627	95.3	100.0	
Missing	System	31	4.7		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 18
14. I am willing to talk and express my opinions in English in the class when all my classmates are listening to me.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	240	36.5	37.6	37.6
	Strongly Agree	106	16.1	16.6	54.2
	Neutral	138	21.0	21.6	75.9
	Strongly Disagree	62	9.4	9.7	85.6
	Disagree	92	14.0	14.4	100.0
	Total	638	97.0	100.0	
Missing	System	20	3.0		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 19

15. I am willing to have pair and group activities in the class so that I can talk in English with my classmates.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	298	45.3	46.9	46.9
	Strongly Agree	149	22.6	23.4	70.3
	Neutral	95	14.4	14.9	85.2
	Strongly Disagree	35	5.3	5.5	90.7
	Disagree	59	9.0	9.3	100.0
	Total	636	96.7	100.0	
Missing	System	22	3.3		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 20

16. In order to practice my English I am willing to talk in English with my teachers outside the class.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	243	36.9	38.5	38.5
	Strongly Agree	129	19.6	20.4	59.0
	Neutral	127	19.3	20.1	79.1
	Strongly Disagree	46	7.0	7.3	86.4
	Disagree	86	13.1	13.6	100.0
	Total	631	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	27	4.1		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 21

17. I am willing to give a presentation in English in front of my classmates.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	213	32.4	34.2	34.2
	Strongly Agree	97	14.7	15.6	49.8
	Neutral	142	21.6	22.8	72.6
	Strongly Disagree	75	11.4	12.0	84.6
	Disagree	96	14.6	15.4	100.0
	Total	623	94.7	100.0	
Missing	System	35	5.3		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 22

18. In group work activities in the class when the group is composed of my friends I am willing to speak in English.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	284	43.2	44.4	44.4
	Strongly Agree	148	22.5	23.2	67.6
	Neutral	115	17.5	18.0	85.6
	Strongly Disagree	28	4.3	4.4	90.0
	Disagree	64	9.7	10.0	100.0
	Total	639	97.1	100.0	
Missing	System	19	2.9		
Total		658	100.0		

TABLE 23

19. In group work activities in the class when the group is NOT composed of my friends I am willing to speak in English.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	219	33.3	34.4	34.4
	Strongly Agree	92	14.0	14.5	48.9
	Neutral	181	27.5	28.5	77.4
	Strongly Disagree	45	6.8	7.1	84.4
	Disagree	99	15.0	15.6	100.0
	Total	636	96.7	100.0	
Missing	System	22	3.3		
Total		658	100.0		

APPENDIX B

Willingness to Communicate in a Foreign Language Scale (WTC-FLS)

1. If I encountered some native speakers of English (British, American, Canadian, and Australian) in the street, restaurant, hotel etc., I hope an opportunity would arise and they would talk to me.

2. If I encountered some native speakers of English (British, American, Canadian, and Australian) in the street, restaurant, hotel etc., I would find an excuse and would talk to them.

3. If I encountered some native speakers of English (British, American, Canadian, and Australian) who are facing problems in my country because of not knowing our language I take advantage of this opportunity and would talk to them.

4. I am willing to accompany some native speakers of English (British, American, Canadian, and Australian) and be their tour guide for a day free of charge.

5. I am willing to talk with native speakers of English (British, American, Canadian, and Australian).

6. If someone introduced me to a native-speaker of English (British, American, Canadian, Australian) I would like to try my abilities in communicating with him/her in English.

7. If I encountered some nonnative speakers of English (Japanese, Pakistani, French, etc.) in the street, restaurant, hotel etc., I hope an opportunity would arise and they would talk to me.

8. If I encountered some nonnative speakers of English (Japanese, Pakistani, French, etc.) in the street, restaurant, hotel etc.. I would find an excuse and would talk to them.

9. If I encountered some nonnative speakers of English (Japanese, Pakistani, French, etc.) who are facing problems in my country because of not knowing our language I take advantage of this opportunity and would talk to them.

10. I am willing to accompany some nonnative speakers of English (Japanese, Pakistani, French, etc.) and be their tour guide for a day free of charge.

11. I am willing to talk with nonnative speakers of English (Japanese, Pakistani, French, etc.).

12. Nonnative speakers of English (Japanese, Pakistani, French, etc.) have interesting experiences that I would like to share[*].

13. In order to practice my English I am willing to talk in English with my classmates outside the class.

14. I am willing to ask questions in English in the classes at the university.

15. I am willing to talk and express my opinions in English in the class when all my classmates are listening to me.

16. I am willing to have pair and group activities in the class so that I can talk in English with my classmates.

17. In order to practice my English I am willing to talk in English with my professors outside the class.

18. I am willing to give a presentation in English in front of my classmates.

19. In group work activities in the class when the group is composed of my friends I am willing to speak in English.

20. In group work activities in the class when the group is NOT composed of my friends I am willing to speak in English.

REFERENCES

[1]   Arafat Hamouda. (2013). An Exploration of Causes of Saudi Students' Reluctance to Participate in the English Language Classroom, *International Journal of English Language Education,* ISSN 2325-0887, Vol. 1, No. 1, data retrieved from http://free-journal.umm.ac.id/files/file/2652-10348-2-PB.pdf. Access on 17/01/2015.

[2]   Baghaei, P. (2011). Validation of a multidimensional scale of willingness to communicate. Paper presented at the Meeting of the Methodology and Evaluation Section of the German Association of Psychology. Sep, 21-23, Bamberg, Germany.

[3]   Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2000a). The role of gender and immersion in communication and second language orientations. *Language Learning*, 50, 311-341.

[4]   Baker, S. C., & Maclntyre, P. D. (2000b). The effects of gender and immersion on communication and second language orientations. *Language Learning*, 50, 31.1-347.

[5]   Clement, R., Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2003). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The effects of context, norms, and vitality. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 22, 190-209.

[6]   Creswell, J. W. (2013). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. Sage Publications, Incorporated.

[7]   Dawood, Ahmed Mahdi. (2014). Willingness to Communicate in English: A Case Study of EFL Students at King Khalid University, *English Language Teaching*; Vol. 7, No. 7, http://www.google.com/url?url=http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/elt/article/download/37812/21132&rct=j&frm=1&q=&esrc=s&sa=U&ei=3yzKVNTZNI3saK_2gpAO&ved=0CBcQFjAB&usg=AFQjCNEDHtiNG5wjtpU3eCi9fAnK8zXG7g. Access on 10/02/2015.

[8]   Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The psychology of the language learner. Lawrence Erlbaum. UK

[9]   Dörnyei, Z. & Skehan, P. (2003). Individual differences in second language learning. In C. Doughty & M. Long (Eds.), *The hand-book of second language acquisition* (pp. 589-630). Malden, MA: Blackwell Pub.

[10]   Hashimoto, Y. (2002). Motivation and willingness to communicate as predictors of reported L2 use: The Japanese ESL context. Second Language Studies, 20(2), 29-70.

[11]   Hopp, H. (2006). Syntactic features and reanalysis in near-native processing. *Second language Research*, 22, 369-397.

[12]   Hughes, A. (2003). Testing for language teachers (2nd Ed.) Cambridge University Press.

[13]   Krekeler, C. (2006). Language for special academic purposes (LSAP) testing: the effect of background knowledge revisited. *Language Testing*, 23, 99-130.

[14]   Lee-Ellis, S. (2009). The development and validation of a Korean C-Test using Rasch Analysis. *Language Testing*, 26, 245–274.

[15]   MacIntyre, P., Baker, S. C., Clement, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2002). Sex and age effects on willingness to communicate, anxiety, perceived c competence, and L2 motivation among junior high school French immersion students. *Language Learning,* 52, 537-564.

[16]   MacIntyre, P., Baker, S. C., Clement, R, & Conrod, S. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 23, 369-388.

[17]   MacIntyre, P.D., Baker,S., Clement, R., Donovan, L.A., (2003). Talking in order to learn: willingness to communicate and intensive language programs. *Canadian Modern Language Review* 59,589e607.

[18]   Radhika Jaidev, (n.d) Investing in Learning English: A Case of Three Saudi Students in Singapore Centre for English Language Communication, National University of Singapore, *Reflections on English Language Teaching*, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp. 25–42, http://www.nus.edu.sg/celc/research/books/relt/vol10/25to42-jaidev.pdf. Access on 20/12/2014.

[19]   Schmid, M. S. & Dusseldorp, E. (2010). Quantitative analyses in a multivariate study of language attrition: the impact of extra linguistic factors. *Second Language Research*, 26, 125-160.

[20]   Wang, Y. (2004). The relationship between second language written performance and the level of willingness to communicate in class: A quantitative analysis of a second-year Chinese class 2004 at the Australian National University. Paper presented at the 15th Biennial Conference of the Asian Studies Association of Australia, Canberra.

[21]   Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal,* 86(1), 54-66.

Majed Alqahtani, was born in Saudi Arabia. He didi his MA Degree in Applied Linguistics at the University of Westminster, UK in 2007. Alos, He did his PhD in Applied Linguistics at the University of Southampton. In addition to that he did professional courses in Leadership in Higher Education at the University of Meborne, Ausralia in 2014 and English Language Teachers Summer Seminar2015 at the University of Oxford, UK.

He taught English for Academic Purpose at the University of Southampton from 2009 – 2011. Now is a Assiatnt Prosfessor of Applied Linguistics at the English Department at the University of Prince Sattam, Saudi Arabia. Recently he publish a book called "Studying Postgradute in UK, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, 20012. Also apaper called " Teaching English for Specific Purposes: Attitudes among Saudi Engineering Students, Canada, 2015". His current research interests are in Learning Strategy.

Reliability and Validity of WDCT in Testing Interlanguage Pragmatic Competence for EFL Learners

Lan Xu

School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand

Anchalee Wannaruk

School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand

Abstract—**Interlanguage pragmatic competence is of vital importance for the EFL learners because misunderstanding always occurs among people from different cultures. The present study aimed to develop an interlanguage pragmatic competence test in the field of speech acts with WDCT. Altogether 100 English major students and 33 native speakers in Guizhou University of China participated in the developing of the test, and another 60 English majors in Guizhou University of China took the test. The analysis of the reliability and validity of WDCT was based on Many Facets Rasch Model. The results showed that WDCT had both high reliability and validity in the Chinese context in testing the interlanguage pragmatic competence in speech acts performance.**

Index Terms—**speech acts, WDCT, reliability, validity, EFL learners**

I. INTRODUCTION

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) is the study of language learners' comprehension, production and acquisition of linguistic action in a second language (Kasper, 1998). Pragmatic competence is an indispensable component of overall language competence. It is the ability to use available linguistic resources (pragmalinguistics) in a contextually appropriate fashion (sociopragmatics), that is, how to do things appropriately with words (Kasper & Rose 1999). It is the appropriateness in communication, which includes all kinds of knowledge needed in discourses and based on context (He & Chen 2004). Si (2001) states that for Chinese EFL learners, pragmatic competence includes the following three aspects: pragmalinguistic ability, sociopragmatic ability and the awareness of the difference between English and Chinese.

Misunderstanding is a central issue in interlanguage pragmatics, which may occur between people from different cultural backgrounds. According to the National Language Research Institute (Shinpro 'Nihongo' Dai 2-han 1999a, 1999b), speakers of different languages and with different cultural backgrounds interpret pragmatic behaviors differently. Nishihara (1999) claims that the pragmatic standards for a country or culture will not be universally accepted. Thus, when we conduct an intercultural or international research, we need to be cautious to avoid overgeneralizing our own beliefs. Misunderstanding in communication between EFL learners and native speakers can naturally occur frequently due to the learner's weak understanding of the target culture.

In China, for many students, the purpose of learning English is to pass all kinds of English examinations. They memorize a large number of words, grasp enough grammatical knowledge and do reading and listening and writing exercises frequently for gaining high scores, but speaking is not included in most national tests for university students in China. Verbal communication in English is their weak point, even with the English majors. On the one hand, the students regard communication is nothing important for their scores; on the other hand, Chinese teachers often ignore the students' errors in their speaking, so some non-standard or non-habitual utterances of the students can be with them for many years. It is not an uncommon phenomenon that an English learner in China can get over 600 points in Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOFEL) and over 2000 in Graduate Record Examination (GRE) but does not know how to make a simple speech act in English in real communication (Liu 2004).

However, the studies on ILP competence testing are still on their initial stage, and there is no exception in China (Ma 2010). Up to now, no comprehensive testing of ILP in speech acts has been found. Most researchers concentrate on the reliability and validity of different kinds of testing methods with very limited speech acts, such as request, refusal and apology (Hudson 2001a, 2001b, Yamashita 1996a, 1996b, Yoshitake 1997, Liu 2007, Brown 2001, 2008, Roever 2010), advice (Hinkel 1997). Thus, it is urgent to design reliable and valid measurements for a wider scope of ILP competence testing. The present study aims to make some contribution in this field and hopes it will be helpful for both the teachers and learners in developing the ILP competence level in English.

Written discourse completion task (WDCT) is a pragmatics instrument that requires the learners to read a written description of a situation (including such factors as setting, participant roles, and degree of imposition) and asks them to write what they would say in that situation. It is a valid instrument in measuring speech acts performance and it is widely used in this field. It is easy to replicate because of their simplicity of use and high degree of variable control (Golato 2003). There are plenty of advantages of WDCT: it elicits more authentic language, it is easy to transcribe and administer because of paper and pencil, and it is time saving to collect a large amount of data. While the disadvantages of WDCT are also obvious: it is difficult to conduct because it requires recruiting, training, scheduling, and paying raters, it is time consuming for scoring and it collects written receptive and productive language only. Despite of all the disadvantages of WDCT, a number of researchers have applied this method in the studies of speech acts in the past 30 years (Blum-Kulka 1982, 1983, Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 1986, Cohen, Olshtain & Rosenstein 1986, House & Kasper 1987, Olshtain & Weinbach 1987, Takahashi & Beebe 1987, 1993, House 1989, Kasper 1989, Rose 1992, 1994a, Rose & Ono 1995, Johnston, Kasper & Ross 1998, Liu 2006a, 2006b, Fauzul 2013).

To design a test in ILP competence, reliability and validity are the two most important factors needed to be taken into consideration. Reliability refers to the consistency of the scores obtained--how consistent they are for each individual from one administration of an instrument to another and from one set of items to another (Subong 2006). Validity is the degree to which an assessment measures what it is supposed to measure (Garrett 1937). The following table is a summary of the major findings in the reliability of WDCT of pragmatic competence testing in speech acts.

TABLE 1.
RELIABILITY ESTIMATES FOR PREVIOUS TESTING PROJECTS

Researcher(s)	Year of study	Statistic measures	WDCT
Yamashita	1996a	K-R21	.87
	1996b	Alpha	.99
Yoshitake	1997	K-R21	.50
Hudson	2001a	Alpha	.86
Liu	2004	Alpha	.95
Duan	2012	Alpha	.74

It can be seen from the above table that most researchers show acceptable reliabilities in WDCT (Yamashita 1996a, 1996b, Hudson 2001a, Liu 2004, Duan 2012) except Yoshitake (1997) in testing ILP competence in speech acts.

With regard to the validity of WDCT, some researchers found that WDCT was a valid measure to test ILP competence in the field of speech acts. Hudson, Detmer & Brown (1995) found that WDCT was with high validity in assessing pragmatic competence of EFL learners after comparing six testing instruments, namely written discourse completion task, oral discourse completion task, multiple-choice discourse completion task, discourse role play task, self-assessment and role-play self-assessment. Yamashita (1996a, 1996b) applied the same six instruments to test the Japanese as the second language learners' pragmatic competence and she also concluded that WDCT was a valid measure. Ahn (2005) examined all the above instruments excluding multiple-choice discourse completion task in conducting speech acts for Korean as the second language (KSL) learners, and the results showed that WDCT was valid in the KSL context. Hinkel (1997) found DCTs in general might be very valid in eliciting data of ILP performance. However, some other researchers drew different conclusions. Rose (1994) and Rose & Ono (1995) found that WDCT may not be valid for collecting data for ILP competence of speech acts in Japanese context. Thus, further investigation is needed for the validity of WDCT in different context.

II. RESEARCH METHEDOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants in the study were 60 students in the foreign languages college in Guizhou University, China. All of them were selected from two intact classes of English majors in the third year based on the convenience sampling method.

B. Research Instrument

One hundred Chinese students majoring in English and thirty-three English native speakers in Guizhou University were conveniently selected to help the design of the thirty WDCT items. The English majors were all in their second academic year, while the native speakers were from different countries, including America, England, and Canada. The development of WDCT in the present study consisted of four stages: selection of the speech acts to be tested, exemplar generation, likelihood investigation and content validity check, which are explained as follows.

1. Selection of the speech acts to be tested

To select the speech acts to be tested, a questionnaire was designed. In this questionnaire, all the speech acts in Searle (1975) and the speech acts appeared in previous studies were listed. The teachers group (two American teachers and four Chinese teachers of English in Guizhou University) were invited to evaluate the possibility of all the speech acts for college students with the researcher. The selection of the speech acts were based on the familiarity and frequency of the use in the daily life decided by the teachers' group and the researcher, and finally twenty speech acts were selected to be listed in the questionnaire. After that, the questionnaire was distributed to the one hundred English majors and

they were required to choose the top ten frequently used speech acts they may meet in their daily life. Ninety-seven valid questionnaires were collected. After the calculation of the frequency, the most frequently used ten speeches acts were: advice, gratitude, greeting, congratulation, apology, request, compliment, inquiry, refusal and compliment response. The frequencies of them are illustrated in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCIES OF THE TOP TEN USED SPEECH ACTS

Speech act	Advice	Gratitude	Greeting	Congratulation	Apology
Frequency (%)	81	71	69	64	63
Speech act	Request	Compliment	Inquiry	Refusal	Compliment Response
Frequency (%)	59	56	50	42	38

2. Exemplar Generation

After the ten speech acts were decided, the next step was to obtain topics of the speech acts through exemplar generation (Rose & Ono 1995). An exemplar generation questionnaire was designed with an example of the situation of each speech act in both English and Chinese. Every student was required to write one possible situation they met in their daily life for each speech act. The students were encouraged to write the situations in English, but Chinese was allowed when writing in English was difficult. All the students wrote in English except one. Most students finished it within half an hour. As a result, 173 situations were collected, and the number of situations for each speech act is illustrated in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
DISTRIBUTION OF SITUATIONS

Speech act	advice	gratitude	greeting	congratulation	apology
No. of situations	18	23	16	18	20
Speech act	request	compliment	inquiry	refusal	compliment response
No. of situations	17	16	19	15	11

3. Likelihood Investigation

The third stage was a likelihood investigation. A questionnaire was designed to include all the situations collected in the above stage. The thirty-three native speakers were asked to indicate on a five point rating scale of likelihood, from impossible to most likely, according to the possibility that the situations would occur in their daily life. The likelihood investigation questionnaire was written in English. All the native speakers finished it within an hour. The top three situations of each speech act were selected in the study based on their mean scores. Finally, altogether thirty situations were obtained in the WDCT.

4. Content validity of WDCT

The thirty situations were rewritten and organized without changing the original meanings. The two American teachers and four Chinese teachers of English in the foreign languages college of Guizhou University were invited to check the content validity with the researcher. As Intaraprasert (2000) indicates that the texts should be validated in terms of appropricy, familiarity and degree of specification. The purpose of doing this was to obtain the data for the following issues: 1) Whether the expressions of the items are appropriate; 2) Whether each situation could elicit the expected speech act; 3) Whether the situations are typical in both America and China; 4) Whether the situations are familiar with the students. The results revealed that all items were appropriate for the present study and they could elicit the correct speech acts except some revisions on the language organization. Besides, the teachers' group and the researcher decided to assign this test to the third year students after their evaluation.

The participants' responses in the WDCT will be evaluated by the rating criteria adapted from Hudson et al. (1995). There are four aspects of pragmatic competence to be rated, i.e. the ability to use the correct speech act, typical expressions, amount of speech and information, and levels of formality, directness and politeness. The appropricy of each aspect will be scored on a five point rating scale ranging from 1, "very unsatisfactory", to 5, "completely appropriate".

III. DATA COLLECTION

The participants were required to finish the WDCT in the classroom circumstances, and no discussion was allowed. The language required in the test was English. All the students could finish within 90 minutes. The data were scored by two American teachers, and both of them work in the foreign languages college of Guizhou University and got master degrees of Arts, but if they could not reach an agreement, the third rater will be invited. The data were analyzed on the base of many-facet Rasch model (MFRM) with the help of Facets (3.71.4.) to calculate the reliability and validity of WDCT. The raters' reliability, the item difficulty level and discrimination power, criteria reliability and construct validity were calculated. The following section is the detailed description of them.

IV. RESULTS

Figure 1 is the general description of the examinees' ability, the leniency/severity of the raters, the difficulty of items and the scores used in the testing. There are five columns in the map. The first column displays the linear, equal-interval logit scale. Upon it, all facets in the analysis are positioned, and it illustrates a framework of reference for comparisons within and between the facets. The second column presents the examinees' performance measures, showing the tendency of the examinees to receive the high or low ratings from the raters on the logic scale. The examinees are ordered from high performing to low performing with the logit scale ranged from +1.0 to -1.0. The third column displays the raters' leniency/severity. The raters are ordered from more severe to more lenient when scoring the examinees. In figure 1, it can be seen that the two raters are almost on the same degree of severity/leniency at the level of about 0.0 logit, which means both of them are neither severe nor lenient. The fourth column displays the average difficulty level of items. The items' difficulty levels are ordered from more difficult to less difficult with the logit scale ranged from +0.5 logits to -0.5 logits. The fifth column graphically describes the 20-point rating scale used to score examinees' responses. It can be seen that the examinees were scored from 4 to 19.

```
+-------------------------------------------------+
|Measr|+examinees|-raters  |-items    |Scale|
-----+----------+---------+----------+-----
   1 +          +         +          +(19)
     |          |         |          | ---
     |          |         |          |
     |          |         |          | 15
     |          |         |          | ---
     |    *     |         |          |
     |    *.    |         |          | 14
     |    *     |         |   **     | ---
     |    ***.  |         |   ***    | 13
     |    ******|         |   ******
 *   0 * ****.  * R1  R2 * ******** * --- *
     |    **.   |         | ********
     |    ****. |         |   **     | 12
     |    ***   |         |          | ---
     |    *     |         |   *      | 11
     |          |         |          | ---
     |    .     |         |          | 10
     |    *     |         |          | ---
     |          |         |          | 9
     |          |         |          | ---
     |          |         |          | 8
  -1 +          +         +          + (4)
-----+----------+---------+----------+-----
|Measr|  * = 2  |-raters  |  * = 1   |Scale|
+-------------------------------------------------+
```
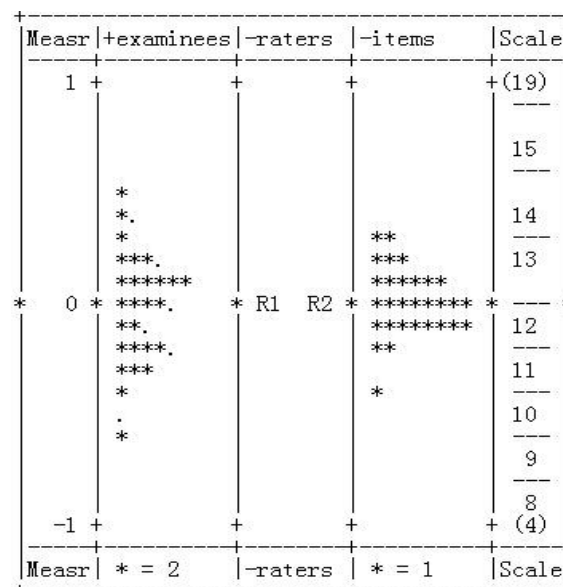
Figure 1. Facet Map for WDCT

A. Examines

Table 4 illustrates the information provided on examinees. Examinees are identified in column 1, an estimate of their ability is presented in column 2, errors of these estimates are in column 3, and column 4 shows information on the extent to which the model was functional in estimating the observed scores for the examinees. This is expressed in terms of the degree of match, or fit, between the expectations of the model and the actual performance for each examinee. The acceptable range of infit MnSq (mean square) is mean $\pm$ 2 deviations, and the acceptable ZStd (Z standard score) is between +2.0 to -2.0 (Linacre 2003). Values less than the minimum of the range indicate that the observed data are closer to their expected ratings than the model predicts (i.e., overfit). Values greater than the maximum of the range indicate the observed data are farther than the model expects (i.e., misfit) (Myford & Wolfe, 2003). Table 4 shows the examinees' ability measures spanned +.53 logits to -.61 logits. The Infit MnSq spanned 1.38 to .56 with a mean of 1.01 and a standard deviation of .19 and the Infit ZStd spanned +1.9 to -2.8. There is one examinee (1.7%) who is overfit. The percentage of examinees who are misfit or overfit should be at most around 2% (Pollitt & Huchinson 1987), so 1.7% is acceptable. At the bottom of Table 4, the reliability of separation index was 3.77, which indicates there is a significant difference among the examinees' ability. The separation index shows the significant difference among the examinees if it is bigger than 2.00. The separation reliability is .93 (above .70) which shows that the WDCT is reliable. The fixed chi-square test tests the hypothesis that all examinees are of the same level of performance. The Chi-square is 940.5 with d.f. 59 and the significance level is .00 (<.01). This confirms that there exists a significant difference among the examinees.

TABLE 4.
EXAMINEES MEASUREMENT REPORT (ARRANGED BY FN).

Examinee	Measure	SE	Fit	
			Infit MnSq	Infit ZStd
S6	-.16	.06	1.38	1.9
S51	-.02	.06	1.32	1.5
S22	.14	.07	1.31	1.5
S11	-.17	.06	1.29	1.4
S46	.19	.07	1.27	1.3
S59	.08	.06	1.27	1.3
S9	.13	.07	1.27	1.3
S14	.04	.06	1.25	1.2
S4	.06	.06	1.19	.9
S37	-.48	.06	1.16	.9
S54	-.08	.06	1.19	1.0
S35	-.17	.06	1.19	1.0
S20	.33	.07	1.19	.9
S18	.36	.07	1.16	.8
S41	-.04	.09	1.14	.5
S40	.10	.07	1.13	.7
S16	.15	.07	1.12	.6
S47	.14	.07	1.10	.5
S32	.13	.07	1.10	.5
S7	-.18	.06	1.08	.4
S12	-.09	.06	1.08	.4
S8	.04	.06	1.07	.4
S30	-.27	.06	1.07	.4
S19	-.26	.06	1.07	.4
S44	.06	.06	1.07	.3
S5	-.23	.06	1.06	.3
S39	-.08	.06	1.05	.3
S24	.18	.07	1.04	.2
S33	-.06	.06	1.03	.2
S34	.11	.07	1.03	.2
S45	.23	.07	1.01	.1
S50	-.08	.06	1.01	.1
S3	.43	.07	.99	.0
S57	.14	.07	.99	.0
S2	-.59	.06	.98	.0
S13	.25	.07	.96	-.1
S10	.07	.06	.95	-.1
S17	.46	.07	.98	.0
S36	-.19	.06	.94	-.2
S38	.22	.07	.94	-.2
S42	.00	.05	.94	-.3
S48	-.29	.06	.93	-.3
S23	.20	.07	.93	-.3
S58	.19	.07	.90	-.4
S27	-.31	.06	.89	-.6
S49	.03	.06	.89	-.5
S1	-.61	.06	.87	-.7
S56	.36	.07	.85	-.7
S29	-.14	.06	.89	-.5
S31	-.27	,06	.81	-1.1
S25	-.19	.06	.81	-1.0
S15	.53	.07	.77	-1.2
S53	-.37	.06	.77	-1.4
S55	-.02	.06	.75	-1.3
S43	-.45	.06	.70	-1.9
S28	.06	.06	.67	-1.8
S52	-.23	.06	.67	-1.9
S21	.01	.06	.67	-1.9
S60	-.05	.06	.65	-2.0
S26	-.27	.06	.56	-2.8
Mean	-.02	.06	1.01	.0
SD	.25	.01	.19	1.1

Model, Sample: Separation 3.77   Reliability .93.
Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: 940.5   d.f.: 59   Significance (probability): .00

B. Raters

Table 5 displays more detailed information of the two raters. Raters are identified in column 1 and an estimate of their leniency/severity in column 2, errors of these estimates in column 3 and the fit statistics in column 4. In this case it indicates the relative consistency in the raters. Lack of consistency is a problem and such raters need to be retrained or

changed. In Table 5, it can be found that Rater 1 is more severe than Rater 2 and the difference is .02 logits. The error was small and no raters are identified as misfitting. The Infit MnSq is within the mean $\pm$ 2 deviations and the Infit ZStd is within $\pm$ 2.0, so both raters are self-consistent in scoring. At the bottom of this table, the separation index, reliability of separation and chi-square results are provided. In the case of raters, a low reliability is desirable since ideally the different raters should be equally severe/lenient. The separation is 1.27 (<2.00) and the reliability of separation is .62 (<.70) which means the severity/leniency of the two raters is not significantly different. The chi-square is 2.6 with d.f. 1 and the significance level is .11 (>.05), which confirms that there is no significant difference between the raters.

TABLE 5.
RATERS MEASUREMENT REPORT (ARRANGED BY FN)

Rater	Measure	SE	Fit	
			Infit MnSq	Infit ZStd
R1	.01	.01	1.04	1.1
R2	-.01	.01	.96	-1.1
Mean	.00	.01	1.00	-.0
SD	.02	.00	.06	1.7

Model, Sample: Separation 1.27   Reliability .62
Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: 2.6   d.f.: 1   significance (probability): .11

C.   Items

Table 6 shows the estimated difficulty of the items. Items are identified in column 1. Their difficulty is shown in column 2, and items without minus are more difficult and items with minus are less difficult. The range of difficulty spans .27 to -.41 logits. Errors of these measure estimates are provided in column 3, and the error is .04. In column 4, the fit statistics are presented. Items which show greater variation than the model expected are misfitting (mean + 2 deviations) and those which show smaller variation than expected are overfitting (mean − 2 deviations). No items are found either misfitting or overfitting, but Item 7 is on the border of misfitting and Item 15 and 13 are on the border of overfitting. These can be improved by modifying the items and retraining the raters. At the bottom of the table, the separation index 3.13 and the reliability of separation .91 are shown, which means the items are with significantly different difficulty. The chi-square significance .00 (<.01) further confirms this.

TABLE 6.
ITEMS MEASUREMENT REPORT (ARRANGED BY FN)

Item	Measure	SE	Fit	
			Infit MnSq	Infit ZStd
I7	.11	.04	1.28	2/0
I19	.05	.04	1.26	1.8
I16	-.06	.05	1.26	1.8
I14	-.11	.05	1.23	1.6
I28	.27	.04	1.22	1.7
I11	-.02	.04	1.16	1.1
I4	-.01	.04	1.16	1.1
I8	.18	.04	1.08	.6
I3	-.10	.05	1.15	1.0
I29	.19	.04	1.14	1.0
I9	.26	.04	1.11	.9
I21	.14	.04	1.12	.9
I6	-.07	.05	1.04	.3
I20	.08	.04	1.02	.1
I30	.17	.04	.98	-.1
I18	.04	.04	.92	-.5
I24	-.03	.04	.92	-.5
I22	.08	.04	.92	-.6
I26	-.16	.05	.91	-.6
I10	-.09	.04	.86	-1.0
I1	-.09	.05	.87	-.9
I5	-.04	.04	.86	-1.0
I25	-.41	.05	.87	-1.0
I2	-.07	.05	.84	-1.2
I27	-.23	.05	.81	-1.4
I12	-.01	.04	.79	-1.6
I23	-.13	.05	.78	-1.7
I17	-.05	.04	.78	-1.7
I15	-.07	.05	.75	-2.0
I13	.01	.04	.75	-2.0
Mean	.00	.04	.99	-.1
SD	.15	.00	.17	1.3

Model, Sample: Separation 3.13   Reliability .91
Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: 308.4   d.f.: .29   significance (probability): .00

D.   Rating Scale

Table 7 shows the rating scale statistics. Column 1 displays information relating to the data, including the categories (categories span 4-19, because for each aspect of rating, the lowest score is 1, then in total for the four aspects, the lowest score is 4, and no one got the full score 20), observed use of each category (counts used), percentage of the used responses (%), and cumulative percentage of responses in this category (cum %). Information in column 2 describes the validity of the categorization, which includes the average of the measures, the expected measures and the unweighted mean-square for observations in this category (outfit mean square). Monotonically increasing of the thresholds is one basic requirement for the validity of the rating scale (Piquero et al. 2001). The Infit MnSq is not reported because it approximates the Outfit MnSq when the data are stratified by category (Linacre 2014). Since high categories are intended to reflect high measures, the average measures are expected to advance (Linacre 1997). The logit values of the average measures for the scales from 4 to 19 range from -.73 to .35, and these measures are monotonically increasing. The outfit mean-square index is also a useful indicator of rating scale functionality. For each rating scale category, Facets computes the observed average ability measure and an expected average ability measure of the examinees. When the observed and expected ability measures are close, the outfit MnSq index for the rating category will be around the expected value 1.0. The greater outfit MnSq index indicates the larger discrepancy between the observed and expected measures. For a given rating category, any outfit MnSq index greater than 2.0 suggests that the ratings in that category for one or more examinees may not be contributing to meaningful measurement (Linacre 1999). As shown in Table 7, every outfit MnSq index is around 1.0 and no one is greater than 2.0, which suggests that the rating scales seem to be functioning as intended. Another pertinent rating scale 'characteristics' includes thresholds, or step calibration, and category fit statistics (Bond & Fox 2001). For this index, the ideal distance for each two rating scales is 1.0 logits and it cannot be bigger than 4.0 logits (Linacre 1999). When the logits are bigger than 4.0, it indicates there is a central tendency in rating. In Table 7, the distance between each two rating scales is no bigger than 4.0 logits.

TABLE 7.
RATING SCALE STATISTICS

Data				Fit			Step Calibration	
Category score	Counts Used	%	Cum. %	Avge Meas	Exp. Meas	Outfit MnSq	Measure	S.E.
4	5	0	0	-.73	-.50	.6		
5	17	0	1	-.69	-.45	.5	-1.70	.45
6	39	1	2	-.39	-.39	1.0	-1.25	.22
7	76	2	4	-.28	-.34	1.1	-1.06	.13
8	121	3	7	-.20	-.27	1.2	-.74	.09
9	199	6	13	-.18	-.21	1.1	-.74	.07
10	315	9	22	-.17	-.15	1.0	-.64	.05
11	502	14	35	-.12	-.09	.9	-.59	.04
12	598	17	52	-.03	-.03	1.0	-.23	.04
13	598	17	69	.03	.03	1.0	.00	.04
14	567	16	84	.11	.09	.9	.11	.04
15	314	9	93	.17	.15	.9	.71	.05
16	150	4	97	.21	.21	1.0	.92	.07
17	73	2	99	.22	.27	1.1	.96	.11
18	22	1	100	.26	.33	1.1	1.50	.21
19	2	0	100	.35	.39	1.0	2.76	.71

Generally speaking, the MFRM analyzed the reliability and validity from four facets (examinees, raters, items and rating scales) of WDCT. The results show that WDCT has high reliability. Table 4 shows the examinees' abilities are significantly different, although one examinee is overfitting, the percentage 1.7% is still acceptable. Table 5 illustrates that the two raters are consistent and there is no significant difference in their severity/leniency. Table 6 proves that the items difficulty is significantly different. The rating scale statistics in Table 7 shows a good construct validity of WDCT as well since no overfitting or misfitting is found and the measure is monotonically increasing. In a word, with the high reliability and construct validity, the WDCT can be used to evaluate the examinees' ILP competence in conducting speech acts functionally.

V.   DISCUSSION

The present study shows a high reliability of WDCT in testing ILP competence in speech acts, which is in accordance with the findings of Yamashita (1996a, 1996b), Hudson (2001a), Liu (2004) and Duan (2012), but it is different from what Yoshitake (1997) found. This study also concludes that WDCT is a valid measure. Some of the previous researchers (Hudson, Detmer & Brown 1995, Yamashita 1996a, 1996b, Hinkel 1997, Ahn 2005, Duan 2012) drew the same conclusion, whereas others (Rose 1994, Rose & Ono 1995) hold the opposite point of view.

Reliability and validity are complementary aspects of validation process (Bachman & Savignon 1990). The present study has some implication for not only WDCT development, but for the development of different test forms in ILP competence. According to Roever (2005), to test pragmatic knowledge, the basic concern for item development is that the items should represent the real-world language use, but not based on the intuition of the designers. In the

development of WDCT, the first step is the selection of the speech acts to be tested. The purpose of this step is to obtain the authenticity of the test because the speech acts in the test were familiar with the EFL learners. Authenticity is seen as a critical quality of language tests and is said to have a great effect on test takers' performance (Bachman & Palmer 1996). The second step is exemplar generation, in which the EFL learners were required to write the situations happen to them in each speech act. It can also help to enhance the authenticity of the study. The third step is likelihood investigation. In this step, the native speakers were asked to evaluate the possibility of the situations given by the EFL learners in their own culture. The situations which happen in both EFL culture and English-speaking culture were chosen, and it guarantees the authenticity of the situations in Chinese and target language cultures. Therefore, it tests the pragmatic ability when learning English for EFL learners. The last step is content validity check. In this step, the accuracy and organization of the language as well as the format of the WDCT can be guaranteed.

However, the present research proved the WDCT items developed in the study worked well in ILP competence testing in the Chinese context, and the results may be different when they are conducted with different groups or different cultural context. Further research is still recommended.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study investigates the reliability and validity of WDCT in testing EFL learners' ILP competence in conducting speech acts. The results show that WDCT is a reliable and valid measure in testing interlanguage speech acts performance for EFL learners. Examining the EFL learners' ILP competence will be of great help in understanding their levels in this field. The learners could recognize their problems in pragmatics in English, and then pay attention to them in the process of learning and in communication with native speakers. In addition, most English majors in China will go to English-related jobs after graduation (Zhu 2007, Zhang 2012), so to realize their weakness and to improve their ILP ability will be helpful for their future careers since appropriacy in using English is not emphasized in the college life and most EFL learners and teachers always ignore the importance of it (Liu 2004, Ji & Jiang 2010). Thus, to design a reliable and valid measure is extremely important, and the present research hopes to make some contribution in ILP competence testing and development.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

REFERENCES

[1]   Ahn, R. C. (2005). Five measures of interlanguage pragmatics in KFL (Korean as a foreign language) learners. Unpublished Ph.D dissertation. University of Hawaii at Manoa, Honolulu, HI.
[2]   Bachman, L. F., & Savignon, S. J. (1990). Fundamental considerations in language testing (Vol. 107). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[3]   Bachman, L. F. & Palmer, A. S. (1996). Language testing in practice. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[4]   Blum-Kulka, S. (1982). The study of translation in view of new developments in discourse analysis: Indirect speech acts. *Poetics today* 2.4, 89-95.
[5]   Blum-Kulka, S. (1983). Interpreting and performing speech acts in a second language: A cross-cultural study of Hebrew and English. In Wolfson, N., & Judd, E. (eds.). *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition*. New York: Newbury House Publishers, 3655.
[6]   Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1986). Too many words: Length of utterance and pragmatic failure. *Studies in Second language acquisition* 8.2, 165-179.
[7]   Bond, T. G., & Fox, C. M. (2001). Applying the Rasch model: Fundamental measurement in the human sciences. New York: Psychology Press.
[8]   Brown, J.D. (2001).   Six types of pragmatics tests in two different contexts. In Rose, K. & Kasper, G. (eds.). *Pragmatics in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 301-325.
[9]   Brown, J. D. (2008). Raters, functions, item types and the dependability of L2 pragmatics tests. In E. Alcón Soler & A. Martínez-Flor (eds.). *Investigating pragmatics in foreign language learning, teaching and testing*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, 224-248.
[10] Duan, L. L. (2012). The study of reliability and validity of pragmatic competence testing measures. *Foreign languages studies* 4, 84-96.
[11] Fauzul, A. (2013). The assessment tool of L2 learners' pragmatic competence: Written discourse completion test (WDCT). *IPEDR* 68.19, 113-117.
[12] Cohen, A. D., Olshtain, E. & Rosentain. (1986). Advanced EFL apologies: remains to be learned. *International journal of sociology of language* 62, 51-74.
[13] Garrett, H. E. (1937). Statistics in psychology and education. London: Longman.
[14] Golato, A. (2003), Studying compliment responses: A comparison of recordings of DCTs and naturally occurring talk. *Applied linguistics* 24.1, 90-121.
[15] He, Z. R. & Chen, X. R. (2004). Contemporary pragmatics. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[16] Hinkel, E. (1997). Appropriateness of Advice: DCT and Multiple Choice Data. *Applied linguistics* 18.1, 1-26.

[17] House, J. & Kasper, G. (1987). Interlanguage pragmatics: Requesting in a foreign language. In W. Lorscher & R. Schulze (eds.). *Perspectives on language in performance.* Festschirift for Werner Hullen. Tabingen: Narr, 1250-1288.

[18] House, J. (1989). Politemess in English and German: the functions of please and bitte. In S. Blum-Lulka, J. House & G. Kasper (eds.). *Cross-cultural pragmatics.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex, 96-119.

[19] Hudson, T. (2001a). Indicators for cross-cultural pragmatic instruction: some quantitative tools. In Rose, K. and Kasper, G. (eds.). *Pragmatics in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 283-300.

[20] Hudson, T. (2001b). Self-assessment methods in cross-cultural pragmatics. In T. Hudson & J. D. Brown (eds.). *A Focus on language test development.* Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press, 57-74.

[21] Hudson, T., Detmer, E. and Brown, J. D. (1995). Developing prototypic measures of cross-cultural pragmatics. (Technical Report 7). Honolulu, HI:University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

[22] Intaraprasert, C. (2000). Language learning strategies employed by engineering students learning English at the tertiary level in Thailand. Ph.D dissertation, University of Leeds.

[23] Ji, P. Y. & Jiang, J. (2010). A Reconsideration on Pragmatic Competence in College English Education. *Foreign language world* 6, 33-41.

[24] Johnston, B., Kasper, G. & Ross, S. (1998). Effect of rejoinders in production questionnaires. *Applied linguistics* 19, 157–182.

[25] Kasper, G. (1998). Interlanguage Pragmatics. In H. Byrnes (eds.). *Learning foreign and second lauguages: Perspectives in research and scholarship.* New York: The Modern Language Association of America.

[26] Kasper, G. & Rose, K. R. (1999). Pragmatics and SLA. *Annual review of applied linguistics* 19, 81-104.

[27] Linacre, J. M. (1997). Guidelines for rating scales. In Midwest Objective Measurement Seminar. Chicago: MESA Press, Research Note Vol 2.

[28] Linacre, J. M. (1999). Investigating rating scale category unity. *Journal of outcome measurement* 3, 103-122.

[29] Linacre, J. M. (2003). A user's guide to FACETS: Rasch-model computer programs. Chicago: MESA Press.

[30] Linacre, J. M. (2014). A user's guide to FACETS: Rasch-Model computer programs. http://www.winsteps.com/a/facets-manual.pdf/ (accessed 8/12/2014).

[31] Liu, J. D. (2004). Measuring interlanguage pragmatic knowledge of Chinese EFL learners. Unpublished Ph.D dissertation. City University of Hong Kong.

[32] Liu, J. D. (2006a). Measuring interlanguage pragmatic knowledge of EFL learners. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

[33] Liu, J. D. (2006b). Assessing EFL learners' interlanguage pragmatic knowledge: Implications for testers and teachers. *Reflections on English language teaching* 5, 1-22.

[34] Liu, J. D. (2007). Developing a pragmatics test for Chinese EFL learners. *Language testing* 24.3, 391-415.

[35] Ma, T (2010). The interlanguage pragmatic competence of English majors and its development in ethnic universities---A case study of Beijing ethnic university. Ph.D dissertation. Shanghai International Studies University.

[36] Myford, C. M., & Wolfe, E. W. (2003). Detecting and measuring rater effects using many-facet Rasch measurement: part I. *Journal of applied measurement* 5.2, 189-227.

[37] Nishihara, S. (1999). Kenkyu no gaino. In Shimpro 'Nihongo' Dai 2-han (ed.) Video Shigi ni-yoru Gengo Koudou Ishiki Chousa Houkokusho: Bunseki hen (Study of consciousness toward linguistic behaviors of Japanese by video stimulation: Book of analysis). Tokyo: National Language Research Institute. Ministry of Education of Japan, Scientific Research Grant No. 09NP0701, 1-14.

[38] Olshtain, E. & Weinbach, L. (1987). Complaints: A study of speech act behavior among native and nonnative speakers of Hebrew. In J. Verschueren & M. Bertucceslli-Papi (eds.). *The pragmatic perspective: Selected papers from the 1985 international pragmatics conference.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 195-208.

[39] Piquero, A. R., MacIntosh, R., & Hickman, M. (2001). Applying Rasch modeling to the validity of a control balance scale. *Journal of criminal justice* 29.6, 493-505.

[40] Pollitt, A., & Hutchinson, C. (1987). Calibrating graded assessments: Rasch partial credit analysis of performance in writing. *Language testing* 4.1, 72-92.

[41] Roever, C. (2005). Testing ESL pragmatics: Development and validation of a web-based assessment battery. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

[42] Roever, C. (2010). Effects of native language in a test of ESL pragmatics: A DIF approach. In G. Kasper, H. thi Nguyen, D. R. Yoshimi, & J. Yoshioka (eds.). *Pragmatics and language learning.* Honolulu, HI: National Foreign Language Resource Center, 187-212.

[43] Rose, K. R. (1994). On the validity of discourse completion tests in non-western contexts. *Applied linguistics* 15.1, 1-14.

[44] Rose, K. R. & Ono, R. (1995) Eliciting speech act data in Japanese: the effect of questionnaire type. *Language learning* 45, 191–223.

[45] Searle, J. R. (1975). Indirect speech acts. In Cole & Morgan (eds.). *Syntax and semantics.* New York: Academic Press, 59-82.

[46] Shinpro 'Nihongo' Dai 2-han (1999a). Video Shigi ni-yoru Gengo Koudou Ishiki Chousa Houkokusho: Bunseki hen (Study of Consciousness Toward linguistic behaviors of Japanese by video stimulation: Book of snalysis). Tokyo: National Language Research Institute. Ministry of Education of Japan, Scientific Research Grant No. 09NP0701.

[47] Shinpro 'Nihongo' Dai 2-han (1999b). Video Shigi ni-yoru Gengo Koudou Ishiki Chousa Houkokusho: Bunseki hen (Study of consciousness toward linguistic behaviors of Japanese by video stimulation: Book of data). Tokyo: National Language Research Institute. Ministry of Education of Japan, Scientific Research Grant No. 09NP0701. [d3].

[48] Si, L. H. (2001). Interlanguage, pragmatic competence and culture learning. *Foreign language research* 2.105, 101-106.

[49] Subong, P. E. (2006). Statistics for research: applications in research, thesis and dissertation writing, and statistical data management using SPSS software. Sampaloc, Manila: Rex Bookstore.

[50] Takahashi, T. & Beebe, L.M. (1987). The development of pragmatic competence by Japanese learners of English. *JALT journal* 8, 131-55.

[51] Takahashi, T. & Beebe, L. M. (1993). Cross-linguistic influence in the speech act of correction. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (eds.). *Interlanguage pragmatics.* New York: Oxford University Press, 138-157.

[52] Yamashita, S.O. (1996a). Comparing six cross-cultural pragmatics measures. Ph.D dissertation. Temple University.
[53] Yamashita, S.O. (1996b) Six Measures of JSL Pragmatics. (Technical Report 14). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
[54] Yoshitake, S. S. (1997). Measuring interlanguage pragmatic competence of Japanese students of English as a foreign language: a multi-test framework evaluation. Unpublished PhD thesis. Columbia Pacific University, Novata, CA.
[55] Zhang, D. Y. (2012). Employment Situation of English Major Graduates and Countermeasure Analysis. *Journal of HuBei TV University* 32.9, 50-52.
[56] Zhu, X. (2007). The Strategies to Cope with Employment for University English-Major Undergraduates. *Journal of Neijiang technology* 1, 13. 65.

Lan Xu was born in Guizhou province, China, Oct. in 1980. She is currently a Ph.D candidate in School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. She has been teaching in English Department of Foreign Languages School in Guizhou University, China since 2001. She received her bachelor and master degrees in English studies in 2001 and 2006 respectively in Guizhou University, China. Her research interests involve second language acquisition, pragmatics and language testing.

Anchalee Wannaruk was born in 1967. She is currently an associate professor, Ph.D advisor and the chair of School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. She received her Ph.D in the Graduate College of the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, America, in 1997, won her M.A. in Mahidol University, Thailand, in 1989 and got her B.Ed in Chulalongkorn University, Thailand, in 1986. Her research interests involve pragmatics, language testing and corpus-based language learning.

Development of Teaching Materials Based on Indonesian Folktale in Gowa District

Ulfa Tenri Batari
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Jln. Bonto Langkasa, Kampus Gunung Sari, Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Achmad Tolla
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Jln. Bonto Langkasa, Kampus Gunung Sari, Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Muhammad Rafi Tang
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Jln. Bonto Langkasa, Kampus Gunung Sari, Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Anshari
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Jln. Bonto Langkasa, Kampus Gunung Sari, Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia

Abstract—The purpose of the research was to develop learning materials of Bahasa Indonesia based on folklore in Gowa District for III grade students in the primary school. The type of research was research development with design development through the development of the teaching model of Four-D Model namely defines, design, develops, and disseminates. Data was collected through observation sheets, validation sheet, questionnaire, and the test results from the study. The data were analyzed using validity diagnosis, practicality and effectiveness. The result was proved that the overall validation criteria contained in the validation sheets syllabus, Lesson Plan, and Worksheet rated valid by the team of experts, practitioners, colleague friends. The three validation device's material that otherwise met the eligibility standards to use in learning Bahasa Indonesia in primary schools, in particular, in III grade. A small group of trial results was proved that materials meet these terms so no need more revision and deserve to be tried out in a large group or field trial. The test results from the scale field trials these are terms of practicability material, and effectiveness material has been met. So learning materials based on folklore in Gowa District was declared eligible to serve as learning materials of Bahasa Indonesia for III grades in primary school.

Index Terms—development of teaching materials, learning of Bahasa, and folklore

I. Introduction

The teacher is an honorable and noble profession. Teachers ideally looks professional with the primary task is to educate, guide, train, and develop curriculum. Teacher in the era of information and communication technologies is not just to teach, but must be the manager of learning. The teacher is expected to create challenging learning conditions, creativity and activity of learners, motivate learners, using multimedia, multi-method and multi-source (teaching materials) to achieve the expected learning goals.

Teaching materials is one component of a learning system that has an important role in helping learners to achieve Standard Competence and Basic Competence or learning objectives that have been determined. An elementary school teacher must prepare to teach material of Bahasa Indonesia. Bahasa Indonesia is a central role in the development of intellectual, social, and emotional learners and supporting the success of study in all subjects. Learning Bahasa Indonesia is expected to help students to understand themselves, their culture and other cultures, ideas and feeling, participate in society use the language, and find and use analytical skills and imaginative to the self of learners.

Competency standards subjects of Bahasa in elementary school, or Ibtidaiyah madrasah, namely: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The four skills are presented in an integrated and not obtained at once. However, the ability gradually awakened. Interpret this, the teacher can focus on the development of language competence of learners by providing a variety of language activities and learning resources. Which then provides a variety of language activities and learning resources that are adapted to the conditions and peculiarities of the area, but still consider the national interest. Talk about the conditions and peculiarities of the area, the Capital Gowa District, Sungguminasa, is one of the potential areas to create teaching materials. The process of maintaining cultural traditions and customs made through oral tradition (folklore) and literary works, such as the Chronicle, mysticism, songs, tales, and lontarak.

Folklore is partly cultural and historical that owned by Indonesian. In general, the folklore tells about an incident a place. Many people do not realize that this beloved archipelago has much Indonesian folklore that has not been heard. It could be because the folklore spread by word of mouth. However, much folklore now, written and published so that the Indonesian folklore can be maintained and not disappear and become extinct. Without realizing it, heard folklore will indirectly shape the attitudes and morals of children. This research aims to develop teaching materials based on

Indonesian folklore, Gowa District in III grade students in primary school. This research can provide benefits for students as a source of learning that can motivate students to learning the language, literature and culture of Makassar. Moreover, enrich the knowledge, insight, and experience in learning literature to increase the sensitivity to appreciate the emotions of learners in work of literature. For teachers, this research is useful as a guide to carrying out the teaching and learning activities and simultaneously motivate to improve the performance of teachers in planning, implementing, and evaluating learning of Bahasa Indonesian. For policy makers, the results of this research into quality assurance instrument learning Bahasa Indonesia based on local wisdom.

Based on the above, it will set out the process for the development of teaching materials based on the folklore of Gowa district in the third-grade students in elementary school.

A. Learning Material

Kemediknas (2008) provide an understanding of some of the definitions of learning materials as follows:

a. Teaching materials are information, tools and texts that must be required of teacher/instructor for the planning and reviewing of implementation of learning.

b. Teaching materials are all forms of materials that used to help teachers/instructors in implementing the teaching and learning activities into the classroom.

c. Learning materials are written or unwritten material. (National Center for Vocational Education Research Ltd/National Center for Competency-Based Training).

d. Learning material is a set of material that arranged in a systematic matter, whether written or unwritten to create the environment/atmosphere that allows learners to learn.

Sulistyowati (2009) suggested that the use of teaching materials served as a guide for teachers to direct their activities within the learning process as well as a substance skill for students, guidance for learners to direct their activities within the learning process as well as a substance skill, and assessment tools, achievement or mastery of learning outcomes.

Step for the selection of teaching materials according to Rudianto (2011) namely (1) Identify the aspects contained within the standard of competence (core competencies) and basic competence; (2) Identify the types of learning materials; (3) Select the type of material in accordance with the standards and basic competencies.

According to Mulyasa (2006, p. 154) there are needed to be considered during the development of teaching materials, namely:

1. Validity

Aspect relating to the suitability of the material to achieve a level of competency, It is necessary to consider the validity of the material and scientifically.

2. Significance

It relates to the level of interest and significance so that the material is important to learn and relate directly to the formation of competencies.

3. Utility

Teaching materials should provide benefits for students, both academic and non-academic in continuing education at a higher level/working and living within the community, and develop learners by the principle of lifelong education.

4. Learnability

It relates to the possibility of the material to be learned in terms of feasibility, availability and ease to obtain it.

5. Interest

Teaching materials must be able to evoke the spirit of learners and encourage them to undertake a further study.

B. Learning Bahasa in Elementary Schools

Bahasa Indonesia is a subject that teaches students to communicate properly. This communication can be done either oral or written. Bahasa Indonesia is a communications tool that become one of the hallmarks of Indonesia and used as a national language. Learning Bahasa has a very important role in shaping the habits, attitudes, and the ability of learners to the next stage of development.

Learning Bahasa implementation based on KTSP 2006, based on the standards of competence. In the curriculum, 2013, subject of Bahasa in elementary school is taught by integrating the subject of Bahasa with science and social science. Subjects of Bahasa material aspects indeed to be open because that will be built is the language competence, but not necessarily all the subjects included in Bahasa.

There are various methods of teaching and learning languages such as oral method, mimicry method, memorization, and others. Some approaches to language learning, in principle, be used for the teaching of Bahasa, namely:

1. Formal or Traditional Approach

This approach considers language learning is a conventional routine, by following the ways that have been used to do based on experience.

2. Functional Approach

The functional approach assumes that to learn a language should make direct contact with the public or people who use the language.

3. Integral Approach

This approach embraces the idea that language teaching should be something that is multi-dimensional, in the sense of many factors to be considered in teaching.

4. Socio Linguistic Approach

The sociolinguistic approach is a language teaching approach that utilizes the results of a sociolinguistic study. Sociolinguistics is the study of the relationship of symptoms to symptoms of a language community.

5. Psychological Approach

It looked at the psychological approach to language teaching is concerned with the science that examines how learners learn, and how learners as complex individuals.

6. Psycholinguistic Approach

This approach is relying on theories about how the process that going on in the minds of children when starting to learn the language, and how its development.

7. Behavioristic Approach

Skinner pioneered this approach about 1957. The behavioristic approach can be controlled from the outside, namely the stimulus and response. The environment provides stimulus or stimuli, whereas learners to respond.

8. Classroom Management Approach

Classroom management approach can be done through a variety of other approaches, namely the authoritarian approach, permissive, changing behavior, socio-emotional climate approach, and the approach to the group process.

9. Communicative Approach

This approach was born as a result of dissatisfaction with the practitioners or language teachers for the results achieved using the grammar translation method. It is because only prioritize mastery of grammar rules, rules out the ability to communicate as the expected final form of language learning.

C. Folklore

Traditional literature consists of various types such as myths, legends, fables, folklore (folktale, folklore), folk songs, and others. Mitchell (2003, p. 228) argues that the distinction types of customary literature not clear yet, there is an element of overlap characteristics among the various types of traditional literature. Fang (1976, p. 1) distinguishes the elderly Malay folk literature into five types, namely the story of the origin, the story of animals, the story of funnies, the story of solace and rhymes. So Fang did not reveal of myths and legends into old Malay folk literature but referred to them as the origin story in which can be both myths and legends. Even more important to note is the meaning of the content, messages or morals offered by different types of stories.

Various folklores contained in the province of South Sulawesi, those are *Putri Tandampalik*, *I Laurang*, *Ambo Upe dan Burung Beo*, *Lamaddukelleng*, *Sawerigading*, *La Upe, Nenek Pakandeso* and others. Folklore originating from Gowa district is Lamaddukelleng. The stories that serve as folklore have a deep meaning, and cultural values are very high. Through the characteristics and nature of the characters, learners can feel and appreciate the meaning of life is applied in real life from the meaning that learners can find the values that shape attitudes and behavior.

II. METHODOLOGY

This research was research development (Research and Development). The design of the development was done through the development of teaching models by Thiagarajan (1974, p. 5), that known as the Four-D models namely define, design, develops, and disseminate.

The study design is shown in Figure 1.
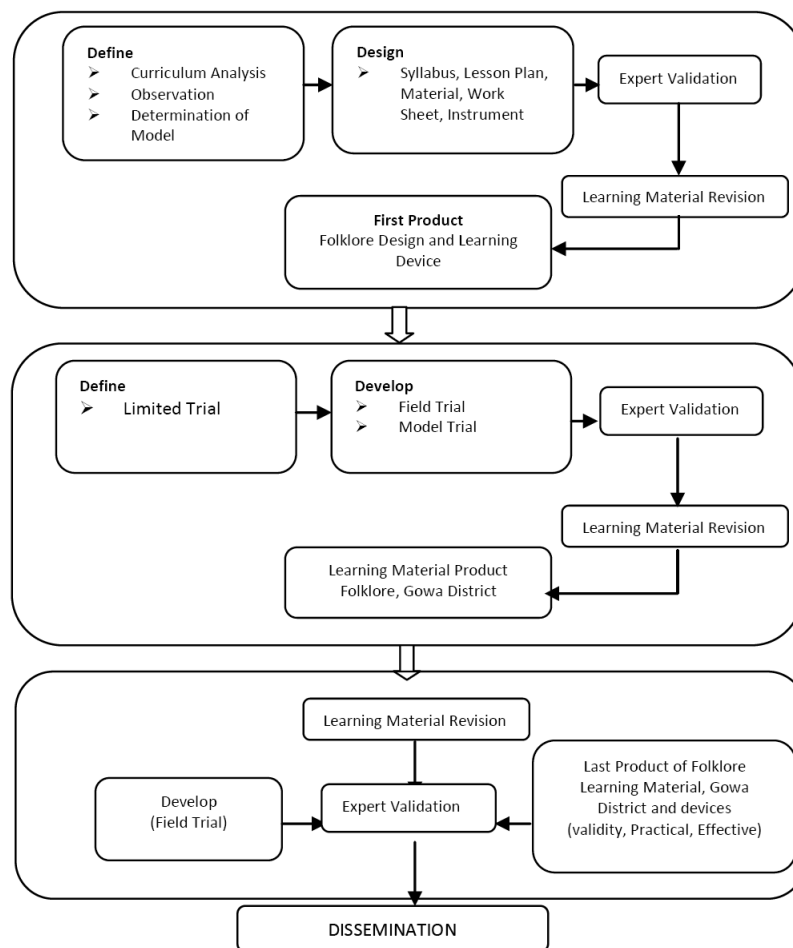
Fig. 1 Research Design

Data were collected in the form of oral and written. Data were also obtained from the verbal suggestions/criticism orally on products by experts (content) based on teaching material of folklore, expert design (media) instructional literature, practitioners (teachers) and learners. Data was formulated in the form of spoken correction/feedback/suggestions in writing directly to the product that obtained from the experts (content) learning, instructional design expert literature, practitioners (teachers) and learners. The results of data were collected from a validation sheet, observation sheets, questionnaires, and achievement test. Data analysis was performed to assess the validity, practicality, and effectiveness. The following analysis of the data presented in the form:

A. Analysis Validity Instructional Materials

To measure the validity of the Bahasa based on folklore teaching materials, Gowa District, do the following steps quoted from Nurdin (2007).
1. Calculate the average of the results from the validation of all validator for each criterion by the formula

$$\overline{Ki} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} V_{ij}}{n} \text{ With}$$

$\overline{Ki}$ = Average Criterion to i
Vij = Scores the results of an assessment of the criteria to i by a validator to j
N = Number of Validator
2. Calculate the average of each aspect according to the formula

$$\overline{Ai} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \overline{K}_{ij}}{n}$$

$\overline{Ai}$ = Average Criterion to i

$\overline{K}_{ij}$ = Average Criterion i to criterion j, and
n = Number of criterion in aspect to i

3. Calculate the total average ($\bar{X}$) with formula

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \bar{A}_i}{n}$$

$\bar{X}$ = Total Average
$\bar{A}_i$ = Average aspect to i
n = Number of aspect

4. Assign categories validity of each criterion or aspect or overall aspect by comparing the average criteria ($\overline{Ki}$) or mean aspect criteria ($\bar{A}_i$) or mean total ($\bar{X}$) of the following categories:

$3,5 \leq M \leq 4$	very valid
$2,5 \leq M \leq 3,5$	valid
$1,5 \leq M \leq 2,5$	quite valid
$M < 0,5$	not valid

Description:
GM = $\overline{Ki}$ to find the validity of each criterion
M = $\bar{A}_i$ to find the validity of every aspect
M = $\bar{X}$ to find the validity of all aspects
To determine the validity of the models used inadequate criteria if:
1) Value $\bar{X}$ for all aspects of the minimum is in the category of "quite valid," and
2) Value $\bar{A}_{(i)}$ for every aspect of the minimum is in the category of "valid". If found aspects those are not valid criteria, it will be revised and re-tested until it reaches the level valid.

B. Data Analysis of the Practicability of Learning Materials

Practicability analysis aims at measuring the components of exhaustiveness Bahasa learning material based on folklore in Gowa District and many supporters. The practicability of learning materials to be analyzed with the following steps.

1. Calculate the mean observation every aspect of each meeting with the formula

$$\bar{A}_{mi} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \bar{K}_{ij}}{n} \text{ with}$$

$\bar{A}_{mi}$ = Average aspect to i meet to m
$\bar{K}_{ij}$ = Observation result for aspect i criterion to to j
n = Number of criterion in aspect to i
2. Calculate the average of each aspect of the observation with the formula:

$$\bar{A}_i = \frac{\sum_{m=1}^{n} \bar{A}_{mi}}{n}$$

$\bar{A}_i$ = average aspect to i
$\bar{A}_{mi}$ = average aspect to i meet to m
3. Calculate the average total with the formula

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \bar{A}_i}{n}$$

$\bar{X}$ = average of all aspects
$\bar{A}_i$ = average aspect to i
n = number of aspects
4. Determining the feasibility category of each aspect or all aspects of learning materials by matching the average of each aspect ($\bar{A}_i$) or average total of aspect ($\bar{X}$) using categories as follows:

$$1,5 \leq M \leq 2,0 \text{ all materialize}$$
$$0,5 \leq M \leq 1,5 \text{ partly materialize}$$
$$0,0 \leq M \leq 0,5 \text{ not materialize}$$

Description:
M = $\bar{A}_i$ to find the validity of each aspect

M = $\bar{X}$ to find the validity of the overall aspect.

Learning the feasibility of learning materials of Bahasa Indonesia based on folklore is said to be adequate if $\bar{A}_i$ value and $\bar{X}$ minimum in the partly materialize category. It means that the materials are not revised. If it does not meet these criteria, then the corresponding aspect should be revised and re-tested until it reaches adequate levels.

C. Analysis of Data on the Effectiveness of Learning Materials

The effectiveness of the Bahasa learning materials based on folklore is determined through the analysis of: learning outcomes of learners, the activity of learners, the response of learners to materials, and the ability of the teacher to manage of material.

1. Analysis of the learner learning outcome

Learner learning outcomes that measured by the achievement criteria of minimal exhaustiveness of 2.67 and classical learning exhaustiveness. Learners were said completed when they gain value of ≥ 2.67. The study was said to be complete if learner gain value of $\geq 85\%$, learners acquires the minimum value of 2.67.

2. Data analysis of learners' activity

Learner activities were analyzed by calculating the Average of frequency and percentage of time that spent in performing the activity during learning activities. The following analysis procedure for each component that is quoted from Nurdin (2007):

a. Learner activity on each indicator in a single meeting specified the frequency and then search the average frequency by two observers. It further determined the frequency than the average from the average frequency of the meeting for several times;

b. Looking for the percentage frequency of each indicator by dividing the magnitude in the frequency by the number of frequencies for all indicators. Results of division multiplied by 100%. Moreover, then looking for the average percentage of time for several times and put on a table of average percentage.

3. Data Analysis of Learners' Response Application Materials

Learner assessed the response include: (1) response to the materials, (2) response to the learners' book, and (3) response to Worksheet. Analysis of the response from the students was done through the following procedures.

a. Calculate the frequency and percentage of learners who gave a positive response.

b. Determine categories for learners' positive response based on the following categories.

$$3,5 \leq\ \leq 4\ \ \text{very positive response}$$
$$2,5 \leq\ < 3,5\ \text{positive response}$$
$$1,5 \leq\ < 2,5\ \text{fair positive response}$$
$$0,5 \leq\ < 1,5\ \text{poor positive response}$$
$$<\ 0,5\ \ \text{very poor positive response}$$

The students have expressed a positive response if: (1) response to the materials, (2) response to the learners' book. Moreover, (3) response to Worksheet is more than 50% of the students who gave a positive response to at least 70% of the amount of the stated aspects.

4. Data Analysis of Application Materials

It analyzes of the application to the learning materials are based on the data of the two observers. Based on an assessment of both the mean values, defined observer KG from KG1 and KG2. Where KG1 is the average value of the results from the assessment of the first observer. KG2 is the average value of the results from the assessment of the second observer.

The KG value then confirmed by the determination of interval categories of teachers' ability to manage material, namely (Nurdin, 2007)

$$KG < 1,5\ \ \text{very poor}$$
$$1,5 \leq KG < 2,5\ \ \text{poor}$$
$$2,5 \leq KG < 3,5\ \ \text{fair}$$
$$3,5 \leq KG < 4,5\ \ \text{high}$$
$$4,5 \leq KG\ \ \text{very high}$$

The ability of teachers applying learning materials revealed the adequate minimum value of KG, if the value is in the high category. It means the appearance of teachers can be maintained. If the value of KG was in the other category, then the teacher must improve its ability to recapitulate the aspects assessed less. Moreover, then do a re-observation of teachers' ability in applying learning materials.

III. RESULT AND ANALYSIS

The implementation of this development research was conducted in February 2015. The results obtained in each phase of development, based on the development of Four-D with respect in the process of developing of learning materials based on the folklore of Gowa District as follows:

1. Description of the results of the Definition Phase (Define)

This section begins with the initial observation in SD Negeri Paccinongang, SD Inpres Lambengi and SD Negeri Anasappu, Gowa District. The information was obtained that the material by teachers today refer to culture or values and wisdom in the area outside of the local area and culture, particularly, Gowa District and South Sulawesi in General. The Educational Unit Level Curriculum (KTSP/*Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan*) was used in three schools. It contains a set of plans and arrangements for the purpose, content and learning materials and how was used guide for learning activities to achieve the goal of education.

2. Description of the results of Design Phase (Design)

The format was used in accordance to KTSP. Syllabus material is arranged into the shape on the table. Lesson Plans (RPP/*Rencana Pelaksanaan Pembelajaran*) includes identity, standards competence, basic competence, indicators, purpose, subject matter, learning experience (early activity, main activity, and final activity), method, sources/materials/learning tools, and assessment. The worksheet was designed concerning elemental competency and standard competency in KTSP. Practitioner validator (teacher) was selected three people from three schools that designated in the study. The teachers were selected as the validator that determined by the consideration that the teachers have the feasibility to assess learning materials. The three teachers experienced in designing learning materials in a workgroup master (KKG/*Kelompok Kerja Guru*) as well as experienced in the following learning material design for the competition. The overall criteria contained in the validation sheet syllabus, RPP and Worksheet were rated validity by three practitioners (teacher). Average total results of validation material syllabus, RPP, and worksheet validator of the practitioner (teacher) sequences were 4.43, 4,46 and 4,70. The third devices validation material with a very valid category.

Based on those results, the practitioner (teacher) assessed of the syllable, RPP, and worksheet that developed by researchers has met the feasibility for use in learning Bahasa in primary schools, in particular, in III grade. Colleague friend validator selected to assess the learning materials based on the folklore of these three people. Three colleague friends were chosen with the consideration that they have sufficient knowledge of the materials. Also, the three colleague friends are people who struggled in the field of education, as a teacher, principal, and superintendent. Average total results of validation material syllabus, RPP, and worksheet from validator (three colleague friends) sequence are 4,43, 4,46 and 4,70. The three devices validation materials with a very valid category. Based on those results, the validator rate that syllabus, RPP, and worksheet developed by researchers already meet the feasibility for use in learning Bahasa in primary schools, in particular, in III grade.

The expert team validator was designated as many as three people. The three validators were lecturer of Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM) and Universitas Muhammadiyah Makassar on Education of Language and Literature of Bahasa Indonesia.

3. Description of the results of learning material development Phase (Develop)

Types of folklore are used in the form of Fables, Legends, and stories. Folklore that used in Bahasa learning materials for III grade, it was folklore that stems of Gowa District namely *I Manyambungi, Sobekan Jala Buaya Putih, Garuda dan Empat Bersaudara, Danau Mawang, Anak yang Giat Mencari Nafkah, Pohon Taeng, Manusia Berdada Emas, Si Manusia Udang, Kucing dan Tikus serta Si Kera, Si Ayam Hutan dan Raja Kepiting*.

Stories that serve as a folklore have been meaning, and cultural values are very high. Through the characters and characteristics, learners can experience and live up to the meaning of life. It is applied in real life, from the meaning that the learners can find values that are capable of shaping the attitudes and behavior. Local cultural values were about to be introduced and cultivated in the students through the learning materials based on folklore, such as *passamaturukang*, *sipakalabbirik*, *sipakaingak*, *sipakatau*, *sipakalalo*, *sikatutui*, and *Sikapaccei*. Furthermore, folklore, materials developed by displaying several images that support the story.

The validator designated to assess these materials is as much as three people, aspects of which will be validated in the learning materials covering materials, media, and literature. Validation of these materials has endured for two phases. It was because on Phase I, there were many shortcomings or errors from the aspect of material and media. While the literary aspect of the very valid votes by the validator with an average over 5.00.

The stories that used as the materials were the kind of original stories and the folklore from society in Gowa District. This folklore does not contain intimidation against tribal, religious and racial, pornographic or violent, so it is feasible to use. Furthermore, intrinsic and extrinsic elements of folklore are also complete and contain many aesthetic values and the character of the regional society in the Gowa District. Moreover, the excess of which belonged to the folklore materials, it was used in validator argued that such materials be fit for used at both the national and local scale. It because the local cultural society in Gowa is sublime. Because of the very valid rates, then no aspect of literary worthiness is not validated and revised again in phase II.

All errors or shortcomings that were found in the content and media in the phase I was made as a reflection for the consummation of learning materials in phase II. Presentation of material phase II was declared the comprehensive average with the very valid aspects of ($\bar{X}$) 4.71. Graphic material phase II was declared very valid also with an overall average ($\bar{X}$) of 4.51. The language-learning material was used in Phase II very valid or otherwise has been viable with the average overall aspects of ($\bar{X}$) 4.90. It shows that in terms of content, the graphic (medium), and language-learning materials have been tested and qualified to learn Bahasa Indonesia in elementary school III grade.

4. Description of the results of Dissemination Phase (Disseminate)

This phase was the phase through the use of materials and devices that have been developed on a broader scale, in other schools, and by other teachers. The goal is to prove the learning effectiveness through the use of folklore materials for the learning activities. Terms of worthiness test with small groups.

IV. CONCLUSION

Based on the results and discussion of the findings, it was concluded that:

1. In the definition, the phase was done to check and define the terms of the development of learning materials by KTSP, and then the preliminary study was done. Those are: 1) analysis of the beginning until the end (preliminary analysis), (2) analysis of the learners, (3) material analysis, (4) task analysis and (5) specification of learning objectives.

2. Design phase of Bahasa Indonesia learning materials based on folklore on III grade learner in the primary school has many design activities; such as (a) designing the syllabus; (b) designing the RPP; (c) designing the material; (d) designing the worksheet; and (e) designing the instrument. After the draft is completed, the next step is a validation plan. After the design is completed, the next step is to do a validation plan. The result was proved that the overall validation criteria contained in the syllabus, RPP, and worksheets rated valid by three practitioners (teachers). Provided that if the value of the mean validation criteria ($\overline{Ki}$) was equal to or greater than 3.5, then any aspect stated was valid. It was similar to the results shown in the table above. Validation value was the lowest 3.67, and the highest was 5.00 with a very valid category. Therefore, there was no aspect that should be revised. Average total material syllabus, RPP, and Worksheet from practitioner validator (teacher) sequences were 4,43, 4,46 and 4,70. The result of three devices validation materials with a very valid category. Based on those results, the practitioner (teacher) assessing that the syllable, RPP, and Worksheet, that developed by the researcher already meet the eligibility standards to use in learning Bahasa Indonesia in primary schools, in particular, in III grade. For the design of materials or materials, validated by the three people who were the expert in the content, materials, and literature. The first validation result was proved that the design deserves to be materials used both in terms of content, media, and literary.

3. The development phase is the trial phase of small group or model. A small group of trial results was proved that materials meet these terms so no need more revisions and deserve to be tried out in a large group or field control.

4. Dissemination phase is the final stage of learning materials. The test results from the scale field trial were a term of practicability materials, and effectiveness materials have been met. So learning materials based on folklore was declared eligible to serve as Bahasa Indonesia learning materials for III grades in elementary school.

REFERENCES

[1]   Abdul Majid. (2007). Perencanaan Pembelajaran: Mengembangkan Standar Kompetensi Guru. Bandung: PT. Remaja Rodsakarya.
[2]   Brady, Laure. (1991). Children and Their Books: The Right Book for the Right Child I. Melbourne: The Macmillan Company.
[3]   Brown, James D. (1995). The Elements of Language Curriculum. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
[4]   Byram, Michell & Gerundy Peter. (2003). Context and Culture in Language Teaching and Learning. Australia: Short Run Press ltd.
[5]   Coleman, James. A & Klapper John. (2005). Effective Learning & Taeching in Modern Languages. London: Routledge.
[6]   Dahar, Ratna Wilis. (2011). Teori-Teori Belajar dan Pembelajaran. Jakarta: Erlangga.
[7]   Danandjaja, James. (1997). Folklore Indonesia, Ilmu Gosip, Dongeng, dan lain-lain. Jakarta: Pustaka Utama Grafiti.
[8]   Endraswara, Suwardi. (2009). Metodologi Penelitian Folklore: Konsep, Teori, dan Aplikasi. Yogyakarta: Media Pressindo.
[9]   Fachruddin, A. E. (1981). Sastra Lisan Bugis. Jakarta: Depdikbud.
[10] Fang, Liaw Yock. (1976). Sejarah Kesusastraan Melayu Klasik. Singapura: Pustaka Nasional.
[11] Huck, Charlotte S, Susan Hepler, & Janet Hickman. (1987). Children's Literature in the Elementary School. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
[12] Lennox Sandra. (2012). Language, Literature, and Literacy, *Authentic Engagement in the Early Years: Practically Primary* 17.2, 33-36.
[13] Mulyasa, E. (2006). Menjadi Guru Profesional Menciptakan Pembelajaran Kreatif dan Menyenangkan. Bandung: Remaja Rosdakarya Office.
[14] Oemar Hamalik. (1990). Perencanaan Pengajaran Berdasarkan Pendekatan Sistem. Bandung: PT. Citra Aditya Bakti.
[15] Poerwanto, Harry. (2007). Peningkatan Pembelajaran Apresiasi Sastra melalui Pendekatan Konstruktivisme untuk Siswa Sekolah Dasar. *Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan*, 34.2, 144-151.
[16] Pannen, Purwanto, P. (2001). Penulisan Bahan Ajar. Jakarta: Dirjen Dikti Depdiknas.

Ulfa Tenri Batari on June 5, 1986 in Sungguminasa, Indonesia. She is an executor of elementary school in Gowa District. She graduated her Diploma in Universitas Muhammadiyah Makassar in 2002-2004. And then she continued her bachelor in Universitas Muhammadiyah Makassar in 2004-2006. And then she continued her Master Degree in Universitas Negeri Makassar in 2008-2010.

Ulfa Tenri Batari has some scientific publications, namely:"Perempuan dan Pendidikan" in 2008, "Teacher is Reflection of Nation Future in 2009, "Motivationg Students to Learn" in 2010.

Achmad Tolla, was born on March 21, 1949 in Leling-Mamuju, Indonesia. He is a lecturer at the Faculty of Languages and literature at State University of Makassar.

He graduated in elementary school in Mamuju in 1965. He graduated Junior High School in Mamuju in 1968. And then he continued his Senior high School in Mamuju and graduated in 1970, Bachelor's degree (S1) in Education of language and Literature of IKIP Ujung Ppandang in 1980, Master (S2) in Indonesian Language Education, post graduate IKIP Malang in 1991, and Postgraduate Degree (S3) in Indonesian Language Education, UM Malang in 1996.

Prof. Dr. Achmad Tolla, M.Pd has some scientific publications, namely: (1) Shifting of languages as the result of a merging of different ethnic, in 2007, (2) Language shift in environmental migrants in Luwuk, 2004, and (3) The development of communicative language Indonesia test device for primary school Pupils in the city of Makassar, in 2003. He has been the Chairman of the Indonesian Language Education Program studies S-2 and S-3 since 2009-present.

Muhammad Rafi Tang, was born in Soppeng in 1960. He graduated his doctoral program in Universitas Negeri Malang, Department of Bahasa Indonesia. He is professor of Language Education and Literature of Faculty of Language Education and Literature in Universitas Negeri Makassar. His scientific paper is *La Dado Lele Angkuru-e, Sastra Bugis Klasik (philology study)*. Lecturer in subject of philology and introduction to Literature, classic literature. His book is *Pengantar Kajian Kesusastraan.*

Anshari, was born in 1964, 29 April in Enrekang, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. He graduated his undergraduate in IKIP Ujung Pandang in 1988. He assumed his magister title in the field of Humanities in Hasanuddin University in 1999. He graaduated his doctoral program in State University of Malang in 2007.

He started his carreer as a lecturer in Faculty of Language and Literature in IKIP ujung Pandang since in 1989. He lecturing in Postgraduate program in State University of Makassar since in 2007 until present. He asssumed his Professor in 2010. Present he active as writer in some print media in Makassar, as well as speaker in various of training of learning activity. Present he is a head of "*Tidang Sipulung*" Magazine in 2009-present.

He has been published book entitled "*Budi Bahasa*" in 2007 and scientific research entitled "*Representasi Bahasa sebagai sistem makna sosial, politik, dan historis;riset pengembangan dan implementasi teori linguistik Gramscian, Penelitian RUKK- Menristek*".

Manichean and Dichotomous Opposites in Athol Fugard's *Blood Knot*

Shunayfaa Mohammed Al-Qarni

Department of English, College of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, K.S.A.

Abstract—This study undertakes an investigation of Fugard's scathing condemnation of apartheid in his *Blood Knot*. Despite, his white skin, Fugard adopts a humanistic approach towards the oppressed South African natives who undergo dichotomous opposites in their pursuit for real selfhood and identity within a segregating millieu. His two protagonists Zach and Morrie fall within a dialectic endless cycle of reveral of roles between the 'Self' and the 'Other.' Fugard attempts to find a possibility of survival and a new resistant image of the 'Self' that can step courageously on the way of change and independence in a world that is devoid rationalization. This personal resistance will turn by time to be a collective one that exmplifies Fugard's universal message.

Index Terms—apartheid, Fugard, self, other, dichotomous, identity

I. INTRODUCTION

Harold Athol Fugard is one of themost renowned anti-apartheid South African playwrights. He was born in Middelburg, South Africa, on June 11, 1932 to an Afrikaner mother and a disabled former jazz pianist father. Among his most significant works in which he attacks the apartheid aggressive system and advocate strongly for man's rights are *The Blood Knot* (1961), later revised and entitled *Blood Knot*(1987)*, Boesman and Lena* (1969), *A Lesson from Aloes* (1981), *The Island* (1972), and *'Master Harold' andthe Boys* (1982).

Of great significance is the definition of apartheid since most of Fugard's works revolve around it. In Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (1993), apartheid is defined as racial segregation and discrimination; or more specifically, a former policy of discrimination, political and economic discrimination and racial segregation against non-European groups in the Republic of South Africa (p. 53). Apartheid in the "Dutch Afrikaner language means "apartness" or "separateness" referring to the system of racial discrimination adopted by the South African White National Party when it seized power in 1948" (Diala, 2006, p. 238). Accordingly, apartheid laws were mainly based on racial discrimination emphasizing that non-European such as black, coloured, and Asian South African were not equal to the whites in political, cultural, economic, and educational rights. Andre Brink (1997) notes that "theatre often allied to spectacles of dance and music and poetry readings, became one of the great focal points of popular conscientizationand resistance against apartheid" (p. 171).

In *Resistance Literature* (1987), Barbara Harlow assumes that the anti-apartheid literature frequently instigates national "struggle for liberation and independence" in the colonized areas of "the third world" including Africa, Asian colonies, Latin America, and the Middle East" (pp.xvi-xvii). South Africa was one of the colonized countries that suffered under the yoke and manacles of apartheid. South Africa's literary community, including authors such as Athol Fugard, Alan Paton, Nadine Gordimer, Barney Simon, J.M. Coetzee, John Kani, and others, has been influential in catching the world's attention to the legacy of colonialism and the unfairness of apartheid laws in their native country. Their literary contributions become form of protest and artistic historical document of the apartheid years.

Among the idiosyncratice playwrights who have formulated Fugard's humanistic approach towards the oppressed are Albert Camus and Samuel Beckett and his style of the absurd/ minimalism. Richard Peck (1992) has traced the influence of Camus' *The Myth of Sisyphus* at the heart of Fugard's *A Lesson from Aloes*. He notes "Camus in the myth does not revolt against the values of society but the absurdity of the human condition, and that the myth accordingly offers no revolutionary message but rather a space for the joy of being alive in the presence of death" (Diala 2006, p. 243). In the same vein of Camus, Fugard tries to find an answer for the question of why the tortured people do not get rid of their wretched lives when they find no rationalization for the illogicality and barrenness of these lives. In his play *Boesman and Lena,* he reflects,

The answer to the question is forestalled by the lack of a complete and truthful consciousness of the self. Lena is preoccupied with uncovering her identity, which she believes is held in her past and in an other's recognition of her. Boesman, contrarily, fears an encounter with his self because his false sense of identity might be brought into question. (McLuckie, 1993, p. 425)

Thus, the quest for identity recognition is at the core of Fugard's plays. In 1962, he publicly announced his adamant support to the Anti-Apartheid Movement (1959-94). As a result, the government imposed somany restrictions on his theater that led him to publish film and perform his plays on international theatres in London, New York, and other high volume places.

In fact, Fugard is one of those writers who believe that literary works have a great reformative world message originated in his environment. He himself witnessed the South African natives segregated and deprived of the least life rights as humans. In view of that, his plays carry many autobiographical references as well as other scenes issuing from his real everyday life. The strong women, who struggle in *Blood Knot*, *Boesman and Lena,* and *'Master Harold',* have some features of Fugard's own strong mother. In his *Notebooks: 1960-1977*, he wrote "I suppose the theater uses more of the actual substance of life than any other art…the theater uses flesh and blood, sweat, the human voice, real pain, real time" (1993, p. 89). His characters, such as Lena in *Boesman and Lena*, are real people whom Fugard has met or noticed on the streets of South Africa. Focusing on faithful representation of real life discloses Fugard's attempt to create writerly texts, in Roland Bathes terms, in which he not only represents the reality but also enables his audience to adopt the active role of a producer and collaborator in formulating a meaning of the reality presented. In the same vein of John Keats, Fugard introduces anticipation for a hopeful future and freedom.

The study scrutinizes Fugard's attack of apartheid in his *Blood Knot*. Such a play was performed for the first and the only one time in 1961, in Johannesburg, South Africa, exactly during the time of the racism of the apartheid regime. Later, it was performed in 1964 as the first South African play at the Cricket Theater, Off Broadway in New York. It was recently introduced in 2010 as part of Mandela Day celebrations again in Johannesburg, South Africa.

It is simply a story of survival in inhumane conditions and poverty. The two main characters are locked into brutal routine of colourless days and nights just for carrying on. Derek Cohen states "The future, which the one looks forward to with trumped-up optimism and enthusiasm and the other with indifference and a realistic sense of its futility, is an empty symbol" . The preposterousness of the play lies in the fact that each of the two men has his own individual way of life, yet they undergo no change or improvement. Cohen goes further and adds, "It is also absurd that in these circumstances, in that place in that time something of such absurd consequence should exist" (1977, p. 77).

II. THEMATIC CONCERN

In his plays, Fugard is mainly preoccupied with portraying one of the most basic cultural and political theories of human consciousness and identity: it is the multiple dichotomous operating conflicting stances of colonizer/ colonized, white/ black, persecutor/ persecuted, oppressor/ oppressed, self/ other, and victim/victimizer. JanMohamed (1983) writes, "The colonial mentality is dominated by a Manichean allegory of white and black, good and evil, salvation and damnation, civilization and savagery, superiority and inferiority, intelligence and emotion, self and other, subject and object" (p. 4). Such Manichean parameters govern the relationship not only between the self and the other but also within the self and the other themselves. Fugard notes that if anyone is "given the chance, [he] might take on the role of the oppressor, especially if feeling oppressed" and that "oppression is a result of individual distress" (www.globetrotlove.blogspot.com). In his "Self, Other, Other-Self" Sami Schalk (2011) indicates:

In a society in which race and other identity factors play such a huge role in how one is treated and in return, expected to behave, there's no escape from the material situation of such identities, even though, contemporarily, we intellectually understand things like race, sex, gender, class, sexuality and disability to be socially constructed. (p. 204)

Contradictorily, the existence of another, a not self, allows the recognition of a self. In an interview with Jessica Werner Zack (2008), Fugard admits that reading Sartre, Camus and Beckett made him aware "of the existential quality of that moment [seeing his brother sleeping]. I and the other," and that dividing people in South Africa by the colour of their skin gave him "a way of dramatizing the difference between me and the other. So, that's how it all comes together" (p. 8). He gives further insight in the same interview explicating that he had a specific image that sparked *Blood Knot:* it is the image of his face aged sleeping brother who he did not see for years. Such an image stirs him to think again of his relationship with his brother and between himself and the other. It echoes that of Zach at the end of the first scene in *Blood Knot,*

It was unquestionably that image of a sleeping man, which is actually embodied in the monologue that Morrie has at the end of the first scene when Zach has fallen asleep, and nothing related to the politics of South Africa, although I went on to realize that the politics of South Africa gave me a perfect way of exploring that relationship. The seminal image is an existential one (p. 8).

In fact, *Blood Knot* is a psychological family drama that presents the bare reality of dehumanization of the blacks and the coloureds in Port Elizabeth. It tells the story of two brothers Zachariah (Zach) and Morris (Morrie). The other characters are invisible because we know about them from the brothers' speeches, Zach's monologues, and memories. Fugard tries to establish his social vision of the two races by presenting absent characters that go alongside the present ones. The concept of the 'Self and the Other' is enhanced by focusing on the brothers' and particularly Zach's relationships with people**.**

The play locates indoors, in one-room shack cheerless, boring and industrially polluted areawhich isunfit for human habitation in the non-white area of Korsten, Port Elizabeth. Fugard's description of the setting of the play as "non-white location" is emlematic of racism, isolation, and exile. Living in one place seems to be ideal for family relationship; however, the two brothers are restricted in one room most of the time and find nobody to talk with except each other. Fugard uses this single room setting to highlight family ties. Jeanne Colleran (1988) comments "the single settings help to emphasize the intimacy and the dependency of close ties. … severe limitations imposed upon those who constitute the bottom strata of rigidly-controlled society" (p. 108). The locale does not change throughout the seven scenes and no

one enters or exits except the two inhabitants. Yet, only through the window, Morrie can express his feeling of degradation and otherness. He watches how the moths are attracted to the light and nothing else and sees the birds fly over the rotten polluted lake but do not get any of its blackness. He expresses his hate for the whites and his feeling of humiliation in a very metaphorical way, "On blue days or grey days it stays the same dirty brown. And so calm, hey, Zach! Like a face without feeling. But the mystery of my life, man, is the birds. Why they come and settle here and fly around so white and beautiful on the water and never get dirty from it too! *(Fugard, 2011, p.14)*. Along the same line of the arrogant whites who surround the blacks and watch t. hem tortured and suffered but not affected, the birds fly up in the open air and keep white and a lofted. On the contrary, other creatures might immerse in that stinking down places.

The black and the coloured inhabitants including Zach and Morrie have no social right to adequate accommodations. The opening of the play established the first relation of the Self of the white authority with the Other who is exemplified in the person of Zach who as many blacks of his nation, has no choice for the place or the way of his life. Fugard illustrates,

Korsten: The Berry's Corner bus, then up the road past the big motor assembly and rubber factories. Turn right down a dirt road__ badly potholed, full of stones, donkeys wandering loose, Chinese and Indian grocery shops__down this road... until you come to the lake....A collection of shanties, pondoks, lean-to's. No streets, names, or numbers. A world where anything goes. (Fugard, 2011, p. ix).

The naturalistic physical description of the shack's size, walls, and furniture illuminates the low-standard life of the coloured citizens. Degredation of the Korsten inhabitansts is blatant. First, the lack of street names and numbers imply an effacement of identities. Second, the lake in Korston is formed as an outcome of "waste products." Third, The black and the brackish colour of the lake proclaims the inhabitants' miserable life and signifies death. In her dissertation "*The Dissenting Writer in South Africa*" (1988), Jeanne Colleran asserts that the setting with its shabby furniture discloses "the economic class of the two characters", and their intense poverty. Such premises would be merely "temporary housing" for "squatters or migrants" or other displaced persons rather than permanent residence (p. 142).

It is important to notice that the politicians in South Africa aimed at isolating its people from the world and keeping them in-boxed. Fugard is one of the writers who is aware of that, "My point is obvious. Anything that will get people to think and feel for themselves that will stop them delegating these functions to the politicians is important to our survival. Theatre has a role to play in this (Cohen, 1977, p. 74). *Blood Knot* has an indirect warning for the country and for the whole world. It tackles universal themes. Poverty, oppression, fears, hopes, identities, violence and aspirations are all found in each of his plays.

With the opening of the play, it seems perplexing to judge who is the oppressed and who the oppressor is. Significantly, the two brothers have the same black mother but different fathers, one black, one white. The black brother Zach works as a guard of public gate where he is obliged to stand the whole day and is keeping out the black children, whereas the white one Morrie prepares their meals and heats the water to soothe Zach's feet. Such apartness and segregation within and between the brothers enables Fugard to trace the Self/ Other problematic relationship. This study investigates Zach and Morris' mutual relations and interrelations and how and when each one conceives himself the self and the other.

Zach and Morrie's race relationships and environmental surroundings shape the way they look at themselves. Zach grows up with the feeling that he will not reach the top, "I got sick of myself and made a change" (Fugard, 2011, p.81). Thus, he is submissive and does not care about his future or implementation of any future plans. Hence, Zach gets used with low-level job, shortage of money and food, limited knowledge, polluted surroundings, and physical pain. He says "I was here ten years and didn't worry about my feet, or a future, or having supper on time!" (Fugard, 2011, p. 13). Quite the reverse, Morrie plans to get their own farm and work, "Hell, man. The future. It is going to be a small two-man farm just big enough for you and me;" whereas Zach shows no response, "Here am I putting our future to you and you don't even listen" (Fugard, 2011, p. 9). Lisa Onbelet (2010) in her article "*Imagining the Other: The Use of Narrative as an Empowering Practice*" elaborates on such dichotomy, "Without the permission from the dominant social group to speak, marginalized people…cannot define themselves, but rather, must submit to the descriptions assigned to them by the dominant group. So…they are also robbed of their identity…[and] self." Correspondingly, Zach's sense of himself and his value for the other governs his relations to himself, his brother, his boss, white people, his mother, Connie, and to Ethel. Whether they are physically or symbolically present, those individuals mold his self/other concept: in certain situations he plays the role of the self, while in others he impersonates the other. This divulges the dialectic of dichotomous opposites: Zach is a black man who lives in his own country, yet others dominate his self. In alike manner, Morrie is a white man, who can be seen as an oppressor and oppressed at the same time. His relationships with himself, his mother, brother and Ethel interpret and expose the co-existence of such binaries. So degradation and underestimating colour the lives of black people and eventually lead to their loss of dignity and motivation to have better life.

Zach and Morris' confusing identity and uncertainty of who is the 'Self' and who is the 'Other' prevail the play such binarism of the 'Self', the whites, and the 'Other', black within gets further insight in the Zach and Morrie's in relation to education and job. Zach is illiterate and cannot read or write due to his classification as a black citizen. Tools of writings such as pencils and papers are terrifying. Furthermore, he does not have any general knowledge; for example, he doesn't know the order of the months in a year. On the contrary, Morrie, his light-skinned brother, lives better life and picks

some education and that makes him more controlled and rational than his black brother. He is presented as "thinking and acting in complete subjection to prevailing ideology and its manifestation in the laws and institutions of the state" (Kacer, 2008, p. 84). Also, he can read the Bible and manages their income, time, food, and house affairs because he is classified as a white 'Self' who practices the authority upon his black brother. Therefore, Morrie has more experience in a racially graded in South Africa than Zach and he realizes that "they look at things differently" (Fugard, 2011, pp. 74-75). Such segregation is rooted in the law of Population Registration Act 1950 which prohibited the right to a proper education in South African Blacks. The impact of such racism is also evident in the demeaning jobs alloted to the blacks.

Zach works as a guard of a park gate and he has to "secure that no coloureds or blacks pass the gate. [So] he, a black citizen, collaborates on the discriminating process of deciding who does "pass" and who does not" (Kacer, 2008, p. 84). It is conspicuous that Zach's job places him in the position of the 'Self' and the little black boys represent the 'Others'. Hence, he practices the dominance of the 'Self' upon the oppressed 'Other.' However, with his white boss the roles are reversed: Zach is humiliated, insulted, sometimes beaten and is not even given the chance to use the bathroom of the park. When Zach expresses his anger from his boss, Morris reminds him "I'm on your side, they're on theirs. I mean, I couldn't be living here with you and not be on yours, could I Zach?" (Fugard, 2011, p. 6). He intentionally or unintentionally draws a line between him and his brother but confusingly jumps to stand on the line because he is not sure where he is standing. However, he makes use of his light-skinned and "has found out that to ignore the temptations to use his lightness, is the easiest way to live. It has not made life better, but it has made it simple" (Fugard, 2011, p. 13). Another case in point of humiliation is that of a salesman who insults Zach when he wants to buy a white man's suit. The salesman wonders whether or not Zach is a gentleman. Yet, Zach answers immediately "do I look like a gentleman, Mr. Moses? I'm the black sort" (Fugard, 2011, p. 73). Here, Zach accepts his blackness; namely, he is not furious at playing the role of the 'Other' whereas he is claiming the appearance of the 'Self.' Later, he asks his mother "Don't you recognize your son?" (Fugard, 2011, p. 81) in the new suit. Like all the blacks and the coloureds, Zach cannot know himself of his own accord: no mirror or real mother to make him aware of his real 'Self.'

Racist policy extends to the medical care where life is coloured by an everlasting physical suffering that necessitatesan urgent need for healing. Neverthless, superiority/inferiority and 'Self'/'Other' dichotomies objectify the diagnosed patientients. A case in point is that of Zach: when he comes back home after a long day of working, his only cure is to dip his feet into hot water and salt that Morrie has prepared for him. Zach's sigh recalls the image of his mother's calloused feet. Another example is Zach's mother who underwent continuous painful "sore feet", yet she received no mercy or medical attention because of her blackness. She received only her black son's sympathy and limited help. He assures his white brother that "The toes was crooked the nails skew, there was a pain. They didn't fit the shoes.". Yet, Morrie's reply is "I don't rememeber her feet," (Fugard, 2011, p. 47). Accordingly, she is another victim of the oppressed 'Other' because she is simply black.

Despite his sympathy with his black mother, their relationship is characterized by incongruity on two scales. Firstly, she is his parallel who is suppressed and deprived of the simplest right to live as a human being. Secondly, she plays the role of the 'Self' who suppresses her black son as an 'Other' and unconsciously or consciously preferred Morrie. Zach remembers that she gave "That brown stinkwood top" to Morrie to play with while he was given "her old cotton-reels to play with", and he knows well that "it wasn't the same. I wanted a top" (Fugard, 2011, p. 47). He also recalls the painful memories of childhood that formed his personality. When Morrie asks him if he remembers the mother songs, Zach says:

> Do I! [*He laughs and then sings.*]
> My skin is black,
> The soap is blue,
> But the washing comes out white.
> I took a man
> On a Friday night;
> Now I'm washing a baby too.
> Just a little bit black,
> And a little bit white,
> He's a Capie through and through. (Fugard, 2011, p. 48)

Of great implication is the song since it was dedicated to lull Zach while the mother devotes another song for Morrie; "Lullaby-baby it was' you'll get the top" (Fugard, 2011, p. 48). Even though the lull songs and the toys are used as cultural symbols of existence, such a stance dicloses that racial discrimination saturates both the South African community and families. In his "The Artist as Rebel" (1987) Jerry Dickey asserts "Whether their mother (favoured) Morrie because she felt he had an eventual chance to [success] as a white, or because of her own preference for whiteness, the darker baby is undoubtedly neglected" (p. 71). The entirely different treatment of the two sons who are connected by the strong blood bond reveals the irony implied in the title of the play. The reason is that brotherhood is suppressed by racism rulings: the two brothers' different skin colour.

More is revealed about the mother's preference of Morrie and Zach's psychological pain through the device of monologue employed in scene six. The monologues Zach has with his mother represent an outlet for his dissatisfaction and rage that turn to be real confrontations with real living people. In a monolgue, Zach speaks to his dead mother about

a suit which does not fit him "Whose mother were you really?...whom did you really love?" Certainly, Zach knows the unsaid answer that she prefers the white son who is even different from her own colour. He assures her in the same monologue that he is better than his light-skinned brother, "You see, he's been such a burden as a brother" (Fugard, 2011, p. 81). Zach concludes with the idea that it is not the skin colour which values man but it is the soul. He [*holds out a hand with the finger lightly closed*], it is a butterfly in his hand which symbolizes soul and beauty; "because I got it, here in my hand, I got beauty too haven't I?" (Fugard, 2011, p. 82). Here, Zach feels his hidden beauty and his strong demand for freedom which reverberates Fanon's words in *Black Skin, White Masks* "I feel my soul as vast as the world, truly a soul as deep as the deepest of rivers; my chest has the power to expand to infinity. I was made to give and they prescribe for me the humility of the cripple" (2008, p. 108).

Furthermore, according to apartheid laws personal relationships betweena black or coloured man and a white woman are forbidden. When Zach expresses his desire to have a woman, Morrie suggests him to have a pen-pal relation since he is inferior and uneducated. Thus, when Morrie discovers that Zach's pen-pal is a white girl he warns him "Can't you see, man! Ethel Lange is a white woman!" (Fugard, 2011 p.40). Morrie proceeds if Ethel's family discovers his real identity they will kill him. Zach answers "I'll fight" (Fugard, 2011, p. 60). He refuses to stop writing to Ethel and takes the money to buy the suit for her meeting. Therefore, Zach resists the law which does not give him the right to choose for himself a life he desires and decides to go on with his relationship whatever the consequences. Such resistance epitomizes layers of his psychological and social structure as a black man and expresses the deep desire of the 'Other' to play the role of the 'Self.' He states "This white woman thinks I'm a white man. That I like!" (Fugard, 2011, p. 40). Consequently, Zach's announcement of a new image of the 'Self' is a preparation for him to step courageously on the way of change and independence. This personal resistance will turn by time to be a collective one that exmplifies Fugard's message to the world.

In fact, Zach's endeavors to experience whiteness highlight his quest for an identity rather than that deformed one created by the racist community. In his *Black Skin, White Masks,* Franz Fanon (2008) comments on such deep desire of the 'Other' as follows,

Out of the blackest part of my soul, across the zebra striping of my mind, surges the desire to be suddenly *white*. I wish to be acknowledged not as *black* but as *white*. Who but a white woman can do this for me? By loving me she proves that I am worthy of white love. I am loved like a white man. I am a white man. Her love takes me onto the noble road that leads to total realization (p. 45).

In creating and formulating an image for the 'Self' man dismantles the complex of being an 'Other.'Lois Tyson (1999) states that people of the ex-colonies like Zach are known with "a psychological 'inheritance' of negative self-image and alienation from their own indigenous cultures" (p. 419). Such a negative image prompts the effacacy of their true identity; therfore, they feel alienated within the environment in which they grow up. Kenny and West remark "Self-concept differentiation also predicted mental health outcomes: Individuals who saw themselves very differently across roles were more depressed and neurotic and had lower self-esteem than individuals who saw themselves as similar across roles" (2013, p. 120).It is highly substantial to for Zach to resist the negative identity planted by the oppressor.However, in one of their fights, Morrie drives Zach to a direct verbal confession of his blackness and his actual position of being the 'Other:'

        Morris. That's better. Go back to the beginning. Give me that first fact, again. [*pause*] it

        [*pause*] It started with Ethel, remember Ethel. . . .

      Zachariah. . . .is white.

      Morris. That's it. And…

Zachariah. . . .and I am black.

      Morris. You've got it.

      Zachariah. Ethel is so . . .so . . . snow white.

      Morris. Hold it. Grab it all...

      Zachariah. And I am too. . . truly. . . too black. (Fugard, 2011, p. 61)

Obviously, reversal of roles saturates the whole play. Zach does not stop at his confession of his blackness and goes on with his psychological journey to assure his 'Self'. He decides again to spend all their savings to buy a new suit for the meeting of Ethel which turns all Morris' plans upside down and gives him full dominance over Morris who occupies the 'Other' position. Yet, suddenly the situation is reversed to the opposite direction. Morris, the 'Other' rise to power and calls Zach "*swartgat*," a farinaceous derogatory term for a black man. The word rings so harsh that it wakes Zach's up from his false conception and turns him from top to bottom state of the 'Other' again.

Reversal of roles is accentuated in the final scene where Morrie, the 'Self' finds himself again at the mercy of his brother, the 'Other'. They act a scene in which Morris is a white man at the park where Zach works as a guard. At the beginning, Morris tries to be a humane white gentleman, yet Zach insistence on establishing his dominion pushed Morrie to be harsher as he did before. Unexpectedly again the game goes worse with Morris beating Zach with an umbrella. Zach's violent self galvanizes him to stand over his brother on the point of aggression. Schalk gives further insight into the scene commenting "the idea of double-consciousness, of the existence of both/and within the psychology and identity of an individual, complicates the stark boundaries of the self/other binary" (Fugard, 2011, p. 204). When Zach appears as the 'Self', Morris consequently is the 'Other' and vice versa. Commenting on such vicious

cycle, Paul Prece (2008) explains:

The "playing with whiteness" which occurs between Zach and Morris is a game with no conclusion and no winner. Dormant and repressed anger surfaces on [the play] … with dramatic and catastrophic results. The hatred for the controlling other is turned inward and directed toward a brother, a fellow, the ideologically defined 'other' and the venom of discrimination attacks within the social group of already partialized and weakened men. (p. 66).

Cohen goes further and adds that the confrontations between the two brothers "burgeons through the symbolic action into a meeting between the races where the arrogance of the whites reveal itself as naked fear, the subservience of the blacks as uncontrollable hatred" (1977, p. 81). Moreover, it unveils the co-existence not only of the 'Self' and the 'Other' within the victim or the victimizer, but also of different types of the 'self' itself. Zach accomplished the position of the 'Self' once in a gentle way and the other by violence.

To put an end for double consciousness and unbearable confused life, Morrie escapes from his real world of the whites where his real identity; being coloured, is uncovered to live with Zach in a non-white area. Living in a non-white area enables Morris to reach the complete imagined transition into a white man and betray people with his light-skinned. In his new realm, he can be the 'Self' and he has all the tools to pass for the whites. Besides, he believes that he can have good fortune to buy a farm and to fix his place as a white man. In his *The Wretched of the Earth*, Frantz Fanon (1963) states: "For a colonized people the most essential value, because the most concrete, is first and foremost the land: the land which will bring them bread and, above all, dignity" (p. 44).

III. CONCLUSION

In point of fact, Fugard as a white writer might portray Morris with morals and a mission in life to show that there is a possibility of a new era of equality and justice. Morris, a man of conscious, decides not to go on deceiving white people by his light-skinned. His sense of guilt and remorse inspires him to go to his black brother and to be by his side. He realizes that the blood bond is stronger than anything else is in the world "The voice of thy Brother's blood crieth unto me!" [*Morris drops his head in an admission of guilt*] (Fugard, 2011, p. 19). Morrie's humanistic stance incites the audience to believe in his compassion to his brother, spiritual loftiness of the bible-reading, thriftiness, cleverness, loving poetry, and his property of dreams. His attitude reflects Fanon's words in *Black Skin, White Masks* "Why not simply try to touch the other, feel the other, discover each other?" (2008, p. 181). However, he is a hero with a tragic flaw of limitations and brutality which appear occasionally when his 'Self' has an upper hand. Such duality and doublings make him hate himself. In *Black Skins, White Masks* (2008), Frantz Fanon notes, "Hate is not inborn; it has to be constantly cultivated, to be brought into being, in conflict with more or less recognized guilt complexes. Hate demands existence and he who hates has to show his hate in appropriate actions and behavior; in a sense, he has to become hate" (pp. xix-xx). Yet, the audience could not hate him but sympathize with.

With an insightful and humanistic vision of the world around him, Fugard is able to know well where to stand and how to start his humane mission as a sincere universal thinker who "extrapolates from the situation under apartheid to more universal concerns about relationship of human being to each other" (McLuckie, 1993, p. 428). He sets his play in the region he knows best. Furthermore, he portrays the two characters in a way that divulges what is repressed inside their souls and minds, how they adopt a reversal of roles strategy to translate their dreams towards the hegemonic world of the 'Self' and whether they should give up or protest in their dialogue between the 'Self and the 'Other.

REFERENCES

[1]   Brink, A. (1997). Challenge and response: The changing face of theater in South Africa. *Twentieth Century Literature* 43.2, 162–76.
[2]   Cohen, D. (1977). A South African drama: Athol Fugard's "the blood knot". *Modern Language Studies* 7.1, 74–81.
[3]   Colleran, J. (1988). The dissenting writer in South Africa: A rhetorical analysis of the drama of Athol Fugard and the short fiction of Nadine Gordimer. Ph.D. dissertation, The Ohio State University.
[4]   Diala, I. (2006). Theatre and political struggle: Trends in apartheid South African drama. *Neohelicon* 33.2, 237–246. doi: 10.1007/s11059-006-0035-1.
[5]   Dickey, J.R. (1987). The artist as rebel: The development of Athol Fugard's dramaturgy and the influence of Albert Camus. Ph.D. dissertation, Indiana University.
[6]   Fanon, F. (1963). The wretched of the earth. New York: Grove Press.
[7]   Fanon, F. (2008). Black skin, white masks. Translated by Charles Lam Markmann. London: Pluto Press.
[8]   Fugard, A. (1993). Notebooks: 1960–1977. New York: Theatre Communications Group.
[9]   Fugard, A. (2011). The blood knot. 7th (seventh) Impression (ed.) Oxford University Press Southern Africa.
[10]   Harlow, B. (1987). Resistance literature. London: Routledge.
[11]   JanMohamed, A. (1983). Manichean aesthetics: The politics of literature in colonial Africa. Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press.
[12]   Kacer, T. (2008). Criticism of apartheid in blood knot in comparison with two trains running and Philadelphia, here I come! *Brno Studies in English* 34, 79–88.
[13]   Kenny, D.A., & West, T.V. (2013). Self-perception as interpersonal perception. In J. V. Wood & A. Tesser & J.G. Holmes (eds.), *The self and social relationships* (119–137). New York: Psychology Press.
[14]   McLukie, C.W. (1993). Power, self, and other: The absurd in Boesman and Lena. *Twentieth Century Literature* 39.4, 423–429.

[15] Merriam-Webster's collegiate dictionary (10th ed.).(1993). Springfield, MA: Merriam-Webster.

[16] Onbelet, L. (2010). Imagining the other: The use of narrative as an empowering practice. *McMaster Journal of Theology and Ministry.* Retrieved January 13, 2015, from http:// www.mcmaster.ca/mjtm/3-1d.htm.

[17] Peck, R. (1992). Condemned to choose, but what? Existentialism in selected works by Fugard, Brink and Gordimer. *Research in African Literatures* 23.3, 67–84.

[18] Prece, P. (2008). Writing Home: The post colonial dialogue of Athol Fugard and August Wilson. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Kansas.

[19] Schalk, S. (2011). Self, other and other-self: Going beyond the self/other binary in contemporary consciousness. *Journal of Comparative Research in Anthropology and Sociology* 2.1, 197–210.

[20] Tyson, L. (1999). Critical Theory Today: A User–Friendly Guide. New York: Taylor & Francis.

[21] Zack, J. (2008) "My brother's keeper": An interview with Athol Fugard." words on plays: The blood knot . ACT Online (American Conservatory Theatre).

[22] www.globetrotlove.blogspot.com (accessed 11/1/2015).

Shunayfaa Mohammed Al-Qarni was born in 1968 in Saudi Arabia. She is currently an Assistant Professor of English and Literature at College of Languages and Translation and Dean of the University Centre for Girls' Studies at King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia. She obtained her Ph.D. in Literature from King Khalid University in 2007.

Dr. Al-Qarni has received awards for both her teaching and research including the 2014 Community Service Award from King Khalid University. She has authored papers in peer-reviewed journals including publications in the Canada-Studies in Literature and Language entitled "Hallucination or Realities: The Ghosts in Henry James's *The Turn of the Screw*; Vol 6, No 2 (2013) and in Journal of the Faculty of Education, Mansoura University, Egypt for a paper entitled "Struggling for Inner Peace: The Soul of Home in Horton Foote's Play *The Trip to Bountiful* (Issue 90, January 2015). Furthermore, Dr. Al-Qarni is an active member of the university committees as well as several committees of the Aseer Region.

The Application of Contextual Expressions to Improve Effectiveness of Learning in ESP Classroom

Huifang Tian

School of Foreign Languages, China University of Petroleum, Beijing, China

Abstract—**This thesis discusses vocabulary as a key factor to increase effectiveness of ESP pedagogy. Contextual expressions are the main line of context, and form the principal clues for the textual anticipation and key word-meaning inferring. The thesis compares the different effects of the conventional word-list and contextual expressions as used in textual anticipation, and finds that contextual words have positive effect on pre-text leaning, oral and writing interaction and word-meaning inferring. The thesis also discusses the recognition of contextual words and makes in-depth analysis of the logical deducing process, aiming to raise students' contextual awareness over ESP learning and develop their independent and autonomous capacity. The discussion recommends the inference strategy based on contextual expressions and core and peripheral words, in order to achieve some degree of independence from dictionaries.**

Index Terms—**ESP, contextual words, text anticipation, word-meaning guessing**

I. INTRODUCTION

Contextual expressions refer to the main coherence words in a text, forming the contextual network. The Dictionary of Chinese defines context as narrowly ongoing words spoken or written down, and broadly as the social environment, such as history, location, social trends, customs and local terms, in which thoughts or ideas are expressed. In terms of language learning, although society, culture, and history are important supportive factors, it is the verbal context that plays a greater role. And the verbal environment constitutes the main contextual clues. Contextual expressions can be pairs or groups of single words or phrases, in various parts of speech. They correlate and respond to each other, either in meaning or function, and two or more related contextual expressions often become one of the small topics, which relate to the general topic. They give new information while linking to the given information. There are near meaning contextual expressions, i.e. synonyms, and far meaning ones, whose meaning is related in one way or another. The two kinds show the characteristics of contextual words in terms of core words and peripheral words, the former usually being able to match the target word directly, while the latter indirectly.
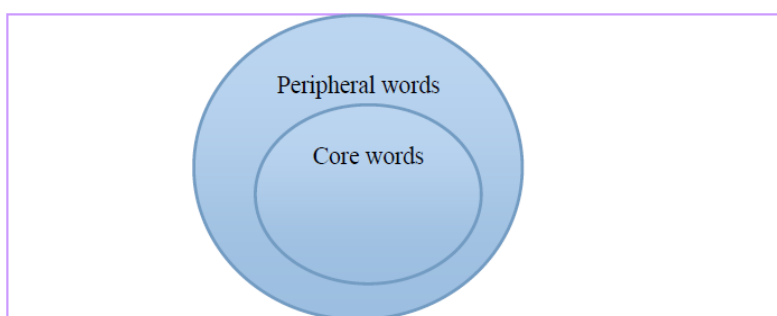
Contextual clues are often used for inferring meaning in EFL, and viewed as an auxiliary word acquiring strategy. When there is an adequate language environment, quite a lot of new words may be judged and their meaning guessed. Wang (2009) believes that while the factors of discourse and learners have positive impact on meaning inferring, context adds to higher rate of correct inference. As a vocabulary building strategy, contextual clues are obviously advantageous over word-building method (Yu, 2007). Derin Atay & Cengiz Ozbulgan (2006) hold that specialized vocabulary teaching helps form ESP study strategy, and that any retention strategy facilitates ESP students to learn more words. As well the strategy promotes language learning in ESP classroom, where students do not so much face a new product as a new way, since the genre is composed of no special language or teaching material (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND RELEVANT TO ESP AND CONTEXTUAL WORDS LEARNING

Theories which are influential to present-day ESL and ESP learning include cognitive theory and the factor of affect and emotion. According to cognitive theory learners are active processor rather than passive receiver, in that they respond to the learning goals visually, aurally and emotionally (Hutchinson & Waters,1987). Recent cognitive views have to do with ESP reading pedagogy strategies, one of which is concerned with the reflection of need to read with or without using a dictionary (Alderson, 1980 and Scoot, 1981). In the affect view language learning is emotional experiences; and the feelings that the learning process evokes will have a crucial bearing on the success or failure of the learning (Stevick, 1976). In the field of ESP, motivation has been interpreted as relevance to target needs, which means medical texts for medical students, engineering English for engineers and so on (Hutchinson & Waters,1987). In addition, to provide ESP learners with convenient means to access a specific branch is seen as capable of motivating many a positive feelings of learning.

Many people have viewed contextual words as an active way to learn vocabulary. Elgort et al (2014) argue that for most of ESL learners the result of context-words study depends on their verbal knowledge learned. They attach importance to the existing semantic knowledge for recognizing contextual words. Chao & Hu (2013) suggests that ESL learners acquire their vocabulary in two ways: the unconscious and conscious ways. The unconscious way involves repeated exposure to the target language, the vocabulary achievement being the natural result. In the conscious way learners are aware of the environment in which the target lexicons are placed, and they learn to use the words in this or that environment. Chang & Levesque (2011: 23), in an experiment conducted on vocabulary study, said that learners had reported the similar recall result on word learning done with context and without context when conventional word-list is offered. The same thing has happened to the learning of Japanese. In inferring the meaning of words made up of two Chinese characters, both context and morphemes have become the factors of correct guessing for the foreign students (Yoshiko Mori, 2003). To sum up the views expressed by the above-mentioned specialists, contextual words have facilitated ESL and EFL in two ways. First, reading comprehension in the context of coherent words is efficient since logical relations can be followed. Second, they make for understanding and memory of difficult expressions, when known knowledge is referred to guess the meaning of new items. Since the derivation of meaning is possible from contextual clues, contextual expressions constitute an important aspect of reading and interpretation strategies.

III. RECOGNIZING CONTEXTUAL WORDS IN ESP TEXTS

A. Relationship Words

The recognition of contextual expressions is assisted by relationship words, so called because they tell the relationship of contextual expressions. Generally articles, pronouns, conjunctions adverbs and prepositional phrases, these coherence words also serve as coordinators, to maintain brevity and clarity, in that they avoid redundancy, i.e. the use of articles and pronouns to restate information already given, the use of conjunctions adverbs and prepositional phrases for confirmation, continuation, addition, comparison, contrast, concession, etc.

The main difference between contextual words and relationship words is that the former are content words while the later are mostly empty words; with the former constructing part of the text and the latter indicating this construction. Contextual words are not as easy to judge as the relationship words are, since they do not have the same fixed positions as the indicators do. Contextual expressions appear in any place and keep the theme going, in smaller units and topics. There are simple contextual words, pairs/groups of synonymous/antonymous words; and complex ones, phrases similar in meaning or function. In Chinese there are coherence indicators, too, similar to the structural coordinators, such as 这个、那个、因此、所以、可以看出、不难发现 (this; that; therefore; it can be seen that; obviously).

B. Techniques for Recognizing Contextual Expressions

To decide if one expression is contextually related to the others, there can be at least three techniques. The first one is to see if the pair/group correlate in meaning or function, and are able to explain one another. The second one is to find structural coherence indicators, which usually signal the presence contextual pair/group. The third one of recognition is to analyze relation, when there are no obvious exterior signals. The analysis aims to find the relations of the expressions, e.g. *general and specific, summary and specific case, cause and effect, contrast, supplementation*, etc.

Techniques	Types/function
A judgment of meaning or function	synonyms/similar-meaning expression
B finding coherence indicators	words signaling relations
C judging relations	cause and effect/addition/contrast

III Methodology

This chapter discusses the application of contextual concept in designing ESP class activities, in three aspects: pre-text anticipation, speaking and writing interaction and unknown word meaning inference.

3.1 Methods and processes

In teaching practice, I was able to compare the effects of two different methods of teaching, one based on conventional word list, and the other on contextual expressions. Two types of activities were adopted in two sequential class hours, each spent on similar-topic short reading passages e.g. *common law* Vs *civil law*; *solar energy* Vs *wind energy*, *analysis of the source rock* Vs *the formation of oil and gas*. At the end of the lecture the activities were recalled and the feeling about them was discussed.

3.2 Implementation

To describe the implementation of the teaching plans, two short passages entitled *common law* and *civil law* are used, together with list of words and contextual expressions attached to each passage (see Appendixes). To contrast the two plans similar processes are described to similar ends, though different effects did result. The first three levels (Activity A) mainly describe what have happened in the first hour, and the next three levels (Activity B) focus on what have been going on with contextual expressions.

3.2.1 Activities for text anticipation

Activity A: Decide which of the following pairs of words are arranged by definition and which by word-building scheme. The answers to the first two pairs are given as examples.

Pairs	Definition(D) / Similar word building (SWB)
common law/decisions by judges	D
juridical/jurisdiction	SWB
law/legislature	
law/statute	
statute/statutory	
judge/judicial	
law/legal	
stare decisis/case law	
adopt/inherit	
judicial/judiciary	

Activity B: With a partner discuss and work out a topic name for each group pf expressions. Write down the name next to the group of expressions. The first two are given as clues.

Pairs/groups of contextual expressions	Topic name
1. civil law /continental European law/ the concept of codification/ the Code of Hammurabi/ the Corpus Juris Civilis/ codified documents	Civil law and its origin
2. code/ codifications/constitution/law/legislative enactments/statute	Code and codification
3. common law/legal precedents/developed by judges/case law	
4. interpreted/legislative enactments/ passed by legislature	
5. interpreted/ developed or made by judges; civil law/common law	
6. religious law/canon law/Islamic law	
7. Scandinavian cultural sphere/ Denmark, Norway and Sweden/ Finland and Iceland	

Comments

Both activities mentioned above serve to lead in the follow-up activities. Activity A lists the word pairs which are closely related, synonyms in terms of meaning and form. This type of listing will contribute a lot to the comparison of similar-meaning/building word, and the memorization of new items. Activity B does the similar thing, but sheds particular light on reading comprehension, and through the topic students are able to relate those words with the textual theme. The activity helps save effort skimming through the text. Furthermore as the plan indicates the relations in a wider context, and is therefore able to elicit more interaction of speaking and writing.

1. Interaction of speaking and writing

Activity A: Speak and write a paragraph about Common Law, using the pairs of words listed in Activity A of 3.2.1. You may just continue to speak or write from the following models if necessary.

Modeled speaking

A: Common law has its sources from decisions made by judges, right?

B: Yes, judicial decisions are important, but there are differences from one jurisdiction to another.

A: In this principle are laws made and passed by a legislature?

B: No, they are decided by court judges, so this doctrine is different from the one governed by statute.

A: Here is a sentence, *such statutes may overrule judicial decisions*. What does it mean?

B: …

Modeled writing

Common law has its sources from the decisions made by judges. In some jurisdictions, judicial decisions may be rejected by statutes. Legislature may make or pass laws …

Activity B: In pairs continue to speak and write from models, using the contextual expressions taken from Passage 2. For writing practice each of the two partners is required to use mainly one part of the contextual expressions.

Contextual expressions

Part one	Part two
civil law	continental European law
a code	codifications/constitution
the concept of codification	the Code of Hammurabi
civil law systems	the Corpus Juris Civilis
interpreted	developed or made by judges
the Corpus Juris Civilis/	codified documents
legislative enactments	legal precedents
civil law	French civil law/Chinese law

Modeled speaking

Student A: Civil law is also called continental European law?

Student B: I guess it had its origin in Europe, and spread to the other parts of the world.

Student A: What's the difference between code and codification?

Student B: A code is set of legal rules while codification means rules making systematically.

Student A: What about the concept of codification?

Student B: …

Model Two: Writing

Student A	Student B
Civil law is the most wide-spread legal system, because it is used by the most countries in the world. In this system a legislature is involved to amend a code. The concept of codification has had a long history…	Called continental European law, the system has originated in Europe Continent. Codification in a constitution is one the characteristics and the central source of law. For instance, the Code of Hammurabi …

Comments

Both activities seem to have done a good job guiding speaking and writing, though they follow different lines of thinking. By and large, speakers and writers for Activity A depend much on improvisation and spontaneity, and for this reason, is perhaps more challenging than Activity B. With shy and quiet student it can be pretty hard to do. In contrast, Activity B seems more convenient for speaking and writing, with the words for use clearly cut and directed. It can also be challenging and inviting, for the speaker or writer has had to make good use of his portion for speech and writing. One of the problems ESP teachers are faced with is effective interaction between the students with the text material they have read. As ESP learning is not only meant to learn specialized knowledge and information, but for language use and interaction, the students get psychological and emotional satisfaction from using the language to achieve some goals (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 47). Therefore it is worthwhile to devise and practice procedures which encourage interaction between students.

2. Word meaning guessing activities

Activity A: For each italicized word/expression in the sentence, choose the word/expression closer in meaning to match it

1) Alongside, every system will have a legislature that passes new laws and *statutes*. (judicial decisions/enactments by a legislature)

2) In some jurisdictions, such statutes may overrule *judicial* decisions or codify the topic covered by several contradictory or ambiguous decisions. (judges'/legislative)

3) In some jurisdictions, judicial decisions may decide whether the jurisdiction's constitution allowed a particular statute or *statutory provision* to be made or what meaning is contained within the statutory provisions. (jurisdiction's constitution/legislative enactments)

4) The doctrine of *stare decisis*, also known as case law or precedent by courts, is the major difference to codified civil law systems. (case law/codified topics)

Activity B: From passage 2 find out words and expressions hard for you to understand. With the help contextual expressions guess the meaning of each unknown word/expression, referring to the suggestions given. Then with a partner discuss your answers.

paragraphs	Words whose meaning is to be found out	Matching contextual expressions	Techniques used
1	a) b) c)		
2	a) b) c)		
3	a) b) c)		

Suggestions

a) Notice the words which are close in meaning or function to the target one. For instance, all the three words *codification/constitution/statute* have to do with the meaning of law, judging from the expression *the central source of law ... is codification in a constitution ...* which shows where law comes from.

b) Find out relationship words in a context, as in ***while** the concept of codification dates back to the Code of Hammurabi in Babylon ca. 1790 BC*;   *religious laws **such as** Canon law and Islamic law, …* The darkened words show relationship the contextual expressions (i.e. the relationship of product and origin, of general case and specific case), which indicate, for example, the meaning of *the concept of codification* judged in relation to *the Code of Hammurabi*.

c) Pay attention to the implied relationship. For example, the group of contextual expressions *Scandinavian cultural sphere/ Denmark, Norway and Sweden/ Finland and Iceland* shows the cultural sphere and its components, and from this relationship we conclude that the unfamiliar words *integrated; inherited* mean to *be part of* or to *come from*. Contextual relationship is therefore analyzable.

d) Confirm the meaning of a new item by judging its usage in like collocation. Does the phrase *to amend a code* mean to amend a piece of law or a collection of law? The expression *the Code of Hammurabi* gives us the answer: a systematic collection of law.

Comments

Both activities A and B aim to assist word-meaning inference, but in different ways. Activity A aims at definite meaning of words, resulting of some better understanding of the passage. Activity B encourages students to clear the meaning of the unknown words by themselves, by offering a wider context, and clues to make their own inference. While the former activity tries to clear doubts about word meaning, the latter leaves room to clear them by the students themselves.

Guessing word meaning from the context is the core function of contextual expressions. When there is an adequate context available, the meaning of many hard words can be guessed; in theory; and the rich the context, the higher rate of correct guessing (Çetinavcı, 2014: 89). It must be admitted that the high guessing rate correspond to students' existing knowledge of grammar and context, therefore building students' contextual experience is essential to the vocabulary building (Lin, 2008: 121). The word guessing activities designed around contextual expressions focus on awareness building and basic guessing techniques. Sometimes, context does not provide close reference for precise guessing, but they assist understanding in more ways.

Summary

Chapter 3 discusses the application of contextual expressions in ESP classroom by comparing word-list based and contextual-expression based activities. On the whole the word-list activities have aims for reading comprehension and its facilitation. And the activities around contextual words are aimed for interaction and language use as well as reading comprehension.

Evaluation of effect on learning promoted by the use of contextual expressions

(1 = excellent   2 = good   3 = acceptable   4 = not very good)

	1	2	3	4
Pre-text discussion		√		
Reading comprehension	√			
Interaction of speaking and writing	√			
Word-meaning guessing		√		

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Semantic context has proved to be a useful tool to infer word meaning, and a conscious use helps build a word-learning strategy, which is particularly useful to SL learners. In this discussion we have discovered that semantic context can be pinned down and somewhat clearly defined, as we have done with contextual expressions and core words and peripheral words. By subdividing contextual expressions into topical groups, we have been able to put them to conventional language use, for encouraging interaction and participation in ESP classroom, where any pedagogical

efforts will bear fruit. Furthermore, we have found that though core words can directly explain the target words, the added information from peripheral words offers multiple points to judge the target word. This kind of training develops students' contextual awareness and eventual capacity to guess the meaning of new items.

The correct guessing of the unknown words depends on the richness of the context, that is, the enough number of contextual expressions (B. M. Çetinavcı, 2014). And the nearer is the contextual word meaning, the closer is the guessing. Sometimes, however, when there are not enough near-meaning contextual words, the correct guessing can be a problem. In such a case, one has to rely on the peripheral words and other guessing techniques, including even the formal aspects of things, such as similar structure or word-building. Guessing, then, involves more logical analysis. For instance, there are not direct contextual clues for guessing the word *equity* in the sentence *common law and equity are systems of law whose sources are the decisions in cases by judges,* except the information contained in the sentence itself and the sentence that comes at the end of the passage, . *One of the most fundamental documents to shape common law is the Magna Carta, which placed limits on the power of the English Kings.* From the two sentences one can infer that this word, together with the term common law, has to do with power limiting, and court decisions by judges may ensure the practice. Also the word has to do with its building, it appearance similar to another word, *equality*. These clues work together for the correct inference. This example shows that the inferring process can be a complicated matter, and one has to allow for more room for the recognition of contextual words, and for unconventional techniques. And the recognition of contextual expressions is the first step toward successful guessing.

APPENDIXES

Passage 1

〖1〗 Common law and equity are systems of law whose sources are the decisions in cases by judges. Alongside, every system will have a legislature that passes new laws and statutes. The relationships between statutes and judicial decisions can be complex. In some jurisdictions, such statutes may overrule judicial decisions or codify the topic covered by several contradictory or ambiguous decisions. In some jurisdictions, judicial decisions may decide whether the jurisdiction's constitution allowed a particular statute or statutory provision to be made or what meaning is contained within the statutory provisions. Statutes were allowed to be made by the government. Common law was developed in England, influenced by Anglo-Saxon law and to a much lesser extent by the Norman conquest of England, which introduced legal concepts from Norman law, which, in turn, had its origins in Salic law. Common law was later inherited by the Commonwealth of Nations, and almost every former colony of the British Empire has adopted it (Malta being an exception). The doctrine of stare decisis, also known as case law or precedent by courts, is the major difference to codified civil law systems.

〖2〗 Common law is currently in practice in Ireland, most of the United Kingdom (England and Wales and Northern Ireland), Australia, New Zealand, Bangladesh, India (excluding Goa), Pakistan, South Africa, Canada (excluding Quebec), Hong Kong, the United States, on a state level, (excluding Louisiana) and many other places. In addition to these countries, several others have adapted the common law system into a mixed system. For example, Nigeria operates largely on a common law system, but incorporates religious law.

〖3〗 In the European Union, the Court of Justice takes an approach mixing civil law (based on the treaties) with an attachment to the importance of case law. One of the most fundamental documents to shape common law is the Magna Carta, which placed limits on the power of the English Kings. It served as a kind of medieval bill of rights for the aristocracy and the judiciary who developed the law.

Technical words and expressions

1. equity /'ekwɪtɪ/ the quality of being fair and impartial
2. judicial /dʒuːˈdɪʃ(ə)l/ pertaining to courts of law and to judges
3 jurisdiction /ˌdʒʊərɪsˈdɪkʃ(ə)n/ the right, power, or authority to administer justice; the territory over which authority is exercised
4. overrule: to rule or decide against
5. contradictory /kɒntrəˈdɪkt(ə)rɪ/ contradicting; inconsistent
6 ambiguous /æmˈbɪgjʊəs/ having several possible meanings or interpretations
7. provision /'stætjʊt(ə)rɪ/ a law providing for a particular matter
8. stare decisis /'stɛərɪdɪ'saisis/ 「L」 the doctrine that rules or principles of law on which a court rested a previous decision are authoritative in all future cases
9. treaty: formal agreement between two or more states
10. aristocracy /ˌærɪˈstɒkrəsɪ/ a class of persons holding exceptional rank and privileges, especially the hereditary nobility.

Proper names

1. Magna Carta /ˈmægnə ˈkɑːtə/; medieval bill of rights: Magna Carta was originally written because of disagreements amongst Pope Innocent III, King John and the English barons about the rights of the King. Magna Carta required the King to renounce certain rights, respect certain legal procedures and accept that his will could be bound by the law.

2. Salic law: provided written codification of both civil law, such as the statutes governing inheritance, and criminal law, such as the punishment for murder. It has had a formative influence on the tradition of statute lawthat has extended to modern times in Central Europe, especially in the German states, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, parts of Italy, Austria and Hungary, Romania, and the Balkans.

3. the Court of Justice: is the highest court in the European Union in matters of European Union law.

Passage 2

『1』 Civil law is the most widespread system of law around the world. It is also sometimes known as Continental European law. The central source of law that is recognized as authoritative is codifications in a constitution or statute passed by legislature, to amend a code.

『2』 While the concept of codification dates back to the Code of Hammurabi in Babylon ca. 1790 BC, civil law systems derive from the Roman Empire and, more particularly, the Corpus Juris Civilis issued by the Emperor Justinian ca. AD 529. This was an extensive reform of the law in the Byzantine Empire, bringing it together into codified documents. Civil law was also partly influenced by religious laws such as Canon law and Islamic law. Civil law today, in theory, is interpreted rather than developed or made by judges. Only legislative enactments (rather than legal precedents, as in common law) are considered legally binding.

『3』 Scholars of comparative law and economists promoting the legal origins theory usually subdivide civil law into four distinct groups. French civil law: in France, the Benelux countries, Italy, Romania, Spain and former colonies of those countries. German civil law: in Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Estonia, Latvia, former Yugoslav republics, Greece, Portugal and its former colonies, Turkey, Japan, and the Republic of China. Scandinavian civil law: in Denmark, Norway and Sweden. As historically integrated in the Scandinavian cultural sphere, Finland and Iceland also inherited the system. Chinese law: a mixture of civil law and socialist law in use in the People's Republic of China.

Contextual expressions

1. civil law /continental European law/ the concept of codification/ the Code of Hammurabi/ the Corpus Juris Civilis/ codified documents

2. code/ codifications/constitution/law/legislative enactments/statute

3. common law/legal precedents/developed by judges/case law

4. interpreted/legislative enactments/ passed by legislature

5. interpreted/ developed or made by judges; civil law/common law

6. religious law/canon law/Islamic law

7. Scandinavian cultural sphere/ Denmark, Norway and Sweden/ Finland and Iceland

REFERENCES

[1]   Alderson, J. C. (1980). A Process Approach to Reading at the University of Mexico in *ELT Document Special Issues and Occasional Papers: Projects in Material Design*. British Council.

[2]   Atay, D. & Ozbulgan, C. (2006). Memory strategy instruction, contextual learning and ESP vocabulary recall. *English for Specific Purposes, Elsevier Journal* Vol. 26 (1). pp. 127-136.

[3]   Çetinavcı, B. (2014). Contextual Factors in Guessing Word Meaning from Context in a Foreign Language. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *Elsevier Journal* Vol.79. pp116-127.

[4]   Chang, S. & Levesque, K. (2013). Taken out of Context: Differential Processing in Contextual and Isolated Word Reading. *Journal of Research in Reading*, Vol.36 (3): 101-111.

[5]   Chang, S, Levy, B., O'Neil, S. (2006). Word Acquisition, Retention, and Transfer: Findings from 2Contextual and Isolated Word Training. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, Vol.96 (1). pp 145-155.

[6]   Chao, H. & Hu, M. (2013). The Effects of Word Frequency and Contextual Types on Vocabulary Acquisition from Extensive Reading: A Case Study *Journal of Language Teaching and Research,* Vol.4 (3). pp 76-85.

[7]   Elgort, I., Perfetti, C..., Rickles, B., Stafura, J. (2015). Contextual Learning of L2 Word Meanings: Second Language Proficiency Modulates Behavior and Event-related Brain Potential (ERP) Indicators of Learning. *Language, Cognition and Neuroscience*. Vol.30 (5) pp 109-117.

[8]   Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987) English for Specific Purposes. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.

[9]   Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). English for Specific Purposes. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.

[10] Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). English for Specific Purposes Cambridge University Press. Cambridge, UK.

[11] Kwary, D. (2011). A Hybrid Method for Determining Technical Vocabulary. *System, Elsevier Journal* Vol.39 pp.119-130.

[12] Lin, C. (2008). The Effect of Word Meaning Deriving Strategy Instruction: The Case of EFL Students in Taiwan. *TEFLIN Journal,* Vol.19 (2) pp 33-44.

[13] Scott, M. (1981). Reading Comprehension in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in *the ESPecialist*, No. 3, July 1981. pp. 22-29.

[14] Stevick, E. (1976). Memory, Meaning and Methods. Newbury House, MA., USA.

[15] Wang, P. (2009) The Impact of Text and Learners on Contextual Inference of Word Meaning. *Foreign Language Teaching and Practice*. Vol. 2 (5): 77-89.

[16] Yoshiko, M. (2003). The Roles of Context and Word Morphology in Learning New Kanji Words. *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol.87 (3): 1181-1907.

[17] Yu, W. H. (2007). A Comparison of Two Learning Strategies Used by the Chinese Learners of English. *Teaching English in China*. Vol. 2 (3) pp 47-56.

Huifang Tian was born in Tangshan, Hebei Province, P. R. China, in Mar. 1966. He received his bachelor degree of Art from the Department of foreign Languages, Hebei Normal University, Hebei Province, in Sept. 1989. He is an associate professor, and currently teaches English at the School of Foreign Languages, China University of Petroleum, Beijing. His research interests include foreign language teaching and education, English for Specific Purposes. He is author of several articles on language and research published by well-acknowledged journals.

Designing an English Course Book for High School Students Based on 2013 Curriculum with Local Content Materials

Hasmiati
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

Arifuddin Hamra
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

Haryanto Atmowardoyo
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

Syarifuddin Dollah
Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

Abstract—This study investigates English course book for Senior High School Students based on 2013 Curriculum in order to obtain the 2013 English curriculum objectives. The researchers carried out a research and development method by applying designing the appropriate English course book to be used for the students of Senior High School to improve their English proficiency. The respondents of this study were the tenth grade students of SMA Negeri 1 Sungguminasa Kabupaten Gowa and the English teachers of the school. The instrument of this research was a questionnaire. This questionnaire was designed for need analysis to measure the students' self perception, prior knowledge of the content of the basic competence of the tenth grade students, and their expectations in learning English and to determine the English course book materials in case of the quality, content, design, strategy use, and the attractiveness of the teaching materials. The results show that the existing an English course materials were far from the competency target curriculum because they do not agree with the English course materials, and they did not meet the students' need which was based on the content standard of the school curriculum.

Index Terms—designing, English course book, High School students, 2013 curriculum, local content materials

I. INTRODUCTION

Teachers, students, and textbooks/course books are among the main elements of foreign or second language classrooms. In general, schoolbooks/course books signify the unseen syllabus of the linguistic lessons in a definite package of curriculum. Though linguistic course books are broadly used all over the world, they are often evaluated because of exposing irregularities between "learning aspects' and 'profitable parts". The exploration for economic income, community approval, assortment preference and suitability for teaching space use are subjects of tension in seeing ELT course books (Sheldon, 1988). As a consequence of this condition, it is significant to choose on which linguistic course books are greatest valuable for learners in certain situations.

Based on the observation in the school where this research will be conducted, most of the students have low English proficiency which comes from various aspects. One of the aspects is the use of English course book which is not fully relevant to the student's need. Most of the teachers implement English course books which are provided by the government although the books do not match with the school curriculum. So, the researcher assumes that the English course books may contribute the main cause of the low English proficiency of the students. Therefore, this research plans to design an English course book to improve the students' English proficiency.

This study will design an effective English course book for the first grade of Senior High School based on 2013 curriculum that is expected will improve the students' English proficiency. The English course book is hoped will provide teachers and learners with the arrangement of professionally developed materials, allowing teachers to spend their valuable time more on facilitating learning materials. It is hoped that the English course book can be used flexibly and can be adapted and supplemented to meet the needs of specific classes.

There are numerous motives why the researcher might select to make their own instruction course book, regardless of the readiness of commercially made resources. Teaching materials form an important part of most English teaching programs. But, regardless of the recent rich array of English linguistic instruction course book commercially presented, numerous educators stay to create their own resources for teaching space use.

Dialogues around the benefits and weaknesses of teacher-designed resources frequently focus on a judgment by using course books. An important advantage of teacher-produced materials is contextualization (Howard and Major, 2003). A main disapproval of profitable resources, mainly those made for the world-wide EFL market is that they are essentially basic and not intended at any definite group of students or any certain social or scholastic setting. For many educators, designing or adapting their own instruction resources, allows them to take into account their certain education setting and to overcome the lack of 'fit' of the course book.

In designing an English course book, the researcher will create choices around the greatest suitable organizing value or emphasis for the resources and activities. Then this can be altered over the course of the programme if essential. Most course books continue organized about language rules features and the PPP (presentation, practice, production) model of instruction, frequently with an "unrelenting arrangement" which can be "intensely unengaging" (Harmer, 2001 in Howard and Major, 2003). Through taking additional control over resources construction, the researcher can select from the variety of potentials, including themes, conditions, ideas, purposes, competences etc, or a combination of these values, as first points to improve an English course book that focus on the developing needs of her particular group of learners.

Based on the previous description, this research intends to design an English Course Book for High School Students based on 2013 Curriculum with local content materials for the purpose of the students learning English effectively so that they have good English language skills in accordance with the 2013 Curriculum. This study will analyze the existing students' English proficiency and English course books, the 2013 curriculum, what the students' want, what the students' lack, and what the students wish to learn.

A. Problem Statement

This study wants to develop English course Book for Senior High School students based on 2013 curriculum in order to obtain the 2013 English curriculum objectives. Considering the previous description, the main research problem is designing the appropriate English course book to be used for the students of Senior High School to improve their English proficiency. Therefore, the research question is "What kind of English course book is effective to improve the students' English achievement?"

B. Objective of the Research

In relation to the problem statement and the research questions above this research is aimed at finding out an effective English course book to improve the students' English achievement.

C. Significance of the Research

The result of the research is expected to be useful information for educators especially English teachers in providing English course books as resources to teaching learning process. So, the English course book that has been developed is expected to give more useful contribution to the improvement of English classroom interaction as an effort to improve the competence and performance of the students in learning English at Senior High School. It is hoped by reading the result of this research English teachers can make learning activities more informative, interesting, and relevant for Senior High School students based on 2013 Curriculum. In addition, this study will produce suitable an English course book based on 2013 curriculum with local content materials which meets the students' need in the learning process.

D. Scope of the Research

This research is under the umbrella of applied linguistics and focuses on the English course book development. This research designed an English course book for Senior High School students based on 2013 curriculum with local content materials. English competencies in the syllabus of 2013 curriculum was analyzed and become a basic consideration in designing an English course book for Senior High School students with local content materials.

Some Previous Related Research Studies

In 1987, Coleman carried out an ethnographic study at Universitas Hasanuddin in Makassar, South Sulawesi (Coleman 1987, 1996a). In a three-year longitudinal study, Coleman observed various English classes consisting of 20 to 110 students, and came to the conclusion that in English classes students did not, and were not expected to fully participate in the classroom activity. In an attempt to improve the participation of the students in the classroom, an experiment was conducted at the same university, and "attempted ... to put all the participants – lecturers and students – into a type of event which could no longer be perceived as a 'lesson'" (Coleman, 1996a: 80-81). In this pilot project, classes were divided into smaller groups (of about 40 students) and every teacher was allocated a student's textbook and a teacher's textbook, while every student was asked to use the student's textbook, called "Risking Fun". They were then assigned a class to teach using the "Risking Fun" which had clear instructions and procedural guidelines for every single activity.

The experiment was successful in enhancing students' participation in the classroom learning because "lecturers became highly interactive in task-based events during which students exchanged, manipulated and interpreted large quantities of English language data while teachers took on consultative and inconspicuously managerial roles" (Coleman, 1996a: 81). In addition, the success of the experiment may also result from the fact that both teachers and students had the required course books and more importantly that the books contained clear instructions and procedural

guidance.

Another ethnographic study was carried out by Saleh (1994) in IKIP (Institute of Teacher Training) Semarang, Central Java. He observed classes for a semester and interviewed thirteen teachers at the English language Department to study their content selection and use of methods. With regard to material selection, he found that teachers selected their course materials in accordance with the curriculum, and with some consideration of the students' readiness for learning. He concluded that this selection process was generally guided by the teachers' beliefs: beliefs about the structure and the function of the curriculum, about the students' needs and capacity, their beliefs about teaching and learning theories, their beliefs about the classroom as well as the social context of the students' learning, and their beliefs about teachers' roles.

A study of Javanese SMU (Senior High School) learning styles, and autonomous learning, was conducted by Whachida (2001). This researcher claims that she used an ethnographic approach rather than an experimental design. The problem is, can conditions like planning one's own learning programs and choosing materials be fulfilled considering that the syllabi and course books, for instance, are dictated by the government and teachers and students still view teachers as the one who has the authority to make decisions at the action level? As Wachidah (p. 2001: 297) points out, "SMU learners generally have ... little experience in conducting learning autonomy, and I believe that they do not yet have the capacity to make autonomous decisions at the action level (i.e., to determine the steps or procedures to accomplish a task)."

Some Pertinent ideas

English is only a foreign language in Indonesia, whereas the Indonesian language is the national, official language of Indonesia and, at the same time, the lingua franca among speakers of different mother tongues. As the first foreign language in Indonesia, English has been made a compulsory subject from SLTP up to university level in the country, and has even been extended during the last few years to a number of primary schools in capital cities. However, this requirement for study alone does not seem to strongly motivate Indonesian students to learn it. As Kartasasmita (1997) claims, we cannot expect Indonesian students in general to be motivated to study English simply because it is mandatory. He argues that this is particularly the case because "despite the fact that English has such an important role in society, we can observe that, for high school graduates to enter higher education in Indonesia, their English competence is not a determining factor" (Kartasasmita, p. 1997: 19-20). If English is unlikely to be used in real communication by Indonesian students nor is it a gatekeeper for Indonesian higher education, it is very likely that they will not make significant efforts to learn it.

In one of the few course books on foreign language learning that discuss both foreign learning and second language acquisition, VanPatten and Lee (1990) put an emphasis on foreign language learning, rather than foreign language teaching. In one chapter of this book, VanPatten (1990) argues that current theories and hypotheses in foreign language (FL) teaching are based on the ones developed by SLA specialists due to the lack of research in FL learning. In other words, he suggests that there is a need to increase research in the field of FL learning to contribute theories to FL teaching which remains the "consumer" (VanPatten, p. 1990: 18) rather than a contributor to SLA theory enrichment. This implies that, on one hand, there is a relationship between SL and FL learning and teaching, but on the other, they describe two different phenomena, and therefore cannot be used interchangeably. Gass (1990) points out that as far as research findings are concerned, there has not been a clear separation between the contexts of FL and SL. She believes that the differences made between them are mainly caused by different programs and teacher training, rather than the obvious difference between the contexts of the two.

In relation to English Language Teaching, it is naive to accept that what is applicable in the ESL context is also applicable in the EFL one. In an EFL classroom, students and the teacher are likely to come from similar linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Tickoo, 1995). Therefore, both EFL students and teachers have similar expectations and perceptions, for instance, of the way to behave and participate appropriately in the classroom. Having a similar linguistic background, students usually communicate using a language other than English (Tickoo, 1995). This certainly reduces their opportunity to use the language for real communication. In addition, EFL students may never encounter actual English use outside the classroom. Consequently, they may not see the direct relevance of learning English to their needs.

II. METHOD

The main objective of this research is to design an English course book for Senior High School students grade 10 based on 2013 curriculum. The designing of the English course book will be based on the core competencies of 2013 curriculum. The core competencies of the 2013 curriculum will be focused on the first grade Senior High School's competencies. Since this research is a developmental research, the general stages will be ordered into five phases: analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation (Gustafson, 1981).

The participants of the research were the tenth grade students of SMA Negeri 1 Sungguminasa Kabupaten Gowa and the English teachers of the school. The researcher will choose all the classes of the tenth grade of SMA Negeri 1 Sungguminasa during academic year 2014 – 2015. The subjects will be 300 students from 10 classes, and there will be three English teachers. The teachers and researcher will conduct deep discussion to get an English course book design. This study will use total sampling, so all the population (300 students and 3 English teachers) will be the sample of this

study.

This study used questionnaires (students' need analysis questionnaire and questionnaire for the English teachers).

The questionnaire for need analysis will be conducted to measure the students' self perception, prior knowledge of the content of the basic competence of the tenth grade students, and their expectations in learning English. The teachers' questionnaire will be given to determine the English course book materials in case of the quality, content, design, strategy use, and the attractiveness of the teaching materials. The questionnaire will also explore the extent of motivation, conceptual knowledge, and the learning interactions to improve the English skills. In addition, the questionnaire will measure the attractiveness of the teaching materials, the teacher involvement, providing reinforcement, evaluation, and learning in the real world. The questionnaires will be administered to teachers and students to measure the aspects of acceptability, feasibility, and affectivity.

The data analysis will be conducted by applying qualitative and quantitative. The data as a result of questionnaires and tests will be analyzed quantitatively and the data as a result of the observation, document, and interview will be analyzed qualitatively.

III. Results

Many research activities were conducted to answer the research questions of the study. As noted in chapter two, the purpose of this research is to design an English course book with local content materials for Senior High School students based on 2013 curriculum, and the writing design was based on the process of writing a course book developed by Jolly and Bolitho in Tomlinson (1998) and the ADDIE procedures by identifying the existing problem, conducting the analysis of instrument, conducting survey of students' need.

Identifying the existing an English course book materials

In the preliminary step this study is to find out what English competences are covered in English syllabus of 2013 curriculum, what kind of English course book is effective to improve the students' English achievement, what is the students' perception toward designed English course book, and what is the teachers' perception toward designed English course book.

The English teachers choose the commercial books because they are completed with syllabus, lesson plans; so they do not necessarily design syllabus and lesson plans by themselves, and they are easy to get because of the kindness and help of the publishers; they do not use the required books published by the government. In reality, most of the students do not get the target of the school curriculum; they are not able to speak English well, to listen to the English news or English movies, to read English text books, and write even English simple sentences/paragraph well. The commercial books lack of contextualization, the local contents are not presented appropriately.

The result of the need analysis in terms of an English course book materials used by the teachers. Some existing problems faced by the teacher were identified through questionnaire. Based on the questionnaire, from 3 teachers in SMA Negeri 1 Sungguminasa Kab. Gowa indicated that the existing an English course materials were far from the competency target curriculum because they do not agree with the English course materials, and they did not meet the students' need which was based on the content standard of the school curriculum.

Some respondents stated that the vocabularies were too high for the students and this could affect the students' motivation to learn. Besides, some teachers gave their opinion that there was unsynchronized between the target curriculum and students comprehension. In other words, some materials on the existing course books do not meet which the students need. The students studied unnecessary teaching items more often than the compulsory subjects.

The result of the teachers' questionnaire toward the existing course book

The result on the teachers' questionnaire consists of curriculum compatibility, concept validity, concept organization, samples used, and evaluation materials. Need analysis finding: teachers' questionnaire toward the existing English course book in SMA Negeri 1 SungguminasaKab. Gowa.

Curriculum compatibility of the existing book is still not appropriate enough with 2013 curriculum, all the teachers responds the curriculum compatibility has not appropriate with 2013 curriculum. The materials of the book do not cover all the standard competencies and the core competencies which are stated in 2013 curriculum.

Concept validity shows teachers' perspective toward teaching materials prepared should be considered in accordance with the need of the students, teaching materials must be relevant to the materials. The concept validity of the existing book is still not appropriate enough with 2013 curriculum, all the teachers responds the concept validity has not appropriate with 2013 curriculum. The concept of the materials of the book does not cover all the content materials of 2013 curriculum.
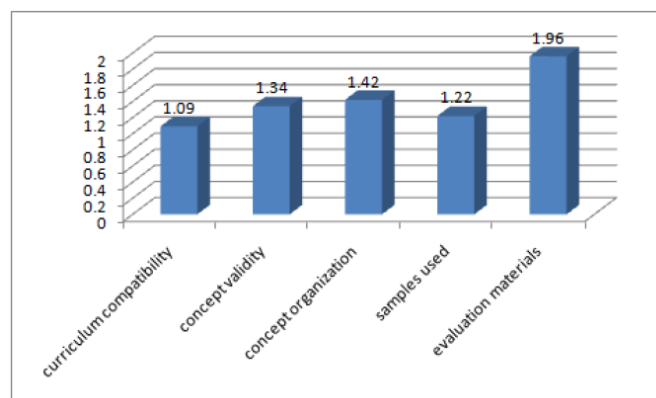
Figure 1: The result of need analysis in SMA Negeri 1 SungguminasaKab. Gowa.

Concept organization of the existing book is still not appropriate enough with 2013 curriculum, all the teachers responds the concept organization has not appropriate with 2013 curriculum. The concept of the book is not presented based on the relationship between concept structure in English and the concept is not set up with the concept which becomes the base to comprehend the next concept. In other words the concept organization is not presented systematically.

Samples used of the existing book is still not appropriate enough with 2013 curriculum, all the teachers responds the samples used has not appropriate with 2013 curriculum. The samples represented are not relevant with the concept that had been explained so the samples used do not explain the concept presented and the samples are not real with the students' life. At last the samples presented can be comprehended by the students easily. In other words, the samples are not interested for the students and do not motivate them.

Evaluation materials of the existing book are quite enough refers to teaching goals/competencies determined and are quite enough refers to the concept that has been studied. The evaluation materials are sufficient in considering cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domain and are sufficient in considering the level of difficulties. However, the valuation materials cannot comprehended easily by the students although by answering the questions and doing the exercises, the process of learning take places.
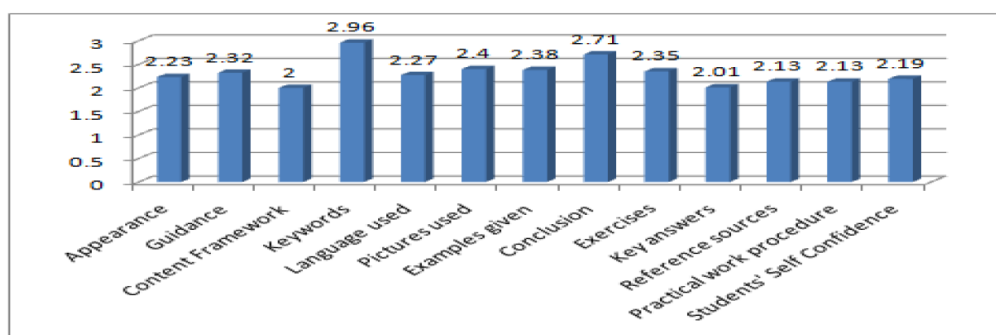
Figure 2: The result analysis of students in SMA Negeri 1 Sungguminasa Kab. Gowa.

Analysis of the validity and reliability of instruments

In analyzing the data, instrument should present the validity and reliability. There are two aspects of instrument of this research, namely (1) the validity and reliability testing and (2) the instrument assessment by the experts in their fields. Validity testing of this research instruments were conducted by applying out a questionnaire to 3 teachers and 120 students at SMA Negeri 1 SungguminasaKab. Gowa. The validity test used SPSS statistical program version 15.0 for windows with Pearson product Moment Correlation technique to correlate the scores on each item with the total score of questionnaire items. Based in the result of the instrument analysis, the students' and the teachers' perspective about the instructional materials were delivered to know the coefficient of Pearson product moment correlation were then compared to the value of r table at 5% significance level and degree of freedom (df) = n-2. Value r-count > r-table shows that items of questionnaire were valid, if the value r count < r table the item of questionnaires were invalid, the value of r table for 123 respondents are the 5% significant level is 0,514. The validity testing in this research was done by calculating the reliability coefficient of Cronbach Alfa using SPSS 15 for windows as follows:

1. All the items of the questionnaire are valid based on the t-test with two tailed, and reliability according to Cronbach's Alpha based on standardized items is 0.95.

2. From 21 items there are three items are valid and the rest is valid based on the two tailed test at the level of 0.05, and the reliability based on Cronbach's Alpha is 0.795. The analysis indicates that the Alpha value is 0.795 and r value is significant at the level of 0.05 (two tailed) with 120 number of students is 0.361. It can be concluded the items of the instrument are reliable; the calculated r is higher than the r table.

Expert's validation of the instruments and dissertation product

The instruments used in this study and the dissertation product have been validated by two experts in their fields before administering the instruments. The improvements on the instrument and the product of the research had been done, and they were ready to use.

The result of design

In the teaching and learning process, an English course book design should be considered. This present study applied the Model of Teaching English (MTE) presented by (Syatriana and Hamra, 2011), as in figure 5. The purpose of this teaching model is to get good oral and written English performance and competence. It considers the learning environment: the teachers and students.
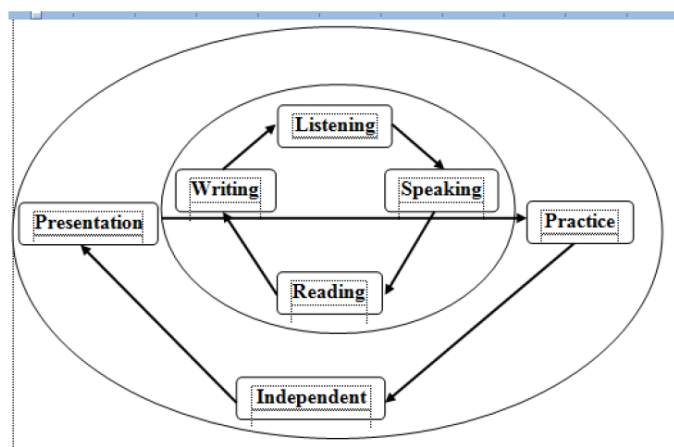
Figure 3. Model of Teaching English (Syatriana&Hamra, 2011)

Here are some strategies used in the newly designed course books (new course book: Listen and Practice) relating to PPP Procedure.

1. Presentation (meaningful, memorable, and realistic examples, clear models, briefness), with various activities (Look, say, observe carefully)

This strategy asks the learners to see, say and observe the teaching materials are presented. The teacher gives an explanation as needed so that the learners can understand so that they can practice the skills that the teaching materials.

2. Practice (attractive to generate motivation, within the students' reach) with various activities as follows:

a. Matching

In implementing this strategy learners were asked to match a variety of ways, for example between the word with the object.

b. Completing

In learning, learners are asked to complete a sentence or an incomplete picture by providing/not providing complementary

c. Ask and answer

In a pairing of learners asked questions and answers based on the training provided by teachers.

d. Oral Work

The learners were asked to practice the exercises orally prepared in the learning material. Learners carry out an audible command or as instructed by the teacher or other students in working groups.

e. Pattern drill

The learners were asked to practice answering questions orally and in writing from the description or simple writing.

3. Production (situational role play, debates, discussions, problem solving, narratives, descriptions, quizzes and games.

a. Role playing

This activity provides opportunities for learners to play a role in group.

b. Debates

In this activity the learners are given the opportunity to argue in accordance with situational phenomenon that is happening in society.

c. Discussion

Learners are given the opportunity to discuss about the only thing that needs clarification or discussion.

d. Problem solving

Learners are involved in a variety of problem-solving activities of a particular case that exists in the community.

e. Narratives

Learners express or write the narrative of certain incidents or events.

f. Descriptions

In these activities the learners describe something in English, both written and spoken well.

g. Quizzes and games

Learners are involved in interesting quizzes and games in accordance with the ability and skill levels of learners.

The result of development

Since this study is developmental, deep discussion on creating a model of creating an English course book was administered among the English teachers in the need analysis step of the study relating to the purpose of writing an English course book based on 2013 curriculum and the application of pedagogical aspects.

The English course book material development based on 2013 curriculum is based on the components from ADDIE model, Dick and Carey, IDLS model, and Jolly and Bolitho in Tomlinson (1998). The main procedure is based in ADDIE model and some details of developing an English course book materials are based on IDLS and Jolly and Bolitho, and 2013 curriculum as in figure 4:
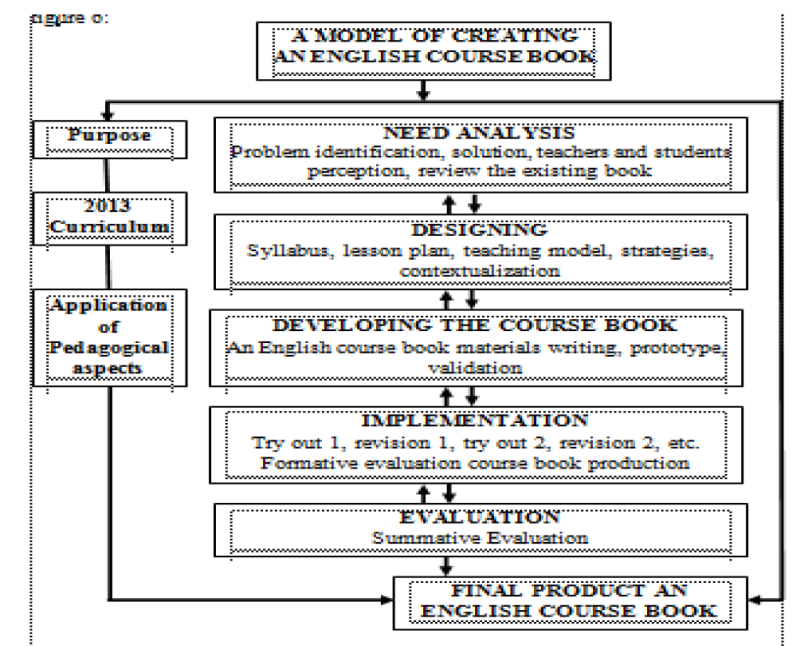
Figure 4: An English Course Book Material Development Based on 2013 Curriculum

IV. DISCUSSIONS

The findings of this study suggest that the failure of EFL teaching and learning in rural Indonesia is due to the complex interplay of a number of issues, including the following:

a. Cultural values, i.e. the value of harmonious relationships in a feudal community,

b. Sociolinguistic situation, i.e. the status and function of English,

c. Material conditions, and

d. Methodology, i.e. teachers' teaching practices.

Learning materials play an important role in teaching and learning activities in the classrooms. Learning materials are often the most substantial and observable component of pedagogy. They determine the quality of language input and the language practice during the learning process in the classroom. The select of linguistic instruction resources can decide the value of learning-teaching practice. As a part of the resources used in the linguistic teaching space, the textbook can frequently play a vital part in learners 'achievement or failure.

Designing instruction resources is not an easy work. The difficulties which are confronted by those who are accountable for the instruction and learning are complex, in this case the teaching-learning of English. It requests thoughts to encounter desires, needs, and lacks. These thoughts are frequently enclosed what is named needs analysis. Needs analysis include quires with who, why, where, and when. The first two main significant queries are those with who and why while others just follow them. One needs analysis in order that he can work in line with the desires, needs, and lacks elaborate so that he can attain the intentional purposes.

Course resources form an significant portion of greatest English teaching programmes. From textbooks, videotapes and images to the Internet, instructors trust deeply on a varied variety of resources to support their instruction and their learners' learning. But, in spite of the recent rich array of English language teaching resources commercially obtainable, numerous instructors remain to create their own resources for teaching space use. Certainly, most instructors use considerable period discovery, choosing, assessing, adapting and creating resources to use in their instruction.

For numerous instructors, designing or adapting their own instruction resources, allows them to take into account

their certain learning setting and to overcome the shortage of 'fit' of the course book.

In conclusion, the benefits of teacher-designed resources can be summed up in the notion that they dodge the 'one-size-fits-all' method of most commercial resources.

The selection of linguistic instruction resources can decide the value of learning-teaching practice. As a part of the resources used in the linguistic teaching space, the textbook can frequently play a vital part in learners' achievement or failure. In a practical /communicative practice the important part of the resources is to stimulate learners' understanding, negotiation and expression under communicating conditions. As each learner has his/her own learning degree and style, the resources should not limit learners' linguistic learning course by specifying definite stages and the organization of the content would offer chances for self-study and assessment.

Designing teaching materials needs reflections to encounter desires, needs, and lacks. These reflections are frequently enclosed what is named needs analysis. Needs analysis involves questions with who, why, where, and when. This should disclose learning desires with regard to English linguistic skills in listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary understanding and syntax; as well as single learner's learning inclinations. It is not just learning desires that are related to the instructor as resources designer, but, similarly significant is information about learners 'understandings (life and educational), their first language and stages of literateness in it, their goals, their interests and their purposes for learning English.

Textbooks are intended for universal courses 'to be used worldwide' or they are set according to definite requests in a country. The key matter in choosing textbooks is to examine for the suitability of the textbook in a certain instruction setting. It is problematic to discover a faultless book which is appropriate for a certain group of students, however the goal is to examine for the correct kind of book that fits into the recent instruction condition better than other resources.

Designing teaching materials needs considerations to meet needs, wants, and lacks. These considerations are usually covered what is called needs analysis. It is hoped that by conducting a need analysis, a good thoughtful of the notion of learning resources will be gained.

V. CONCLUSION

After developing an English course book for Senior High School students based on 2013 curriculum with local contents, the researchers concludes that the appearance of the English course book is quite interesting, the guidance of the book is easy enough to be comprehended by the students and the content framework can help the students to understand the materials presented in the course books.

The keywords of the English course book can help the students to comprehend the materials of the books; the language used is quite easy to be understood by the students and the use of pictures is sufficient to help the students to comprehend the materials.

Example given in the English course books is sufficient to help the students to comprehend the materials and the conclusions can help the students to understand the materials. The exercises of the course books are sufficient to help the students to understand the materials and the key answers are sufficient to help the students to study independently.

The reference sources of the English book is adequately help the students to study the materials and the practical work procedure is quite enough to be comprehended by the students, so the students have moderate self-confidence in studying the materials of the English course book.

The results of this study provide a starting point to course designers, especially English for ten grade students of senior high school, into what kind of materials that should be implemented in the classroom. The findings also give nuance that before starting an instructional process; the teachers should analyze the students' needs. However, the findings possess limitation since they only provide information about the needs from the students' point of view. The results provide no information about the needs based on the teacher' points of view. Therefore, further research is needed to cover the information about the learning need based on the teachers' point of view.

REFERENCES

[1]   Ampa, A.T. (2013). Developing Multimedia Learning Materials for Speaking Skills Based on Contextual Teaching and Learning. Unpublished Dissertation. Postgraduate Program. State University of Makassar.
[2]   Carlson, Cristine. (2008). Alternative Learning Materials in the Subject of English – an Investigation among Pupils in Secondary School. Online http: www. dspace.mah.se/.../Christine's%20Dissertation.pdf. Accessed in April 26th 2014.
[3]   Carter, Ronald &Nunan, David.(2001). The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[4]   Coleman, H. (1987). "Teaching Spectacles and Learning Festivals". *ELT Journal*, 41/2: 97-103.
[5]   Coleman, H. (1996b). Society and the Language Classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[6]   Ellis, A. K. (2004). Exemplars of Curriculum Theory. Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.
[7]   Ena, Ouda. (2013). Visual Analysis of E-Textbooks for Senior High School in Indonesia. Ph. D. Thesis, Chicago: Loyola University Chicago.
[8]   Farrell, Joseph. P. (2003). Textbooks. Encyclopaedia of Education. South Dacota: Feral House.
[9]   Ford, N. and Chen, S.Y. (2001). Matching/Mismatching Revisited: An Empirical Study of Learning and Teaching Styles. *British Journal of Educational Technology,* 32, 1, Pp. 5–22.

[10]   Goldsmith, L.T. and Mark, J. (1999). What is A Standards-Based Mathematics Curriculum? *Educational Leadership*, 57, 3, Pp. 40–45.

[11]   Hargreaves, A. (1995). Changing Teachers, Changing Times. London: Cassell.

[12]   Howard, J and Major, J.(2003). Guidelines for Designing Effective English Language Teaching Materials. Online. http://www.paaljapan.org/resources/proceedings/PAAL9/pdf/Howard.pdf. (Accessed 24/4/ 2014.

[13]   Kartasasmita. (1997). "Teaching English to ITB Undergraduates: Observation and Suggestions". In H. Coleman, T. Soedradjat, and G. Westaway (Eds.), *Teaching English to University, Undergraduates in Indonesian context: Issues and Development,* 19-24. Bandung: ITB Press and Research in Development Education, School of Education, University of Leeds, GB.

[14]   Ladson-Billings, G. (2009a). Race Still Matters: Critical Race Theory in Education. In M.W. Apple, W. Au & L. A. Gandin (Eds.), *The Routledge International Handbook of Critical Education* (pp.96-122). Hoboken: Routledge.

[15]   Ladson-Billings, G. (2009b). The Dream Keepers: Successful Teachers of African American Children. San Fransisco: Jossey Bass.

[16]   Litz, D. R.A. (2005). Textbook Evaluation and ELT Management: A South Korea Case Study. Asian EFL Journal, no volume and page numbers given. Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/Litz_thesis.pdf. (accessed 28/4/2014).

[17]   Mares, C. (2003). Writing a Course Book. In B. Tomlinson (Ed), *Developing Materials for Language Teaching* (pp.130-140). London: Continuum.

[18]   Marsh, Colin J. (2004). Key Concepts for Understanding Curriculum. New York: RoutledgeFalmer.

[19]   Masuhara, H. & Tomlinson, B. (2008). Materials for General English. In B.Tomlinson (Ed), *English Teaching Materials: A Critical Review* (pp. 17-37). London: Continuum.

[20]   Mistar, J. (2005). Teaching English as A Foreign Language (TEFL) in Indonesia. In G. Braine (Ed.), *Teaching English to the world: History, curriculum, and practice* (pp. 75-85). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

[21]   Musthafa, Bachrudin. (2010). Teaching English to Young Learners in Indonesia: Essential Requirements. *Educationist* Vol. IV No. 2. July 2010. Online.http://file.upi.edu/Direktori/Jurnal/Educationist/Vol._IV_No._2-Juli_2010/07_Bachrudin_Musthafa.pdf.(accessed 24/4/ 2014).

[22]   Nurcahyoko, K. (2013). Curriculum 2013: The Next Oasis or Mirage? The Jakarta Post: online available at http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2013/07/20/curriculum.2013-the-next-oasis-or-mirage.html. (accessed 27/4/2014).

[23]   Pasassung, Nikolaus. (2003). Teaching English in An "Acquisition-Poor Environment": An Ethnographic Example of A Remote Indonesian EFL Classroom. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. University of Sydney.

[24]   Ratna. (2013). Developing English for Specific Purpose (ESP) Course for Tour and Travel Students Based on Needs Analysis. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. State University of Makassar.

[25]   Ratna.   (2003).   Developing   Speaking   Activities.   From   Theory   to   Practice. Availableat:http://www.professorjackrichards.com/pdfs/developing-lassroom-speaking-(accessed 26/4/2014).

[26]   Richards, C. J. & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[27]   Sheldon, L.(1988). ELT Textbook and Materials: Problems in Evaluation and Development. Oxford: Modern English Publications.

[28]   Sukarno. (2008). Teaching English to Young Learners and Factors to Consider in Designing the Materials. *Jurnal Ekonomi& Pendidikan* (pp. 1 -17), Volume 5 Nomor 1, April 2008.

[29]   Syatriana, Eny.(2013). Designing English Instructional Materials for EFL Senior High SchoolStudents Based on School Curriculum. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. State University of Makassar.

[30]   Tomlinson, B. (1998). Glossary of Basic Terms for Material Development in Language Teaching and Introduction. In B. Tomlinson, (Ed.). *Materials Development in Language Teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[31]   Tomlinson, B. (Ed.).(2003). Developing Materials for Language Teaching. London: Continuum.

[32]   Tomlinson, B. (Ed.). (2008). English Language Learning Materials: A Critical Review. London: Continuum.

[33]   Widarsa,   A.N.   (2013).   New   2013   Curriculum   for   New   School   Year   in   Indonesia. Online.available.at.http://www.globalindonesianvoices.com/8813/new-2013-curriculum-for-new-school-year-in-indonesia.(accessed 27/4/2014).

Hasmiati, a teacher at SMAN 1 Sungguminasa was born on June 1, 1968 in Cabbenge district of Soppeng, South Sulawesi Province.

Her formal education started from Elementary School and finished in 1980, Junior High School in 1983, and Senior High School in 1986. In the same year, she was accepted as a student of English Department at the faculty of languages and Arts of Institutes of Teacher Training and Education (IKIP) Ujung Pandang for D3 program and graduated in 1989. She was directly be promoted as a teacher on February 1993. In 1998 she continued S1degree in English Education Department at State University of Makassar (UNM) and graduated in 2000, S2 degree in English Education Department at State University of Makassar (UNM) and graduated in 2003.

Arifuddin Hamra, a professor at the Faculty of Language and Arts of State University at Makassar (UNM), was born at Bulukumba on Mei 1, 1947. He got Bachelor of Art (BA) in 1973 and Undergraduate Degree (Drs) in English Education at FKSS of IKIP Makassar (now FBS of UNM). Master of Science Education (M.S.Ed.) at State University of New York America Serikat in 1986, doctor Degree (Dr) in Linguistics in 2006.

His major is Reading, Curriculum and Material Development at Graduate Program. Research Methodology, Discourse Analysis, Theory Construction at Post Graduate Program of the State University of Makassar.

He also researcher with various research, Penelitian Fundamental in 2006 and 2007, Hibah bersaing in 2008 and 2009, Penelitian Hibah Kompetensi 2010 from DP2M Dikti, Penelitian Hibah from IMHERE 2009,PTK from Balitbang Diknas and other researches from routine fund of UNM

Haryanto Atmowardoyo, a professor of English Education at English Department of State University of Makassar. He was born in Purbalingga, Central Java on October 29, 1959. He completed his Elementary education in SD Galuh, Purbalingga in 1971; Junior High school at SMP Borroneus Purbalingga in 1974; and Senior High school at SMA Negeri Purbalingga 1977. Then he completed S1 degree in English Education at IKIP   Malang in 1994; and S degree (doctor) in English Education at IKIP Jakarta in 1999. From September 2009 to January 2010, haryanto Atmowardoyo participated in academic Recharging Program in OHIO State University, Columbus, OHIO, USA.

He has published several books : Isu Pendidikan dan Pengajaran Bahasa (2001), published by State University of Makassar Press; dasar-dasar Penulisan Proposal penelitian (20080), a collaborative work with Sukandarrumidi, of Gajah mada University, published by gajah Mada Press (2008); and Metodology Penelitian Kualitatif; Teori Dasar (2008) published by State University of Makassar press.

Some articles have also been published either in newspaper, in on line journal, or in printed scientific journals; cara Mudah Belajar bahasa Inggris, Lokalisasi Pengajaran bahasa Inggris; Fisibilitaqs Lokalisasi Pengajaran bahasa Inggris; and perlukah Revolusi Pengajaran Bahasa Inggris published in fajar and pedoman Rakyat in 1994; Critical analysis on teacher's Made Test (performance, 1995); Laboratorium bahasa multimedia dan Fungsinya dalam Pembelajaran Bahasa Asing (20050, Pendidikan Network);Peranan Faktor Motivasi dan Strategi belajar dam Pembelajaran bahasa Inggris (Pancaran Pendidikan, Jember University, 2007);Kajian tentang Pembelajar bahasa Inggris yang berhasil (Humaniora, Hasanuddin University, 20070; and Communication Formats Compatible to Multimedia Language Laboratory (2007, Pendidikan Network).

Haryanto has presented some papers in international conferences as well ; Research Methods in TEFL; Grammatical Error in Indonesian EFL Learners' Writing (May 2007, Jakarta, Annual Linguistic Conferences of Atmajay University); A Lesson for International Journal (Haroi, vietnam, August 2010, the 8 th Asia TEFL Conference); and Qualitative research in TEFL Studies (Makassar, 2nd ICOLE Conference, December 2010).

Syarifuddin Dollah, a lecturer at the English Department, faculty of Languages and Literature of Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM). He was born in Bua-Bua II, district of Pinrang, South Sulawesi province in 1963. He graduated his elementary school in 1976 in Bua Bua II and Junior High School in 1979 in Pinrang. He graduated his Senior High School in 1982 in Pare Pare. He acquired his Doctrandus degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from the Faculty of Languages and Arts of Institutes of teacher Training and Education (IKIP) Ujung Pandang in 1988. In 1996 he graduated his Master degree from Graduate Program of Institutes of Teacher Training and Education (IKIP) Malang in Malang, East Java. He got his Ph.D bin English Language Studies (Linguistics) from Universitas Hasanuddin. As a lecturer, he has actively taught at some universities or colleges and other institutions since 1988. So far he has published books on Vocabulary (1990), Pengembangan Kemampuan Berbahasa Inggris untuk Taman Kanak Kanak (2002), Oral Communication for EFL Learners (2002), and English for Presentation (2003).

A CP-directed Study of Doctor-patient Oral Interaction in Outpatient Departments[*]

Fang Guo

North China Electric Power Univesity, China

Hongyan Wei

North China Electric Power Univesity, China

Abstract—Based on the data collected from an A-class hospital in Shanxi Province of China, the paper analyzes the compliance and violation of cooperative principle during the six stages of the doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments and the current doctor-patient relationship revealed in the interaction. The study shows that: (1) When answering the doctor's question, most patients violate the Maxim of Quantity. (2) Many patients violate the Maxim of Relevance. (3) Many patients often violate the Maxim of Manner. (4) Most doctors often comply with the Maxim of Quality and violate the Maxim of Quantity. (5) Both doctors and patients may violate the Maxim of Attitude, and most patients will violate the Maxim of Attitude.

Index Terms—doctor-patient interaction, cooperative principle, pragmatic analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments refers to the oral interaction which occurs between doctors and patients (or patients' relatives), and it is generally about the illness.

In general, in order to help the doctor make an accurate diagnosis for his condition, the patient will actively cooperate with the doctor and seriously follow the cooperative principle in doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments. However, there are also a large number of phenomena of the violations of the cooperative principle in doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments.

In order to examine the compliance and violation of the new type cooperative principle of doctor-patient interaction, the analysis will be carried out at each of the six different stages of the doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments.

Have (1991, 1995, 2001, 2002) points out that there is an ideal sequence in the process of the medical consultation. This ideal sequence contains six stages. The first stage is opening; the second stage is complaint; the third stage is elaboration, examination end/or test; the fourth stage is diagnosis; the fifth stage is treatment and/or advice; the sixth stage is closing. It is well-known that the modern medical science and practice in China were originated in the western countries, so the consultation of outpatient departments in China also contains six stages.

Thus, from the preliminary investigation into the self-collected corpus of doctor-patient interaction, the writer found a doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments is generally composed of six stages, including Stage 1, Opening, Stage 2, Complaint, Stage 3, Detailed inquiry/Examination, Stage 4, Diagnosis, Stage 5, Treatment/Advice and Stage 6 Closing. The six parts work together to reach a common goal between doctors and patients. The writer assumes that in this process, both doctors and patients interact with each other by complying with or violating the cooperative principle to reach the common goal. Based on this assumption, the writer will analyze doctor-patient interactions at six stages as shown in Figure 1.

Doctor-patient interaction is a purposefully joint activity directed towards a common goal: the patient's illness gets treated. The six different stages have different intentions and features. The writer assumes that at each of the six different stages, both doctors and patients interact with each other by complying with or violating the five conversational maxims of the new type cooperative principle of doctor-patient interaction to reach the common goal.
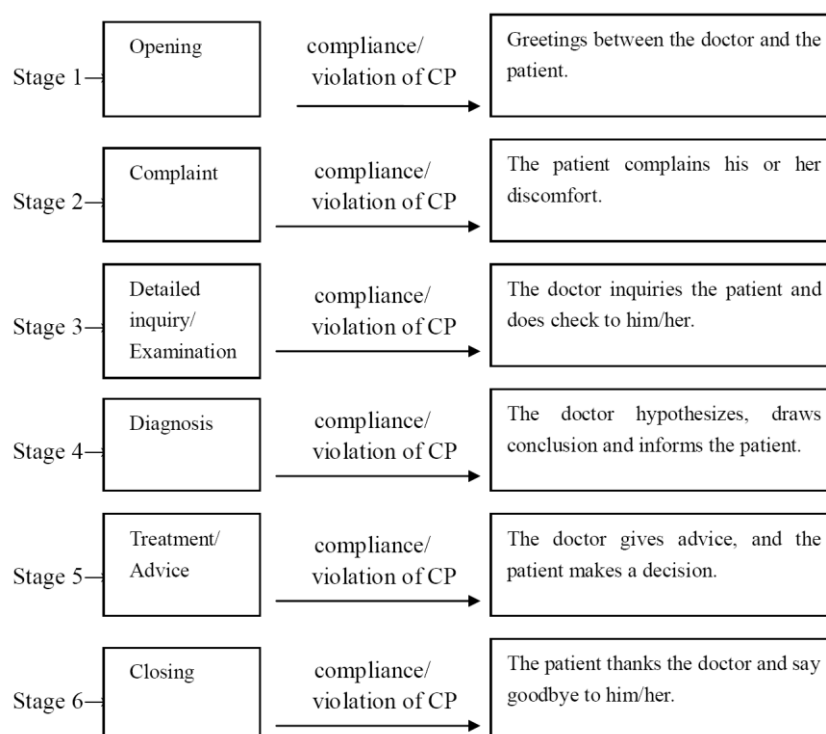
Figure 1 CP-directed analytical procedure for doctor-patient interaction

II. DATA

The study of this thesis is mainly based on forty-nine doctor-patient oral interactions recorded by a recording pen. The place where the writer recorded the doctor-patient oral interaction is in the outpatient departments of a Grade A hospital in Shanxi province. The consultations of the outpatient departments took place in different consulting rooms. Each consultation room was separate. All the patients had to wait outside the consultation room. There were some benches for the patients in the corridor. Each patient took a numbered voucher from the registration office. The doctor called on the patients to enter the consultation room one by one according to their numbers or names. However, the reality was that when the doctor is treating a patient, usually other patients or the relatives of the patients still stayed in the consultation room. It helped the writer to obtain the natural and real corpus.

The corpus collection work has been done by the writer by means of pretending to be an intern or a patient. The writer put the recording pen on the table with the permission of all the doctors. The writer did not participate in the interaction and communication between doctors and patients during the process of collecting corpus. She just sat aside, observing and taking notes. The information includes the names of the departments, and other nonverbal behavior of the doctors and patients, for example, the facial expressions and the body languages. In the meantime, the patients didn't notice the recording pen and they didn't know that the interactions were being recorded, thus the interactions between doctors and patients have carried out naturally and smoothly.

The total length of the recorded corpus (the forty-nine doctor-patient oral interactions) is about 6 hours. Moreover, the shortest one is 161 seconds and the longest one is 460 seconds. The writer selects 15 doctors for this study, and nine of them are females and six of them are males. These doctors include chief physician and attending doctor. The titles of these doctors are chief physician and attending doctor. It covers seven major departments in outpatients, including four departments of internal medicine and three departments of surgery. The four departments of internal medicine are respiratory medicine department, digestion department, vasculocardiology department, and endocrinology department. The three departments of surgery are general surgery department, osteology department and pain treatment department. In addition, the patients in this study are of different ages, different educational backgrounds and different social status.

III. QUESTIONS

The writer just puts forward three questions before the case analysis, that is, (1) How will the new cooperative principle be complied with in doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments? (2) How will the new cooperative principle be violated in doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments? (3) How does the compliance and violation of the new cooperative principle influence the successful medical care and the friendly doctor-patient relationship? In order to answer the three questions the writer will apply a specific case analysis.

IV. METHODOLOGY

This thesis is a corpus-based empirical research. The main object of this study is the oral interaction between doctors and patients in outpatient departments of the Chinese hospitals. The entire corpus used in this study is collected by the writer, from January to February, 2014, from seven major departments in outpatients in a Grade A hospital in Shanxi province. The study of this thesis is mainly based on forty-nine doctor-patient oral interactions recorded in the consulting rooms of one hospital. The thesis aims to study the new cooperative principle in doctor-patient oral interaction by the CP-directed analytical procedures for doctor-patient interaction. At the same time, the writer analyzes the compliance and violation of new type cooperative principle during the six stages of the doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments, and also analyzes the current doctor-patient relationship revealed in the process of doctor-patient oral interaction.

V. CASE ANALYSIS

A. At the Opening Stage
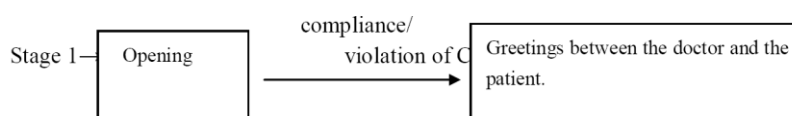
Figure 2 at the opening stage

Example 1:
At the vasculocardiology department:
D: Are you Ms. Wang? （是王女士吗？）
P: Yes, I am. （是，我是。）
D: What's wrong with you? （你咋啦？）
P: I always feel chest ache. （我老是觉得胸口疼。）
D: Oh, chest ache. （噢，胸口疼。）

Example 1 is the opening stage from a doctor-patient oral interaction of vasculocardiology department. The doctor starts a conversation by using an opening question, *Are you Ms. Wang* (是王女士吗). And the patient just answer *yes* (是).Then the doctor moves quickly to the second stage by asking *What's wrong with you*(你咋啦). In Example 1, the doctor and the patient do not greet each other. So they both violate the Maxim of Attitude.

This example shows that: (1) the opening stage is usually very short. At this stage, both doctor and patient have the same intention. Some doctors and patients even skip the opening stage and quickly get into the complaint stage to gather the valuable information they needed as soon as possible. (2) At the opening stage, both doctors and patients usually violate the Maxim of Attitude.

B. At the Complaint Stage
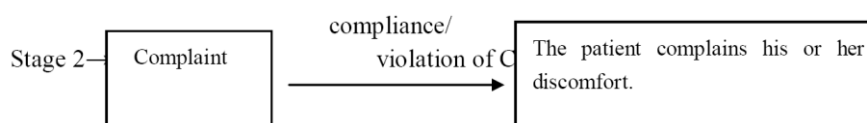
Figure 3 at the complaint stage

Example2:
At the respiratory medicine department
D: What's wrong with you? （怎么了？）
P: I have a sore throat. （感觉嗓子疼。）
D: Do you have a cough? （咳嗽吗？）
P: No, I don't. （不咳嗽。）
D: Just a sore throat? （就是嗓子疼？）
P: Yes. （嗯。）
D: Did you get acid reflux or heartburn? （反酸，烧心吗？）
P: I had a sore throat when I was swallowing foods and drinking water. （就是吞咽和喝水都疼。）

Example 2 is the complaint stage from a doctor-patient oral interaction of respiratory medicine department. The doctor starts a conversation by using an opening question, *What's wrong with you* (怎么了). And the patient just tells the doctor about all his discomfort, such as *I have a sore throat* (感觉嗓子疼). In Example 3, the doctor asks four questions. From the fourth question, we find that the patient violates the Maxim of Quantity and the Maxim of Relevance. In the

fourth question , the doctor asks *Did you get acid reflux or heartburn*(反酸，烧心吗), and the patient should answer yes or no(是或不是), but he doesn't.

According to the example, it can be concluded that: (1) the complaint stage is often longer than the opening stage. At this stage, both the doctor and the patient have the same intention. The intention of the patient is to complain and state all his or her discomfort and symptoms. And the doctor intends to collect the information about the patient's discomfort and symptoms. (2) At the complaint stage, doctors often comply with the Maxim of Quality and violate the Maxim of Quantity. Patients often violate the Maxim of Quantity and the Maxim of Relevance.

C.   At the Detailed Inquiry/Examination Stage
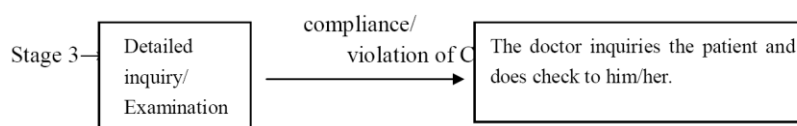
Figure 4 at the detailed inquiry/examination stage

Example 3:

At the respiratory medicine department:

D: Have you taken any medicine? （吃过什么药吗？）

P: I have taken amoxicillin for two days. I feel that medicine is not very effective. （吃了两天阿莫西林。感觉不是很管用。）

D: Do you feel chest tightness and shortness of breath? （胸憋气断吗？）

P: No, I don't. （没有。）

D: Do you have a headache? （头疼吗？）

P: I don't have a headache, nor fever. （头不疼，也不发热。）

D: Let me examine your chest. Open your mouth and let me examine. Open your mouth and say ah. （来我听一下，张开嘴我看一下。来张开嘴，啊~）

P: Ah~ （啊~）

D: Harder! （再使劲！）

P: Ah~ （啊~）

Example 3 is the detailed inquiry/examination stage from a doctor-patient oral interaction of respiratory medicine department. At this stage, the intention of the doctor is to collect more information about the patient's discomfort and symptoms. And the intention of the patient is to continually complain and to state all his or her discomfort and symptoms. In Example 5, when the doctor says *Have you taken any medicine* (吃过什么药吗), the patient says *I have taken amoxicillin for two days. I feel that medicine is not very effective* (吃了两天阿莫西林。感觉不是很管用). So the patient violates the Maxim of Relevance. When the doctor says *Do you have a headache* (头疼吗), the patient says *I don't have a headache, nor fever* (头不疼，也不发热). So the patient also violates the Maxim of Relevance.

Based on the above example, it can be concluded that: (1) the detailed inquiry/examination stage is often longer than the opening stage and the complaint stage. At the detailed inquiry/examination stage, both the doctor and the patient have the same intention. At this stage, the intention of the doctor is to collect more information about the patient's discomfort and symptoms. And the intention of the patient is to continually complain and state all his or her discomfort and symptoms. (2) At the detailed inquiry/examination stage, doctors often comply with the Maxim of Manner. Patients often violate the Maxim of Relevance.

D.   At the Diagnosis Stage
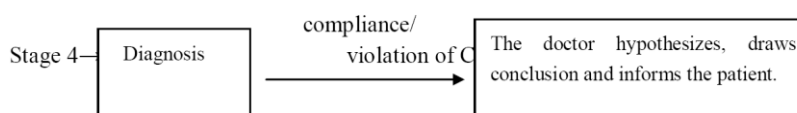
Figure 5 at the diagnosis stage

Example 4:

At the digestion department:

P: Oh. Doctor, what is wrong with me? （噢。大夫， 我这个到底是什么问题？）

D: It should be the problem of the esophagus. Now you may have esophagitis and esophageal erosions. （应该就是食道的问题。你现在可能就是食道炎，食道糜烂。）

P: No other disease? （别的病没有吧？）

D: I think so. We need to observe. These symptoms really appear after drinking. If you will feel better after you take medicine for a few days, then these symptoms disappear, it may be an acute injury. It is necessary for you to make a

gastroscopy. Making a gastroscopy would be better, all right? （应该是。再观察。你确实是喝酒以后出来这种情况。你要是吃几天药，过一段时间觉得好了，再没有这些症状，可能就是急性损伤。你还是需要做胃镜看一下，做一下放心，好吧？）

Example 4 is the diagnosis stage from a doctor-patient oral interaction of digestion department. At this stage, the intention of the doctor is to make his or her diagnosis. And the patient intends to get the diagnosis from the doctor. When the patient asks *Doctor, what is wrong with me*(大夫，我这个到底是什么问题), the doctor answers *It should be the problem of the esophagus. Now you may have esophagitis and esophageal erosions* (应该就是食道的问题。你现在可能就是食道炎，食道糜烂). So the doctor complies with the Maxim of Quality and the Maxim of Manner. When the patient asks *No other disease*(别的病没有吧), then the doctor answers *I think so. We need to observe. These symptoms really appear after drinking. If you will feel better after you take medicine for a few days, then these symptoms disappear, it may be an acute injury. It is necessary for you to make a gastroscopy. Making a gastroscopy would be better, all right.* So the doctor complies with the Maxim of Quality and the Maxim of Manner, and violates the Maxim of Relevance.

This example proves that: (1) the diagnosis stage is often not too long. At this stage, both the doctor and the patient have the same intention. At this stage, the intention of the doctor is to make his or her diagnosis. And the patient intends to get the diagnosis from the doctor. (2) At the diagnosis stage, doctors often comply with the Maxim of Quality and the Maxim of Manner, and violate the Maxim of Relevance.

E.   At the Treatment/Advice Stage
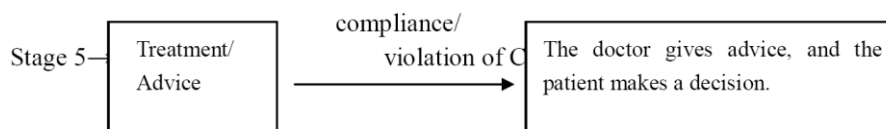
Figure 6 at the treatment/advice stage

Example 5:
At the endocrinology department:
P: Oh, do you think this is better than before? （噢，觉得这个比原来好点儿吗？）
D: It is much better than last July, and it is similar to August. So, you can control like this. You should take half a pill each time, and twice a day. （比你去年7月份好多了，和8月份的差不多。所以说，您就这样控制就可以了。还是按每次半片，每天两次来吃药就可以了。）
P: Should I still eat half a pill? （还是吃半片？）
D: Yes, you should still eat half a pill. You can do a check again in June or July next year. All right. （嗯，还是吃半片。完了等到6、7月份再查吧。好吧。）
P: What I should pay attention to? （平时注意点啥？）
D: Nothing. （没啥注意的。）
P: Don't eat kelp, and don't eat iodized salt. （不要吃海带，不要吃碘盐。）
D: No, you should keep a normal diet. （没有，正常饮食就可以。）
P: Eating iodized salt is ok? （碘盐没问题吧？）
D: Yes. That's ok. （可以。）

Example 5 is the treatment/advice stage from a doctor-patient oral interaction of endocrinology department. In order to recover as soon as possible, the patient will ask the doctor a few questions. Then the doctor may give the patient some advice on diet and taking medicine. In Example 9, when the patient asks the doctor, *do you think this is better than before* (觉得这个比原来好点儿吗), then the doctor answers *It is much better than last July, and it is similar to August. So, you can control like this. You should take half a pill each time, and twice a day* (比你去年7月份好多了，和8月份的差不多。所以说，您就这样控制就可以了。还是按每次半片，每天两次来吃药就可以了). So the doctor violates the Maxim of Relevance. When the patient asks the doctor, *Should I still eat half a pill* (还是吃半片), then the doctor answers *Yes, you should still eat half a pill. You can do a check again in June or July next year. All right.* (嗯，还是吃半片。完了等到6、7月份再查吧。好吧). So the doctor violates the Maxim of Relevance.

This example proves that (1) the treatment/advice stage may last longer than the diagnosis stage. At this stage, both the doctor and the patient have the same intention. At this stage, the intention of the doctor is to give the patient some advice. And the intention of the patient is to get clear explanation about the treatment from the doctor. (2) At the treatment/advice stage, doctors often comply with the Maxim of Quality, and violate the Maxim of Relevance.
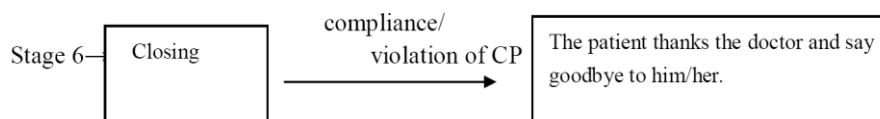
F.   At the Closing Stage

Figure 7 at the closing stage

Example 6:

At the respiratory medicine department:

R: Should I go to pay downstairs? （这个是在楼下交费吗？）

D: Yes, you should go to pay on the first floor, and then you should have intravenous drip on the first floor. （对，一楼交费，然后在一楼输液。）

R: Should I bring the medicine there? （我把药拿过去？）

D: Yes, you should bring the medicine there. （对，把药拿过去就行。）

R: Ok, ok. （好，好。）

Example 6 is the closing stage from a doctor-patient oral interaction of respiratory medicine department. It is very short. In Example 11, the relative of the patient just follows the doctor's advice and he is going to pay. When the relative of the patient asks the doctor, *Should I go to pay downstairs* (这个是在楼下交费吗), then the doctor answers *Yes, you should go to pay on the first floor, and then you should have intravenous drip on the first floor* (对，一楼交费，然后在一楼输液). So the doctor violates the Maxim of Relevance. When the doctor says *Yes, you should bring the medicine there* (对，把药拿过去就行),then the patient says *Ok, ok* (好，好).The patient should say thanks and goodbye to the doctor, but he doesn't. So the patient violates the Maxim of Attitude.

It can be concluded from example 6 that: (1) the closing stage is usually very short. At this stage, both the doctor and the patient have the same intention. The intention of the doctor is to finish the consultation and to hope that the patient can comply with his or her advice. The intention of the patient is to decide whether he or she complies with the doctor's advice. (2) At the closing stage, patients usually violate the Maxim of Attitude.

VI.   CONCLUSION

Through the data analysis, it is found that a complete doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments actually has six stages. The six stages include the opening stage, the complaint stage, the detailed inquiry/examination stage, the diagnosis stage, the treatment/advice stage and the closing stage. Each stage has different characteristics. We also found that there are differences between doctors and patients in compliance and violation of the new type cooperative principle of doctor-patient interaction.

The characteristics of the six stages are: (1) the opening stage is usually omitted and it is usually very short. (2) At the complaint stage, the patient usually will take the initiative to tell the doctor about all his or her discomfort. (3) At the detailed inquiry/examination stage, the doctor usually asks the patient some questions about his or her symptoms. (4) The diagnosis stage is short. The doctor usually makes his or her own judgment and tells the patient what disease he or she may have. (5) The treatment/advice stage is usually long. The patient often asks the doctor a lot of questions about the treatment, and the doctor will answer in detail. (6) The closing stage is the last stage and it is usually very short. In general, the patient will follow the doctor's advice. At the closing stage, the patient often does not thank the doctor, and left the hospital at once.

The following five kinds of situations often occur in the six stages of doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments: (1) When answering the doctor's question, most patients violate the Maxim of Quantity. They often provide excess information. (2) Many patients violate the Maxim of Relevance. (3) Many patients often violate the Maxim of Manner; their words are not brief and not orderly. (4) Most doctors often comply with the Maxim of Quality and violate the Maxim of Quantity. We found that doctors always provide insufficient information to comply with the Maxim of Quality; there are a few patients with this kind of situation. (5) Both doctors and patients may violate the Maxim of Attitude, and most patients will violate the Maxim of Attitude.

The writer finds that the CP-directed analytical procedures for doctor-patient interaction combined with the five conversational maxims of the new type cooperative principle of doctor-patient interaction have the following characteristics: (1) The applicability of the new type cooperative principle of doctor-patient interaction in doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments will be better reflected through this analytical framework; (2) It will better regulate and guide the actual doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments through this analytical framework; (3) by this analytical framework, it will promote that the doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments be carried out effectively, and it will improve a more friendly doctor-patient relationship.

No research is perfect and mine is no exception. Improvements for future study are as follows.

First of all, due to the limited conditions, the corpus of this study is not very plentiful. So the corpus adopted in this study is only collected from seven major departments of the outpatients in a Grade A hospital in Shanxi province. Future researchers can collect the corpus from other departments of the outpatients in other Grade A hospitals in other provinces. By doing so, the examples of the doctor-patient oral interaction will be more persuasive. The corpus is the

basis of the study. The corpus collection work is really very important for the study. Therefore, in the future, the researchers need to pay more attention to have plenty of corpuses and ensure that the collected corpus is more representative in the process of collecting corpus.

Future researchers can be developed around other related issues. Such as the issue that different levels of doctors complies with and violates the new cooperative principle in doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments. The male patients and female patients comply with and violate the new cooperative principle in doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments. Patients of different ages comply with and violate the new cooperative principle in doctor-patient oral interaction in outpatient departments.

REFERENCES

[1]   Have, Paul ten. (1991). Talk and institution: a reconsideration of the 'asymmetry'of doctorpatient interaction. In Deirdre Boden & Don H. Zimmerman, (Eds.), *Talk and social structure: studies in ethnomethodology and conversation analysis.* Cambridge: Polity Press, 138-63.
[2]   Have, Paul ten. (1995). Medical ethnomethodology: An Overview. *Human Studies*, 18, 245-61.
[3]   Have, Paul ten. (2001). Lay Diagnosis in Interaction. *Text*, 2*1*, 251–260.
[4]   Have, Paul ten. (2002). Comparing telephone call openings: theoretical and methodological reflections. In Kang Kwong Luke & Theodossia-Soula Pavlidou (Eds.), *Telephone Calls: Unity and Diversity in Conversational Structure across Languages and Cultures.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 233-249.
[5]   Schegloff, E. A., I. Koshik, S. Jacoby & D. Olsher. (2002). Conversation Analysis and applied linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *22,* 3–31.

Fang Guo was born in Liaoning, China in 1974. She received her PH.D. degree in Linguistics from BeijingNormal University, China in 2009.
She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, North China Electric Power University, Beijing, China. Her research interests include Discourse Analysis and Applied Linguistics.

Hongyan Wei was born in Shanxi, China in 1987.
She is currently a Master student in the School of Foreign Languages, North China Electric Power University, Beijing, China. She majors in Linguistics.

Reading Strategies, Learning Styles and Reading Comprehension: A Correlation Study

Majed Abdulkareem Alharbi

College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This study aimed to measure the correlations between reading strategies, learning styles and reading comprehension of the Saudi EFL college learners' English reading comprehension. This study used a survey and two IELTS reading passages that vary in difficulty levels. The purpose was to show how two different reading strategies affect EFL students' reading comprehension. The study further examines the correlations between learning styles and reading strategies, and whether this affects the students' comprehension in a sample of seventy-five EFL Saudi college students enrolled in the English Department. Participants were randomly assigned to two groups: an oral reading group (n = 37) and a silent reading group (n = 38). The learning strategies were 'visual learner' and 'auditory learner', with three performance grades, 'low', 'average' and 'high'; while the reading methods were 'oral' and 'silent'. The findings showed that the variation of reading strategies, namely oral reading versus silent reading strategies, did not produce any statistically significant differences on EFL learners' reading comprehension. Findings also showed that high visual learners did not perform significantly differently from the silent reading group or the oral reading group. There were no statistically significant differences between silent reading participants and oral reading participants in their performance on either text from the IELTS. More detailed findings were also presented and discussed against a background of prior research. Pedagogical implications were drawn, and recommendations for further research were proposed.

Index Terms—reading strategies, reading comprehension, learning styles, visual learners, auditory learners, EFL, IELTS

I. INTRODUCTION

The ability to read and comprehend efficiently is essential for meeting the needs of everyday life as well as for success in the academic arena (Anderson, Hiebert, and Wilkinson, 1985). Lacking in reading skills, or even having lower than normal reading abilities can result in truancy, underpaid jobs, and falling prey to the cycle of illiteracy in the next generation (Daggett, 2003; Kutner, Greenberg, Jin, Boyle, Hsu, & Dunleavy, 2007).

Many studies have shown that reading to young learners is a predictor of their future reading success (Cid, 2009; Cullinan & Bagert, 1996; Egan, 2014; Kung, 2012; Leckie, 2013). However, educators need to find strategies to enable them better understand the printed material they read. While some face difficulties in connecting sounds and symbols to create words and paragraphs, others can decode words but are still struggling with comprehending a whole message. Cain (1999) suggests a deeper explanation of this difficulty by referring to it as 'a making-meaning difficulty' (Cain, 1999, p. 295).

Studies have indicated that reading skills can be honed by using think-aloud strategies while reading (Baumann, Jones, & Seifert-Kessell, 1993), and by making connections between codes of the texts while reading (McNamara, Kintsch, Songer, & Kintsch, 1996). Students with weak reading skills usually fail to apply the 'before', 'during', and 'after' reading strategies (Janzen, 2003; Nist & Simpson, 1996). However, another research has indicated that these difficulties can be alleviated by extensive teacher modeling of more fruitful reading strategies (Pressley & Wharton-McDonald, 1997).

However, there are individual variations among learners as to their reading abilities and skills; some of these are innate; others are acquired during schooling (Bell, 2012; Ellett, 2014; Tong, 2015). Instructional methods and learning strategies matter when developing reading skills (Beaver, 2012). Indeed, there is a variety of techniques used in reading in both first and foreign language learning classes other than silent reading (Brown, 2007). Nevertheless, there is no conclusive research to indicate that one strategy or one particular method is more effective than others in enhancing students' reading comprehension in L_1 learning environments; yet, scanty research suggested that in FL/FL language learning settings, some reading comprehension strategies could be educationally effective. For instance, some prior research (Armbruster & Wilkinson, 1991; Bernhardt, 1983; Davis, 1981; Leinhardt, Zigmond, & Cooley, 1981; Miller & Smith, 1985) have surmised that pre-tertiary education learners acquire reading skills through adults who have mediocre or high reading skills, and encode reading passages better after silent reading, whereas other studies (Brown, 2007; McCallum, Sharp, Bell, & George, 2004; Prior & Welling, 2001) found no difference between the two modes.

Language learners vary in their preferred reading styles (Brown, 2007; Yamauchi, 2008; Wu, 2010). Smith (1998) classified them as 'auditory' and 'visual' reading styles, which greatly affect learners' reading comprehension. This study examines the relationship between learners' reading styles and reading comprehension. While different studies

(Gregorc, 1985; Harb, Durrant and Terry, 1993; McCarthy, 1990; Sims and Sims, 1995; Smith, 1998) suggest specific models for these learning styles, others suggest that these strategies are overlapping (Brown, 2007) and identify differences between the auditory and the visual reading styles, or the silent and aloud strategies.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between reading strategies and learning styles in a sample of Saudi EFL male college learners' reading comprehension. The study classified reading modes into 'oral' and 'silent' reading, and reading styles were classified as 'visual' and 'auditory', with each categorized into three subscales: low, average, and high. The independent variables were the participants learning styles, and the reading modes based on reading two reading passages from the *International English Language Testing System* (IELTS). The dependent variable was learners' reading comprehension based on their scores. First language, age, gender, English proficiency, education levels were all controlled in the study.

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Few studies on reading strategies explored the usefulness of using a miscellany of strategies with reading students (e.g. Pressley & Woloshyn, 1995). In this respect, Mastropieri and Scruggs (1997) concluded that using these strategies can facilitate reading comprehension while other "strategies appear to have a large, powerful effect" (p. 209). Researchers even assumed that a blend of various strategies of teaching can be very effective for comprehension. For instance, researchers identified two benefits of using a combination of approaches: (1) students can internalize advantages of more than one reading strategy, and (2) the time consumed in learning and applying these strategies may be shortened because the strategies are summarized and taught together.

A. Explicit Strategy-based Instruction

Reading comprehension skills can be acquired easily through positive communication between the educator and the learner. Explicit strategy instruction is a useful method of teaching learners at all levels and competencies. In fact, this way of instruction provides learners with the observation of the teacher as a model and helps them apply different learning strategies. This instructional approach is consistent with the principles of Vygotsky's theory of social constructivism (Rogoff, 1990). Social interaction can enhance learners' cognitive development when they engage in interpersonal talks and discussions (Ben-Ari & Kedem-Friedrich, 2000).

Oral discussion during classes helps build a vocabulary that, over time, becomes internalized as *inner speech* (Vygotsky, 1986). This internalization process becomes an integral part of the cognitive skills repertoire. Similarly, the role of adults as mediators of thinking for the learners can help them to develop a more rapid cognitive scaffolding (Bruner, 1996). While teachers are involved in the direct instruction of specific reading strategies, they must monitor their students' progress, and continually provide them with encouragement, positive reinforcement, and feedback via explicit strategy instruction done in 'interdependent' or 'interactive' teaching modes (Aiken, 2000; Woloshyn, Elliott, & Kacho, 2001). Finally, the overall learning outcome of direct instruction of strategies is to enable students to select from a variety of strategies themselves in a flexible and efficient way.

B. Reading Strategies: Oral versus Silent

Reading strategy instruction has been subject to extensive research (Ahmadi, Ismail & Abdullah, 2013; Hiebert, Samuels, & Rasinski, 2012; Furay, 2014; Park, Yang, & Hsieh, 2014; Ploetzner, R., Lowe, Schlag, 2013; Yi-Chin, Yu-Ling, & Ying-Shao, 2014). For example, Prior and Welling (2001) investigated Vygotsky's *internalization* and *egocentric speech* as related to the oral reading and silent reading strategies in terms of their importance to such processes as decoding and encoding. The researchers stated that "Oral reading is superior for comprehension only after a few years of schooling." (Prior & Welling, 2001, p. 13). However, more research is needed to validate this claim.

Miller and Smith (1985) and McCallum, Sharp, Bell, & George (2004) investigated the effects of silent reading and oral reading of literal and inferential comprehension texts. Their findings indicated that literal questions require the readers' ability to identify synonymous words in questions and synonyms in the texts, but this is not true in the case of an inferential question which entails a higher-level recognition. This requires readers to extract embedded meanings in the reading passages – a finding consolidated in similar research (Gläser & Laudel, 2013; McCallum et al., 2004; Miller & Schwanenflugel, 2006; Miller & Smith, 1985; Yeh, McTigh & Joshi, 2012).

Research (e.g., Gläser & Laudel, 2013; Miller & Schwanenflugel, 2006; Yeh, et al., 2012) suggests that readers with low abilities can comprehend orally presented texts better than silent reading. Further, the poor reader performs much better on inferential questions than on literal ones especially in cases when inferential questions incorporate items examining the main ideas, detecting cause-effect relations, and extracting covert, implicit meanings. They further noted that an average reader comprehends better during silent reading than during oral reading by tackling these two types of questions as efficiently as they can. However, a good reader, they found, is stronger than the poor and average reader in both oral reading and silent reading on various measures of comprehension, indicating superior skills of elaboration. Finally, they found that reading for details, or elaboration, is a significant indicator of competence when it comes to literal comprehension.

Nevertheless, in examining literal and inferential comprehension by using silent reading techniques and read-aloud protocols, McCallum et al. (2004) showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of both groups using both techniques. However, using students with homogeneous reading abilities, it was demonstrated that silent readers used significantly less time when they responded to reading comprehension questions, far less than readers who employed reading-aloud protocols. Readers move developmentally from slow to fast reading by applying scanning and skimming techniques rather than intensive reading (Logan,1997). Furthermore, other research showed that there was a statistically significant correlation between fluent oral reading skills and comprehension skills, but research failed to recognise or explain the nature of this relationship in clearly and objectively verifiable terminology (Gough and Tumner, 1986; Miller & Chwanenflugel, 2006).

Kuhn and Stahl (2003) suggested two primary theories as instrumental in fluency's contribution to comprehension; the first theory emphasizes the contribution of automaticity to fluent reading, while the second stresses the role of prosody in inducing comprehension, depending on the genre of texts, the type of learners and the reading situations. Schwanenflugel, Hamilton, Kuhn, Wisenbaker, & Stah (2004) and Miller and Schwanenflugel (2006) examined the relationship between reading fluency and prosodic features. Findings suggested that the role of reading prosody is instrumental for mediating individual differences in students' reading comprehension. Furthermore, the learners' reading speed and accuracy are positively correlated with reading comprehension. The researchers also concluded that readers with fast and correct oral reading skills used to pause less, when they encounter commas or periods; however, readers with developing skills tended to pause more frequently at appropriate places in the one sentence and between sentences.

Further research has showed that there were no statistically significant correlations between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension in some Semitic languages like Arabic or Hebrew (Saiegh-Haddad, 2003). This suggests that neither speed nor accuracy of reading can be good predictors of reading comprehension in Arabic or Hebrew, but this is not applicable to reading in English. According to Saiegh-Haddad (2003), the oral reading fluency skills of native speakers of English were significantly correlated with reading comprehension. Therefore, accuracy and speed can be good predictors of reading comprehension in English, with speed being a stronger and better predictor of reading comprehension. Even in the case of English as a foreign language, Miller and Schwanenflugel's (2006) showed that EFL learners' reading speed and accuracy are significantly correlated with their reading comprehension.

Furthermore, Miller & Smith (1985) demonstrated that lower level learners could read and comprehend while doing oral reading more efficiently than during silent reading, whereas readers at higher levels comprehend more efficiently during silent reading sessions. Then again, McCallum et al. (2004) detected no significant differences between groups of readings employing silent reading protocols versus oral reading. Therefore, upon examining the relationship between reading fluency and oral reading, Miller & Schwanenflugel (2006) concluded that there was a significant correlation between EFL reading speed and accuracy on the one hand and comprehension on the other.

C. Learning Styles & Reading Comprehension

Some research revealed that three-fifths of one's learning style is biologically determined or are influenced by a genetic predisposition. Furthermore, learning styles are greatly impacted by personality traits (Dunn, 1990). Personality traits have been shown in several studies to have influenced the way in which a person interacts with the world, learns, and gains experiences (Butler, 1988; Gardner, 1993; Gregorc, 1985; Harb, et al., 1993; McCarthy, 1990; Sims & Sims, 1995; Smith, 1998); therefore these researchers used different theories to identify and classify learning styles. For example, Gregorc (1985) and Butler (1988) identified *style* in terms of the labels Concrete, Abstract, Sequential, and Random. They assumed that everyone could be classified into one or a combination of these styles. Further, Sims and Sims (1995) proposed a learning style theory that addressed the individual's processing perspective, using a taxonomy with labels such as Cognitive, Affective, Perceptual, and Behavioral. Also, McCarthy (1990) classified 'quadrants' of people with different characteristics related to the way they can process information and learn over the course of their life. In a "4MAT Learning Styles Wheel," McCarthy employed labels such as "Analytic" and "Imaginative" and "Dynamic/Common Sensible" as descriptors for different learning styles. Finally, Harb, Durrant, and Terry (1993) classified people into Reflective/Abstract, Concrete, and Active learners.

Smith (1998) proposed a model based on Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences; according to this model, people differ in terms of visual or auditory or kinesthetic modes of learning. Students of varied learning styles may respond to aural and visual messages in their own distinctive ways. Research revealed that the majority of successful learners utilized both visual and auditory input equally alike, but slight preferences for any type of input can discriminate one learner from another (Brown, 2007). Lepke (1977) maintained that when learners were taught according to their preferred learning style, their performance become much better. Levin, et al. (1974) noted that many learners could be bimodal. Levin and colleagues also showed that for about 25 per cent of learners populations, the mode of instruction clearly influences their success as learners in terms of its (in)congruence with their learning styles.

On another frontier, the literature is abundant in calls for using oral and silent reading strategies in language teaching and learning; however, previous research was not conclusive as to which reading strategy is more helpful for learners' reading comprehension than the other. However, prior research showed that a variety of factors, such as learners' previous reading experiences, reading preference or text-specific factors influence reading comprehension. In this way, learning styles and reading strategies are crucial factors that are in need for an investigation in the EFL setting. Since

EFL learners may have different learning styles and employ a broad spectrum of reading strategies, including oral reading and silent reading, which may reflect on their reading comprehension, there is a dire need for examining the relationship between learners' reading strategies and their learning styles in EFL settings.

IV. STUDY QUESTIONS

This study was designed to seek answers for the following questions:
1. How do reading strategies affect EFL male college students' reading comprehension?
2. How do learning styles relate to EFL male college students' reading comprehension?

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

This study was designed to assess how two different reading strategies affect EFL students' reading comprehension; and how learning modes and reading strategies are correlated with students' comprehension. The learning strategies were 'visual learner' and 'auditory learner', with three performance grades 'low', 'medium ' and 'high'; while the reading modes or strategies were 'oral' and 'silent'. The survey instrument to assess learning modes was adapted from Slack and Norwich (2007).

Seventy-five male Saudi Arabian college students enrolled in the second year of the EFL program in King Khalid University were randomly assigned to two treatment groups, one with a sample of 37, and the other with a sample of 38. The participants read two passages of differing complexity from IELTS reading tests, one passage classed as easy and the other as difficult. The Silent Reading Group read the passages silently and the other group while the Oral Reading Group read the passages aloud. At the end of the reading session, comprehension tests were administered to see whether there were significant differences attributable to the reading strategy.

Reading comprehension test results were also compared to students with low, medium or high learning modes for visual and auditory learning for the total population and for each group to consider the interaction between reading methods and learning modes in comprehension of easy and difficult reading material.

B. Comparability of Groups

The participants were randomly assigned to the two reading mode groups and to verify their comparability several items of data were considered. One was the mean score of the students in each group on their scores in Reading 1in a course taken in the previous semester. The second was selected information from the demographic information obtained in the survey. Table 1 shows comparisons of the mean Reading 1 test scores and the mean age and number of years in which English had been studied in school and university. The groups were very similar to all this data, and no differences between them were significant.

TABLE 1
COMPARABILITY OF GROUPS

Group	N	Reading 1 Score		Age		Years of Studying English	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Silent Reading	37	72.16	6.82	17.16	.48	8.63	1.31
Oral Reading	38	71,87	5.92	17.35	.96	8.86	2.16
Total	75	72.10		17.23		8.76	

C. Instruments & Procedures

Participants in the study were first asked to complete a survey. The survey obtained demographic information about the participants and information about their preferred learning styles. The groups were then assigned two IELTS reading passages with comprehension questions, which were used to measure comprehension for the different groups and different learning styles. Analysis of data evaluated the reading performance of groups of participants (research question 1) and determined the effect of the participants preferred learning style for reading. (Research question 2). Students' English Reading I examination scores in a previous course were used as a covariate for later comparisons. These different mean scores were compared using the independent samples t-test and a 2x3 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). This analysis of interactions was used to identify whether the reading methods and the learning styles had interactive effects on reading comprehension.

D. The Survey

The survey included 17 questions in two sections to provide some demographic information and twelve questions of descriptive data about students' learning styles based on Slack and Norwich's (2007) study. The questions dealing with learning styles focused only on Smith's visual and auditory styles on a 4-Likert scale from 'disagree' to 'agree'.

E. IELTS Reading Passages

Two IELTS reading passages with varied difficulty were used to consider whether the difficulty index of the text would interact with different reading strategies and learning styles. The two passages were "Making Time for Science" which was regarded as relatively easy reading and "The Triune Brain" which was more difficult. The purpose of using these reading passages was to assess the ability of second language speakers of English to use and understand English in written form in college settings. The comprehension questions for each passage were 12 items taken from the IELTS tests for these items with a score of 5 allowed for each item resulting in a maximum possible score of 60.

F. Reliability and Validity of the Instruments

The internal and re-test reliability coefficients for visual scales on the survey were: Cronbach alpha = 0.63 and Re-test reliability = 0.90. For Auditory scales on the survey were: Cronbach alpha = 0.75 and Re-test reliability = 0.96, p< 0.05 (n=25). The wording of some questions was also changed based on suggestions by a jury of experts who adjudicated the early version of the survey. For the reading test (the IELTS reading passages), the Cronbach alpha = 0.88, which indicates a high-reliability co-efficient for this test.

VI. FINDINGS

In Table 2 below, the means and standard deviations for the Silent Reading Group and the Oral Reading Group show no significant difference between the groups for either IELTS reading passage. When both groups read the easy passage, the mean score in the Silent Reading Group was 46.7 (SD=4.64) and in the Oral Reading Group it was 4.75 (SD=3.55). When students read the difficult passage, the mean score in the Silent Reading Group was 34.5 (SD=5.37) and in the Oral Reading Group it was 37.7 (SD=4.20).

TABLE 2:
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND F RATIOS FOR THE SILENT READING GROUP AND THE ORAL READING GROUP PERFORMANCES ON BOTH READING ASSESSMENTS

Reading Strategies								
	Silent Reading			Oral Reading					
	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	F	df	Sig.
IELTS Text 1	46.7	1.64	37	47.5	1.55	38	.72	1	.40
IELTS Text 2	34.5	1.37	37	37.7	1.20	38	.83	1	.36

None of these differences was statistically significant at .05 level.

The interactions analysis demonstrates that using different reading strategies involving silent and/or oral reading protocols alone did not have any effects of significance on the EFL students' reading comprehension in the case of the easy passage (F (1,156)=.72, p>.05) or the difficult passage (F(1,156)=.83, p>.05).

To recognize to what extent is learning styles relate to Saudi EFL college male students' reading comprehension, the response involved the interaction of learning styles (visual and auditory) with reading methods (silent and oral). The first set of comparisons shows the interactions with visual learning style. The second set show interactions with auditory learning style and the third set shows interactions with both visual and auditory learning styles.

A. Visual Learning Style

IELTS Text 1

Table 3 shows the interaction between visual learning style and two reading methods, silent and oral, on the easy IELTS reading passage. Although the mean score for the low visual learning style was higher for oral readers than for the silent readers, this difference was not statistically significant. The differences between the groups for the medium and high levels of visual learning styles were smaller, and none of these was significant either. Consequently there were no significant differences between the Silent Reading Group and the Oral Reading Group on reading comprehension on any of the visual learning style levels when the participants read this passage: low visual preference(1,18)=1.57,p>.05; medium visual preference, F(1,31)=.43, p>.05; high visual preference, F(1,101)=1.21, p>.05.

TABLE 3:
THE ANCOVA OF THE INTERACTION OF VISUAL LEARNING STYLES AND READING STRATEGIES ON THE IELTS TEXT 1

Visual Learning Styles	IELTS Text 1 Mean Comprehension Scores								
	Silent Reading Group			Oral Reading Group					
Scales	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	F	df	Sig
Low	41.6	1.7 7	8	50.2	1.7 9	6	1.5 7	(1,18)	.2 3
Medium	44.9	1.7 4	8	43.8	1.9 0	12	.43	(1,31)	.5 2
High	50.8	1.4 8	21	48.9	1.4 1	20	1.21	(1,10)	.28
F	2.97			1.2 1					
df	(2,73)			(2,78					
Sig	.06			.3 0					

None of the differences in means within each reading group was statistically significant at .05 level.

IELTS Text 2

Table 4 shows an ANCOVA analysis between visual learning style and the two reading strategies employed with the more difficult IELTS reading passage. Results showed that low visual learners are doing oral reading of the difficult passage, they outperformed than the low visual learners in doing the same passage silently with mean scores of 41 and 29.4 for both groups respectively. This difference was statistically significant, $F (1, 18) = 4.67$, $p=.02$. The medium visual learners, $F (1, 31) = 0$, $p>.05$ and the high visual learners, $F (1,101) =.02,/p>.05$ showed no differences in mean scores between the two groups after reading this passage.

TABLE 4:
THE ANCOVA OF THE INTERACTION OF VISUAL LEARNING STYLE AND READING STRATEGIES ON THE IELTS TEXT 2

Visual Learning Styles	IELTS Text 2 Mean Scores								
	Silent Reading Group			Oral Reading Group					
Scales	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	F	df	Sig
Low	29.4	1.7 7	8	41.0	1.3 0	6	4.67	(1,18)	.02*
Medium	35.3	1.4 1	8	35.0	1.3 8	12	.00	(1,31)	.56
High	36.2	1.1 7	21	37.5	1.1 0	20	.02	(1,10)	.43
F	1.5			2.60					
df	2,73			(2,78)					
Sig	33			.0 8					

*Statistically significant at .05 level

The mean scores in the table above show that low visual learners in the Oral Reading Group performed better than those in the Silent Reading Group on both easy and difficult passages, but the difference was only significant for the more difficult reading passage; the mean scores within each reading group varied with slightly lower scores for the low visual learners in the silent reading group and higher within the oral reading group. However, these differences were not significant.

B. Auditory Learning Style

IELTS Text 1

In Table 5 below, interactions between auditory learning styles and the two reading strategies employed in this study, silent reading and oral reading strategies are shown for the second less difficult IELTS passage. This interactions analysis shows that students using oral reading with low auditory learning styles outperformed their counterparts in the silent reading group. However, no statistically significant differences were detected between readers with medium or

high auditory learning styles in this group. For the low auditory learners, $F(1,29)=2.61, p <.05$; for the medium auditory learners, $F(1,38)=.00$, $p>.05$; for the high auditory learners, $F(1,83)=.03, p > .05$.

TABLE 5:
THE INTERACTION OF AUDITORY LEARNING STYLE AND READING STRATEGIES ON IELTS TEXT 1

Auditory Learning Styles	IELTS Text 1 Mean Scores								
	Silent			Oral					
Scales	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	F	df	Sig
Low	42.8	1.7 7	8	43.0	1.3 0	9	4.67	(1.18)	1.35
Medium	45.8	1.4 1	14	44.6	1.3 8	13	.00	(1.31)	1.00
High	49.8	1.1 7	15	52.5	1.1 0	16	.02	(1.101)	.90
F	1. 5			2.60					
df	2,73			(2.78)					
Sig	33			.0 4*					

Note: Statistically significant at .05 level.

IELTS Text 2

For the group using the silent reading method, there were no differences for the three auditory learning style scales, $F(2, 73) =.69$, $p>.05$. However for the group using the oral reading method the students' auditory learning style levels did affect their reading comprehension. Students in this group with high auditory learning style levels performed better in reading comprehension. A further Tukey HSD posthoc test was used to determine if there were any significant differences between each auditory learning style level. Tukey test results revealed that the only statistically significant group differences were detected between the low and high levels ($M_{Low}=3.53$, $M_{High}=5.13, p<.05$).

Table 6 shows the interactions between auditory learning style and the two reading methods on the more difficult IELTS reading passage. In this analysis, students in neither of the two reading groups showed any significant difference on their reading comprehension, though the low auditory style readers did better in the Oral Reading Group and the highest scores were for those with high auditory learning styles. For low auditory learners, $F(1,29)=.16, p>.05$; medium auditory learners, $F(1,38)=.13, p>.05$; high auditory learners, $F(1,83)=1.18, p>.05$. For each reading method with the difficult passage, the auditory learning preference did not have a significant impact on their reading comprehension, in the Silent Reading Group, $F(2, 73) =2.02$, $p>.05$ and in the Oral Reading Group, $F(2, 78) = 2.64$, $p>.05$.

TABLE 6:
THE INTERACTION OF AUDITORY LEARNING STYLE AND READING STRATEGIES ON THE IELTS TEXT 2

Auditory Learning Styles	IELTS Text 2 Mean Scores								
	Silent			Oral					
Scales	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	F	df	Sig
Low	31.4	1.77	8	39.3	1.3 0	9	4.67	(1.18)	.04*
Medium	34.9	1.41	14	34.0	1.3 8	13	.00	(1.31)	1.2 0
High	38.1	1.17	15	40.9	1.1 0	16	.02	(1.10)	1.50
F	1. 5			2.60					
df	2,73			(2.78)					
Sig	33			.0 8					

Note: Statistically significant at .05 level.

Table 7 below summarizes the mean scores for reading comprehension on the easier passage for different combinations of high and low learning scales and results of tests to assess the significance of differences found. In only one case was the difference between the groups, for students in the Oral Reading Group with low scores on both the visual and auditory learning scales.

In many cases, the numbers in the groups for different combinations were very small, and mean scores could be due to the particular score of one or two individuals rather than a generalizable trend. However from an overview of these results in combination with the figures provided in the earlier tables some general conclusions can be drawn.

One result is that low visual learners performed better in the oral reading group regardless of their position on the auditory scale. This is shown in both Table 7 and suggests benefits for comprehension for low visual learners in using oral reading. For students with medium or high positions on the visual learning scale, there were no consistent differences between the silent and oral reading groups. A conclusion from this appears to be that oral reading assists those with low visual learning style, but that particular reading modes are not required for the relative performance of those with medium and high visual learning styles.

TABLE 7
READING COMPREHENSION SCORES ON IELTS PASSAGE 1 FOR DIFFERENT COMBINATIONS OF LEARNING STYLES AND READING MODES

Learning Style	Silent			Oral					
Scales	Mean	n	%	Mean	n	%	F	df	sig
Low Visual Low Auditory	42.8	3	8	45.9	2	5	3.3	10	.02*
Low Visual Medium Auditory	44,3	2	5	46.4	2	5	1.6	8	3.4
Low Visual High Auditory	47.1	2	5	52.2	2	5	3.1	7	1.3
Medium Visual Low Auditory	43.8	2	5	44.2	4	10	2.3	6	0.9
Medium Visual Medium Auditory	45.5	4	11	43.8	5	13	6.0	11	2.7
Medium Visual High Auditory	43.9	3	8	49.0	4	10	2.0	9	1.4
High Visual Low Auditory	48.6	3	8	47.1	2	5	3.3	6	1.5
High Visual Medium Auditory	48.8	6	16	47.2	3	8	1.8	8	3.3
High Visual High Auditory	50.8	13	35	50.7	14	37	1.1	18	1.5
Total	46.7	37	100	47.8	38	100			

The mean scores for comprehension on the more difficult reading passage shown in Table 8 show the same pattern of results. Although the mean scores are lower the pattern of results is the same The high positions on the auditory learning scales had better comprehension on this passage for all combinations showing a consistent trend, however the differences were not significant. The scores for low visual learners were consistently lower in the Silent Reading Group, but again the differences were not significant so while a general trend could be detected the results must be treated with caution.

TABLE 8
READING COMPREHENSION SCORES ON IELTS PASSAGE 2 FOR DIFFERENT COMBINATIONS OF LEARNING STYLES AND READING MODES

Learning Style	Silent			Oral					
Scales	Mean	n	%	Mean	n	%	F	df	sig
Low Visual Low Auditory	30.4	3	8	39.9	2	5	8.1	8	.09
Low Visual Medium Auditory	32.9	2	5	36.2	2	5	10.2	4	.28
Low Visual High Auditory	35.6	2	5	38.9	2	5	1.7	6	.86
Medium Visual Low Auditory	33.4	2	5	36.7	4	10	2.1	6	2.5
Medium Visual Medium Auditory	35.0	4	11	34.5	5	13	1.4	7	3.3
Medium Visual High Auditory	37.3	3	8	38.6	4	10	7.2	9	2.9
High Visual Low Auditory	34.8	3	8	38.1	2	5	5.1	9	1.8
High Visual Medium Auditory	35.7	6	16	36.1	3	8	2.8	5	1.2
High Visual High Auditory	37.4	13	35	39.3	14	17	3.3	11	5.5
Total	34.5	37	100	37.7	38	100			

VII. DISCUSSION

This study explored the relationships between reading strategies, learning styles and reading comprehension for EFL college students. The first research question addressed silent or oral reading strategies and how these reading strategies influence their reading comprehension. The findings showed that overall the different reading strategies did not lead to any statistically significant differences in reading comprehension. In reading the first IELTS reading passage, which was relatively easier than the second, the score for the silent reading group was 46.7 (SD = 1.64) while it was 47.5 (SD = 1.55) for the oral reading group. In reading the second more difficult IELTS passage the mean score in the silent group was 34.5 (SD = 1.37) and 37.3 (SD = 1.20) for the oral reading group. This finding is consistent with research by McCallum, Sharp, Bell, and George's (2004) which found no significant difference between silent and the oral readers. This shows that overall particular reading strategies were not influential factors in enhancing EFL students' reading comprehension.

The study further considered another significant research question about the extent to which learning styles are correlated with EFL college students' reading comprehension. Results indicated no significant differences between the

two reading groups for those with medium or high visual or auditory learning styles, but that those with low visual learning style performed significantly better in the Oral Reading Group. The low visual learners also performed less well than the medium or high visual learners in the silent reading group, but these differences were not statistically significant. The study also considered differences for students with high, medium or low scores for visual and auditory learning styles. Positions on the visual or auditory scales are not mutually exclusive, and it is possible for a person to be high on both, low on both, or high on one and low on the other. This finding is congruent with Brown's findings (2007) in which he concluded that most successful learners have high preferences for both visual and auditory learning styles that they tend to use more frequently.

High auditory style learners who learn better by listening (McCarthy, 1990; Sarasin, 1999) performed better in both reading groups, but the differences were not statistically significant. The egocentric and communicative speech theory proposed by Vygotsky (1986) explain a limitation in their performance. Vygotsky (1986) noticed that compelling auditory learners to read out aloud gets them to focus on pronunciation, syntacto-lexical structures, and micro units in sentences. During this process, readers focus on new vocabulary and syntax, which negatively affects their reading comprehension. (Brown & Palincsar, 1984; Hannon & Daneman, 2007). In the present study, results showed that readers with high auditory learning styles did no better than others and may have failed to understand the texts as they were distracted by oral reading protocols.

The impact of reading strategies for low visual learners was apparent for both reading passages but was only significantly different from the second more difficult IELTS text. Low visual learners in the Oral Reading Group performed better on reading both IELTS texts. This finding suggests that studying a reading text using read-aloud processes is more likely to assist low visual learners with comprehension. Low visual learners' auditory learning levels did not appear to be significant factors in their reading performance.

The finding that those with low visual learning styles are more likely to benefit from oral reading strategies was outstanding. The implication of this finding can be particularly helpful when they study more difficult reading texts. For these students, greater attention can be focused on the skills they require for reading comprehension such as eliciting content knowledge, utilizing strategic competence and employing metacognitive skills. The study suggests that oral reading could be used for these kinds of students for effective reading comprehension with both easy and difficult reading passages - a finding consistent with prior research (Sawyer, 2002). In addition, variations between oral readers and silent readers in visual learning style readers were similar for low auditory learners; low auditory learners did better, but the difference was more pronounced for the more difficult IELTS passage

In summary, this study has shown that reading strategies may have an impact on low visual style learners' reading comprehension. However, for other levels of visual or learning style there is no detectable difference in the effectiveness for comprehension between silent or oral reading. In oral reading, learners' visual preferences was not a significant factor in influencing reading comprehension, and it was a factor only for those with low visual learning style. This outcome means that a majority of readers should be free to apply the reading mode they prefer, but that those with low visual learning style should be encouraged to read aloud.

VIII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

EFL reading teachers can benefit by findings from the present study through carefully designing appropriate strategy-based reading instruction that is grounded in learning style and schema theory, and by allowing a diversity of reading modes in the classroom to cater for the needs and styles of learning of a variety of students. To provide for this, teachers should arrange for small group work in reading classes and give their students the opportunity for silent or oral reading depending on their own learning preferences. This arrangement can be done by selecting oral reading activities for low visual learners, particularly on difficult reading texts as this appears to result in better comprehension. It could also be suggested that high auditory learners should be encouraged to read aloud since their scores in this study were consistently (though not significantly) better than lower auditory learners their learning preferences, despite the complications suggested by Vygotski (1986).

Considering learning styles and preferences, using oral reading and silent reading in isolation will not be effective for all types of learners. An instructor may plan oral reading activities especially for low visual EFL learners and for high auditory EFL learners. Otherwise, the EFL teachers can select either silent or oral reading activities for other students. Findings from the present study suggest that EFL learners can take advantage of both silent and oral reading strategies used in combination through cooperative groups. Consequently, reading instructors can be flexible in preplanning a variety of reading strategies to enrich their teaching activities and make them engaging for their students. For example, a reading instructor can obtain information about learners who have similar learning preferences and assign them to teamwork within small cooperative groups to be provided with miscellaneous reading tasks. Then they can be encouraged to employ effective reading strategies thought to be proper for each group, considering their preferred reading strategies.

Finally, reading course designers should help reading instructors to check the learning styles and preferences of their students through learning styles inventories before they begin their first reading classes. Then, reading instructors should plan their programs taking into account the students' reading and writing scores on previous performance tests in these skills and also their preferred learning styles. Curriculum designers should also encourage reading instructors to

be flexible in the teaching of reading materials and choosing teaching strategies that are appropriate for their students learning styles.

REFERENCES

[1]   Ahmadi, M., Ismail, H. & Abdullah, M. (2013). The Importance of Metacognitive Reading Strategy Awareness in Reading Comprehension. *English Language Teaching*, 6(10): 235-244.
[2]   Aiken, A. (2000). The effects of explicit strategy instruction at the word level in a first-grade process-based classroom. University of Pittsburgh, ProQuest, UMI Dissertations Publishing, 9974398.
[3]   Anderson, R. C., Hiebert, E. H., Scott, J. A., & Wilkinson, I. A., (1985). Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading. National Academy of Education. Champaign, IL: Center for the Study of Reading
[4]   Armbruster, B. B., & Wilkinson, A. G. (1991). Silent reading, oral reading, and learning from text. *The Reading Teacher,* 45, 145-146.
[5]   Baumann, J. F., Jones, L. A., & Seifert-Kessell, N. (1993). Using think alouds to enhance children's comprehension monitoring abilities. *The Reading Teacher,*47(3) 184-193.
[6]   Beaver, M. (2012). Resources and instructional strategies effective middle school science teachers use to improve content area reading skills. Doctoral dissertation. Indiana State University, ProQuest, UMI Dissertations Publishing, 3539339.
[7]   Bell, A. (2012). A Formative Study Investigating the Acquisition of Early Reading Skills Among High School English Language Learners Beginning to Read English. Doctoral dissertation. George Mason University, ProQuest, UMI Dissertations Publishing.
[8]   Ben-Ari, R., & Kedem-Friedrich, A. (2000). Restructuring heterogeneous classes for cognitive development: Social Interactive Perspective. *Instructional Science*, 28, 153-167.
[9]   Bernhardt, E. B. (1983). Three approaches to reading comprehension in intermediate German. *The Modern Language Journal,* 67, 111-115.
[10] Brown, H. D. (2007). Principles of language learning and teaching. New York: Pearson Education.
[11] Bruner, J. (1996). The culture of education. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
[12] Butler, K. A. (1988). Learning and teaching style: In theory and practice. Columbia, CT: Learner's Dimension.
[13] Cain, K. (1999). Ways of reading: How knowledge and use of strategies are related to reading comprehension. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 17,295- 312.
[14] Cid, J. (2009). Using explanatory item response models to examine the impact of linguistic features of a reading comprehension test on English language learners. Doctoral dissertation. Madison University, ProQuest, UMI Dissertations Publishing, 3366261.
[15] Cullinan, B., & Bagert, B. (1996). Reading with your child. Reading is Fundamental. Retrieved May 21th, 2014   from http://www.rif.org/educators/articles/ReadingWithChild.mspx.
[16] Daggett,   W.   (2003).   Achieving   reading   proficiency   for   all.   Retrieved   April   16th,   2015   from http://www.leadered.com/pdf/Reading%20White%20Paper.pdf.
[17] Davis, Z. T. (1981). A comparison of the effectiveness of sustained silent reading and directed reading activity on student's reading achievement. *The High School Journal*, 72, 46-48.
[18] Dunn, R. (1990). Rita Dunn answers questions on learning styles. *Educational Leadership*, 48(2), 15-19.
[19] Egan, E. (2014). Interventions for English language learners: Effects of reading recovery on reading achievement. Doctoral dissertation. Northeastern University, ProQuest, UMI Dissertations Publishing, 3681313.
[20] Ellett, R. (2014). The use of Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Language Skills (DIBELS) and Measures of Academic Progress (MAP) to compare reading proficiency in native English speakers and English language learners. Doctoral dissertation. University of Kansas, ProQuest, UMI Dissertations Publishing, 3621877.
[21] Furay, J. (2014). Evaluation of artificial intelligent techniques to secure information in enterprises. *The Artificial Intelligence Review,* 42 (4): 1029-1044.
[22] Gardner, H. (1993). Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences. London: Fontana.
[23] Gläser, J. & Laudel, G. (2013). Life With and Without Coding: Two Methods for Early-Stage Data Analysis in Qualitative Research Aiming at Causal Explanations. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research,* 14 (2), 1-37.
[24] Gough, R B., & Tumner, W. E. (1986). Decoding, reading, and reading disability. *Remedial and Special Education*, 7, 6-10.
[25] Gregorc, A. F. (1985). An adult's guide to style. Columbia, CT: Gregorc Associates, Inc.
[26] Hannon, B., & Daneman, M. (2007). Prospective memory: The relative effects of encoding, retrieval, and the match between encoding and retrieval. *Memory*, 15, 572-604.
[27] Harb, J. N., Durrant, S. G., & Terry, R. E. (1993). Use of Kolb learning cycle and the 4M AT system in engineering education. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 82(2), 70-77.
[28] Hiebert, E., Samuels, S. & Rasinski, T. (2012). Comprehension-Based Silent Reading Rates: What Do We Know? What Do We Need to Know? *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 51 (2): 110-124.
[29] Janzen, G. (2003). Effects of explaining the reasoning associated with using reading strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly,* 22, 347-368.
[30] Kuhn, M. R., & Stahl, S. A. (2003). Fluency: A review of developmental and remedial practices. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(1), 3-21.
[31] Kung, M. (2012). Instructional Reading Level Growth of English-Language Learners over Two Years, According to Initial Word-Reading Ability. Doctoral dissertation. The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, ProQuest, UMI Dissertations Publishing, 1518427.
[32] Kutner, M., Greenberg, E., Jin, Y., Boyle, B., Hsu, Y., & Dunleavy, E. (2007, April). Literacy in everyday life: Results from the 2003 National Assessment of Adult Literacy. Retrieved July 28th 2015 from http://nces.ed.gov/Pubs2007/2007480.pdf.
[33] Leckie, A. (2013). Reading among former English language learners: The importance of the teacher and the possibilities for

text. Doctoral dissertation. The University of Arizona, ProQuest, UMI Dissertations Publishing, 2013. 3560793.

[34] Leinhardt, G., Zigmond, N., & Cooley, W. W. (1981). Reading instruction and its effects. *American Educational Research Journal*, 18, 343-361.

[35] Lepke, H. (1977). Discovering student learning styles through cognitive style mapping. In R. Schulz (Ed.), *Personalizing foreign language instruction: Learning styles and teaching options*. Skokie, 111.: National Textbook Co.

[36] Levin, J., Divine-Hawkins, P., Kerst, S., & Guttan, J. (1974). Individual differences in learning from pictures and words: The development and application of an instrument. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 66(4), 464-472.

[37] Logan, G. D. (1997). Automaticity and reading: Perspectives from the instance theory of automatization. *Reading and Writing Quarterly: Overcoming Learning Difficulties*, 13, 123-148.

[38] Mastropieri, M.A. & Scruggs, T.E. (1997). Best practices in promoting reading comprehension in students with learning disabilities: 1976 to 1996. *Remedial & Special Education*, 18, 197 - 213.

[39] McCallum, R. S., Sharp, S., Bell, S. M., & George, T. (2004). Silent versus oral reading comprehension and efficiency. *Psychology in the Schools,* 41(2), 241-246.

[40] McCarthy, B. (1990). Using the 4MAT system to bring learning styles to schools. *Educational Leadership*, 48(2), 31-36.

[41] McNamara, D. S., Kintsch, E., Butler-Songer, N., and Kintsch, W. (1996). Are good texts always better? Interactions of text coherence, background knowledge, and levels of understanding in learning from text. *Cognition and Instruction*, 14 (1), 1-43.

[42] Miller, J., & Schwanenflugel, P. J. (2006). Prosody of syntactically complex sentences in the oral reading of young children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(4), 839-843.

[43] Miller, S. D., & Smith, D. E. P. (1985). Differences in literal and inferential comprehension after reading orally and silently. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77(3), 341-348.

[44] Nist, S. L., & Simpson, M. L. (1996). Developing textbook fluency. Lexington, MA: Heath.

[45] Palinscar, A. & Brown, A. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, 1 (2), 117-175.

[46] Park, J., Yang, J., & Hsieh, Y. C. (2014). University level second language readers' online reading and comprehension strategies. *Language Learning & Technology*, 18 (3), 148–172. Retrieved July 9th 2015, from http://llt.msu.edu/issues/october2014/parkyanghsieh.pdf.

[47] Ploetzner, R., Lowe, R., Schlag, S. (2013). A Systematic Characterization of Cognitive Techniques for Learning from Textual and Pictorial Representations. *Journal of Education and Learning,* 2 (2): 78-95.

[48] Pressley, M., & Woloshyn, V.E. (Eds.), (1995). Cognitive strategy instruction that really improves children's academic performance. Cambridge MA: Brookline Books.

[49] Pressley, M., & Wharton-McDonald, R. (1997). Skilled comprehension and its development through instruction. *School Psychology Review*, 26(3), 448-467.

[50] Prior, S. M., & Welling, K. A. (2001). "Read in your head": A Vygotskian analysis of the transition from oral to silent reading. *Reading Psychology*, 22(1), 1-15.

[51] Rogoff, B. (1990). Apprenticeship in thinking. New York: Oxford University Press.

[52] Saiegh-Haddad, E. (2003). Bilingual oral reading fluency and reading comprehension: The case of Arabic/Hebrew (LI) - English (L2) readers. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 16, 717-736.

[53] Sarasin, L. C. (1999). Learning style perspectives: Impact in the classroom. Madison, WI Atwood Publishing.

[54] Sawyer, R. (2002). Cambridge handbook of the learning sciences. NY: Cambridge University Press.

[55] Schwanenflugel, P. J., Hamilton, A. M., Kuhn, M. R., Wisenbaker, J. M., & Stahl, S. A. (2004). Becoming a fluent reader: Reading skill and prosodic features in the oral reading of young readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 96(1), 119-129

[56] Sims, R. R., & Sims, S. J. (1995). The importance of learning styles: Understanding the implications for learning, course design, and education. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

[57] Slack, N., & Norwich, B. (2007). Evaluating the reliability and validity of a learning styles inventory: A classroom-based study. *Educational Research*, 49(1), 51-63.

[58] Smith, A. (1998). Accelerated learning in practice: Brain-based methods for accelerating motivation and achievement. Stafford, CA: Network Educational Press.

[59] Tong, X. (2015). Cracking the Chinese character: radical sensitivity in learners of Chinese as a foreign language and its relationship to Chinese word reading. *Reading and Writing,* 28 (2): 159-181.

[60] Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). Thought and langauge. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

[61] Woloshyn, V.E., Elliott, A., & Kacho, S. (2001). So what exactly is explicit strategy instruction? A review of eight critical teaching steps. *The Reading Professor,* 24(1), 66-114.

[62] Wu, K. (2010). The Relationship between Language Learners' Anxiety and Learning Strategy in the CLT Classrooms. *International Education Studies,* 3 (1): 174-191.

[63] Yamauchi, K. (2008). Assessment of adult ESL learners' preferable learning styles: Implications for an effective language learning environment. Doctoral dissertation. Marshall University, ProQuest, UMI Dissertations Publishing, 1463073.

[64] Yeh, Y., McTigue, E., Joshi, R. (2012). Moving From Explicit to Implicit: A Case Study of Improving Inferential Comprehension: [1]. *Literacy Research and Instruction,* 51 (2): 125-142.

[65] Yi-Chin, L., Yu-Ling, L. & Ying-Shao, H. (2014). The Effects of Meta-Cognitive Instruction on Students' Reading Comprehension in Computerized Reading Contexts: A Quantitative Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Educational Technology & Society,* 17 (4): 186-202.

Majed Abdulkareem Alharbi is associate professor of applied linguistics in the Department of Linguistics, College of Languages & Translation, King Saud University. He obtained his BA in English Language from Umm Al-Qura University, Saudi Arabia, 1992, his MA in Foreign Languages from West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia, 1997, and his PhD in

Linguistics from University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia, 2005. His doctoral thesis title is "ESP TARGET SITUATION NEEDS ANALYSIS: THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE COMMUNICATIVE NEEDS AS PERCEIVED BY HEALTH PROFESSIONALS IN THE RIYADH AREA". He published extensively on reading comprehension research and literacy development in local and international journals.

The Effect of Dynamic Assessment on the Listening Skills of Lower-intermediate EFL Learners in Chinese Technical College: A Pilot Study

Peihui Wang

Quzhou College of Technology, Quzhou 324000, China

Abstract—**The dynamic assessment, based on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and the concept of zone of proximal development, has been considered capable of unifying assessment and instruction in the development of the assessee. This study aims to explore whether dynamic assessment can promote the integration of listening comprehension assessment and instruction while at the same time enhance students' study in listening. Five second-year English majors from a technical college in an underdeveloped area of a coastal province in China took part in the study. The assessment adopted the cake format in which participants were firstly played a length of audio material and asked to answer comprehension questions and verbalize their comprehending process. The researcher then intervened to mediate the task. Afterwards the participants were played the audio material again and asked to retell. This process continued until the listener gained sufficient understanding of the audio material. An analysis of the data from the researcher's notes, students' notes, students' verbal reports and reflective reports revealed that dynamic assessment can provide both the researcher and the participants a better understanding of the problems in listening. The data also indicated that the researcher's intervention and mediation geared at participants' problems helped construct the mediated learning experience for the participants. The conclusion is that dynamic assessment can realize the integration of listening comprehension assessment and instruction, and promote the development of students' listening study at both macro- and micro-levels.**

Index Terms—**dynamic assessment, sociocultural theory, listening comprehension, Chinese technical college**

I. INTRODUCTION

There is a prevalent tension between assessment and instruction in Chinese EFL teaching, which is especially intense in the case of College English Test (CET). Cheng (2008, p. 32) pointed out that the stakes associated with the CET are extremely high. The CET certificate can bring the university graduates an edge in the job market. Students' performance in the CET-4 also affects the evaluation of teachers. Therefore, the CET has exerted a huge amount of influence on English language teaching and learning in Chinese colleges. Teachers and students follow the testing in their teaching and learning and/or make passing the test the goal of their teaching and learning.

Scholars in the field of applied linguistics are working on the ways to ease the tension between assessment and instruction. Some take the sociocultural approach developed by L.S. Vygotsky, according to whom, assessment and instruction should be a dialectical unity, and they could be combined to promote students' learning (Lantolf, 2009, p. 356). And guided by the sociocultural theory, they adopt an alternative to traditional assessments—dynamic assessment (DA).

Voluminous researches have been done on DA in psychology and general education (e.g., Tzuriel and David, 2001; Sternberg and Grigorenko, 2002; Haywood and Lidz, 2007). Few scholars in applied linguistics have done much research on the application of DA of language proficiency (Antón, 2009). Even less are the studies of the application of DA principles to the evaluation and promotion of the listening comprehension proficiency of EFL learners.

Vandergrift (1999, p. 168) argued: "Listening is hard work, and deserves more analysis and support". He also pointed out that to help language learners develop good listening skills is a highly demanding job. Teachers should not focus their attention on the product of the listening comprehension. They should try to develop a richer understanding of the listening process and use the knowledge to inform instruction (Vandergrift 2007, p. 191).

Yang (2004) analyzed the English proficiency of Chinese university students based on the results of the national College English tests from 1987 to 2003. In the study, he has found a striking imbalance in the English proficiency level of the students among different institutions of higher learning. He pointed out that the students' performance in listening comprehension was not satisfactory on the whole and it left a great room for improvement (ibid, p. 59). There are more than 1,000 technical colleges in China and most of the students are of lower-intermediate levels and are struggling with English learning. Teachers in Chinese Technical colleges need to work hard and find effective ways to improve students' listening comprehension.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Dynamic Assessment

According to Kozulin and Garb (2002), the term DA was not used by Vygotsky himself but was introduced by his followers outside of Russia, after his death. Lantolf (2009, p. 355) reported that it was coined in English by Vygotsky's colleague Luria in 1961. It was originally implemented in Russia with children with various kinds of learning disabilities (Ableeva, 2008, p. 59).

Haywood and Lidz (2007, p. 7) summarized some fundamental concepts and assumptions that appear to underlie virtually all approaches to dynamic assessment: Some abilities that are important for learning (in particular) are not assessed by normative, standardized intelligence tests; Observing new learning is more useful than cataloguing (presumed) products of old learning. History is necessary but not sufficient; Teaching within the test provides a useful way of assessing potential as opposed to performance; All people typically function at less than their intellectual capacity; Many conditions that do not reflect intellectual potential can and do interfere with expression of one's intelligence.

B. DA Studies in an L2 Context

Few studies have been carried out concerning DA and its implementation in second language settings.

In the Kozulin and Garb (2002) study with 23 young Israeli academically at-risk students trying to learn English, the authors followed the test-teach-test paradigm. The students were first given a static test. Then the teacher reviewed the test with the students, guiding the students through the strategies required in each item and their errors in reading comprehension processing. Soon after the mediation of the teacher, a posttest was used to determine how individual students benefited or failed to benefit from the mediation. The results of the study showed that the students' posttest scores had increased significantly. The authors suggested that the dynamic procedure could indeed provide information on student' learning potential which was not available from the static test and that the information could used for the development of individual learning plans accommodating the students' specific learning needs.

Poehner (2005) described a particularly powerful example of how dynamic assessment can be used to provide a complete picture of learner development. In the study six advanced undergraduate learners of L2 French were asked to orally construct a series of narratives in French based on short video clips. The study participants watched a video clip for a total of four times. The first time they watched the clip and described the action without mediation. The second time they watched the clip and described the scene with the help of a mediator. Following the initial video viewing sessions, a tutoring program was conducted with the student. This tutoring session was specific to each learner's individual language strengths and weaknesses that were uncovered during the initial narrations. Moreover, the interaction between the student and administrator was contingent on the students' needs. Following enrichment, the nature and extent of their development was explored through repetitions of the original assessments as well as variations of these tasks. The results suggest that DA is an effective means of understanding learners' abilities and helping them to overcome linguistic problems.

So far the only research applied the DA to listening assessment has been Ableeva (2008). There are six participants in Ableeva's study and it last one week. Following the pretest-mediation (DA intervention)-retest format, the study explored the potential contributions of DA to the listening comprehension assessment and instruction. For the pretest the students were played some recording twice and asked to write down the answer. At the beginning of the DA intervention, the participants were allowed to asked questions and the intervention from the mediator was given by hints, explanations, suggestions and other mediations. During the retest stage, participants were asked to summarize the text. She reported the results in six case studies to demonstrate DA is a helpful diagnostic pedagogical tool which can not only allow instructors to establish the actual level of learners' listening comprehension abilities but also to reveal their potential abilities that are in the process of developing.

Poehner and Ableeva are both members of Center for Advanced Language Proficiency Education and Research of the Pennsylvania State University, which champions the study of DA in L2 contexts. Their studies help to frame the present study, which follows a DA-based approach to assessing listening abilities of lower-intermediate EFL learners in a Chinese Technical College.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHDOLOGY

A. Research Questions

The research questions to be addressed are:

1.How do the results of a DA of listening abilities differ from the results of an assessment that is not dynamic?

2.What should teachers do during DA to best nurture the development of listening abilities of lower-intermediate students?

To answer the first question, we must understand what insights can DA help us gain into the listening comprehension process while traditional assessment can not, especially what problems listeners encounter during listening comprehension. Also we should investigate how DA can promote students' learning. This can be accomplished by a

diagnostic approach to listening comprehension. Poehner (2007, p. 325) pointed out that in some DA programs the initial DA session is used as a diagnostic of learners' abilities and later repeated in order to track developmental changes over time. Ableeva (2008) referred to DA as "a helpful diagnostic pedagogical tool" (p. 58).

The overall design of the research will include the following components: diagnosis of listeners' problems, intervention of the mediator to help the students deal with the problems through interaction with the students while at the same time promoting their development. The findings from the diagnostics the subsequent intervention, interaction and mediation will inform us on the answer of the second question: "What should teachers do during DA to best nurture the development of listening abilities of intermediate students?"

B. Context of the Study

The participants are second-year English majors from a technical college in an underdeveloped city of a coastal province in China. The opportunities for English learning are attending lectures, going to the library and surfing the internet. There isn't much chance for the English majors to practice their English outside the classroom. The English majors sit for CET-4 and CET-6 and generally half of the students passed CET-4 at the third term and the rest half are supposed to pass it at the end of the fourth term.

The participants all made several attempt to pass CET-4 but failed. They considered their participation as an opportunity to gain additional practice in listening comprehension. At first 9 students volunteered to participate, but during the process 4 participants left and 5 girls stayed till the end of the research: Lina, Wendy, Sue, Cindy, Dora (all pseudonyms). Another girl, Fay, dropped out after 4 sessions. They have been receiving formal instruction in English since junior middle school for 7.5 years at the time of the study. In their free time, they did little practice to improve their English listening proficiency except the assignment given by the researcher on dictation of the material from Special English Program of Voice of America.

The assessment materials for the pretests and posttests are materials adopted from CET-4, which is a well-established English test with high reliability and validity. The test was introduced in 1987 for undergraduates in China who have completed the College English Courses Band 1 to 4, usually second-year students. The test is administered by the National College English Testing Committee on behalf of the Higher Education Department, Ministry of Education of China. Considering that the students might get bored with all the standardized tests, sometimes the teacher would invite them to give suggestion on what to be listened to. Some stories from New Concept English and video clips from the video-sharing website of tudou.com were adopted as suggested to maintain students' interest.

C. Procedure

The procedure design is primarily based on Poehner (2005), which followed a pretest-enrichment-posttest format in a linear pattern. In his study, materials used were several video clips from a French movie. Unlike Poehner who identified the students' problem in oral proficiency at the onset of the experiment which was the past tense in French, the researcher argued that listening comprehension is a dynamic process and the problems could only be identified through a long period of interaction and observation with students. Because of the early identification of students' problems, Poehner's study had a long period of enrichment, while in the present study, there is not going to be a separate enrichment period. The enrichment will be embodied during the process of dynamic assessment.

As has been argued that through mediation and intervention with the students, the problems identified could be handled and the improvement be promoted. That is why there are 2 static assessments and 2 dynamic assessments in Poehner's study while the present study has 2 static assessments and 8 dynamic assessments. The researcher hopes that with more assessments, more problems could be identified and more insights could be gained into listening process and with more mediation and intervention, the problems could be more effectively addressed, thus more improvement resulted.

The research will adopt a cake format, in which the researcher presents a listening comprehension task to the learner as a pretest, and the learner tells the researcher what he or she gets from the audio information, the researcher identifies the problem and makes an effort to intervene through interaction to overcome the problem. In this sense, the enrichment is not "sandwiched" between the two tests as in Poehner (2005), but carried out during the process of the assessment.

In the beginning, the participants were given the pretest with one passage from the sample test. The passage is about the traditions of engagement (henceforth referred to as the Engagement Passage). They were asked to both answer the multiple choice questions and summarize the passages. The participants were also asked to provide their total scores and the scores of the listening part of the latest CET-4 test held in the coming December as a reference.

Then there came the DA sessions which last 2 months. Each week the researcher and the participants met in the researcher's office once for a session which last about 40 minutes. Each session was mainly conducted on a one-to-one basis and rarely on a group basis unless upon the request of the participants. The participants would wait for their turns in their classroom which is on the sixth floor of the main building.

During the each session, the passages from CET-4 tests were played to the participants twice and then they were asked to answer the comprehension questions orally or in writing as they please without mediation. At this stage the students' problems were identified and then came the intervention and mediation. The participants were allowed to listen to the same audio material as many times as they needed and they were encouraged to ask questions in either Chinese or English and the researcher would provide necessary hint, explanations and suggestions. Afterwards the retest

was given where students were asked to summarize the same audio material. Considering the length of the audio material and the participants' level of language proficiency, the whole passage was divided into several sections for summarization. When the participants were summarizing the audio material, the researcher would either provide a correction, make inquiries about something that was said or written, or make some comments. The participants could speak Chinese and English as they pleased and the researcher switched to Chinese when making further explanations or clarifications. The national CET-4 test came right one week after the end of the study, and this test was to be the posttest.

D. Data Collection

The data were mainly collected from the following sources: participants' retrospective reports, researcher's notes, participants' notes, and participants' reflective journals.

To identify participants' problems in listening comprehension, the participants were asked to report what they did or failed to do when trying to comprehend the audio material texts during the DA sessions. The participants described the difficulties they encounter in their own words. In some cases, they also offered reasons for these problems.

The participants whose English proficiency was at a lower level were allowed to use their first language. As Ericsson and Simon (1993) mentioned, speech in a foreign language could serve as an example of how encoding processes that are not automatic slow processes down. They further pointed out that how the thinking is slowed down is a function of the subject's skill in the foreign language (p. 249).

The students were allowed to report not only in their first language but also in written form. The verbal report of the participant' understanding and the summarization during the DA sessions were allowed to be in written form as a kind of materialization of the object of study. The advantage was that the mediator and learner could then collaboratively examine students' understanding as a whole, noting underlying problems, evaluating them, and revising and extending the intervention as necessary.

The interaction between the researcher and the participants were recorded and partly transcribed. The coding process followed Seng and Hashim (2006) which coded according a tentative list of reading strategies based on previous strategy research. In the present research, coding was made with reference to the list of Poehner's (2005) Mediator Typology. After the coding process, the excerpts of transcription of three passages were used for analysis.

To complement the data, the researcher took note of the various types of mediation and moves on the part of the learners. The participants were told that they take notes while listening so that they could remember everything that they would like to include in their summarization. All notes were collected at the end of each session. Furthermore, participants were asked to write a retrospective report to reflect and evaluate on their listening process and learning progress. All the participants' notes and researcher's notes were collected.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

A. Insights into Lower-intermediate Students' Listening Comprehension

In the context of CET-4 test which is a typical standardized test, all that the students receive is a sheet of paper reporting their total scores and the scores of sub-sections and nothing more. The students get to know where they need improvement but they do not know the full extent and precise source of problems. Through the study, some problems that students encounter during listening comprehension were found out and a fuller understanding of students' mental process was illustrated by the discussion of students' mental translation and private speech.

Mental Translation

Here is a report from Sue:

"It is very bad. When I listen, my mind translates every word into Chinese. Sometimes when the word is too difficult, my head becomes heavy and I do not want to continue listening."

What Sue reveals is a problem that may strike a chord with many lower level English learners. Why does it happen? How to deal with it?

Chamot and Kupper (1989) identified translation as one of the cognitive language learning strategies. It defined translation as "rendering ideas from one language to another in a relatively verbatim manner" (p. 16). When the translation happens inside the head of the listeners during the process of listening comprehension, it is mental translation. It is also referred to as *on-line translation* by Vandergrift (2007, p. 193). Eastman (1991) found that beginning level listeners try to translate what they hear into their language as they listen and they often feel compelled to use such a strategy.

The participants' performance and report during the study also confirmed that mental translation was part of the process of their listening comprehension. During the study, when the researcher asked the participants to report their understanding, they would do it immediately in Chinese and when they were asked to do it in English, they did not know how to express it. They might have retained the information in Chinese in their short-term memory during listening and retrieve it when verbalizing. Sue and Wendy reported that when listening, they would try to translate every word into Chinese. They did so in reading, too. They recognized that it is counterproductive, but they could not get rid of it.

Few scholars have addressed the issue of mental translation during listening comprehension, but it is gaining more and more attention. Goh(2002) pointed out that the translation tactics listeners use actually slow down the processing of the language input and often take the listeners' attention away from clues that might have assisted their comprehension(p.192).Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, and Tafaghodtari (2006) included mental translation as one of the strategies in the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire. Vandergrift (2007), Chang (2008) also identified mental translation as an important factor to inhibit listening comprehension.

Mental translation obviously hinders participants' listening comprehension. The listeners are listening to a whole passage continuously, if they always try to translate what they hear into their mother tongue, they are not likely to be able to catch up with the speed of the speaker and will miss a lot of information. The main reason for mental translation might be that the students' listening vocabulary is underdeveloped. They spend a lot of time figuring out the meaning of the words. This strategy of employing linguistic knowledge in listening comprehension is usually termed bottom-up processing, whereby the sounds, words, clauses and sentences of a passage are decoded in a fairly linear fashion to elicit meaning (Rost, 2005). Too much emphasis on the bottom-up processing does not leave listeners adequate attentional resources to construct meaning. Listeners should also activate top-down processes to make sure that comprehension does not break down. In top-down processing, the listeners' knowledge of the topic, their general knowledge of the world and of how texts generally work, will interact with this linguistic knowledge to create an interpretation of the text (Buck, 2001, p. 29).

From what we have discussed, we then could tell the students that if they want to become skilled listeners, they must learn to resist the compulsion to translate the audio input. But if they can not do it, let them not be worried. The researcher assured the students that he himself constantly suffered from such a problem and that mental translation was very common among English learners and sometimes it could assist them in their learning.

It is natural for mental translation to occur in the process of foreign language learning. Cook (1992) argued that all L2 learners in fact access their L1 while processing the L2. He suggested that "the L2 user does not effectively switch off the L1 while processing the L2, but has it constantly available" (p. 571). Cook also maintained that when working with L2 learners, teachers should remember: "The L1 is present in the L2 learners' minds, whether the teacher wants it to be there or not" (p. 584).

The commonness of mental translation in listening comprehension could also be understood from a Vygotskian perspective. Upton and Lee-Thompson (2001) argued that mental translation is related to what Vygotsky (1986) has called inner speech. He stated that: "…inner speech is speech for oneself; external speech is for others" (p. 225). The role of inner speech in thought is important to the understanding of the relation between language and thought. He argued that thought and language cannot be regarded as "two unrelated processes, either parallel or crossing at certain points and mechanically influencing each other" (p. 211). From Vygotsky's perspective, thought and language interact with each other and higher thought is impossible without language, be it first language or a foreign language. During the listening comprehension process, students are trying to construct meaning from the audio input, which is a form of higher thought. The process of meaning construction is mediated by two languages but their foreign language is in such an inadequate state so the students compensate it with their first language.

From the discussion of this perspective, teachers could tell students that to understand the meaning of the audio material in a foreign language, they should have a very good command of the target language so as not to resort to their first language. It is also the same with reading. There is a possibility that the students transfer the strategy they use for reading to listening comprehension. Since students in their study deals more with reading than listening, they could deal with mental translation in reading first.

Cohen and Allison (1998) conducted a study to investigate how students in an immersion program used both their native language and the immersion language to perform classroom tasks. One of the questions the study tried to answer was the extent to which the students use mental translation during classroom activities and how the students viewed the helpfulness of mental translation. The results showed that students with less exposure to the language environment tended to use more mental translation than those immersed in the language environment. Both kinds of students found mental translation helpful in some way. Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) revealed that mental translation might be helpful if students did not engage in word-for-word translation that the reported increased use of mental translation actually reflected an increased ability to identify the meaning of words.

To sum, students should be encouraged to overcome the compulsion to translate word for word during listening if they are to be successful listeners. Some students may blame themselves for such kind of problem. Tell the students not to panic if they encounter such a problem and assure them that this is an unpleasant but inevitable part of learning a foreign language. Tell the students that the causes of such a problem is that they listening vocabulary is underachieved and that they depend too much on the bottom-up approach rather than the top-down approach. Make it clear to the students that listening comprehension is a very complex process and it involves many factors. Encourage the students to speculate on the causes for this problem and consider how these it could be dealt with realistically. In this way, the students could be spurred to take a more active part in overcoming some of their listening problems.

Thus far we have discussed some of the problems that surface during the study which would remain hidden with the standardized tests. The researcher tried to understand the problems and find effective ways of intervention. Insight could also be gained through students' problem-solving process. The next part on private speech shows how.

Private Speech

Firstly look at the following dialogue between the researcher and Dora when she was trying to understand some part of the Headmaster passage.

R: What will he do when he retired?

D: En, he will do something.

R: What's the thing?

D: I don't know, but the thing begins with ga(..) or something.

R: Is it gardening?

D: What?

R: Gardening

D: Gardening? (looking puzzled) gardening(whispering) …

R: Yes, garden, gardening, garden.

D: Garden (looking away from the desk to the ceiling), garden, garden, Oh, yes, gardening, I know it.

R here refers to the researcher in this protocol and the protocols of all interactions between the researcher and the participants. In this conversation, Dora met some problem with recognizing the word *gardening,* but the researcher knew that with some assistance, Dora could have been able to pick up the word. Dora repeated the words to herself for several times and finally she got it. During the process of solving the problems, especially at the final stage of speculating, Dora was not speaking to the researcher but to herself. She talked herself out of the problem. This kind of speech, according to Vygotsky, is private speech and the pattern is referred to as repetition of other's utterances by Ohta (2001).

Vivid examples of private speech are everyday self-directed speeches such as *What? Wait a minute, No! etc.* These speeches in which we ask ourselves questions, tell ourselves to interrupt a particular activity, tell us something unexpected happened or we are wrong are generally referred to as *private speech.* Lantolf (2000) defined it as "speech that has social origins in the speech of others but that takes on a private or cognitive function" (p. 15).

Wertsch (1985) and Lantolf (2000) discussed how inner speech develops and the relationship between private speech and inner speech. Inner speech develops through the process of social interaction, and through verbal interaction that includes private speech. Private speech evolves into inner speech as cognitive development proceeds. Appel and Lantolf (1994) stated that private speech usually emerges in the face of difficult tasks and private speech in an L2 could serve to mediate the mental activity comprehension (p. 438).

Frawley and Lantolf (1985) put forth affective markers to detect the happening of private speech which are most noticeable among English as second language learners. In the present study, the utterances *Oh* manifests that the speaker is addressing no one other than herself.

This *Oh* moment is critical in the development of the learners. The problem the student really has is that she could not match the sounds she heard with any script in her long-term memory. Although she might know the word in written form, she could not recognize it by sound. The information of the word is stored in the long-term memory in some abstract form, not in words. It only substantiated through the mediation of private speech. During the *Oh* moment, the word *gardening* has been internalized by the speaker. As Lantolf (2003) pointed out, internalization in second language learning is "…the process through which learners construct a mental representation of what was at one point physically present(acoustic or visual) in external form(p. 351). In this case, the sound of the word *gardening* is an acoustic physical entity while its meaning is the mental representation of the sound. Then mental representation of *gardening* is within the zone of proximal development of the student. Private speech here serves a function of self-regulating the process of learning. McCafferty (1994) pointed out that a self-regulated child depends less on others for mediation of meaning, and eventually he or she becomes capable of functioning in a largely autonomous manner. In the same vein, a self-regulated foreign language learner depends less on mediation from others. Private speech plays an important role in a foreign language learner's road to self-regulation.

As foreign language teachers, we should understand the importance of research on private speech because it helps us gain insights into how learners endeavor to gain control over the various difficulties that confront them. We should be able to notice the *Oh* moment of the learners and try our best to bring about this moment. Actually in the reflective journal of Dora, she said it was during such moments that she felt the most sense of achievement and the most exciting.

Let's bring an end to the discussion of the problems and insights gained from dynamic assessment. The data gathered are useful in that they revealed the students' difficulties in listening that would have otherwise remained hidden. The findings are in line with Haywood and Lidz's (2007) claim that DA enables the assessment of cognitive processes, i.e. "ongoing tactics, strategies, habits and modes of thinking; of approaching, defining, and solving problems" (p. 27). Knowing the reasons behind the problems will enable the teachers to be in a better position to intervene and guide the students in how to deal with or overcome some of their listening difficulties. The next part will discuss how well the students develop from the intervention and guidance.

B. Results of CET-4 Listening Comprehension Component and Students' Reports

Students' scores on the CET-4 Listening Comprehension Component before and after the DA sessions are listed in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
CET-4 LISTENING COMPREHENSION SCORES BEFORE AND AFTER THE DA SESSIONS

	Lina	Wendy	Sue	Cindy	Dora	Fay*
Before	135	123	140	137	132	106
After	130	159	173	125	122	150

*Fay dropped out after the first four sessions.

The results are mixed. Lina's score did not show much change, but Cindy and Dora's show a decrease in their scores. Wendy and Sue's scores have improved. In her retrospective report, Lina said: "I didn't memorize the words and I could only recognize several words during the test. I finished the listening part following my feelings. I made several attempts to pass CET-4 but failed. I do not persist in listening in my daily life. So I should listen more and memorize more words." Lina attributed her low score to not knowing enough vocabulary and lack of practice. That could be part of the reason. Lina was not so motivated during the study. She had a boyfriend and the researcher often saw them together everywhere on campus. She might not have devoted enough time to the improvement of listening skills. But the fact that she expressed the will to listen more shows she could impose self-regulation on her own study.

The rest four, Wendy, Sue, Cindy and Dora always showed up very early at the researcher's office sometimes when I went to my office, they were already there with books in their hands. Cindy and Sue were quite quiet during the study while Wendy and Sue were very active. Sue was very motivated. During the May Day holiday she rang up the researcher to ask for an extra session. Before each session she would discuss what she had listened to recently.

In Sue's report, she said that the study had helped her to enlarge her vocabulary. She thought that retelling after listening to the material was an effective way to improve listening skills. She also pointed out some of the problems in listening and the ways to deal with them. Her report shows she is stretching her own zone of proximal development. Wendy said in her report that she learned how to concentrate during the test through listening again and again to the material with the researcher. This is in line with Lidz's (1991) description of mediation of regulation and control of behavior. This is a form of mediation leading to MLE where the mediator helps the child to inhibit impulsive responses, as well as to increase her focus and attention. The optimal state is self-regulation and active, sustained involvement (p.14).

Cindy and Dora did not think that the study offered too much help to them. Both of them thought that the frequency of the DA sessions were not intense enough. Cindy also listed the problems she still suffered from: a) When she was listening to the material in her daily life, she did not pay attention to where she got wrong; b) Her reading speed was slow; and c) She way easy to get distracted by new words. She also established a short-time goal of learning for herself to enlarge her vocabulary and listen more and communicate more in English with dorm-mates. Dora said she felt the excitement each time when she learned a new word during the session. She felt very regretful that she got absent-minded during the CET-4 test. The researcher would like to say that if the test had been conducted in a dynamic approach, Dora would have earned much better results.

Another interesting finding from Cindy and Dora's reports that was not found in the others was that both of them mentioned the benefits they received from *strict teachers* in their previous formal schooling. This could be interpreted that they were accustomed to following the teachers passively. Cindy even mentioned that her interest and effort in the subject of study changed according to which subject her head-teacher taught. The researcher has found that for dynamic assessment to be effective, it is important to get to know the students' English learning experience prior to college. The information could be used to decide how much autonomy the students have on their own study. If the students are not quite autonomous learners, the researcher needs to put in extra efforts either to increase the frequency of the sessions or give instructions on how to learn effectively.

Dora, Sue and Wendy expressed explicitly that they had benefited from the study. Cindy and Lina did not give explicit comments on the effect of the study, but the effect of the study had been manifested through their plan to future study. They all have gained self-control in their studies with varied degrees.

It is very hard to identify the reasons behind the various performances in a standardized test and nor should a practitioner of dynamic assessment endeavor to. Thomas Oakland remarked in the preface to Haywood (2007) that "…the ultimate goal of assessment should be an accurate description of behavior that helps promote development" (p. xviii). The result of the static assessment could shed some light on the development of the students but it is by no means a ruler to measure the successfulness of a dynamic assessment. Haywood (2007) also pointed out that:

In fact, we insist that DA is not for everybody on all occasions but instead constitutes a valuable part of the assessment repertoire when used in conjunction with other forms of assessment, including standardized testing, social and developmental history taking, observation of performance in learning situations, and data gathered from clinical interview, parents, teachers, and others. (p.2)

Unlike the traditional assessment from which the only feedback students receive is a piece of blank score report, dynamic assessment approach explores behind the scores which demonstrate the present performance and adds information about the potential performance of students. Through the DA sessions, the students have learned to face their own problems in study, and they have also learned how to cope with problems. What's more, they have exercised

initiative to regulate their own studies. All that the students' have gained from the research has provided them with a springboard for future study.

C. Impact of Dynamic Assessment

Taylor (2005) remarked that "testing can have consequences beyond just the classroom (p. 154)." These consequences are termed washback and impact. Bachman and Palmer (1996) pointed out that "…the notion of washback in language testing can be characterized in terms of impact, and includes the potential impact on test takers and their characteristics, on teaching and learning activities, and on educational systems and society" (p. 35). The impact of the dynamic assessment on test takers and their characteristics will be explored in student motivation and its impact on teaching and learning activities is to be illustrated in teacher-learner relation.

Following Dörnyei (2001), at the onset of the study, the researcher endeavored to construct a pleasant and supportive learning environment (p.42). The location of DA sessions is in the researcher's office where it is spacious and bright and not very far from their classrooms. The students were told that mistakes were a natural part of learning and when they made a mistake, they would not be criticized. With the recruitment of participants, the researcher has shown his commitment to the students' learning progress by offering help with the improvement of their listening skills (p. 34).

During the study, the researcher observed an enhancement of student motivation. Dora and Cindy were always found waiting at the door of the researcher. Sue phoned during the holiday to ask if the researcher was available. Wendy was very active during the sessions. Though Lina needed to spend a lot of time with her boyfriend, she always managed to be there at the last minute with sweat on her nose. All of them were trying harder and harder to note down what they heard and narrate what and how they understood. All of these show that they are motivated to learn.

In a study to understand the student's experience of school, Alerby (2003) found that students identify relationships with teachers as being among the most important parts of their school experience (p.21). The teacher who has a positive relationship with the students on not only an academic level but also a personal level is a motivating teacher Dörnyei (2001, p.36). He also mentioned that: "Developing a personal relationship with the students and achieving their respect is easier said than done" (p. 36). But the study has witnessed an enhancement in the teacher-learner relation.

The English teacher in the college where the researcher teaches is understaffed. On average, he needs to teach three periods each working day. This is quite common among teachers in China, as Cheng (2005) pointed out that teachers in China as a whole suffered from heavy workloads (p. 37). Working in such a context, the only chances for the teacher to communicate with the students are happening in the classroom. As each class holds at least thirty students, it would be impossible to interact with each student and know their learning needs and problems. After a term, it is not uncommon for a teacher not knowing who is in his or her class. This alienation between the teacher and the students is detrimental to students' development. The students would feel they have been ignored by the teachers, schools, or even the society.

Things are even worse for the listening course with more than thirty students retreating to the back rows of the classroom, hiding behind the glass screens and the teacher checking the answers. The teacher knows nothing about the students' level and what they are thinking. Students respond sporadically to teacher's question and complain at the end of the term they have learned nothing. When the researcher started the study, the participants would sit in the first row and interacted actively with the teacher.

The teacher also used the insights gained about students' problems and ways of intervention to guide the teaching. The whole class became very active and the teacher also won respect of the student as someone who knew their problems. The above discussion reveals a change of the teacher-student relation from cold, alienated to warm, involved.

The dynamic assessment has achieved positive impact on the part of the students and the educational environment through enhanced motivation and teacher-student relation. At the same time, the dynamic assessment has help attain the third criterion of MLE by generating emotional and motivational behavior of the individual.

V. Conclusion

A. Major Findings

The most important differences between DA and NDA lie in the insights both the teacher and the learner gained through the process. The insights could only be gained through persistent and intense interactions with the students during the dynamic assessment that were characteristic of the present study. In the initial assessment, though the performance of the participants could all be labeled "failure", the problems the students encountered were each in its unique way. Further research revealed more of the problems students encounter.

Their responses to the comprehension question were based on the information occurring at the beginning of the passage or in the middle of the passage. They usually found it hard to follow the beginning part of the audio material. Their attention was very easily distracted by their surroundings. They translated what they heard into Chinese in their head. All the problems have helped the teacher to explore the listening comprehension process of the students. The sources behind these problems were revealed: lexical overlap, fixation, test anxiety, and mental translation. Student's private speech was also noticed during the research which has given the researcher insight into the budding ability of the student and provided insightful moment for the student.

Dynamic assessment in this study has helped both the teacher and students to better understand the latter's listening abilities, and this will put them in a better position to promote those abilities towards the zone of proximal development.

With the insights gained through the dynamic assessment, the researcher started searching for effective ways of intervention. The researcher gave the students guidance on how to gain a broader understanding of the text rather than several chunks of information. The researcher told students to focus on specific items while listening such as nouns, numbers, important words that carry meaning, intonation contours and stressed words. Also the researcher gave them directions on note-taking skills. The researcher even gave directions on how to ease their tension during test. To deal with mental translation, students were encouraged to overcome the compulsion to translate word for word during listening if they are to be successful listeners. They were also encouraged to speculate on the causes for this problem and consider how it could be dealt with realistically.

The results from the studying on the notes and reflective reports of the students have shown that they have made progress in note-taking skills and they have gained better understanding of their problems.

In conclusion, to promote the students' abilities during the dynamic assessment, teachers should pay close attention to and value highly the problems surfacing during the research for they provide valuable information for the intervention. During the intervention, the researcher should get to know the nature of the problems and the means to tackle them.

B. Limitations of the Present Study

The limitations of the present study reside in the research design and data analysis.

While carrying out the research the researcher had to take into account the constraints of time and energy, so he only decided to recruit six volunteers and specified that the first six to contact got the place. Many more students wanted to join in, but the researcher had to persuade them not to. That is one of the drawbacks of the kind of dynamic assessment in this study. It requires such intense interactions that when it is carried out alone by one researcher, the number of participants is limited.

The participants of the study were all girls so it might render the study gender-biased. This researcher tried to retain the only boy volunteer but failed. The participants were all lower-intermediate students. If the research had contained students from mixed abilities groups, the picture might be different. This is an issue demanding further exploration.

From the reflective reports of Dora and Cindy, the researcher did not find in them a reliance on the teacher for their study before the research. For such students, the researcher needs to either increase the frequency of assessment or give them instructions on learning skills. If the researcher had noticed this earlier, the results in terms of their scores might have been different. It is important to get to know the students' previous formal English learning experiences especially when the students' English proficiency was relatively lower.

C. Suggestions for Future Study

For further researches on the dynamic assessment of lower-intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension proficiency, the insights into the students' problems in listening could be referred to during the initial assessment. Then the researcher could adopt the sandwich format of DA. In which the English listening strategy instruction could be sandwiched between the initial static assessment and the final static assessment.

To better understand students' problems in listening comprehension, teachers need to develop what Edelenbos and Kubanek-German (2004) called "diagnostic competence" (p. 259). They firstly discussed why it is important for teachers to develop the diagnostic competence. According to them, the trend in education is that teachers will be expected to engage in more one-on-one contact with students and the days will be gone when the teacher finishes a big class and go away. To be a competent teacher, one must be able to use and account for data from various language sources. They also pointed out standardized and teacher-made tests provide limited options for describing and interpreting the individual learner's foreign language growth (p.260). They defined diagnostic assessment as "…the ability to interpret students' foreign language growth, to skillfully deal with assessment material and to provide students with appropriate help in response to this diagnosis" (p. 260). They also provide a working definition of the concept of a teacher's diagnostic competence and a preliminary description of levels of diagnostic competence (pp.277-278).

Both the facts that there have been few studies on diagnostic competence and that their research site was the primary foreign language classroom leave sufficient room for the research in the nature of diagnostic competence of EFL listening comprehension for teachers in the site of institutions of higher learning.

REFERENCES

[1] Ableeva, R. (2008). The effects of dynamic assessment on L2 listening comprehension. In J.P. Lantolf and M. E. Poehner (Eds.) *Sociocultural theory and the teaching of second languages*. London: Equinox Press, 57-86.

[2]   Alerby, E. (2003). 'During the break we have fun': A study concerning pupils' experience of school. *Educational Research, 45(1)*, 17–28.

[3]   Aljaafreh, A. & Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*,465-483.

[4]   Antón, M. (2009). Dynamic assessment of advanced second language learners. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42 (3), 576-598.

[5]   Appel, G. & Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Speaking as mediation: A study of L1 and L2 text recall tasks. *Modern Language Journal, 78*(4), 437-452.

[6]   Bachman, L. F. & Palmer, A. S. (1996). Language testing in practice: Designing and developing useful language tests. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[7]   Buck, G. (2001). Assessing listening. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[8]   Chamot, A.U., & Kupper. L. (1989). Learning strategies in foreign language instruction. *Foreign Language Annals*, 22, 13-24.

[9]   Chang, C-S. (2008). Listening strategies of L2 learners with varied test tasks. *TESL Canada Journal, 25*(2), 1-22.

[10]   Cheng, L. (2008). The Key to Success: English language testing in China. *Language Testing*, 25(1), 15–38.

[11]   Cheng, X. (2005). Do Chinese EFL teachers suffer from job burnout? *Foreign Languages in China*, 2(6), 36-42.

[12]   Cohen, A. D. & Allison, K. (1998). Bilingual processing strategies in a university-level immersion program. *Ilha do Desterro, 35*, 187-201.

[13]   Cook, V. J. (1992). Evidence for multicompetence. *Language Learning, 42*, 557–591.

[14]   Dörnyei, Z. (2001). Motivational strategies in the language classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[15]   Eastman, J. K. (1991). Learning to listen and comprehend: The beginning stages. *System, 19*, 179-187.

[16]   Edelenbos, P. & Kubanek-German, A. (2004). Teacher assessment: the concept of 'diagnostic competence'. *Language Testing, 21* (3), 259-283.

[17]   Ericsson, K. A. & Simon, H. A.(1993). Protocol analysis: Verbal reports as data (rev. edn.).Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

[18]   Frawley, W. & Lantolf, J. P. (1985). Second language discourse: a Vygotskyan perspective. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 19-44.

[19]   Goh, C. C. M. (2002). Exploring listening comprehension tactics and their interaction patterns. *System, 30*(1), 185-206.

[20]   Haywood, H., & Lidz, C. (2007). Dynamic assessment in practice: Clinical and educational applications. New York: Cambridge University Press.

[21]   Kozulin, A. & Garb, E. (2002). Dynamic assessment of EFL text comprehension of at-risk students. *School Psychology International*, 23, 112-127.

[22]   Lantolf, J. P. (2000). Introducing sociocultural theory. In J. P. Lantolf (Eds.) *Sociocultural theory and second language learning.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1-26.

[23]   Lantolf, J. P. (2003). Intrapersonal communication and internalization in the second language classroom. In Kozulin, A., Gindis, B., Ageyev, V. & Miller, S. (Eds.) *Vygotsky's educational theory and practice in cultural context.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 349-370.

[24]   Lantolf, J. P. (2009). Dynamic assessment: the dialectic integration of instruction and assessment. *Language Teaching*, 42, 355-368.

[25]   Lidz, C. S. (1991). Practitioner's Guide to Dynamic Assessment. New York: Guilford Press.

[26]   McCafferty, S. G. (1994). Adult second language learners' use of private speech: A review of studies. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*, 421-436.

[27]   Ohta, A. S. (2001). Second language acquisition processes in the classroom: Learning Japanese. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

[28]   Poehner, M. E. (2005). Dynamic assessment among advanced L2 learners of French. Ph.D. dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University.

[29]   Poehner, M. E. (2007). Beyond the test: L2 dynamic assessment and the transcendence of mediated learning. *The Modern Language Journal,* 91, 323-340.

[30]   Rost, M. (2005). Teaching and researching listening. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

[31]   Seng, G. H., & Hashim, F. (2006). Use of L1 in L2 reading comprehension among tertiary ESL learners. *Reading in a Foreign Language,* 18(1), 29–54.

[32]   Sternberg, R. J., & Grigorenko, E. L. (2002). Dynamic testing: the nature and measurement of learning potential. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[33]   Taylor, L. (2005). Washback and impact. *ELT Journal, 59(2)*, 154-155.

[34]   Tzuriel, D. (2001). Dynamic assessment of young children. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum.

[35]   Upton, T. A. & Lee-Thompson, Li-Chun. (2001). The role of the first language in second language reading. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition,* 23 (4), 469-495.

[36]   Vandergrift, L. (1999). Facilitating second language listening comprehension: Acquiring successful strategies. *ELT Journal*, 54, 168-176.

[37]   Vandergrift, L. (2007). Recent developments in second and foreign language listening comprehension research. *Language Teaching*, 40, 191-210.

[38]   Vandergrift, L. Goh, C. C. M., Mareschal, C., & Tafaghodtari, M. H. (2006). The metacognitive awareness listening questionnaire (MALQ): Development and validation. *Language Learning,* 56(3), 431-462.

[39]   Vandergrift, L. & Tafaghodtari, M. H. (2010). Teaching L2 learners how to listen does make a difference: An empirical study. *Language Learning,* 60, 470-497.

[40]   Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). Thought and language. Newly revised and edited by A. Kozulin. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

[41]   Wertsch, J. V. (1985). Vygotsky and the social formation of mind. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

[42]   Yang, H. (2004). An analysis of the English proficiency of the Chinese students as reflected in the national CET Test (In Chinese). *Foreign Language in China,* 1(1), 56-60.

Peihui Wang was born in 1980 in Hubei Province, China. He earned his BA in English from Hunan University in 2003 and MA in Foreign Languages and Applied Linguistics from Beijing Normal University in 2011. His research interests include dynamic assessment, English teaching, and translation.

He is now a lecturer in Quzhou College of Technology in Zhejiang Province, China. He has been teaching English there for over 13 years.

Teachers' Instructional and Management Talk in English Foreign Language Classroom

Zulfah

Da'wah and Communication Department, State Islamic College, Parepare, Indonesia

Muhammad Amin Rasyid

Language and Literature Faculty, State University of Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia

Muhammad Asfah Rahman

Language and Literature Faculty, State University of Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia

Andi Qashas Rahman

Language and Literature Faculty, State University of Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia

Abstract—This study was conducted to find out the contexts and frequency of instructional and management talks use and the frequency of native and target language use for instructional and management talks. The subjects of this study were four Indonesian English teachers. The data was collected by observation. The finding showed that teachers use instructional talk in 5 contexts and management talk in 15 contexts. Teachers talk more for management talk than instructional talk. Teachers used target language more for management talk than for instructional talk.

Index Terms—teacher's language, instructional talk, management talk, native language, and target language

I. INTRODUCTION

Teachers' language in EFL classroom refers to the use of language in teaching English in classroom. The use of language relates to language position (first, second, and foreign language), language function (instructional and management talk), and use extent of language use (frequency of language use).

In conjunction with language function used by the teachers in EFL classroom interaction, Muhayyang (2010) reviews teachers' language function into instructional talk and management talk. Instructional talk is teacher's language relates to transfer of teaching materials and management talk is teacher's language relates to control and discipline in classroom.

Teacher's language is not only teaching medium but also teaching materials. When learners listen to teacher's instructions, explanations, directions, and questions, learners start learning not only about language but also how to use the language. Meng and Wang (2011) state that EFL teachers' language is the most important part of learners' input, then the input plays a critical role in language acquisition.

Tsui (1995) states that in classroom interaction, teachers' role as key player is dominated by teacher talk. Therefore, this research is conducted to investigate and to compare the teachers' instructional talk or management talk relate to the contexts, the use extent, and the use of native language (NL) and target language (TL) in elementary school EFL classroom. Regarding to teachers' talk as instructional and management talk in elementary school EFL classroom, research questions are administered below:

a. In what context do teachers use instructional talk and management talk in elementary school EFL classroom?

b. To what extent do teachers produce utterances for instructional talk and management talk?

c. To what extent do teachers use native language (NL) and target language (TL) for instructional talk and management talk?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Language functions in term of instructional talk and management talk relate to teachers' role in classroom as a teacher and a manager (Brown, 2001). A good teacher has instructional skills and management skills (Barry and King, 1993). Instructional skill relates to teacher's explanation about subject matter to students, questions, and responses to students' questions and answers; while management skill relates to giving effective direction and controlling students' discipline and behavior such as presence, reprimand, reward, encouraging, and facilitating interaction.

Relating to teacher's language function and the frequency language use, Kaneko (1992) divides the purposes of teacher's language use into:

- Language used for core goals: language used for explicit pedagogic purpose of the lesson (e.g. teacher's explanation of specific of the L2, teacher's model reading, students' repetition, students' reading text).

- Language used for framework goals: language used for the organization requirements for the lesson (e.g. teacher's instruction, managing pupil's behavior, and students' questions on organization requirements of the lesson).

- Language used for social goals: language used for private information (e.g. greetings, talk about personal experience which has no relation to the pedagogic purpose of the lesson).

Teachers use 50% L1 and 28& L2 for core goals, 16% L1 and nearly 0% L2 for framework goals, and 6% L1 and almost 0% L2 for social goals. The total use of L1 is 72% and L2 is 28%.

Other researchers such as Thompson and Victor find out the contexts and the frequency of native language and target language use in classroom. Thompson (2006) reports that the common contexts of target language use are in classroom management, establish solidarity, and clarify while the common contexts of first language use are in grammar instruction, explaining topic or assignment, and translation of vocabulary. Then, Victor (2009) reports 44 teachers' talk categories. Three categories 'cultural explanation, individual feedback, and grammar explanation' are rated the highest for native language use. The percentage is above 50%. In other side, nine categories 'preparation check, calling on students, warm-up, form-focused oral practice, praise, praising and repeating correct answer, courtesy marker, revising vocabulary, and choral repetition' are highest for target language use. The percentage is above 90%.

In conjunction to strategy of teacher's language use, Kang (2008) categorizes use extent of language use into: (1) exclusive use of first language, (2) exclusive use of target language, (3) use of first language immediately followed by target language equivalents, and (4) use of target language immediately followed by first language equivalent. Moreover, Scrivener (2012) offers two useful ways in using native language and target language in classroom: (1) sandwich L1 and L2 (teacher gives an instruction in English, and then immediately repeat the instruction in learners' L1, then one more in English and (2) code switching (teacher uses both languages, but within the same flow of speech). Another strategy of foreign language use in EFL classroom is offered by Nurhajati (2012). It is integrated verbal and non verbal strategy. She states that teachers can help students to understand the meaning not only by using some adaptation in the words, phrases, sentences, and expressions, but also by controlling the volume, the speed of talking, and pronunciation as well as gesture. Intonation, gesture facial expressions, actions, and circumstances will help students understand meaning.

The important question connected with teacher's language is to do with whether he or she can use the learners' first language for explanation or instructions in classroom (Scrivener, 2012). Kovačić and Kirinić (2011) conduct study about to use or not to use first language in tertiary instruction of English as a foreign language. The results show that both students and teachers have same perception toward the use of first language in foreign language classroom. Most of students and teachers agree first language use in grammar explanation and difficult concepts. In other side, few respondents agree the first language used for the practice of new expression, giving advices, and feedback.

The use of L1 and FL has positive points in teaching English as foreign language. The appropriate use of L1 and FL will not only give much more language input to students but also to motivate and to engage students in learning English. The use of native language plays supportive role in teaching foreign language. Kang (2008) explains general motives of teachers in use of students' native language are the students' inability to comprehend the teacher's target language input and classroom management. Shin (2006) states that using L1 is one quick and easy way to make difficult expression comprehensible. Moreover, Ford (2009) reports native language makes students feel relax and avoid any possible tension or confusion of English. However, Myojin (2007) reports that the more teachers use target language, the higher students' listening comprehension skills.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Context and Subject of the Research

The research was conducted in four elementary schools in Parepare city, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. English is taught for the first grade students until the ninth grade students as local content subject school in elementary schools since 1990s.

The subject of the research is four Indonesian English teachers. The teachers have English education background. They are graduates of English education study program. They have been teaching English in elementary schools more than five years.

B. Procedure of Data Collection

Observation was administered to record teachers' talk in EFL classroom. Tape recorder was used to record teachers' talk in teaching English in classroom for 90 minutes. The observation was conducted once in a week for three meetings for each teacher.

C. Data Analysis

Teachers' talk transcripts were analyzed by using coding to categorize the contexts of native language and target language use. Coding is the process of categorically marking of referencing units (e.g., words, sentences, paragraph, and quotations) with codes and labels as a way to indicate patterns and meaning (Gay et.al., 2006).

The percentage formulation was used to analyze the frequency or percentage of native language and target language use. To account of frequency or percentage of L1 and FL, teachers' talk was analyzed per word to anticipate intrasentensial code switching. Intrasentensial code switching is the mixing of various linguistic units (morphemes, words, phrases, and clauses) primarily from two participating grammar systems within a sentence (Bathia & Ritchie, 1996).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. The Contexts of Instructional and Management Talk

Instructional talk is teacher's language relates to transfer of teaching materials and management talk is teacher's language relates to control and discipline in classroom. The results of the observation of teachers' talk showed that teachers uttered instructional talk in 5 contexts and management talk in 15 contexts. Those contexts were administered in the following table:

TABLE 1
THE CONTEXTS OF INSTRUCTIONAL AND MANAGEMENT TALK

Instructional talk	Management talk
1. Giving explanation	1. Greeting
2. Giving direction	2. Checking presence
3. Giving correction	3. Giving instruction
4. Asking question	4. Giving direction
5. Answering question	5. Giving announcement
	6. Giving advice
	7. Encouraging students
	8. Giving reprimanding
	9. Giving praise
	10. Giving punishment
	11. Giving thanks
	12. Making humor
	13. Asking question
	14. Answering question
	15. Closing activity

Giving explanation was giving detail information about teaching materials such as who did…? What is…? When does…? Where is…? How does…? Why is… ? (Brown, 1979). The utterances of giving detail information were shown below:

1. *Aliyah* is introduced here (who).
2. *Everybody, everyone, ladies and gantleman* is used to greet to others. (What).
3. They are used to greet others *when you meet to one or many people*. (When).
4. They are used *in meeting*. (Where).
5. **Enam ratus empat puluh dua rupiah**. How to translate in English? *First, find out English of **enam** then the English of **ratusan**…..* (How).
6. If you don't know English of **ratusan** and **ribuan**, *it is hard for you to understand this lesson*. (Why).

Giving direction in this research was categorized into instructional direction and management direction. *Instructional direction* was showing or mentioning what the assignment and homework are. It was also giving information about procedure or how to do assignment and homework.

Teachers talks relate to instructional direction were administered below:
1. Showing what the assignment and the homework are.
a. The task is number one until number five.
b. The questions are in page twenty five and twenty six. It is multiple-choice.
c. Number one is what is the meaning of black?
2. Giving information about how to do assignment and homework were below:
a. Arrange the words into sentences. Arrange the words into five sentences.
b. Choose the answer whether it is a, b, c, or d. Don't write the questions. You just write the answers because it will spend much time.

Relating to giving information to do assignment, how to do homework, and guiding, there were some words generally used, such as *answer, arrange, choose, connect, find out, give, make, memorize, mention, repeat,* and *write*.

Management direction was giving information about procedure or how to do activity in classroom, how to work in group relate to create discipline and good atmosphere in classroom.

1. *I give you time, ten minutes. If your work has finished, put it in my table.*

2. *If bell rings, collect your work even though it isn't finished. Next week it will be worked. Don't bring your work to your home.*

3. *Remember! If you don't understand, ask me. Don't ask your friends and remember! Don't write your answer in the textbook.*

Giving correction was giving clarification whether the students' work was correct or wrong and giving explanation or direction about the mistakes and how to correct it. Clarification was divided into: (1) repeat students' answer and (2) giving direct statement and indirect statement.

1. Teacher	:	What is full name?
Students	:	Nama lengkap.
Teacher	:	*Nama lengkap.*
2. Teacher	:	How old Okta?
Students	:	Eight years old.
Teacher	:	How old?
Students	:	Eight years old.
Teacher	:	*Eight years old.*

Dialogues above indicated that teacher shows students if their answer was correct by repeating students' answer. Another way to show students' correctness or mistake was by giving direct and indirect statement as below:

TABLE 2
DIRECT AND INDIRECT STATEMENT

Direct statement	Indirect statement
1. No 2. Yes 3. Ok 4. It is wrong 5. It is correct	1. Kenapa twenty one bilang ko dua belas? *Why do you say twenty one is dua belas [twelve]?* 2. Kenapa ini ada hometown? *Why is it hometown?* 3. Apa ini zero five? *What is this, zero five?* 4. Kenapa banyak sekali ini mu tulis? *Why do you write it much?* 5. Etc.

The form of direct statements was declarative and most of forms of indirect statement are interrogative (question). Even though, in correcting students, teacher used interrogative sentence (question) but teacher didn't intend to ask information or check students' comprehension. If direct statement was used to show students' correctness and mistakes, indirect statement was used just to show that students did mistakes.

Similar to giving direction, ***asking question*** was also categorized into instructional question and management question. *Instructional question* was used to check students' comprehension toward teaching materials and *management question* was used to asking information which no relation to teaching materials.

TABLE 3.
INSTRUCTIONAL AND MANAGEMENT QUESTIONS

Instructional Questions	Management Question
1. Do you understand?	1. Who has not understood?
2. Do you remember?	2. Are you ready?
3. What?	3. Is it finish?
4. What is this/that?	4. What happen?
5. What is your answer?	5. Where is your work?
6. What is the meaning of …..?	6. Where is your book?
7. The meaning of *ratusan* is ….	7. Where is (Ilyas)?
	8. Anymore?
	9. Where is your seat?
	10. What group are you?
	11. Where is your homework?

Answering question was giving response to students' questions. If teacher's questions were categorized into instructional and management questions, teacher's answers were also categorized into two because students' questions also were not only related to teaching materials but also relates to classroom management. Look at the following conversation. The first conversation was answering instructional question and the second conversation was answering management question.

Student	:	What is this mom?
Teacher	:	*This is notebook.*

Student   : Is it exchanged to other students?
Teacher   : *No, I will check it.*

Greeting was used to open and closing teaching activity, such as "good morning", "good afternoon" or "*assalamu alaikum wa rahmatullahi wa barakatuh*". Teachers usually used question to greet students such as "how are you today?" but it was just used to open teaching activity.

Checking presence was checking students' presence in classroom, whether students are present, absent, or sick. Checking presence was administered in beginning or end of teaching activity. There were two kinds of teacher talk in checking students' presence, by asking question such as "where is Aidil?" or calling students' name such as "Ardilla Lubis", "Akhsan", "Mawar", etc.

Giving instruction was asking students to do or not to do something soon or now. For example "attention please!", "raise your hand!", "give applause for Ernal!", "back to your seat!", etc.

Giving announcement was giving information such as the winner in game activity, the score of test, exercise, and homework, and teacher's request and expectation.
1. *I will announce that the winner is the third group and runner up is Rahmadi's group.*
2. *Study seriously because it will be score of mid test.*
3. *Next week, I want all girls use headband.*

Giving advice was giving suggestion or spirit to students to be and to do good one or not to be and to do bad one.
1. *Even though we learn in afternoon, we must be enthusiastic. Don't be sleepy.*
2. *If you don't understand, don't be shy to ask to teacher.*
3. *I always give advice to you to account all your work.*

Encouraging students was challenging students and trying to make them to do task in classroom.
1. *Come on! I don't believe if don't understand.*
2. *I believe you can get good score.*
3. *It is easy for you.*

Giving reprimanding was criticizing students' negative behavior by telling that students' behavior was not acceptable or correct and communicating anger, criticism, displeasure, annoyance, and rejection.
1. *Hi! Why is this class very noisy*?
2. *Dea! Your voice. Don't laugh! I don't want to see your teeth.*
3. *You always forget your homework. I suspect that you didn't work your homework.*

Giving praise was telling students why and what they have said or done was valued such as "good", "excellent", "smart", etc.

Giving punishment was telling students what is the consequence must be done as effects of their negative behavior or action.
1. *Stay in this class until finishing your task.*
2. *Stand in front of class.*
3. *Out from this class.*

Giving thanks was expressing grateful or telling thanks. Teachers give thanks if students do teachers' instructions or requests.

Making humor was telling jokes and kidding or telling funny utterance to make students laugh.
Teacher   : What is the meaning price?
Students   : ***Harga***.
Teacher   : Money is …..?
Students   : ***Uang***.
Teacher   : *It is easy for you to learn about money.*

Closing activity was giving information to students that learning activity was end. Teacher usually closed activity by saying "Ok, I think that's all".

B. The Frequency of Teachers Utterances for Instructional and Management Talk

The data showed that teachers speak more for management talk (65%) than instructional talk (35%). In managing classroom, teachers spent many utterances for giving instruction (29% of total utterances), giving direction (1% of total utterances), and asking questions (10% of total utterances) while in delivering English teaching materials, teachers spent many utterances for asking question (15% of total utterances).

TABLE 4
FREQUENCY OF TEACHERS UTTERANCES

Language function	Utterances
Instructional talk	35%
Giving explanation	3%
Giving direction	9%
Giving correction	8%
Asking question	15%
Answering question	0.3%
Management talk	65%
Greeting	0.1%
Checking presence	3%
Giving instruction	29%
Giving direction	11%
Giving announcement	1%
Giving advice	1%
Encouraging students	1%
Giving reprimanding	5%
Giving praise	1%
Giving punishment	0.1%
Giving thanks	0.1%
Making humor	0.2%
Asking question	10%
Answering question	2%
Closing activity	0.1%

For entire teachers' talks in teaching English as foreign language, they speak more for giving instruction (29%), asking questions (15% instructional questions and 10% management questions), and giving management direction (11%). Teachers seldom spent utterances for greeting (0.1%), giving punishment (0.1%), closing activity (0.1%), making humor (0.2%), and answering students' instructional questions (0.3%). The low use of teachers' utterances in greeting and closing activity was caused by time use. Greeting was used twice, in beginning and end of classroom activities and closing activity was used once, in the end of classroom activities. The low use of teachers' utterances in giving punishment showed that punishment was not recommended in teaching-leaning process. Then, the low use of teachers' utterances in answering students' instructional questions indicated that teachers' instructional direction was clear for students and instructional questions related classroom tasks or exercise that cannot be asked to teachers.

C. The Frequency of Native and Target Language Use for Instructional and Management Talk

The data showed that teachers used intensive native language in both instructional talk (80% NL) and in management talk (77% NL). The highest use of native language for instructional talk is in answering question (95%). Then the lowest use of native language for instructional talk was in giving explanation (61%).

TABLE 5
FREQUENCY OF NL AND TL USE

Language function	Frequency	
	NL	TL
Instructional talk	**80%**	**20%**
Giving explanation	61%	39%
Giving direction	89%	11%
Giving correction	72%	28%
Asking question	84%	16%
Answering question	95%	5%
Management talk	**77%**	**23%**
Greeting	0%	100%
Checking presence	72%	28%
Giving instruction	95%	5%
Giving direction	97%	3%
Giving announcement	96%	4%
Giving advice	99%	1%
Encouraging students	93%	7%
Giving reprimanding	99%	1%
Giving praise	84%	16%
Giving punishment	100.0%	0%
Giving thanks	0%	100%
Making humor	93%	7%
Asking question	99%	1%
Answering question	97%	3%
Closing activity	31%	68%

The highest use of native language for management talk was in giving punishment (100%) and the highest use of target language was in greeting and giving thanks (100%). Teachers also used target language intensively in closing activity (69%).

The utterances for instructional talk were longer and more complicated than utterances for management talk. It caused teachers used target language more for management talk than instructional talk. Teachers used intensive target language for 3 contexts of management talk; greeting (100%), giving thanks (100%), and closing activity (69%) while teachers used intensive target language for 1 context of instructional talk; modeling (96%).

This finding supported the recommendation of Kaneko (1992) to not use native language for framework goals (giving instruction and managing pupil) and social goals (greeting and talk about personal experience which has no relation to the pedagogic purpose of the lesson). Moreover, Thompson (2006) reported that the common contexts of the use of target language are classroom management and clarify.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

There were two teachers language function. They were instructional talk and management talk. Instructional talk is teacher's language relates to transfer of teaching materials and management talk is teacher's language relates to control and discipline in classroom. The results of the observation of teachers' talk showed that teachers uttered instructional talk in 5 contexts (giving explanation, direction, and correction; and asking and answering question) and management talk in 15 contexts (greeting, checking presence, encouraging students, making humor, giving instruction, direction, announcement, advice, reprimanding, praise, punishment, thanks; asking and answering question; and closing activity). Teachers talk more for management talk than instructional talk. Teachers used target language more for management talk (65%) than for instructional talk (35%). Teachers talk more for giving instruction (29%), asking questions (instructional question (15%) and management question (10%), and giving management direction (11%). The frequency of native and target language for instructional talk was 80% NL and 20% TL and for management talk was 77% NL and 23% TL. The appropriate use of native language (NL) and target language (TL) in appropriate contexts was recommended in teaching English as foreign language because it was considered that NL and TL use has positive points in teaching English in English foreign language classroom.

REFERENCES

[1] Barry, K. & King, L. (1993). Beginning Teaching: A Developmental Text for Effective Teaching. Australia: Social Science Press.
[2] Bathia, T. K. & Rithcie, W. C. (1996). Bilingual Language Mixing, Universal Grammar, and Second Language Acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bathia (Eds.), Handbook of Second Language Acquisition. UK: Academic Press Inc.
[3] Brown, G. (1975). Microteaching. London: Methuen.
[4] Brown, H. D. (2001). Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy. San Francisco: Addison Wesley Longman Inc.
[5] Ford. K. (2009). Principles and Practice of L1/L2 Use in the Japanese University EFL Classroom. *JALT Journal*, 31 (1), 63-80.
[6] Gay, L. R. (2006). Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application. USA: Pearson Prentice Hall.
[7] Kaneko, T. (1992). The Role of First Language in Foreign Language Classroom. ProQuest Dissertation UMI. USA: Temple University.
[8] Kang, D. M. (2008). The Classroom Language Use of a Korean Elementary School EFL Teacher: Another Look at TETE. System, (Online), Vol. 36, (http://www.sciencedirect.com, accessed on April, 14th, 2012).
[9] Kovačić, A. & Kirinić, V. (2011). To Use or Not Use: First Language in Tertiary Instruction of English as a Foreign Language. Sarajevo: The First International Conference on Foreign Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics.
[10] Meng, X. & Wang, X. (2011). Action Study of Teacher's Language on EFL Classroom Interaction. *Theory and Practice Language Studies*, 1 (1), 98-104.
[11] Muhayyang, M. (2010). Lecturer and Students Talk in Classroom Interaction: A Classroom Management Scheme. Unpublished Dissertation. Hasanuddin University.
[12] Myojin, C. (2007). The Effect of Teacher Talk in EFL Classrooms: The Nonuse or Use of Learners' L1 by Instructor. *Kata Journal,* 9 (1), 1-18.
[13] Nurhajati, D. (2012). The Strategy of Using English at the Language of Instruction in Elementary School. *Proceeding of the 59th TEFLIN International Conference*, 305-311.
[14] Scrivener, J. (2012). Classroom Management Technique. UK: Cambridge University Press.
[15] Shin, J. K. (2006). Ten helpful Ideas for Teaching English to Young Learners. English Teaching Forum, (Online) Vol. 2, (http://exchanges.state.gov/englishteaching/forum/archives/does/06-44-2-b.pdf, accessed on July, 2nd 2012).
[16] Thompson, G. L. (2006). Teacher and Students First Language and Target Language Use in the Foreign Language Classroom: A Qualitative and Quantitative Study of Language Choice. ProQuest Dissertation UMI. USA: University of Arizona.
[17] Tsui, A. B. M. (1995). Introducing Classroom Interaction. USA: Pinguin Books Ltd.
[18] Victor. E. (2009). Teachers' and Students' Perception of the Use of the Target or Native Language in the French Foreign Language Classroom. ProQuest Theses UMI. USA: University of Delaware.

Zulfah was born in Ujung Pandang, South Sulawesi, Indonesia in 1983. She received her PH.D degree in English Education from Makassar State University, Makassar, Indonesia in 2015.

She is currently a lecturer in Da'wah and Communication Department, State Islamic College, Parepare, South Sulewesi, Indonesia. Her research interests include teaching English as foreign language for children and discourse analysis.

Dr. Zulfah is a member of the Asian Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language.

Muhammad Amin Rasyid was born in Sengkang, South Sulawesi, Indoensia in 1955. He received his PH.D degree in English Language Studies from Hasanuddin University, Makassar, Indonesia in 1992.

He is currently an associate professor in the faculty of literature and language, State University of Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia. His research interests include speaking teaching program for learners of English as a foreign language.

Prof. Amin Rasyid is a member of Education committee in South Sulawesi Provinces.

Muhammad Asfah Rahman was born in Selayar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia in 1952. He received his PH.D degree in Instructional Design and Technology from the University of Pittsburgh, PA, USA in 1990.

He is currently an associate professor in the faculty of literature and language, State University of Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia. His research interests include early reading program for learners of English as a foreign language.

Prof. Rahman is currently a member of Indonesian Linguistics Society (MLI), Indonesian Education Scholars Association (ISPI), and TEFLIN (Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia).

Andi Qashas Rahman was born in Bone, South Sulawesi, Indonesia in 1954. He received his PH.D degree in Linguistics from Hasanuddin University, Makassar in 2005.

He is currently an associate professor in the faculty of literature and language, State University of Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia. His research interest includes discourse analysis.

ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 6, No. 6, pp. 1289-1296, November 2015
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0606.16

An Investigation of the Non-English Majors' Pragmatic Competence[*]

Qian Yang
Shandong University of Finance and Economics, Jinan, Shandong Province, China

Abstract—**Learning a foreign language means not only the cultivation of linguistic competence, but more importantly, the cultivation of pragmatic competence. Due to the poor pragmatic competence, pragmatic failures or even communication breakdown will be given rise to in real communication. The aim of this research is to investigate Non-English majors' pragmatic competence and explore the corresponding methods in raising their pragmatic competence. The result shows that their pragmatic competence is still of low level. According to the weaknesses and problems, the present author proposes some pedagogical suggestions aimed at developing the non-English majors' pragmatic competence.**

Index Terms—**non-English majors, pragmatic competence, pragmatic failure, linguistic competence**

I. INTRODUCTION

Leech (1983) divides pragmatics into pragmalinguistics and sociolinguistics, accordingly pragmatic competence consists of pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence. Pragmalinguistic competence is based on grammatical competence, and deals with the rules of language usage, and it includes not only the competence of correctly using the grammar rules to make sentences, but also the competence of appropriately employing the language form in a specific context in achieving a certain communicative goal. Sociopragmatic competence refers to the patterns of appropriately understanding and using utterances in interpersonal communication, such as the Cooperative Principle (CP) and the degree of appropriateness in a verbal exchange.

Pragmatic failure, a concept proposed by Jenny Thomas (1983), refers to the inability to understand what is meant by what is said. As Thomas (1983, p.97) puts it, "while grammatical error may reveal a speaker to be a less proficient language-user, pragmatic failure reflects badly on him/her as a person". To native speakers, the grammatical error appears to be superficial and the hearer takes little effort to understand an utterance with errors and has no difficulty in making allowance for it and thus the communication is likely to continue, while the hearer has not any reason to put up with pragmatic failure made by a non-native speaker who has good command of the foreign language.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

After Thomas (1983) put forward the theory of pragmatic failure, great interests have been aroused among scholars in China. Many Chinese scholars made great contributions in introducing the theory and integrating it with English teaching. Based on the researches on pragmatic failure, Chinese scholars are interested in how to avoid pragmatic failure and promote learners' pragmatic competence. The domestic studies on the two aspects are closely linked with each other. The studies on pragmatic failure stress three main issues, namely, classification of pragmatic failures; explanation of sources of pragmatic failure; implications on the instruction of English as a foreign language.

Huang Cidong (1984)first put forward the concept of "pragmatic error". By analyzing ten pragmatic errors in detail, he stated that learning a language, besides mastering its knowledge and skills, must highlight the different applications of linguistic forms in varied non-linguistic contexts.

HeZiran &Yan Zhuang (1986) made a quantitative research on pragmatic failures, focusing on pragmatic differences. It took the theoretical framework of Thomas and analyzed cross-cultural pragmatic differences in both pragmalinguistic and socio-pragmatic aspects. Its result showed that pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge is the main cause of pragmatic failure for Chinese learners, so they suggested that cross-cultural pragmatic knowledge should be taught in class.

Wang Dexing (1990) introduced the reasons of pragmatic failure and in which aspects Chinese learners tend to produce the most possible pragmatic failure. Probing into the process of cross-cultural communication, Wang put forward that pragmatic failure concern with both the cultural and linguistic conventions, and the differences between them in two cultures are the ultimate cause of it.

HongGang(1991) found that learners of high-level linguistic competence produce nearly as many pragmatic failures as those of low-level competence do, which demonstrates that good linguistic competence does not stand for good pragmatic competence. He draws the conclusion that pragmatic knowledge needs to be taught in order to advance

---

[*] This paper was funded by Shandong Planning Office of Social Science (No. 13CGIA12 and No. 14CWXJ29).

pragmatic competence; otherwise pragmatic competence will stay unchanged. Since then, pragmatic failure and its related researches have been brought into a new phase. More and more researchers later set about the pursuit of pragmatic competence with pragmatic failure as a medium.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Objectives

This survey is carried out with three objectives.

a. To investigate the current pragmatic competence of non-English major college students.

b. To investigate the correlation between linguistic competence and pragmatic competence.

c. To find out problems and weaknesses in the students' pragmatic competence according to the correct percentage of each item.

d. To put forward some pedagogical implications according to the weaknesses reflected in the survey.

B. Subjects

Due to some objective limitations, it is difficult to choose the subjects by means of random sampling, so a convenience sampling is adopted instead. Convenience sampling, as the name suggests, means that elements are selected as the sample for the convenience of the researcher, or the researcher tends to choose subjects that are readily available (Wen Qiufang, 2001).

There are altogether 279 subjects participating in the present study. The subjects in this study involve 93 juniors from School of Information Science and Engineering, Shandong Normal University, 90 juniors from School of Computer Science, Dezhou College, and 96 juniors from College of Chinese Language and Literature, Shandong Normal University. They are respectively grouped as A, B and C. In group A, there are 54 subjects who have passed the College English Test Band 4 (CET4); the remaining 38 subjects are those who have not passed CET4. 35 of them are females and the other 58 are males. In group B, there are 43 subjects who have passed CET4, and the rest of the 37 subjects have not passed CET4; among them there are 36 females and 54 males. In group C, 59 subjects have passed CET4 and 37 have not passed CET4; and there are 62 females and 31 males. In summary, among the total 279 subjects, 156 of them have passed CET4, and there are133 females and 146 males. They have similar English learning backgrounds; almost all of them began to learn English from Middle school and have learned English for 9 years by the time of the investigation.

C. Instruments

In this research, the questionnaire method, which can quickly produce desirable data and also can be easily controlled, is applied.

The questionnaire applied is composed of 20 multiple choice questions with brief explanation of the speaking context and status of both speakers given before each question. The testees are allowed to choose the most appropriate one from the listed choices. Due to the high reliability of the questionnaire developed by Prof. He Ziran (1987), it was chosen, selectively by deleting those questions out of date for the current days, as a source of the questions in the present questionnaire. And some questions are chosen from the questionnaire put forward by Zhang Xiaomei (2002), the questions of which better suit the present learning conditions. Some examples of pragmatic failures employed in A Survey of Pragmatics (He Ziran, 1987) are incorporated in the questionnaire.

CET, as a nation-wide large-scale standardized test, is held twice each year. It has undergone an unceasing process for perfection since the first implementation in 1987. Through a series of empirical researches and questionnaires among college teachers it is proved that CET has a high validity and reliability. The achievements of CET4 are regarded as the representation of the testees' linguistic competence. The pragmatic competence questionnaire was administered to gain information about the pragmatic competence of the testees who are representatives of non-English majors.

D. Procedures

The subjects of group A took part in the investigation on November 11th 2005, the subjects of group C took part in the investigation on November 12th, and the subjects of group B on November 15th. The investigation, held as a quiz in class, was administered by their English teacher, that is, the questionnaires were handed out and collected by them. In order to prevent difficulties in understanding the questions, students were allowed to consult the dictionaries, but not permitted to discuss with others. They were required to finish the questionnaire individually, and time was not limited. Therefore the problems of understanding the languages in the questionnaire and the limitation of time could not be counted as factors influencing the choices or as causes of their failures.

E. Data Collection and Data Analysis

The full score for each question is 1 point. In this way, the scores the students get for each question can be figured out. The total score of this pragmatic competence questionnaire is 20 points. The scores of all the students are input into the computer and are analyzed using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) 11.5.

F. Results

TABLE 3.1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE OF EACH GROUP

Group	N	Max	Mini	Range	Median	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. Error Mean
A	93	17	2	15	11	10.85	2.31	0.24
B	90	16	2	14	10	9.76	3.02	0.32
C	96	18	3	15	10	10.07	2.87	0.29
Total	279	18	2	16	11	10.23	2.78	0.17

The descriptive statistics of the pragmatic competence of each group is presented in Table 3.1. On the first glance, there aren't distinct differences among the three groups. The results of the T-test, listed in the following Table 3.2—Table 3.4, showed that the difference of the mean scores of the three groups are not significant, the pragmatic competence of the students of the three groups are on approximately similar level. Due to the insignificant difference among the three groups, the achievements of the pragmatic competence questionnaire from the three groups can be incorporated together and be processed as a whole.

TABLE 3.2
T-TEST FOR GROUP A AND GROUP B

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variance assumed	2.345	181	.020
Equal variances not ssumed	2.335	167.462	.021

TABLE 3.3:
T-TEST FOR GROUP B AND GROUP C

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variance assumed	-.735	184	.463
Equal variances not assumed	-.734	181.579	.464

TABLE 3.4:
T-TEST BETWEEN GROUP A AND GROUP C

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variance assumed	-2.043	187	.042
Equal variances not assumed	-2.050	181.157	.042

TABLE 3.5:
THE FREQUENCIES OF THE PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

Score	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
2	2	.7	.7	.7
3	5	1.8	1.8	2.5
4	3	1.1	1.1	3.6
5	6	2.2	2.2	5.7
6	11	3.9	3.9	9.7
7	13	4.7	4.7	14.3
8	18	6.5	6.5	20.8
9	40	14.3	14.3	35.1
10	35	12.5	12.5	47.7
11	51	18.3	18.3	65.9
12	48	17.2	17.2	83.2
13	27	9.7	9.7	92.8
14	6	2.2	2.2	95.0
15	4	1.4	1.4	96.4
16	6	2.2	2.2	98.6
17	3	1.1	1.1	99.6
18	1	.4	.4	100
Total	279	100	100	

According to the Pearson Correlation analysis, the pragmatic competence and the linguistic competence is slightly correlated (r=0.192), with its significance being .01. The result proves that the development of linguistic competence is the foundation of the development of pragmatic competence, without appropriate linguistic foundation it is difficult and impossible for the learners to develop their pragmatic competence. The result is inconsistent with the previous studies, in which most of the subjects are advanced English learners but demonstrate rather low pragmatic competence, such as the young college English teachers in He Ziran&Yan Zhuang' s (1986) study, the junior English majors in Wang Dexing's (1990) study and so on. In regard to the relationship between linguistic competence and pragmatic competence, Kasper and Rose (2002) propose that they are separate from each other. The two kinds of competence are independent and at the same time interdependent from each other. Linguistic competence development will not naturally lead to the appropriate use of the target language, or we can say a good command of language knowledge does not guarantee knowing how to use it appropriately. They are interdependent because linguistic competence is the foundation of pragmatic competence and pragmatic competence is the ability of appropriately using the linguistic forms in context, the combination of the two is the communicative competence. They are like the two wings of a bird; in order to develop communicative competence, both of them should be paid attention to.

TABLE3.6:
CORRELATION BETWEEN PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE AND LINGUISTIC ACHIEVEMENTS

		Linguistic Achievements	Pragmatic Competence
Linguistic Achievements	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.192 * *
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
Pragmatic Competence	Pearson Correlation	.192 * *	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	

* * : Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

In order to get a further understanding of the pragmatic competence of the subjects, an analysis of the answers given by the subjects on each item is introduced in the following part. As is reflected in Table3.7, there are many items with comparatively higher correct percentage. The subjects perform well in many particular contexts. For example, the correct percentage for item 3, 5, 12, 19 are higher than 90%. This reflects that the subjects have accumulated much knowledge on how to choosing the appropriate utterances according to the given context, and on how to behave by the western ways of behavior. At the meantime, there are still many weaknesses and problems reflected in the questionnaire of pragmatic competence.

TABLE 3.7:
DESCRIPTION OF CORRECT PERCENTAGE OF EACH ITEM

Items	Nc	%	Items	Nc	%
1	36	38.7	11	70	75.3
2	28	30.1	12	91	97.8
3	87	93.5	13	21	22.6
4	5	5.4	14	30	32.3
5	89	95.7	15	62	66.7
6	70	75.3	16	43	46.2
7	70	75.3	17	81	87.1
8	59	63.4	18	48	51.6
9	52	55.9	19	89	95.7
10	44	47.3	20	25	26.9

Notes: Nc: Number of correct answers
%: the percentage of the correct answers to each item

According to the results of the questionnaire, it is obvious that these subjects know, to some extent, how to perform certain speech acts and can differentiate the foreign culture and the Chinese culture and are equipped with certain basic pragmatic knowledge. Why can the subjects perform well on these items? First, in previous researches made by researchers and English teachers, pragmatic failures related with these aspects, especially the difference of response to appreciation and difference on views towards age and weight, etc, have frequently been mentioned and thus been paid special attention to in teaching practice. Second, the increasing contact with the English speaking countries and the accessible ways of acquiring knowledge provide the students more opportunities of learning and practicing English. Also, due to the open-door policy of our country, there are more and more authentic materials introducing the foreign way of life and differentiating cultural differences. At the same time the students can learn English through various channels: TV, Internet, VCR, etc. All these factors broaden the horizon of the students and make them familiar with both the foreign languages and the foreign ways of life. So many of the Chinese learners of English can behave and speak in

the western way.

Apart from the improvement having been made, there are still many problems reflected through the investigation. The reasons for the problems are: First, in the teaching process, when the cultural differences are mentioned the teachers often refer to the specific often-quoted examples that are always mentioned in researches, in this way the students' ability in these aspects are strengthened while the remaining aspects of cultural differences are neglected. For example, when the interviewees are required to list some cultural differences, most of them refer to the differences on how to answer others' compliments and how to initiate conversations with strangers. These examples are often referred to in our English class, while the remaining parts of cultural differences are seldom paid attention to, which will give rise to the pragmatic incompetence in communication. Second, Both the teachers and the students have limited exposure to authentic learning environments. The teachers themselves do not have the opportunities of learning and practicing English in native environments either; most of their knowledge about the speaking principles and cultural differences are learned indirectly but not experienced in person. Third, in our country the reality for teaching English is the mastery of new vocabularies, the improvement of comprehension skills, listening and writing skills, while the speaking abilities are often ignored. Most of the students are learning English driven by the motivation of passing CET4, which is a prerequisite for the Bachelor's degree in many universities, and CET6. In class, it is the teacher who is the center of the whole class and who takes almost all the time in explaining to the students the usage of the new words, the translation of the texts, the analysis of the sentence structure. On the contrary, the students do not have the opportunities of speaking in class, which leads to imbalanced learning habits, that is, much more attention is paid to the accumulation of linguistic knowledge while the pragmatic competence which should be the primary and vital objective of learning English is ignored. Though the teachers repeatedly emphasize that speaking ability is important, they do not give the students much opportunity to practice it. Indeed, some students do go to English corners, but what they do is always repeating the simple self-introduction and greetings and never talks deep. Fourth, in the teaching process, the teachers always neglect the explanation of the pragmatic principles, for example, the PP, the face theory, the speech act theory, according to which the language users organize and comprehend the languages. Without the basic knowledge of these principles, the language learner will not fully understand what others say and will not utter appropriate languages.

Pragmatic competence is one of the aims of EFLT, while the present study reveals that the pragmatic competence of the non-English majors at present is of low level. It is essential for linguistic researchers to put forward realistic and practical pedagogical suggestions on how to cultivate students' pragmatic competence. The result of the present study proves that linguistic competence and pragmatic competence are slightly correlated and deficiency in linguistic competence will result in pragmatic incompetence and give rise to pragmatic failures. Linguistic competence is the necessary but not sufficient condition for the development of pragmatic competence, without certain accumulation of pragmatic knowledge, there is no need to talk about the development of pragmatic competence. In the teaching process, the development of pragmatic competence and the development of linguistic competence should be integrated and balanced. The teachers should not only attach importance to one factor and neglect the other, which will eventually result in the imbalance of the knowledge and ability structure of the learners. Linguistic competence is not the focus of the present study, so the ways of raising students' linguistic competence will not be touched upon. In the following part, the implications on the ways of promoting students' pragmatic competence will be introduced.

IV.   PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Pragmatic competence is one of the aims of EFLT, while the present study reveals that the pragmatic competence of the non-English majors at present is of low level. It is essential for linguistic researchers to put forward realistic and practical pedagogical suggestions on how to cultivate students' pragmatic competence. The result of the present study proves that linguistic competence and pragmatic competence are slightly correlated and deficiency in linguistic competence will result in pragmatic incompetence and give rise to pragmatic failures. Linguistic competence is the necessary but not sufficient condition for the development of pragmatic competence, without certain accumulation of pragmatic knowledge, there is no need to talk about the development of pragmatic competence. In the teaching process, the development of pragmatic competence and the development of linguistic competence should be integrated and balanced. The teachers should not only attach importance to one factor and neglect the other, which will eventually result in the imbalance of the knowledge and ability structure of the learners. Linguistic competence is not the focus of the present study, so the ways of raising students' linguistic competence will not be touched upon. In the following part, the implications on the ways of promoting students' pragmatic competence will be introduced.

[1] Teaching Language in Context

In the traditional teaching process, the teachers always first give an utterance and then explain the students the meaning of this utterance only and let the students mechanically practice it, but the context of this utterance is not given. As a result, though the students can utter different sentences and know clearly their semantic meanings, they cannot use it appropriately; instead, they will use it according to their own understanding and the Chinese translation of this sentence, that is, they are influenced by pragmatic transfer. In the future teaching process, the teachers should give the context of one utterance and pay much more attention to it, in this way, the students can know better when, where and to whom they can use this utterance instead of regarding it only as an English equivalence of the Chinese utterance.

[2] Integrating Cultural Knowledge in the Teaching Process

Language teaching and culture teaching are two aspects of the same teaching process, they should not be separated. In view of foreign language learners, learning a foreign language is to command a new tool of communication and to learn to know the culture of the target language. From the point of FLT, teaching language is teaching the culture of the target language. If cultural background knowledge is not taken into consideration, foreign language cannot be acquired well enough.

[3] Increasing Exposure to Authentic Materials

Authentic material presents the students with the "real" language, and provides them with valid linguistic data for their natural acquisition process. Once they get into contact with plenty of authentic materials, they can imitate the manners of native speakers, and use the language in the way of the natives, gradually, their sense of appropriacy will be formed. Authentic materials are needed for learners to learn the correct use of the target language in teaching and reaming activities.

[4] Encouraging Language Output and Employing Task-based Classroom

Many researchers have proved that the most effective way of developing pragmatic competence in class is to ensure that learners have sufficient opportunities to practice. Task-based language teaching is an effective teaching approach employed in class, which aims to develop learners' pragmatic competence. In a task-based classroom, the teaching process is completed in the process of organizing a series of tasks, which can be pedagogical tasks and real-world tasks. And students master specific language forms and its corresponding functions in the process of fulfilling these tasks. It is a student-centered form of organizing the class. In a task-based classroom, teachers must instruct the students to pay attention to the form, meaning and social nouns simultaneously, for they are cultivating students' ability to use English to achieve an effective communication. And teachers should take both accuracy and appropriateness into consideration while conducting a task-based approach in a certain class. Tasks must include ways that will combine meaning with form in order to balance the development of fluency with accuracy.

[5] Teaching Pragmatic Theories

Pragmatic instruction is necessary and effective. Though learners can have a large amount of pragmatic knowledge like pragmatic universals and L1-based knowledge for free, they are not often found using them in the L2 communication. Studies examining the effect of pragmatic instruction show that most pragmatic features are indeed teachable and there is a distinct advantage for explicit metapragmatic instruction.

Teaching the theories of pragmatics is an effective way. Teachers can give designed lectures on pragmatics. College students have grasped a great deal of linguistic knowledge that can help students to understand the basic pragmatic theories. And the understanding of pragmatic theories also can direct students to practice the language, make students consciously use pragmatic rules and develop pragmatic competence in the course of communication.

Teaching linguistic knowledge integrating with pragmatic knowledge can let students not only learn the linguistic forms, but also understand the communicative function of the forms. If the teacher only explains the meaning of words and analyzes the sentence structure in teaching, it is not beneficial to cultivate students' pragmatic competence. The pragmatic knowledge that the teacher explains should be well chosen. That is, the teacher should consciously analyze the language points from the view of both English and Chinese. The usage, which easily leads to failure in the intercultural communication, should be paid special attention to.

Pragmatic knowledge imparting involves both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge. Pragmalinguistics refers to the devices to implement the communicative acts including pragmatic strategies like directness and indirectness, conventions and a large amount of linguistic forms which can choose from in order to perform appropriate speech act, while sociopragmatics refers to the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action. For instance, by helping students realize what function complimenting has in mainstream American culture, what appropriate topics for complimenting are, and by what linguistic formulae compliments are given and received, they can acquire both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge.

The pragmatic knowledge can be imparted to the students regularly by introducing the natural models, such as complimenting, apologizing, opening and closing a conversation, leaving and taking and etc. By introducing the authentic examples, the students can get high quality input, and thus have the possibility to prepare well for the appropriate output.

In conclusion, pragmatic competence is one of the aims of college English teaching and should be integrated with the cultivation of linguistic competence. The above-mentioned methods of promoting students' pragmatic competence are only tentative ones and should be experimented and verified in the future teaching process.

REFERENCES

[1]   He Ziran, Yan Zhuang. (1986). Pragmatic Failures in Cross-cultural Communication of Chinese Students. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 3, 52-57.
[2]   Hong Gang. (1991). A Survey on Pragmatic Competence and its Implications on Foreign Language Teaching. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 4, 56-60.
[3]   Huang Cidong. (1984). Pragmatics and Pragmatic Failures. *Journal of Foreign Languages*, 1, 15-20.
[4]   Kasper, G. & Rose, K.R. (2002). Pragmatic Development in a Second Language. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
[5]   Leech, G. (1983). Principles of Pragmatic. London: Longman.
[6]   Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural Pragmatic Failure. *Applied Linguistics*,4(2),91-112.

[7]   Wang Deixing. (1990). Pragmatic Problems in Cross-cultural Communication. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 4, 7-11.

[8]   Wen Qiufang. (2001). Applied Linguistics: Research Method and Essay Writing. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

[9]   Zhang Xiaomei. (2002). College English Teaching and the Cultivation of Pragmatic Competence. *Journal of South China University (Social Science Edition)*, 1,73-78.

Qian Yang was born in Zibo, China in 1981. She received her master degree in Linguistics from Shandong Normal University, China in 2006. She is currently a lecturer in the school of Applied English studies Shandong University of Finance and Economics, Jinan, China. Her research interests include pragmatics, corpus linguistics, and Second language acquisition.

The Differential Effects of Three Types of Task Planning on the Accuracy of L2 Oral Production

Zahra Fallah Rafie
Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch, Iran

Ramin Rahmany
Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch, Iran

Bahador Sadeqi
Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch, Iran

Abstract—The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of three types of task planning on accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' oral production. In this study planning was operationalized at three levels: rehearsal, strategic and unpressured within-task planning. The oral presentation task was employed as the means of data collection. The subjects consisted of forty advanced students in four classes with the same level of language proficiency (N=10). One class was randomly selected to act as the control and three others selected as the experimental groups. In order to collect the data, the oral presentation task was used as the means of data collection. In the first group participants were asked to perform the task two times with two-week interval between the two performances. Participants in the second experimental group received strategic planning with ten minutes of planning time. Whilst the participants in the third group began their oral presentation immediately but took time as long as they like to performed their presentation. The participants in the no-planning group, were asked to perform their presentation immediately after reading each text within a limited time. Performance was assessed through the percentage of error-free clauses (to measure accuracy). Data analysis showed a positive influence of both rehearsal and unpressured within-task planning on accuracy of L2 output. Also the results were greater in rehearsal group than within task group.

Index Terms—rehearsal planning, strategic planning, within-task planning

I. INTRODUCTION

Tasks have a central place in L2 research and also in language pedagogy. In recent years there have seen an enormous growth of interest in task-based language learning and teaching which is because task is seen as a construct of equal importance to the researchers and the teachers of second language. Task is a means of clinically eliciting samples of learner language for the purpose of research and task also is a device for the purpose of organizing the content and methodology of language teaching (Ellis, 2000). Tasks came into widespread use in school education in the 1970s (Kasap, 2005). So TBLT received more attention from the point of view of SLA researcher's, curriculum developers, educationalists, teacher trainers and language teachers worldwide (Van den Branden, 2006). Over the past decade researchers have remarkable attention to the role of planning in the process of task-based language learning (Abdi, Eslami & Zahedi, 2012). Planning is one of the significant factors in the studies of TBLT. Understanding more about the construct of planning is of worth for both SLA researchers, who are primarily interested to develop a set of ideas about L2 acquisition, and language teachers, whose aim is to help learners to learn languages more effectively and efficiently. Planning and its influence in task-based language performance are extensively studied in the literature (Wang, 2008). But there have only been few studies that have considered the issue of how different task planning might have influence on complexity, fluency and accuracy of L2 learners' performance in terms of their oral production (Ahmadian, 2011).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Task-based Instruction

Prabhu, who published the Bangolore research report in 1982, was the first person who performed task-based approach in L2 teaching (Bantis, 2008). Prabhu believed that students' minds are focused on the task, rather than on the language they are using they may learn more effectively (Hasan, 2014). Task-based approach which views language as a communicative tool has attracted more and more attention in the foreign language teaching field since the 1980s (M. Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2011). According to Harris and O'Duibhir (2011) one challenge of a communicative approach to language teaching is to provide students with chances to communicate meaningfully with their classmates. In order to cope with this challenge teachers need to create activities or tasks that extend beyond language drills, where

learners communicate ideas and feelings to one another about topics of interest to them. In these activities, learners need to make their utterances comprehensible and receive feedback as to whether they have been understood. This is called TBI. Task-based interactions are seen to be facilitative of L2 learning process. The role of the teacher during these activities is to monitor the language of the learners' performance and any intervention needs to be carefully measured.

Esfandiari, Knight, Molinari and Zacharias (2012) mentioned that a general definition of TBI is "giving learners tasks to complete, rather than items to learn, have positive effects on the natural language learning process." Rahimpour (2008) also defined TBLT a kind of language teaching which focuses on students' ability to do a task with no explicit teaching of the grammatical instruction. This type of L2 teaching provides a good condition in the process of developing language performance.

B. Benefits of Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)

Task-based approach of language teaching provides many advantages in the process of 2nd language learning which are discussed by Ellis (2009a) as follows:

1. The natural language learning in the classroom situation can be achieved by TBLT.
2. It emphasizes meaning over form but can also emphasize for learning form.
3. A high amount input of foreign language can be provided for the learners.
4. It extremely motivate learners.
5. It allows for teacher input and direction but focuses on a learner-centered educational philosophy are more highlighted.
6. It focuses to the development of communicative fluency while not neglecting accuracy.
7. A more traditional approach can be used together with TBLT.

The goal of TBLT is to provide students with opportunities of language learning by which they will become able to communicate more effectively in everyday life. Tasks are good at training learners to use the L2 for practical purposes, and that this will make them ready for doing some tasks successfully in the world outside the classroom by completing specific tasks involving 'real world' situations (Dailey, 2009).

C. Problems in Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)

There may be different problems in a situation in which TBLT is concerned. Some of these major problems according to Richards and Rynandya (2002, p. 102) are as follows: first, despite the early research which support the use of task as an effective way to conceptualize language teaching, the amount of research it is still in sufficient. Second, task-based program has been implemented and subjected to rigorous evaluation. So our understanding of many factors influencing task difficulty is quite limited and our teachers must fall back on their intuition about how well the learners can deal with specific tasks. Third, we know little about task finiteness. Nunan (2001, p. 48) mentioned the most important problem for the designer of task- based syllabus is different factors which will interact to determine task difficulty, e.g., what is difficult for the learner A may not necessarily be difficult for the learner B, these are factors which are dependent to the learners' characteristics.

M. Hismanoglu, & Hismanoglu, (2011) also mentioned some challenge of task-based approach as follows:

1. The disadvantages of task-based learning rely not so much on the potential powerfulness of this type of instructional content but on problems of conducting the instruction.
2. If the teachers only focused on more traditional roles or do not possess time and resources to provide task-based teaching; in this situations task-based teaching may be impossible to do in an effective way because this type of teaching involves a high level of creativity and dynamism on the part of the teacher.
3. The resources which are necessities of task-based learning are beyond the textbooks and related materials generally available in foreign language classrooms.
4. Task based instruction is not what many students expect and want from a language class, so they may refuse to task-based language learning
5. Some learners when face with a difficulty or if the group feels refusing try to use mother tongue.
6. Some individuals enhance superior communication strategies, e.g. miming and employing gestures, but get by employing just uncommon words and phrases and let others provide the more challenging language they need. This may give rise to the fossilization of those individuals prior to improving very far in the syntax of the target language.
7. Some learners do not worry about how it is placed into the discourse but they are tending to get caught up in making an effort to find the appropriate word.
8. For the learners there is a danger to achieve fluency at the expense of accuracy.

In order to cope with the problems faced in task based teaching Ellis (2009a) presents the following principles:

1. The tasks must be fit to the students' proficiency levels (e.g. in order to work with the learners who have limited proficiency, in these cases the tasks should be of the input providing rather than output-prompting).
2. Tasks need to be tasted to ensure that they result in appropriate L2 use and revised in the light of experience.
3. A clear understanding of what a task is for TBLT to work is necessary for the teachers.
4. It is necessary for the teachers and students to be aware of the purpose and reason for performing tasks.
5. In the process of teaching a task-based course, teachers must be involved in the development of the task materials.

D. Task Planning

Different types of planning are discussed by Ellis (2009b). A basic distinction is drawn between pre-task and within-task planning (also called online planning). These are distinguished based on when the planning takes place either before the task itself or during the performance of the task. Pre-task planning can be further divided into rehearsal or strategic planning. Within-task planning also divided into pressured (i.e. learners are required to perform the task rapidly under time limitation) or unpressured (i.e. learners receive an unlimited amount of time in order to perform the task) (see Figure 1). Ahmadian (2011) mentioned the working memory uses the limited time to access lexical information from long-term memory when participants perform a task under time pressure, but the participants can also access syntactic information when they perform without any time pressure. According to Abdi et al. (2012) in unpressured task performance, participants takes part in to careful on-line planning which calls 'planned language use' and in pressured task performance participants are engaged in rapid planning which calls 'unplanned language use'. Online planning takes place during performance of a task, whereas pre-task planning examines how planning prior to performance influences (Ghavamnia, Tavakoli, & Esteki, 2013).

```
                    ┌ Pre-task planning ─┤ Rehearsal planning
Planning ─┤                              └ Strategic planning
                    └ Within-task planning ─┤ Pressured
                                            └ Unpressured
```
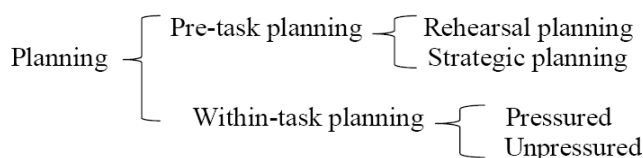
Figure 1. Types of planning (according to Ellis, 2005b, p4)

Task planning has strong effect on the effectiveness of language instruction and become a popular method of how to teach L2 communicative acquisition (Seyyedi & Ismail, 2012). According to Foster and Skehan (1999) providing greater planning opportunities should have positive effects on the process of learners' language development.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION

Focusing on the deferential effect of task type on L2 learners, the present study addressed the following research question and hypotheses:

Q1. Which type of task planning (rehearsal, strategic and unpressured within-task) leads to accuracy in L2 oral production?

Ho1. The rehearsal task planning does not lead to accuracy in L2 oral production.

Ho2. The strategic task planning does not lead to accuracy in L2 oral production.

Ho3. The unpressured within-task planning does not lead to accuracy in L2 oral production.

IV. METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

A. Participants

The participants in this study were 40 students of English in advanced level in a language institute in Hashtgerd, Iran. One fourth of the students are female and the others are male. They were in four classes with the same level. Their language proficiency levels were similar according to the norms of this language institute. Three class were randomly selected to act as the experimental groups and one class was selected as the control group (10 participants in each class).

B. Instruments

Task: oral presentation task was chosen as the means of data collection for this study. This task type have been selected by following (Teng, 2007).

Source of input: a pilot study was performed by five language teachers who were teaching English as the second language for more than ten years on ten students from the target population who did not participate in the study for the total number of five sections. These experts opinion were used to justify the length of the time and texts for this study. At the end of the pilot study twelve reading parts of American file, student book 3, units 1-7 were chosen as the source of input that the participants weren't taught before.

Planning conditions: four programs were designed by the researcher; three programs were in the form of task planning and one program was based on no-planning condition (see table 1).

TABLE 1
DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Stages \ Groups	First Stage T/A	Second Stage T/A	Third Stage T/A	Last Stage T/A	
First treatment group (rehearsal pre-task planning)	2 min/ Read the text	2 min/ Performed their presentation	interval of two weeks	performed the same task	
				2 min/ Read the text	2 min/ Performed their presentation
second treatment group (strategic pre-task planning)	2 min/ Read the text	10 min/ plan their performance		2 min/ Performed their presentation	
Third treatment group (unpressured within-task planning)	2 min/ Read the text			Unlimited time to plan while performing the task/ Speak immediately after reading the text	
Control group (no-planning condition)	2 min/ Read t he text			2 min/ Performed their presentation/ to prevent them from on-line planning a time limit was established while their presentation	

Data collection: In each section the researcher and another language teacher recorded the students' oral production. After each section the researcher listened to their oral production and wrote them down on a piece of paper. Then based on the chosen criteria the accuracy of their oral production was determined.

C. Procedures

After the participants and the materials were chosen. Three of the four classes were randomly assigned as experimental groups and one of them as the control group. The participants performed oral presentation task in their normal classroom setting. In this study the participants in each group were required to performed oral presentation task under different planning condition. In the first group (rehearsal pre-task planning); the participants performed the same task two times with an interval of two weeks between the two performances. In the second group (strategic pre-task planning); as the participants read the given text within a limited time, they were required to plan their performance for 10 minutes before they performed the task. They were also asked to complete the task within a limited time. Participants in the third group (unpressured within-task planning) were asked to speak immediately after reading the text. They were given as much time as needed to perform the task. Thus they were not given any time in advance but were received an unlimited time to plan while performing the task. In the fourth group (no-planning condition); the participants were under no-planning condition in which participants were not given time for planning, and in order to prevent them from on-line planning a time limit was established for their presentation. Treatment lasted after 12 sections for each class (two hours each section). Participants' oral performance were recorded by the researcher. Then their oral performance were evaluated in terms of accuracy (percentage of error-free clauses).

D. Accuracy Measure (Percentage of Error Free Clauses)

In this study accuracy was measured by identifying the number of error-free clauses, which was then divided by the total number of clauses produced, and the resulting figure was multiplied by 100 (Khan, 2010; Skehan, & Foster, 1999). In this study the clause in which there was no error in syntax, morphology or word order was counted as an error-free clause. Also errors in lexis were considered only if a word was nonexistent in English, or if a word was indisputably inappropriate (Skehan, & Foster, 1997). High means indicate less number of errors and as a result better performance (Bamanger, 2014).

$$\frac{\text{Number of error-free clauses}}{\text{Total number of clauses}} \times 100$$

V. RESULTS

A. Testing Assumptions

Four assumptions of interval data, independence of subjects, normality and homogeneity of variances should be met before one decides to run parametric tests (Field, 2009). The first assumption is met because the present data are measured on an interval scale. Bachman (2005, p. 236) believes that the assumption of independence of subjects is met

when —the performance of any given individual is independent of the performance of other individual. The third assumption concerns the normality of accuracy scores which are checked through the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors. Table 2 reflects that the accuracy scores in the rehearsal, strategic, within-task, and control groups have normal distribution since the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors are within the ranges of +/- 1.96. The last assumption – homogeneity of variances – will be discussed when reporting the results of the inferential statistics.

TABLE 2
NORMALITY TESTS FOR ACCURACY SCORES IN THE FOUR GROUPS

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Rehearsal	10	.031	.687	-1.109	1.334
Strategic	10	.005	.687	-.988	1.334
Within-task	10	.364	.687	-1.361	1.334
Control	10	-.109	.687	.038	1.334

B. Investigating the Research Question

The research question of this study asked which type of task planning (rehearsal, strategic and unpressured within-task) leads to accuracy in L2 oral production. In order to answer this research question One-way ANOVA was used. Before discussing the results of this analysis, the descriptive statistics of participants' accuracy scores in the four groups were computed and laid out in Table 3. According to Table 3, the means of rehearsal group ($M = .55$, $SD = .06$) and unpressured within-task group ($M = .52$, $SD = .06$) were significantly more than the strategic group ($M = .40$, $SD = .05$) and control group ($M = .36$, $SD = .04$) (See appendix A for the accuracy scores).

TABLE 3
GROUP STATISTICS OF ACCURACY SCORES IN THE FOUR GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	SD
Rehearsal	10	.5536	.06805
Strategic	10	.4018	.05305
Within-task	10	.5242	.06083
Control	10	.3695	.04100
Total	40	.5536	.06805

The main assumption of ANOVA is homogeneity of variances. So Levene's Test was utilized. As Table 4 displays, the homogeneity of variance assumption has not been violated for the four groups' accuracy scores since the Sig. for Levene's test was .29, which is greater .05.

TABLE 4
TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES FOR ACCURACY SCORES IN THE FOUR GROUPS

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.292	3	36	.292

Table 5 below depicts the results of ANOVA comparing the accuracy scores in the four groups.

TABLE 5
ANOVA FOR COMPARING FOUR GROUPS' ACCURACY SCORES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.244	3	.081	25.404	.000
Within Groups	.115	36	.003		
Total	.360	39			

ANOVA results, as shown in Table 5, indicated a statistically significant difference in accuracy scores among the four groups at the $p < .05$ level, $F_{(3, 36)} = 25.40$, $p = .000$, $p < .05$. Fortunately our p value (.000) was less than .05, and our F value, 25.40 was more the F critical (4.38).

The graphical representation of the results is shown in Figure 2.
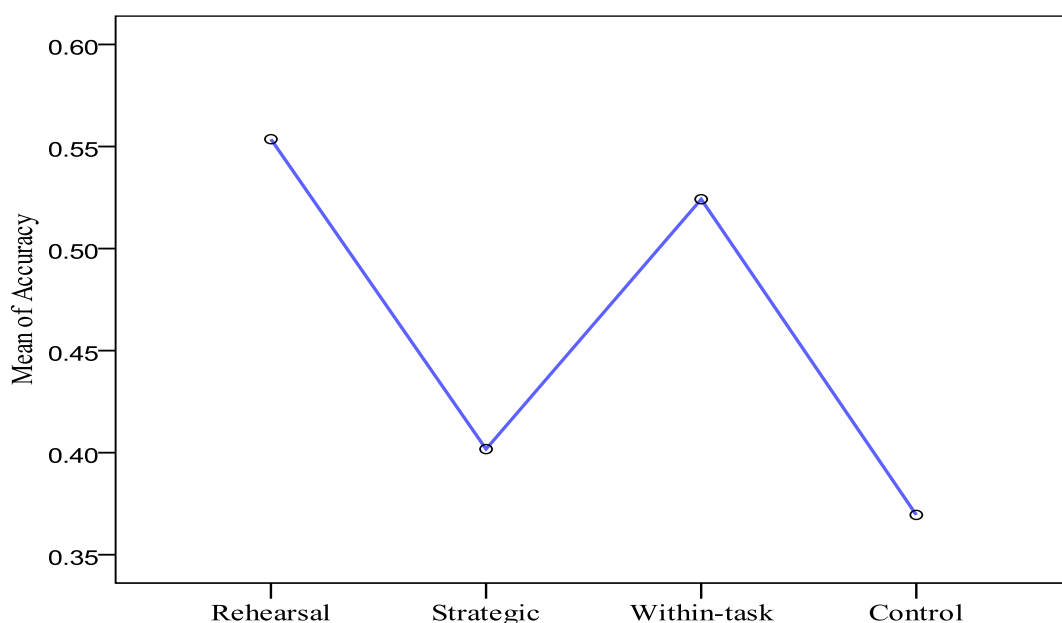
Figure 2. Line graph for accuracy scores in the four groups

Because ANOVA does not tell us the exact location of the differences among the groups, we run Tukey's HSD, and the related results are provided in Table 6 below.

TABLE 6
TUKEY'S HSD POST-HOC TESTS FOR MULTIPLE COMPARISONS OF FOUR GROUPS' ACCURACY SCORES

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Rehearsal	Strategic	.15183[*]	.02532	.000
	Within-task	.02942	.02532	.654
Strategic	Within-task	-.12242[*]	.02532	.000
Control	Rehearsal	-.18408[*]	.02532	.000
	Strategic	-.03225	.02532	.585
	Within-task	-.15467[*]	.02532	.000

The results of Tukey's HSD post-hoc Tests (see Table 6) detected a statistically significant difference in accuracy scores between the rehearsal group ($M = .55$, $SD = .06$) and control group ($M = .36$, $SD = .04$) with the mean difference of .18, $p = .000$, $p < .05$, in which p value, .000 was less than .05; accordingly the first null hypothesis as "The rehearsal task planning does not lead to accuracy in L2 oral production" was rejected. Accordingly we could claim that the rehearsal task planning leads to accuracy in L2 oral production.

The results of Tukey's HSD post-hoc Tests, as appeared in Table 6, displayed that there was not a statistically significant difference in accuracy scores between the strategic group ($M = .40$, $SD = .05$) and control group ($M = .36$, $SD = .04$) with the mean difference of .03, $p = .58$, $p > .05$, in which p value, .58 exceeded .05; in consequence, the second null hypothesis that says "The strategic task planning does not lead to accuracy in L2 oral production" was retained. Hence it was concluded that the strategic task planning does not lead to accuracy in L2 oral production.

Tukey's HSD post-hoc Tests (Table 6) found a statistically significant difference in accuracy scores between the unpressured within-task group ($M = .52$, $SD = .06$) and control group ($M = .36$, $SD = .04$) with the mean difference of .15, $p = .000$, $p < .05$, in which p value, .000 was below .05; therefore the third null hypothesis as "The unpressured within-task planning does not lead to accuracy in L2 oral production" was rejected too. Subsequently it can be asserted that the unpressured within-task planning leads to accuracy in L2 oral production.

VI. DISCUSSION

The research question of this study asked which type of task planning (rehearsal, strategic and unpressured within-task) leads to accuracy in L2 oral production. The results of the study detected a statistically significant difference in accuracy scores between the rehearsal group and control group. Accordingly the first null hypothesis as "The rehearsal task planning does not lead to accuracy in L2 oral production" was rejected. Accordingly we could claim that the rehearsal task planning leads to accuracy in L2 oral production. Considering the effect of rehearsal planning on the accuracy of L2 learners' production, the findings of this study supports the previous studies of Mojavezi (2013); Bohlool and Ghahramani (2013); Bamanger (2014); and Gashan and Almohaisen (2014).

The results displayed that there was not a statistically significant difference in accuracy scores between the strategic group and control group. In consequence, the second null hypothesis that says "The strategic task planning does not lead to accuracy in L2 oral production" was retained. Hence it was concluded that the strategic task planning does not lead to accuracy in L2 oral production. The results obtained in terms of the effect of strategic planning on the accuracy of L2 learners' oral production are in odds with the study conducted by Abdi et al., (2012) and Bagheri, Rasht, Hamrang and Tonekabon, (2013).

The results also showed a statistically significant difference in accuracy scores between the unpressured within-task group and control group. Therefore the third null hypothesis as "The within-task planning does not lead to accuracy in L2 oral production" was rejected too. Subsequently it can be asserted that the within-task planning leads to accuracy in L2 oral production. The results obtained in terms of the effect of unpressured within-task planning on the accuracy of learners' production are also in line with the results suggested by Ellis (2009b).

VII. Conclusion and Implication

The research question of this study asked which type of task planning (rehearsal, strategic and unpressured within-task) leads to accuracy in L2 oral production. The results revealed there is no significant difference mean between the accuracy of learners' oral production in strategic group than control group. Findings indicated that rehearsal group and within-task group have positive effect on the fluency of learners. Also learners' performance in the rehearsal group was the best and in the unpressured within-task group was the second best. Finding of the present study may have implication for language teachers and material developers. Teachers can use these three types of task planning in their daily teaching programs. Providing students with the opportunity to plan a task performance helps them to produce the language that is more accurate.

Appendix A. Accuracy Results in the Four Groups

N	Rehearsal	Strategic	Within-task	Control
1	0.47	0.47	0.49	0.40
2	0.58	0.37	0.62	0.37
3	0.49	0.42	0.49	0.41
4	0.62	0.32	0.60	0.30
5	0.56	0.43	0.54	0.34
6	0.54	0.38	0.58	0.38
7	0.46	0.43	0.46	0.35
8	0.66	0.48	0.54	0.44
9	0.62	0.38	0.45	0.38
10	0.54	0.34	0.48	0.34

References

[1] Abdi, M., Eslami, H., & Zahedi, Y. (2012). The impact of pre-task planning on the fluency and accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' oral performance. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 69, 2281 – 2288. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.12.199.

[2] Ahmadian, M. J. (2011). The effects of guided careful online planning on complexity, accuracy and fluency in intermediate EFL learners' oral production: The case of English articles. *Language Teaching Research,* 16(1), 129–149. doi: 10.1177/1362168811425433.

[3] Bachman, L. F. (2005). Statistical analysis for language assessment. (2nd Ed.). Cambridge University Press. NY.

[4] Bagheri, M., Rasht, I., Hamrang, A., & Tonekabon, I. (2013). The impact of planning on accuracy and complexity in oral production of male and female English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature.* 2 (2), 25-32. doi:10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.2n.2p.25.

[5] Bantis, A. M. (2008). Using task based writing instruction to provide differentiated instruction for English language learners (Unpublished MA thesis). University of Southern California, The Rossier School of Education. California. USA.

[6] Ellis, R. (2000). Task-based research and language pedagogy. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 193–220.

[7] Ellis, R. (2009a). Task-based language teaching: sorting out the misunderstandings. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 19(3), 221-246.

[8] Ellis, R. (2009b). The differential effects of three types of task planning on the fluency, complexity, and accuracy in l2 oral production. *Applied Linguistics*, 30(4), 474–509. doi:10.1093/applin/amp042.

[9]   Esfandiari, M, Knight, P, J. Molinari, J & Zacharias, S. (2012). Task-based Learning Applied. Nottingham, UK: Jubilee Press. ISBN: 978-1-906235-17-8.
[10]   Field, A. (2009). Discovering Statistics Using SPSS. (3rd Ed.). SAGE. London.
[11]   Foster, P., & Skehan, P. (1999). The influence of source of planning and focus of planning on task-based. *Language Teaching Research*, 3(3), 215–247. doi: 10.1177/136216889900300303.
[12]   Ghavamnia, M., Tavakoli, M., & Esteki, M. (2013). The effect of pre-task and online planning conditions on complexity, accuracy, and fluency on EFL learners' written production. *PORTA LINGUARUM*, 20, 31-43.
[13]   Hasan, A. A. A. (2014). The effect of using task - based learning in Teaching English on the oral performance of the secondary school students. *International Interdisciplinary Journal of Education*, 3(2), 250-264.
[14]   Hismanoglu, M., & Hismanoglu, S. (2011). Task-based language teaching: what every EFL teacher should do. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 14, 46–52. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.03.049
[15]   Kasap, B. (2005). The effectiveness of task-based instruction in the improvement of learners' speaking skills. (Unpublished MA Thesis). Bilkent university, Ankara, Turkey.
[16]   Khan, S. (2010). Strategies and spoken production on three oral communication tasks: a study of high and low proficiency EFL learners (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Universitat Autonoma de Barcelona, Spain.
[17]   Mojavezi, A. (2013). The relationship between task repetition and language proficiency. *Applied Research on English Language,* 3(1), 29-40.
[18]   Nunan, D. (2001). Syllabus design. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[19]   Rahimpour, M. (2008). Implementation of task-based approaches to language teaching. *Pazhuhesh -e Zabanha-ye Khareji*, 41, 45-61.
[20]   Richards, J.C., & Renandya, W. A. (Eds). (2002). Methodology in language teaching: an anthology of current practice. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[21]   Skehan, P., & Foster, F. (1997). Task type and task processing conditions as influences on foreign language performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 1(3), 185-211. doi: 10.1177/136216889700100302.
[22]   Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (1999). The influence of task structure and processing conditions on narrative retellings. *Language learning*, 49(1), 93-120. doi: 10.1177/136216889900300303.
[23]   Teng, H. (2007). A study of task types for L2 speaking assessment. Online Submission.
[24]   Van den Branden, K. (Ed.). (2006). Task-based language education: from theory to practice. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[25]   Wang, Y. (2008). Influence of planning on students' language performance in task-based language teaching. *English language teaching*, 1(1), 83-86.

Zahra Fallah Rafie, an MA holder in TEFL from Azad University of Takestan. She was born in Karaj, Iran in 1986. She got her BA in "English Translation" from the Azad University of Arak. She has 6 years of teaching experience and her primary research interests include task-based learning and teaching.

Ramin Rhmany, a Ph.D. holder of teaching English as a foreign language from Tehran University, Iran. Currently, he is an assistant professor in Azad University of Takestan, Iran. His major interests are language and acquisition, computer assisted language learning, and psycholinguistics. He has taught several courses at university like Language methodology and discourse analysis.

Bahador Sadeghi, an assistant professor of Applied Linguistics holds a doctorate degree in TEFL from the University of Isfahan, Iran. He also holds three MAs in TEFL, English Translation and International Relations from Tehran Islamic Azad University, Isfahan University and Allameh Tabatabaee University respectively. He has been lecturing different subjects in TEFL, Translation studies, General English and ESP at several universities in Iran. He has both published and presented a number of articles in some international journals and conferences. Dr. Sadeghi is the co-author and translator of more than ten books from English to Persian. He is also a certified translator to the judiciary power in Iran and he has been, as a simultaneous interpreter, actively involved in many national and international seminars, sport events and tourism projects.

The Cognitive Function of Synesthetic Metaphor

Xiu Yu

Qingdao University of Science & Technology, Qingdao, China

Abstract — **This paper aims to introduce the cognitive fuction of synesthetic metaphor under the framework of Conceptual Metaphor Theory. By studying this, more information about the nature of synesthetic metaphor can be learnt.**

Index Terms —**synesthetic metaphor, conceptual metaphor theory, cognitive function**

I. The Phenomenon of Synesthesia

"Etymologically speaking, the word 'synesthesia' or 'synaesthesia' comes directly from the Greek words 'syn', which means 'together', and 'aesthesis', which means 'perception' or 'sensation' " (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1284).

Synesthesia is a fascinating psychological phenomenon. It is used to describe the experience of a cross-modal association. That is, the stimulation of one sensory modality causes a perception in one or more different sensory modalities (Cytowic, 1997).

Synesthesia is also a linguistic phenomenon. In linguistics, it is called "synesthetic metaphor", which involves a transfer between different sensory domains. According to Leech (1969), synesthetic metaphor is one of the most frequent types of metaphor and thus it is pervasive in language across different cultures. On the one hand, it appears frequently in people's ordinary language, like "sweet smell" (which involves a transfer of gustatory sensation to the smell domain) in English. On the other hand, it prevails in literary works as in Alfred, Lord Tennyson's "cold gray stones".

As a psychological phenomenon, synesthesia enjoyed a flurry of scientific study, while as a type of metaphor, synesthesia is frequently discussed in literary works from the perspective of rhetoric. Though known for its novelty and originality, synesthetic metaphor, traditionally, is no more than an ornamental device used in rhetorical style.

II. An Analysis of Synesthesia from a Linguistic Perspective

"Different from the phenomenon of real co-sensation, synesthetic metaphor involves the transfer of attributes of one sensory domain to another sensory domain. For example, in the phrase "a cold light", people talk about a visual concept (light) in terms of the word (cold) that belongs to the touch domain" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1285).

"Everyday language is rife with synesthetic metaphors. In English, people have expressions like 'noisy colour', 'cold words', 'sweet face', 'soft green' " (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1285).

"Synesthetic metaphors are ubiquitous in literary works as well" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1285):

And like music on the waters

Is thy *sweet voice* to me.

(George Gordon Byron *There Be None of Beauty's Daughters*, cited in Tang, 2005)

"In the above example, such phrase as "sweet voice" make the whole sentences vivid and creative. What is special about them is that words for taste (sweet) is used to describe hearing (voice). In other words, it is the usage of synesthetic metaphor that gives the sentences a sense of originality" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1285).

"Due to the novelty and creativity of synesthetic metaphor, many researchers tend to analyze the phenomenon. As a type of metaphor, synesthetic metaphor can be approached from the perspective of conventional metaphor theory or conceptual metaphor theory" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1286).

A. Perspective of Conventional Metaphor Theory

Conventional metaphor theory regards metaphors as "figures of speech, i.e. as more or less ornamental devices used in rhetorical style" (Ungerer and Schmid, 1996, p. 114). "Metaphorical language, according to its claim, is a matter of deviation from the norm instead of a part of ordinary conventional language" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1286).

"Influenced by the theory, some Chinese scholars such as Wang Yan, Zhang Zhihong (1998) and Du Hongying (2000) are devoted to the discussion of synesthetic metaphor from the rhetoric point of view. They believe that synesthetic metaphor has an important ornamental function in literary works. What's more, synesthetic metaphor can also be combined with other figures of speech such as simile, oxymoron, transferred epithet to evoke multiple experiences" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1286).

B. Problems with Conventional Metaphor Theory

"The traditional metaphor theory puts its emphasis on the ornamental function of synesthetic transfer. However, when it is applied to account for the structure of synesthetic metaphor, it doesn't work" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1286).

"In his *Synaesthesia and Synaesthetic Metaphors*, Day (1996) states that synesthetic metaphor can not be accounted by traditional semantic metaphor theories due to its novelty of cross-modal associations. To clarify his viewpoint, he takes the comparison theory for example" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1286).

"The comparison theory tends to regard metaphor as a form of elliptical simile (Goatly, 1997). In other words, metaphor interpretation is usually accomplished by turning each expression into a complex simile-like form. For instance, to say 'King Richard was a lion' is really to say 'King Richard was like a lion' " (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1286).

"The comparison theory works quite well with current syntactic theories (Day, 1996). However, when it is applied to explain synesthetic metaphor, it does not hold water. The problem of the comparison model is its claim that the underlying simile form with the 'like' is always retrievable and that it always has the same semantic or pragmatic meaning as the form with the suppression or deletion. The claim, in fact, is workable in interpreting sentence such as 'King Richard was (like or similar to) a lion'. Nevertheless, when the model is used to account for a sentence containing synesthetic metaphor, it poses too much of a problem. For example, if the sentence 'The violin gave a sour sound' ('sour sound' is a synesthetic metaphor) is expanded, it will change into 'The violin gave a sound like or similar to the sourness of 'something'. Relevant to 'a sour sound', though Webster gives some definition to be interpreted as metaphorical such as 'hostile', 'unpleasant', 'sullen', readers are at a loss as to retrieving the underlying form, and thus, the metaphor is still unresolved" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1286).

C.   Perspective of Conceptual Metaphor Theory

"Since traditional semantic metaphor theory is inefficient in interpreting synesthetic metaphor owing to its own limitation, the study of synesthetic metaphor should be carried out in a broader background" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1286).

"With the rising of the second trend of the cognitive science in the early 1970s, the study of metaphor has extended its scope to cognitive linguistics. Along this movement, a new paradigm in metaphor research was introduced by Lakoff and Johnson in their epoch-making book *Metaphors We Live By* (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). Their main viewpoint, which is later known as "conceptual metaphor theory", holds that metaphor is ubiquitous in everyday language and thought. Rather than mere poetic or rhetorical embellishment, metaphor is a major and fundamental part of people's ordinary way of conceptualizing the world" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1286). The essence of metaphor, according to them, is "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.5).

"Compared with the traditional perspective, the conceptual metaphor theory is revolutionary. In fact, the conceptual metaphor theory is a very good candidate to fully interpret the synesthetic metaphor because it can provide wider context than other metaphor theories as described in the following table (Table 1) proposed by Leezenberg (2001)" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1286).

TABLE 1:
A CLASSIFICATION SCHEME OF METAPHOR THEORIES (LEEZENBERG 2001, P.11)

Basis of interpretation / Level	Referentialist ('comparison')	Descriptivist ('interaction')	Conceptualist
(Syntax)	Chomsky	Bickerton	Reinhartse
Semantics	Mooij; Henle	Black I; Beardsley; Stern; Goodman	Lakoff & Johnson
Pragmatics	Grice	Black II; Searle; Martinich	Levinson; Sperber & Wilson
Outside linguistics proper	Davidson		Lakoff & Johnson

"This table, in fact, is a classification of metaphor theories made by Leezenberg (2001). Compared with previous classifications (e.g., Black, 1962; Mooij, 1976), Leezenberg puts metaphor theories in a relatively wider context. Hence, it can give people a clearer picture to see metaphor theories. More importantly, this classification scheme includes most (if not all) of the major metaphor theories. Leezenberg classifies metaphor theories from two perspectives (Li, 2004): (1) at what level is a metaphor accounted for? Is the metaphorical interpretation within linguistics or just outside linguistic theory? If a metaphor is accounted for within linguistic theory, then the levels are syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. If not, it is then outside linguistic proper; (2) through what means does a hearer determine the metaphorical interpretation, for instance, in virtue of the descriptive information associated with the expressions used, or in virtue of the concepts or mental representation that are expressed by the words. Thus, a hearer can understand a metaphor in virtue of the properties that the referents of the metaphor have in common; this is called 'comparison view'. Leezenberg believes that such views are generally 'referentialist', because they crucially involve the referents of the expressions used. From another perspective, the hearer can understand metaphor via the meaning of linguistic expressions, that is, the descriptive information. This comes to "interaction views", which Leezenberg classifies as 'descriptivist' since these

approaches take metaphorical interpretation to be guided by the descriptive information. And finally, quite different from the above two perspectives, one may hold that metaphorical meaning arises neither from resemblances between objects nor from descriptive information, but rather from cognitive mechanism such as the ability to see one thing as another, or as reasoning in analogies. Such approaches Leezenberg refers to as 'conceptualist views' because they assign an important role to the interpreter's mental or conceptual capacities" (Yu Xiu, 2012, p.1286-1287).

The above statements suggest that the conceptual metaphor theory proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) differs from previous accounts of metaphor. On the one hand, it claims that the locus of metaphor is not language, but thought, that is, the human conceptual system is metaphorically structured and defined. On the other hand, it argues that metaphor is the representation of one thing in terms of another. Metaphor not only acts as a linguistic figure of speech, but also is used for cognitive understanding of people's experience and the objective world.

III. THE COGNITIVE FUNCTION OF SYNESTHETIC METAPHOR

According to the conceptual metaphor theory, the nature of metaphor is conceptual, not linguistic (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). As a way of cognition, metaphor plays an important role in how individuals make sense of the world. In fact, metaphor is so much a part of people's thinking process that many of human beings' everyday expressions reflect their metaphorical understanding of experience. For example, emotions are often described in terms of kinaesthetics and the body as a container in "*I feel stressed inside*" or "*I burst out laughing*". Similarly, by saying "*I don't seem to grasp this idea*" or "*This way is over my head*", bodily experience is used to express other thoughts and feelings. As a matter of fact, words and phrases that have sensory bases are shown to be universals occurring in almost all languages.

That is to say, many aspects of language are closely related to the physiological functioning of the body, i.e. sensory experiences. Among them, synesthetic metaphor is especially noticeable.

As a type of metaphor based on human sensory experience, synesthetic metaphor is a fundamental and indispensable part of mankind's ordinary way to conceptualize the world. To illustrate the cognitive function of synesthetic metaphor, the paper divides this chapter into two parts. The first section mainly dwells on the important role that synesthetic metaphor plays in everyday language. The second section chiefly accounts for the conceptual nature of synesthetic metaphor in literary works.

A. Synesthetic Metaphor in Everyday Language

As a type of metaphor based on people's sensory modalities, synesthetic metaphor becomes a universal phenomenon of different languages. Actually, so many words and expressions in people's daily language are made up of synesthetic metaphors that they are hardly aware of them.

To elucidate the important role that synesthetic metaphor plays in daily language, the author cites several frequently used English language data and tabulates them in the following tables (Table 2, Table 3, Table 4).

1. Synesthetic transfers from touch domain to other domains

TABLE 2:
SYNESTHETIC TRANSFERS FROM TOUCH DOMAIN TO OTHER DOMAINS

Word	Source domain	Target domain	Examples
soft	TOUCH	SIGHT	soft light, soft color, soft green
		SOUND	soft voice, soft nonsense, soft words, soft sound
cold	TOUCH	SIGHT	cold eye, cold color
		SOUND	cold words, cold voice
warm	TOUCH	SIGHT	warm color
		SOUND	warm voice
icy	TOUCH	SIGHT	icy look
		SOUND	icy voice
hot	TOUCH	SOUND	hot debate, hot words
		SMELL/TASTE	Pepper makes food hot
light	TOUCH	SIGHT	light color, light green
		SOUND	light music, light voice, light breathing
		SMELL/TASTE	light soup
piercing	TOUCH	SIGHT	piercing look
		SOUND	piercing cry
		SMELL/TASTE	piercing smell
sharp	TOUCH	SIGHT	sharp eye, sharp sight
		SOUND	sharp cry, sharp voice, sharp words, sharp silence, sharp scolding
		SMELL/TASTE	sharp smell

The words such as "soft" or "cold" are listed vertically in the left-hand column; the second and the third vertical columns are the source and target domains of the synesthetic metaphors respectively; the examples, or the concrete linguistic expressions of different synesthetic metaphors are placed in the last vertical column. For example, the word "soft", which belongs to touch domain, can be mapped to sight domain as in the phrase "soft light" (TOUCH→SIGHT) or to sound domain like "soft voice" (TOUCH→SOUND). Furthermore, it should be noted that the author puts "smell"

and "taste" together in the table because the two senses always mix with each other and sometimes it's difficult to separate them.

2. Synesthetic transfers from smell/taste domain to sight and sound domains

The following table (3) includes synesthetic metaphors from smell/taste domain to sight and sound domains.

TABLE 3:
SYNESTHETIC TRANSFERS FROM SMELL/TASTE DOMAIN TO SIGHT AND SOUND DOMAINS

Word	Source domain	Target domain	Examples
sweet	SMELL/TASTE	SIGHT	sweet smile, sweet face
		SOUND	sweet voice, sweet silence, sweet music, sweet melody
sour	SMELL/TASTE	SIGHT	sour look
		SOUND	sour joke, sour remark, sour expression
bitter	SMELL/TASTE	SIGHT	bitter tear, bitter smile, bitter dispute
acid	SMELL/TASTE	SIGHT	acid look

3. Synesthetic transfers between sight domain and sound domain

Table 4 contains examples that denote synesthetic mapping between sight and sound domain.

TABLE 4:
SYNESTHETIC TRANSFERS BETWEEN SOUND DOMAIN AND SIGHT DOMAIN

Word	Source domain	Target domain	Examples
dark	SIGHT	SOUND	dark sound
bright	SIGHT	SOUND	bright laughter
white	SIGHT	SOUND	white noise
noisy	SOUND	SIGHT	noisy color
quiet	SOUND	SIGHT	quiet color
loud	SOUND	SIGHT	loud shirt, loud tie

Through the metaphorical transfer, synesthetic metaphor plays an important role in everyday language. It enriches people's vocabulary and is very helpful to explain the multiple meanings of words and their sense transfers. What's more, it offers people an efficient way to describe many things and phenomena. Thus, the semantic function of synesthetic metaphor reflects the relationship between language and the objective world. Consequently, synesthetic metaphor becomes an important device for people to conceptualize the world.

B. Synesthetic Metaphor in Literary Works

Synesthetic metaphor, as a subtype of metaphor, is frequently discussed in literary works from the perspective of rhetoric. Though known for its novelty and originality, synesthetic metaphor, traditionally, is no more than a figure of speech used to modify text or discourse. However, taking the approach of conceptual metaphor theory, synesthetic metaphor should not be regarded as the device of poetic imagination alone. Instead, it reflects the writers' conceptual universe and their ways of thinking about the world.

Writers usually have keen visual awareness and rich imagination, and they are good at breaking the limitation of common experience. By making use of bold, novel, and even striking synesthetic image, writers usually can hammer out vivid and exquisite literary expressions. Through them, readers can learn more about the writers' extraordinary feelings and experiences, and thus they can gain further insight into the writers'cognitive background and cognitive ability.

To illustrate the function of synesthetic metaphor in literary works, the paper puts forward several examples in English that contain different sensory transfers.

1.   Synesthetic transfers from touch domain to other domains

Examples (1) and (2) contain synesthetic transfer from touch to sight, namely, TOUCH→SIGHT

(1) Break, break, break,

On thy *cold gray stones*, O sea!

And I would that my tongue could utter

The thoughts that arise in me.

(Alfred, Lord Tennyson *Break, Break, Break*, cited in Li, 2000)

By using the synesthetic mtaphor TOUCH→SIGHT (i.e. the cold gray stones), the poet expresses his feeling of sadness in memory of his best friend. The poet first catches the visual image of "gray stones", then the painful feeling of his friend's death consequently makes the stones become "cold". Through the synesthetic mapping, the visual image and the tactile feeling are closely connected. In this way, the poet's subjective sentiment and the objective world are unified in complete harmony.

(2) Music, when *soft voices* die,

     Vibrates in the memory---

(Percy Bysshe Shelley *Music, When Soft Voices Die*, cited in Wang, 2004)

In (2), the word of sound "voices" is modified by word of touch "soft", resulting in a synesthetic metaphor TOUCH→SOUND. Through employing the sensory transfer, Shelley skilfully conveys his feeling about the music to his readers.

Further cases of TOUCH→SOUND metaphor can also be found in Henry Wadsworth Longfellow's "*Cool* the *sound* of the brook…*". (cited in Li, 1996)

(3) The *cold smell* of potato mould, the squelch and slap

　　　Of soggy peat, the curt cuts of an edge

　　　Through living roots awaken in my head.

(Seamus Heaney *Digging,* cited in Bretones-Callejas, 2001)

In (3) the "smell" of potato mould, which appeals to the sense of smell, is said to be "cold", thus evoking one's sensation of touch. Through the synesthetic metaphor (TOUCH→TASTE), readers, therefore, can fully experience the specialties of the smell.

2.　Synesthetic transfers from smell/taste domain to sight and sound domains

Example (4), (5) involve synesthetic mappings from the taste/smell domain to the sound domain.

(4) And the verse of *sweet old song*

It flutters and murmurs still…

(Henry Wadsworth Longfellow *My Lost Youth*, cited inWu, 1990)

The mapping of TASTE→SOUND metaphor in (4) is illustrated in detail in the following table.

TABLE 5:
THE SYNESTHETIC MAPPING OF EXAMPLE (4)

Source Domain	Target Domain
TASTE	SOUND
Receptor of gustatory feeling: human mouth	Receptor of auditory feeling: human ears
Sweetness	Harmonious song
Sweet feeling of the poet's mouth	Harmonious song heard by the poet's ears
The gustatory feeling of sweetness makes people pleasant	The harmonious song makes people delighted

By reading the synesthetic metaphor (i.e. sweet old song), readers can infer that Longfellow's feeling about the old song is pleasant and pleasing. Although there is no direct auditory description about the song, the word "sweet" can give readers the above suggestion.

(5) His *voice* was a *censer* that scattered strange perfumes.

(Oscar Wilde *Salome*, cited in Li, 1996)

Example (5) contains metaphor SMELL→SOUND. Oscar Wilde depicts the specialties of "his voice" (sound) by describing it as fragrance sent out from the "censer" (smell). Through the synesthetic mapping, he vividly conveys his feeling about "his voice" to readers, that is, pleasant and joyful.

(6) I cannot see what flowers are at my feet,

　　　Nor what soft incense hangs upon the boughs,

　　　But, in *embalmed darkness*, guess each sweet

　　　Wherewith the seasonable month endows

(John Keats *Ode to a Nightingale*, cited in Li, 2000)

In (6), the sensory mapping from the taste domain (embalmed) to the sight domain (darkness) gives rise to a synesthetic metaphor TASTE→SIGHT. The distinctive image formed by the metaphor makes readers fully understand Keats' love of nature and his feeling of life.

3.　Synesthetic transfers between sight domain and sound domain

Example (7) and (8) consist of synesthetic transfer SIGHT→SOUND.

(7) April, April,

Laugh thy *golden laughter*

(William Watson *Song*, cited in Wang, 2004)

TABLE 6:
THE SYNESTHETIC MAPPING OF EXAMPLE (7)

Source Domain	Target Domain
SIGHT	SOUND
Receptor of visual feeling: human eyes	Receptor of auditory feeling: human ears
Color of gold	Bright laughter
Color of gold observed by the poet's eyes	Bright laughter heard by the poet's ears
The visual feeling of that color makes the poet cheerful	The auditory feeling of bright laughter makes the poet joyful

Normally, people use eyes to see color, and they use ears to hear laughter. However, in "golden laughter", the poet uses the word "golden" to describe laughter, that is, he experiences the sense of hearing through his vision to represent the passion felt by him. Thanks to the synesthetic metaphor SIGHT→SOUND, readers can also feel the laughter via the visual stimulation.

(8) In the air, always, was a mighty swell of sound that it seemed could sway the earth. With the courageous words of

the artillery and the spiteful sentences of the musketry mingled *red cheers*.

(Stephen Crane *The Red-Badge of Courage*, cited in Tang, 2005)

Crane describes the scene of war through the synesthetic metaphor "red cheers", that is, the author uses "red" (which belongs to sight domain) to describe his auditory feeling about the battle. In this way, the chaos of the war is described vividly.

(9) I heard *flowers* that *sounded*.

(Saint-Martin, cited in Li, 1996)

The sight domain and the sound domain are frequently interlinked. In (9), the Western flower can make a "sound". Undoubtedly, it is the use of synesthetic metaphor that gives readers a graphic and clear-cut image.

4.   Composite synesthetic transfers

Example (10) includes composite sensory transfers brought by Arthur Symons.

(10) *Soft music* like a *perfume* and *sweet light*,

Golden with audible odours exquisite,

Swathe me with cerements for eternity.

(Arthur Symons *The Opium Smoker*, cited in Wang, 2004)

In this example, the writer expresses his special feeling about hearing the music of Chopin by using words of different domains such as soft (touch domain), perfume (smell domain), light (vision domain), and sweet (taste domain). That is, what is unique in this example is that multiple cross-modal transfers are combined and compressed into one composite synesthetic metaphor TOUCH + SMELL + SIGHT + TASTE→SOUND. Through employing the metaphor, the writer breaks the limitation of auditory experience. At the same time, the attention-catching and powerful image brought by the accurate language makes readers feel that he/she is also personally on the scene.

To sum up, synesthetic metaphor, as illustrated above, plays an important role in daily language and in literary works. On the one hand, It enriches people's vocabulary. On the other hand, it facilitates the reading of literary language. Instead of just a figure of speech, the synesthetic metaphor is an important way of cognition and thought. By the mapping from one sensory domain to another, synesthetic metaphor has become an efficient cognitive device for people to learn about the objective world.

REFERENCES

[1]   Black, M. (1962). Models and Metaphors. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
[2]   Bretones-Callejas, C. M. (2001). Web Transcription Tool. http://www.icsi.berkeley.edu/techreports (accessed 24/5/2006).
[3]   Cytowic, R. E. (1997). Synaesthesia: Phenomenology and neuropsychology-a review of current knowledge. In Baron-Cohen, S. and Harrison, J. E. (Eds.), *Synaesthesia: Classic and Contemporary Readings.* Oxford: Blackwell, 17-42.
[4]   Day, S. (1996). Web Transcription Tool. http://psyche.cs.monash.edu.au/v2/psyche-2-32-day.html (accessed 24/5/2006).
[5]   Du Hongying. (2000). A tentative study of synaesthesia. *Journal of Sichuan Three Gorges University,* 2, 59-62.
[6]   Goatly, A. (1997). The Language of Metaphors. London: Routledge.
[7]   Lakoff, G. and Johnson, M. (1980). Metaphors We Live By. Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press.
[8]   Leech, G. N. (1969). A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry. London: Longman.
[9]   Leezenberg, M. (2001). Contexts of Metaphor. Amsterdam/NY: Elsevier.
[10] Li Fuyin. (2004). Applied Cognitive Linguistics. Beijing: China Literature and History Press.
[11] Li Gongzhao. (2000). Selected Reading of English Literature. Xi'an: Xi'an Jiaotong University Press.
[12] Li Guonan. (1996). A study on the common human physiology of synesthesia. *Journal of Foreign Languages*, 3, 34-40.
[13] Mooij, J. J. A. (1976). A Study of Metaphor. Amsterdam: North Holland.
[14] Tang Yu. (2005). An analysis of English synaesthesia from the perspective of metaphorical cognition. *Scientific and Technological English Study.* 7, 55-59.
[15] Ungerer, F. and Schmid, H. J. (1996). An Introduction to Cognitive Linguistics. London and New York: Addison Wesley Longman Limited.
[16] Wang Tao. (2004). Synaesthesia in English. *Journal of Xinzhou Teachers University*, 5, 107-109.
[17] Wang Yan. Zhang Zhihong (1998). The linguistic fuction of synaesthesia in poetry. *Foreign Language Research*, 3, 64-66.
[18] Wu Weiren. (1990). History and Anthology of American Literature. Volume One. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[19] Yu Xiu. (2012). On the Study of Synesthesia and Synesthetic Metaphor. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research,* 3 (6), 1284-1289.

Xiu Yu was born in Qingdao, China in 1980. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Ocean University of China, China in 2007.

She is currently a teacher in the School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science & Technology, Qingdao, China. Her research interests include psycholinguistics and cognitive linguistics.

Miss Yu is a member of the linguistic research center in the School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science & Technology.

Transcendence of Cognitive Development: The Incorporation of Task-based Instruction into the Transfer Tasks of Dynamic Assessment

Majid Amerian

Dept. of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Arak University, Arak 38156-8-8349, PO. Box: 879, Iran

Ehsan Mehri

Dept. of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Arak University, Arak 38156-8-8349, Iran

Abstract—The implementation of dynamic assessment in the field of second language learning and development is on the rise due to the interest of researchers and practitioners for the fruitful outcomes it provides to the teaching and assessment communities. The researcher's subjective view regarding the difficulty measures of the transfer tasks for the assurance of cognitive modifiability and the stretching the scope of cognitive abilities has to be replaced with a sound scheme. Besides reviewing the implementation of transfer tasks in the literature, this article intends to suggest the scheme in a theoretical and practical way toward constructing a sound valid justification for transfer tasks. The suggestions can contribute to the validity of the dynamic assessment at the same time.

Index Terms—Sociocultural theory, dynamic assessment, transcendence, transfer task, task-based instruction

I. INTRODUCTION: SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY AND DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT

In accordance with the dialectic nature of sociocultural theory (henceforth SCT), there is a feature of unity within the field for different concepts. The unifying status of development and learning in the zone of proximal development (henceforth ZPD), the interdependence of speech and thought, and also the merge of assessment and teaching have been prevalent in the writings and claims of the theoreticians and practitioners working within the SCT's perspective toward developmental studies. One of the significant concepts bearing out of the studies in SCT is Dynamic Assessment (henceforth DA), which has been actually an offspring of the activities in the ZPD. The ZPD is a potential site for those abilities that are in the state of being shaped, possibly in the future, as opposed to those abilities which have been already developed and shaped so far as the mental capability of the individual is concerned. However, the potentiality of the person can be activated through the jointed activity with the more expert person. For Vygotsky (1986), humans' development and the attainment of control over themselves originate from the outside. In other words, the social aspect of human life begins having psychological status. The language that we use helps us, as a psychological tool, to mediate our own mental life, and the mediation and development primarily originate from the participation, interaction, and relationship with the world outside, and then in a stepwise manner the cognitive ability becomes intrapsychological, and finally internalized.

It is specifically the main property of the ZPD of any individual to shine the future potential capabilities of the person in the given domain. Viewed from this perspective, Poehner and van Compernolle (2011) believe that the ZPD is mainly dealing with diagnosis and intervention in the process of development, therefore, the DA has no other way than moving toward a dialectical activity. This means that the change is not realized in transformation, but actually it is the transformation that occurs through the unification of distinct, contradictory processes (Mahn, 1999).

In order to identify these properties, that is, what the person can do alone as well as what he can do with the collaboration and assistance of another person, which by themselves provide the opportunity to understand and develop the person more thoroughly, the unifying concept of DA was introduced to the scientific community by Luria (1961). It is within the DA that teaching and assessment are married. If the assessment is to be fruitful, it has to depend on teaching, and if the teaching is to be effective, it has to bear on the information provided by assessment. As a result, the harmony of the both seemingly separate activities of teaching and assessment are unified through acting upon one realization of DA. Luria cried out the point through the claim that the validity and fairness of the assessment cannot be assured only through statistical approaches, but via theoretical principles and interpretation of the individual. This is partly clear in the reporting of the DA outcomes in that the assessor provides a profile for the learner indicating the problematic areas and suggestions for further modifications as well as scores representing the independent and mediated performance (Haywood and Lidz, 2007).

Mehri and Amerian (in press) believe that although the concept of DA functions as a unified approach of assessment and instruction at the same time, and there is no clear-cut difference between the two in this line of thinking, the emphasis on each can be pinpointed as a result of the goal the researcher/practitioner could have in mind. The introduction of *Dynamic Assessment and Teaching* (DTA) and *Dynamic Teaching and Assessment* (DAT) actually signifies the same idea. It means that the focus of the DA process could be on assessment in one occasion, or it could be more focused on teaching. The former assesses the potentialities of a person via developing the person at the same time. The latter develops the person and assesses the degree of development spontaneously.

Besides the aim, both orientations bear in mind the present-to-future approach toward the mental development of the individual. DA looks into what the person can do and the emerging abilities; in addition to that, the activation of these two spheres of abilities has to be done via the mediator who actively engages in for the development of the person (Poehner and Lantolf, 2005). Moreover, according to Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) DA provides more information in comparison with other types of assessment. Not only the approach targets a deeper insight in the abilities of the learners, but also it aims at developing them. It is believed that since the mental abilities are always in the state of flux, they have to be assessed dynamically, that is in the process of movement. It is through change and dynamic movement of the abilities that their real power and significance could be pinpointed. Lidz (1991) maintains that DA concentrates "on modifiability and on producing suggestions for interventions that appear successful in facilitating improved learner performance" (p. 6).

The active purposeful interaction occurring in DA session(s) permits the examiner/teacher (this is due to our DAT and DTA classification) to pay particular attention to the processing skills of the person, check out the level of task demand on the person, the amount of effort displayed by the person, the degree to benefit from the mediation, and finally the degree of modified performance in later occasions (Butler, 2000). The process of interaction, not only reveals the capabilities of the individual in a fuller picture, but also tries to develop it. Actually, the revelation of the full picture happens through the development of the abilities, responsiveness of the person, and the identification of the strengths and weaknesses. Of course, Haywood and Lidz (2007) believe that the success of the DA requires the active relationship between the subject and the person who provides instruction, guidance, questions, and mediation in general.

Among the features of the DA, Marcrine and Lidz (2001) believe that DA requires both active examinee and examiner, and it needs mediation to convey the basic principles of the field to the learner. Actually Lidz's (1997) definition of the whole process of DA is revealing:

Approaches to the development of decision-specific information that most characteristically involve interaction between the examiner and examinee, focus on learner metacognitive processes and responsiveness to intervention, and follow a pre-test-intervention-post-test administrative format (p. 281).

The above definition includes almost all the basic characteristics of the DA: active participation of the examinee and the examiner, mediation, metacognitive awareness, and responsiveness to intervention. However, the last part of the definition draws on the design of the DA sessions. Lantolf and Poehner (2004) suggest two forms of implementing DA. The first one they name interactionist DA in which the mediator negotiates the needs of the learner as they happen instantly, therefore, a qualitative form of mediation which does not predict the form of assistance to the learner based on the hierarchy but on the moment to moment instances of problems happening in the task in hand. On the other hand, Lantolf and Poehner (ibid) introduce the interventionist DA in which a standard procedure is prepared beforehand in that the mediator is "not free to respond to the learners' need…but must instead follow a highly scripted approach to mediation in which all prompts, hints, and leading questions have been arranged in a hierarchical manner" (Poehner, 2008, pp.44-45).

Another classification of DA suggested by Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) is to design DA sessions where there is a pretest-intervention-posttest format like a sandwich, or the intervention only but with high prefabricated meditation, like a cake. The former might happen through several sessions, while the latter might happen within one session only. As mentioned earlier, any of the four categories discussed could be implemented bearing the goal of DTA or DAT. Fig. 1 depicts the point more clearly.
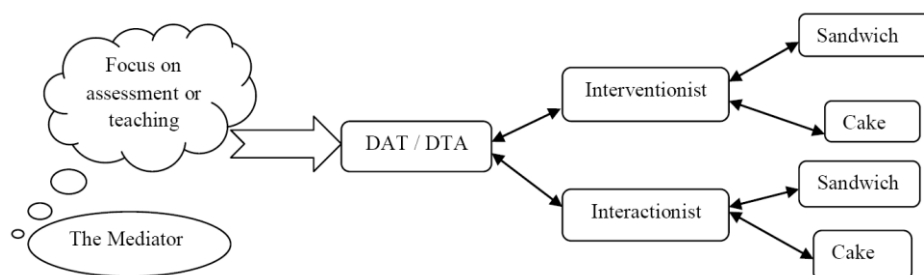

Figure 1. An overall design of the realizations of DA

II. Transcendence as a Validity Measure for DA

In Fuerestein, Rand, and Rynders' (1988) model of mediated learning experience, there are actually 11 components which construct the modifiability of the individuals. The first three of these components are considered fundamental, namely, the intentionality, reciprocity, and transcendence. Fuerestein, Rand, and Rynders (ibid) define intentionality as the state in which the mediator intents warily to intervene in the development of the individual. Next, the reciprocity means that both parties in the process of DA play an active role for the mutual interest and a common goal. And finally, the transcendence, which actually contributes to DA, and in the words of Kozulin (2011) plays a significant role in establishing a valid changing prospects, means to let the individual act on the similar but not identical tasks with some spice of complexity based on the previous intervention sessions with the mediator. In other words, the individual takes the principles of the domain at work from the intervention session(s), and applies them to other tasks. According to Kozulin (ibid), a person can be validly assumed to have changed cognitively if he can show a valid performance in other cases and make connection with the domain of the study. For instructional and assessment validity, Haywood and Lidz (2007) believe that transfer should deliberately and assuredly be included into assessment and intervention procedures of DA.

Poehner (2007) applies the idea of transcendence, or transfer, as the process of tracking development not in regard to the task in assessment but also to more complex and demanding tasks. The significance of the transfer to complex tasks is attributed to the change that makes the person move beyond the here-and-now considerations, and spread the scope of his/her abilities to the future. Davydov (1986) maintains that this stretching the learners' capabilities leads to the theoretical learning. By theoretical learning, it is meant to be able to solve problems and defend their answers. In other words, learners can justify and reason for the problem solving strategy and the way they come up with in other situations. The idea of transfer actually validates the change happening during the DA session. It is evidence that the construct that examiners within the field were seeking to change and put into flux has actually happened, and the assessment and the teaching have been effective. Campione and Brown (1990) divide the transfer cases into two categories: near transfer and far transfer. Near transfer "involves the principles learned originally but in different combinations" (p.152), while the far transfer bears more novelty and complexity. Although the ability to be able to act in both near and far transfer is a signal of the degree of control over the point in question, the tasks of transfer have to keep the basic underlying abilities (Toglia and Cermak, 2009).

Campione and Brown (1990) take the transfer as a part of their DA session. The focus is not on the amount of improvement, but on the amount of help with regard to the transfer of the rules to other novel situations. Campione (1989) believes that the inclusion of the transfers distinguishes between the learners who can only use materials they were taught against learners who can understand what they were taught and apply the principles flexibly.

Guterman (2002) believes that "understanding the…body of knowledge is critical for determining what pupils know, how they know it, and how they are able to use their knowledge to answer questions, solve problems and engage in additional learning" (p.284). It actually is evident toward the validity of the DA session if we consider the definition of Messick (1989) about validity: "the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores" (p.5). Not only the validity, but also the generalizability of the abilities instructed and assessed for future development are enhanced through transfer tasks (Ebadi and Bahramlou, 2014). Moreover, the evidence gathered in the transfer tasks accords for the future performance, in that the true ability is more confidently scored, being safe from other uncontrolled outside influences.

Kozulin (2011) discusses in length the intelligence assessment through the differentiation between the acquisition-related abilities and the thinking-related abilities. The former relates to the learning potential of the mental functioning of the individual, while the latter relates to the cognitive modifiability of the person. Although the motivation for such claims is due to the ignorance of the researchers in the field for taking granted the potentials of the learners in DA sessions as equal to their change in their mind, the fruits of such distinction could be of invaluable use. Grigorenko and Sternberg (1998) believe that there are students who show a significant level of cognitive ability, but are poor in learning sessions. Therefore, there seems to be different areas responsible for these two cognitive abilities, that is the functions of these two parts are related to the acquisition and application distinction mentioned above. Good thinkers, according to Kozulin (2011), are those who can identify the problem and select the relevant and appropriate strategy for the solution. This is different from the good learner, who can use the models and examples provided in the instruction sessions. This means that their ability in acquisition which is a learning power is different from the thinking related abilities which are more a form of application of acquired abilities.

Relating the argument of Kozulin to the models and procedures of DA as well as the significance of transfer, it could be claimed that the learning potential ability is activated in the intervention sessions of DA. Through hints, prompts, explanations, among other techniques, the learner learns certain principles. However, that should not be granted as the valid cognitive modifiability of the person. The learning is actually happening because the ZPD of the person is in access, and ready to be expanded. However, one needs realizing if the DA session has had any significant impact on the reconstructing the cognitive ability of the person. The latter form of investigation relates to the transfer of the abilities gained in the learning potential session, or what we discussed in the intervention part of the DA. In the words of Haywood and Lidz (2007), the learning potential answers the questions of "what is the response to intervention?", while

the cognitive modifiability responds to the question of "how much investment, of what kinds, may be required to promote long-term gains in performance?" (p.14).

Nevertheless, the field of DA needs strong backbone in the details of the assessment and teaching. Whether we take DTA or DAT aims for our implementation, there has to be a systematic design of the transfer tasks to assure the degree of change and transcendence of abilities to the future cases in order to prepare active and successful individuals, and/or select the most appropriate candidates for the different programs (Mehri and Amerian, in press). Therefore, the tasks have to be carefully selected based on the criteria and features attributed.

III. TASK-BASED INSTRUCTION FOR TRANSFER TASKS

With the advent of the communicative approach, there was a rise for the focus-on-the meaning tasks, and the emphasis on the fluency. Most of the instructional activities were based on the fluency at the expense of the accuracy. Of course, Widdowson (1998) emphasizes that the focus on the meaning actually means the pragmatic meaning, which somehow includes the structured based approach previously taken by audiolingualism. However, the communicative approach focuses on the interactive aspect of the language, instructing learners on language as communication, not for communication (Widdowson, 1978). The discussion on the communicative approach is out of the scope of our current analysis. The point is that the focus changed from the purely structured one to more pragmatic one. Tasks are actually one form of realization of communication. There are different interpretations of what a task is. Prabhu (1987), Nunan (1989), Skehan (1996) are some of the scholars working in this area.

Ellis (2003) reviews different interpretations of a task, and tries to provide a comprehensive definition of the concept.

A task is a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills, and also various cognitive processes (p. 16).

Although the task-based instruction bears focus on meaning greatly, the focus on form is not neglect at all costs. While an unfocused task does not insist on using specific forms of language, a focused task requires learners to use specific target forms of the language. Therefore, a task could include both the form and the meaning, but it should be aimed at the pragmatic aspect of language and the production of some outcome.

We do not intend to go into a lengthy discussion of the peculiarities of tasks-based instruction. Readers are advised to consult with two interesting textbooks of Ellis (2003) and Nunan (2004). The argument is to see how the task can contribute to SCT in general and the transcendence part of the DA in particular.

The genetic approach of Vygostky claims that the cognitive functions, in their course of formation start in the social environment when the responsibility of the mental functions are distributed among the individuals who are interacting with the person, and then the functions are later transferred into the internal psychological life of the person, or the actual level of the development of the person (Wertch, 1985). Therefore, the social interaction plays a great role in internalizing the language, in our current concern: the second language development. In other words, if the person intends to have any control over the different layers of the language to be used communicatively in his daily life as a mental tool to mediate his life and mind both internally and externally, he has to be engaged in the process of interaction. Swain (2000) believes that SCT in relation to language studies means learning how to use language in order to mediate the process of language learning. One of the significant ways to operationalize this is through the use of tasks. However, it is not merely the incorporation of tasks that gives rise to the learning in SCT, since learners can interpret the tasks based on their own socio-historical background. Therefore, a task can be realized through different activities for different learners. The task is actually a means of providing context for the ZPD.

IV. THE EFFECT OF ACTIVITY THEORY ON TRANSCENDENCE TASKS

The task-activity distinction brings us to the activity theory where the motives of the learners play a significant role in giving meaning and purpose to the tasks introduced in class. That is, the individual characteristics of each person bring about different interpretations of the activity. The studies of Gal'perin (1992) provide a model of action. In accordance with the SCT's transformation of human mind, he puts forth three phases of action for acting upon the task, or as previously discussed the personal meaningful activity. The orientation phase of the model, which takes the motives and the purpose of the learner in the performance phase, ignites the triggering point of the process. Since the orientation toward a task can change the performance, hence the evaluation phase could have a different result. In the domain of SCT, learners as agents come to be instructed and assessed with specific motivations and orientations.

Thorne (2004) believes that activity theory focuses on three factors regarding the action of the individuals: a) The tools and artifacts, b) The community and its rules, and c) The division of the labor in the community. In our argument for the incorporation of tasks in the DA's transcendence part, the artifact is actually the language itself for the development of the language. The community is the community of learners in which the class members play a significant role for the development of themselves and the class as a whole. The rules, also, focus on the interactional

aspect of the tasks introduced to the learners for developmental aims. And finally the division of the labor is the contribution of the learners.

Now, the point is that the structuring of tasks in the transfer part of the DA should not be haphazardous, since it cannot contribute to the comparing of the research findings, mediating learners toward a step-wised developmental process, assessing learners from the sound near transfer tasks to the far transfer tasks, and collecting evidence for the validity of the DA. The intuitive incorporation of the tasks in the transcendence part of the DA could hinder the researchers from carrying over the DA approach to the mainstream practical realization. For example, there are loads of tasks in the field without any sound justification of which could be practically more complex and difficult than the other, though there are some attempts to do so in the literature (Gardner and Miller, 1996; Pica, Kanagy, & Faldun, 1993; Prabhu, 1987). There has been a variety of tasks used in the second language learning environment. There are information-gap and opinion-gap tasks, split and shared information tasks, reciprocal and non-reciprocal tasks, role-play and decision making tasks, narrative and descriptive tasks, spot the difference and dictogloss tasks, among others.

V. DA AND TASKS

In Poehner (2007), the researcher focused on the oral proficiency of learners in promoting their development on the preterit and imperfect aspects of the verbs. Using the pretest-intervention-posttest design, the mediator enriched the learners through mediation to develop their conceptual understanding of the aspects. The post-test task was similar to that of the pretest one. In that the learners had to retell a story. However, two transfer tasks could ensure the level of cognitive modifiability in the learners' mental functioning. The focus again was on narrative tasks, which was similar to that of the intervention phase of the study. The first task was a scene from a movie called *The Pianist*, and the second one was an excerpt from Voltaire's *Candid*. The interpretation of the study so far as why the tasks differed at their level of complexity was based on the graphic and emotional scenes depicted in the extract of the movie shown to the participants as prompts for them in retelling the events. *The Pianist* was assumed as a more complex task because the scenes which were shown to the participants had violent occurring in the Second World War. On the other hand, the justification on why *Candid* was far more complex than *The Pianist* was based on the literary conventions and the lexical familiarity. There is so much subjectivity in hand here. The complexity of the tasks could be questioned on the ground of introducing other complex tasks. The degree to which how and why the two tasks are different is not systematically analyzed and introduced.

In Ableeva's (2010) study the researcher implemented L2 DA on the listening comprehension of the learners. Firstly, the pretest was given to the learners to ascertain the level of actual functioning of the participants. In the intervention phase, learners had a better understanding of the task in question. However, the researcher intended to focus on the degree of change on the listening performance of the learners. The incorporation of the transfer tasks was realized through a television documentary and a radio commercial listening tasks. However, Ableeva justified the difference in complexity with the DA task in relation to the cultural details and the familiarity of the participants with vocabularies and grammatical structures. Putting aside the results of the performance of the participants, the justification on the design of the transfer tasks is not based on a sound theoretical and practical ground. The researcher specifies only the difference in the frequency and difficulty of the vocabulary and grammar. The distinction of the two transfer tasks could be on the ground of the input, in that the TV documentary could be analyzed in relation to their one-way input, and the commercial listening task can behold a two-way input.

Collecting data from 6 students enrolling in a French course, Poehner and van Compernolle (2013) focused on the implementation of DA on the reading comprehension of the L2 French. The researchers used one-to-one interactional sessions in order to pave their way into realizing the process of how the learners answered the 15 items. The interaction could be beneficial for exploring the ways of diagnosing the source of difficulty and a validity measure of the reading process in the minds of the learners. However, the focus of the study was more in line with the DAT approach rather than DTA. The study did not include transfer tasks at all to guarantee the degree of moving from the here-and-now performance to there-and-then one

Kozulin and Garb (2001) used DA on EFL at risk students in text comprehension. The design of the study was pre-test-intervention-post-test. The pre-test stage included only 6 reading comprehension questions since the researcher omitted three sections of the original test which included vocabulary recognition or production. The justification was that to answer such questions the learners had to depend on the prior knowledge. Therefore, the modified version of the reading comprehension questions resembled a real reading task for academic settings. After the mediation, the post-test provided matched items to that of the pre-test stage to the participants. So far as the information, strategies, difficulty level, and length were concerned, the post-test resembled the first one. Actually, the design of the study illustrates the fact that the aim was to dig into the learning potential of the learners since the results also indicates that there were two groups of low-gainers and high-gainers among the participants. The tasks in the study did not focus on the transfer of the abilities to other more complex and difficult ones in order to both stretch the cognitive functioning of the learners and provide a validity measure for the change in the mind of the learners.

VI. CONSTRUCTING A SYSTEMATIC RESOLUTION FOR TRANSCENDENCE TASKS

The unsystematicity of the tasks in DA sessions can be to the disadvantage of the field. In the area of second language learning studies, the attitude of the researchers and practitioners toward DA is mostly complementary to the mainstream assessment approaches, or what is currently known within the DA domain as static assessment. This might be because the validity of the DA, among others, could be questioned. Of course, there is enough evidence to believe that the use of DA in DAT approach can give us a better picture of the cognitive processes of the learner for assessment purposes. However, the teaching purpose in the form of DTA should be well-supported in practical forms to be implemented more seriously. The research based innovations and actions, despite their fruitful and supportive findings can sometimes be debilitative too. Our claim is for the systematicity of the tasks, in transcendence/transfer sessions in order to build a firm validity evidence and support for the claims DA puts forth in DTA and DAT approaches.

Ellis (2003), reviewing the studies in relation to the task-based instruction provides sound criteria for grading tasks. He proposes a synthetic scheme for the complexity of the tasks in four layers: input, conditions, processes, and outcomes. By input, Ellis means the information that is provided to the learners through the tasks. This layer of task complexity considers the medium, code complexity, cognitive complexity, context dependency and familiarity of the information. The second layer, the task conditions, relates to the situation and context of implementing the task. It is focused on the conditions influencing the negotiation of meaning, task demands, and discourse mode. The scheme also considers the process of performing the task too. The reasoning needed is part of the cognitive operations that the task demands of and influences the learners. Finally, the task is evaluated based on the outcome, and the factors relating to this can affect the difficulty of the process of performing the tasks by the learners. The criterion of outcome includes the medium of the outcome, its scope, the discourse domain, and the complexity of the actual outcome. Table I not only summarizes the criteria for constructing the tasks, but also defines their easiness and difficulty.

TABLE I.
CRITERIA FOR GRADING TASKS (FROM ELLIS, 2003)

Criterion	Easy	Difficult
A Input		
1 Medium	pictorial → written	→ oral
2 Code complexity	high frequency vocabulary; short and simple sentences	low frequency vocabulary; complex sentence structure
3 Cognitive complexity		
a Information type	static → dynamic	→ abstract
b Amount of info	few elements/ relationships	many elements/ relationships
c Degree of structure	well-defined structure	little structure
d Context dependency	here-and-now orientation	there-and-then orientation
4 Familiarity of info	familiar	unfamiliarity
B Conditions		
1 Interactant relationship (negotiation of meaning)	two-way	one-way
2 Task demands	single task	dual task
3 Discourse mode required to perform the task	dialogic	monologic
C Processes		
1 Cognitive operations:		
a Type	exchanging information → reasoning	→ exchanging opinions
b Reasoning need	few steps involved	many steps involved
D Outcomes		
1 Medium	pictorial	→ written → oral
2 Scope	closed	open?
3 Discourse mode of Task outcome	lists,descriptions, classifications	narratives, → instructions, arguments

Of course the point which needs meticulous attention of the users of such a classification is that all of the above mentioned categorizations are not based on research, though most of them are. Of course, the above model can contribute to a systematic approach of designing tasks for transfer session(s) in DA related studies. In Poehner's (2007) study, the medium of the first task is pictorial, which makes it easy, but at the same time the online dialogues are oral which makes the task difficult. This makes the task a little bit unsystematic. The second task, *Candid*, which is assumed by the researcher to be more difficult than the first one is written, however, the code complexity feature of the task has low frequent vocabularies and complex sentence structures. So far as the cognitive complexity of the tasks is concerned, *The Pianist* could be considered abstract since it is the emotional and violent features of the movie which are interpreted by the study to be of significance, while this could be more difficult for the learner in comparison to the *Candid*'s task. In *Candid*'s task, the idea of abstractness might be looked upon through the material in question. According to Palincsar (1986) in the process of talk what is said could be a source of reflection for the learners to further stretch their capability. In the similar vein, in the *Candid*'s written medium, the source of reflection is a written text which provides more time for analysis. The amount of information, the degree of structure, and the context dependency are in favor of *The Pianist* task so far as the easiness is concerned. The difficulty measures in this criterion are attributed to the *Candid*'s task. In

relation to the conditions of *The Pianist* task in Poehner's study, the interactants' relationship is one-way since the learner has to retell what he has seen in the movie, the same is true for the *Candid*'s task where the learner has to retell what he has read. The task demands in *The Pianist* is a single task because the learner has to only observe the scenes and then retell the events, while in the *Candid*'s task, the learner first has to read the text, understand it, and then retell the events, and these make it a dual task. The discourse mode of both tasks is monologic which is more difficult in comparison with the dialogic tasks. In the cognitive processes of task performance, since both of the tasks have to reflect the opinion of the learner in retelling the events, both are difficult from this respect. Finally, the outcome of the tasks is not systematic. While both tasks include oral outcome (a difficulty measure in task sequencing), they contain a closed scope (an easiness measure in task sequencing). The discourse mode of both tasks also is in the narrative and description modes, which makes both of them easy. There is some evidence in favor of the second task to be more difficult in the above analysis of the Poehner's (2007) study; however, the unsystematicity in some criteria can ruin the assurance of designing a more difficult task in the transfer phase of the study. The most significant point in the second task, *Candid*'s task, which carries a more complex feature, is the code complexity in relation to the vocabulary and grammar.

In Ableeva (2010), the situation is the same. To ease the process of analysis, Table II can describe the features of the two tasks, the TV documentary and the radio commercial, in relation to Ellis's (2003) criteria for grading tasks. The areas of unsystematicity are highlighted.

TABLE II.
THE ANALYSIS OF ABLEEVA'S (2010) TRANSFER TASKS

Criterion	TV Documentary	Radio Commercial
A Input		
1 Medium	**pictorial and oral**	**oral**
2 Code complexity	high frequency vocabulary; short and simple sentences	low frequency vocabulary; complex sentence structure
3 Cognitive complexity		
a Information type	static	static
b Amount of info	few elements/ relationships	many elements/ relationships
c Degree of structure	(unrecognizable)	(unrecognizable)
d Context dependency	here and now orientation	**here and now orientation**
4 Familiarity of info	(unrecognizable)	(unrecognizable)
B Conditions		
1 Interactant relationship (negotiation of meaning)	**One way**	**Could be dialogic**
2 Task demands	single task	Single task
3 Discourse mode required to perform the task	**monologic**	**monologic**
C Processes		
1 Cognitive operations:		
a Type	exchanging information → reasoning	→ exchanging opinions
b Reasoning need	(unrecognizable)	(unrecognizable)
D Outcomes		
1 Medium	Pictorial/ oral	oral
2 Scope	closed	**closed**
3 Discourse mode of Task outcome	lists,descriptions, narratives, classifications	**lists,descriptions, narratives, classifications**

As Table II shows, the medium of the TV documentary is both oral and pictorial, while the radio commercial is oral only. The rest of the features in this criterion are in accordance with Table I. In the cognitive complexity criterion, all of the features are in their appropriate places, while the context dependency of both tasks seems to be identical. However, the degree of the structure in the analysis of Ableeva's study could not be easily recognizable, since the study does not specify much about the structures. This is also the case for the familiarity of the information, and the reasoning needed in the processes of the tasks. So far as the conditions are concerned, the TV commercial probably has one way relationship between the interactants in the presentation of the documentary which makes it difficult, while the TV commercial could be dialogic, which makes the analysis of understanding the listening task easier. The discourse mode required to perform the tasks is both monologic, since the learners have to answer the listening comprehension questions alone. In this study, there are several areas of systematicity in the design of the tasks; however, the unsystematicity and the unrecognizable features not specified by the researcher can endanger the degree of confidence in the task difficulty in the transcendence phase of the study. Therefore, a more systematic outlook for the transcendence/transfer tasks is required for constructing a more valid and evidenced grounds for DA research and practice.

VII. CONCLUSION

The concept of transcendence in DA studies, both in the DTA and DAT approach, can contribute to the validity of the psychological change. Although the mere intervention within the DA design is of outmost importance so far as the exploration into the actuality and potentiality of the abilities of an individual is concerned, it can give us a better picture of the capabilities of the person from moving here-and-now performance to the there-and-then one. Moreover, one of the important distinctions of DA in comparison with other forms of assessment is that the intervention during the assessment session activates both the actual level of development and the potential one. To do this, the intervention causes the evaluation to be in the process of movement, and this by itself changes the person. In other words, the evaluation is sensitive to the degree of change in the mental functioning of the person at the same time and it is considered part of the potential ability of the person. Therefore, the ability to take the principles of the intervention phase in DA practice, which is called transcendence, can give us a validity evidence of how much the person can extend his conceptual understanding. The systematic analysis of the tasks in the transcendence can support these points, which makes the field of study more reliable and documented. This is because the near transfer, far transfer, and very far transfer tasks need being carefully designed to assure the interpretation of the data more valid and scientifically justifiable.

REFERENCES

[1]   Ableeva, R. (2010). Dynamic assessment of listening comprehension in second language learning. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA, USA.
[2]   Butler, K. G. (2000). Dynamic and authentic assessment of spoken and written language disorders. Retrieved from ler.letras.up.pt/uploads/ficheiros/8402.pdf, August, 2014.
[3]   Campione, J. C. (1989). Assisted assessment: A taxonomy of approaches and an outline of strengths and weaknesses. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, *22*(3), 151-165.
[4]   Campione, J. C., & Brown, A. L. (1990). Guided learning and transfer: Implications for approaches to assessment. In N. Frederiksen, R. Glaser, A. Lesgold, & M. G. Shafto (Eds.), *Diagnostic monitoring of skill and knowledge acquisition* (pp. 141-172). Hillsdale: New Jersey.
[5]   Davydov, V. V. (1986). *Problems of development-generating learning.* Moscow: Pedagogika.
[6]   Ebadi, S. & Bahramlou, K. (2014). Dynamic assessment of learning potential and cognitive modifiability. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World, 6*(4), 228-239.
[7]   Ellis, R. (2003). Task-based language learning and teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[8]   Feuerstein, R., Rand, Y., & Rynders, E. J. (1988). Don't accept me as I am: Helping retarded people to excel. US: Plenum.
[9]   Gal'perin, P.Ia. (1992). Stage-by-stage formation as a method of psychological investigation. *Journal of Russian and East European Psychology, 30*(4), 60–80. (Original work published 1978.)
[10]   Gardner, D., & Miller, L. (1996). Tasks for independent learning. USA: TESOL Publications.
[11]   Grigorenko, E., & Sternberh, R. (1998). Dynamic testing. *Psychological Bulletin, 124*(1), 75-111.
[12]   Guterman, E. (2002). Toward dynamic assessment of reading: applying metacognitive awareness guidance to reading assessment tasks. *Journal of research in reading.* 25(3), 283-298.
[13]   Haywood, H. C., & Lidz, C. S. (2007). Dynamic assessment in practice: Clinical and Educational Application. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[14]   Kozulin, A. (2011). Learning potential and cognitive modifiability. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 18*(2), 169-181.
[15]   Kozulin, A., & Garb, E. (2001). Dynamic assessment of EFL text comprehension. *School Psychology International*, 23(1), 112-127.
[16]   Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, M. E. (2004). Dynamic assessment: Bringing the past into the future. *Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 1(1), 49-76.
[17]   Lidz, C. S. (1991). Practitioner's guide to dynamic assessment. NY: The Guilford Press.
[18]   Lidz, C. S. (1997). Dynamic assessment approaches. In D. S. Flanagan, J. L. Genshaft, & P. L. Harrison (Eds.), *Contemporary intellectual assessment* (pp. 281-296). New York: The Guilford Press.
[19]   Luria, A. R. (1961). Study of the abnormal child. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry: Journal of Human Behavior*, 31, 1-16.
[20]   Macrine, S. L., & Lidz, C. S. (2001). An alternative approach to the identification of gifted culturally and linguistically diverse learners: The contribution of dynamic assessment. *School Psychology International, 22*(1), 74-96.
[21]   Mahn, H. (1999). Vygotsky's methodological contribution to sociocultural theory. *Remedial and Special Education, 20*(6), 341-350.
[22]   Mehri, E., & Amerian, M. (in press). Challenges to dynamic assessment in second language learning. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies,* 5(7).
[23]   Messick, S. A. (1989). Validy. In R. L. Linn (Ed.), *Educational measurement* (pp. 13-103). New York: American Council on Education.
[24]   Nunan, D. (1989). Designing Tasks for the communicative classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[25]   Nunan, D. (2004). Task-based language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[26]   Palincsar, A. S. (1986). The role of dialogue in providing scaffolded instruction. *Educational Psychologist*, 21(1-2), 73-98.
[27]   Pica, R., Kanagy, R., & Falodun, J. (1993). Choosing and using communication tasks for second language research and instruction. In S. Gass and G. Crookes (eds). *Task-based learning in a second language.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
[28]   Poehner, M. E. (2007). Beyond the test: L2 dynamic assessment and the transcendence of mediated learning. *The modern Language Journal,* 91(3), 323-340.
[29]   Poehner, M. E. (2008). Dynamic assessment: A Vygotskian approach to understanding and promoting second language development. Berlin: Springer Publishing.

[30] Poehner, M. E., & Lantolf, J. P. (2005). Dynamic assessment in the language classroom. *Language Teaching Research,* 9(3), 233-265.

[31] Poehner, M. E., & van Compernolle, R. A. (2011). Frames of interaction in dynamic assessment: Developmental diagnoses of second language learning. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy and Practice,* 18(2), 183-198.

[32] Poehner, M. E., & van Compernolle, R. A. (2013). L2 development around test: Learner response processes and dynamic assessment. *IRAL*, 51(4), 353-371.

[33] Prabhu, N. S. (1987). Second language pedagogy. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[34] Skehan, P. (1996). A framework for the implementation of task-based instruction. *Applied Linguistics,* 17, 38-62.

[35] Sternberg, R. J., & Grigorenko, E. L. (2002). Dynamic testing: The nature and measurement of learning potential. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[36] Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (ed.). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97-114). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[37] Thorne, S. L. (2004). Cultural historical activity theory and the object of innovation. In Oliver St. John, Kees van Esch, & Eus Schalkwijk (Eds). *New insights into foreign language learning and teaching* (pp. 51-70). Peter Lang Verlag, Frankfurt, Germany.

[38] Toglia, J., & Cermak, S. A. (2009). Dynamic assessment and prediction of learning potential in clients with unilateral neglect. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy,* 64, 569-579. Doi: 10.5014-ajot.63.5.569.

[39] Vyogtsky, L. (1986). Language and Thought. USA: MIT.

[40] Wertsch, J. V. (1985). Vygotsky and the social formation of mind. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press

[41] Widdowson, H. (1978). Teaching language as communication. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[42] Widdowson, H. (1998). Skills, abilities, and contexts of reality. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics,* 18, 323-33.

Majid Amerian holds a Ph.D. in TEFL from Allameh Tabataba'i. He is an Assistant Professor and a faculty member at Arak University. He has authored and co-authored some research articles in national and international journals. His main research interests include Vygotskian sociocultural theory, dynamic assessment, discourse analysis, and postcolonial studies.

Ehsan Mehri holds an M.A. in TEFL and a B.A. in English Translation from Arak University. He currently teaches at Arak University. He has published several research articles in international journals. His main research interests include Vygotskian sociocultural theory and dynamic assessment.

Racial Otherness in the American Modern Theatre

Hongmei Zhang

College English Department, Foreign Languages College, Inner Mongolia University, Hohhot, China

Abstract—**"Racial Otherness in the American Modern Theatre" critically examines the black otherness of Eugene O'Neill and the white otherness of August Wilson by investigating their representative plays. The plays of both playwrights reveals their deep and consistent involvement with their racial other, This paper studies Eugene O'Neill's "The Emperor Jones" and August Wilson's "Joe Turner's Come and Gone" with the intention of exploring how their racial narratives can be read in relation to each other as well as to postcolonial theory in general. Members of two ethnic groups with histories both opposed and complementary, O'Neill and Wilson provide invaluable information about the nature of racial conceptualization and indoctrination in America.**

Index Terms—**otherness, Eugene O'Neill , August Wilson, blackness, whiteness**

I. Introduction

Surveys of black characters in American fiction date back to the earlier part of the twentieth century, for instance, William Stanley Braithwaite in the 1920s, and Sterling Brown in the 1930s studied the image of the Negro (a term I use here and elsewhere in historical context) in Euro-American literature only to decry the stereotypical black portraits. Yet relatively few scholars have undertaken to analyze depictions of whiteness in American letters, although "white studies" is slowly assuming legitimacy in the academy in the 1990s (Delgado, 1997，p.82). Among these pioneer examinations of whiteness, we can count Richard Dyer's *White*, Richard Delgado and Jean Stefancic's *Critical White Studies*, all published in the same year, 1997. In the light of these recent works, current theories of race, and of postcolonialism, this study will endeavor to analyze how two major American dramatists of this century, Eugene O'Neill, an Irish-American, and August Wilson, an African-American, have constructed images of their Racial Other in their plays.

I have deliberately chosen to focus on the writings of these two playwrights for a number of reasons. First of all, both Wilson and O'Neill's work attests to their deep and consistent involvement with their Racial Other, who resurfaces in play after play. Interestingly, this is not the first time these dramatists have been compared with each other. Although he himself might not appreciate such appraisals, August Wilson, after the production of his first few plays, namely, *Ma Rainey's Black Bottom (1984)* and *Fences* (1985), was saluted by drama critics as the new O'Neill. A more striking tie between the two writers is their commitment to an ambitious historical project, a cycle of plays, to cover extended periods of American history. O'Neill worked for years on a cycle of eleven plays, *A Tale of Possessors, Self-Dispossessed*, which "was to span a period of more than 175 years [from 1775 to 1932] in the history of an American family" (Gelb,1973, p. 5). But O'Neill quit his idea in a moment of despair and destroyed most of the existing drafts. While O'Neill failed to bring to fruition this monumental project, August Wilson has made consistent progress in his dramatic re-creation of the African-American experience in different decades of the twentieth century. I hope that taking a closer look at their portrayals of the Racial Other will not only shed light on the racial thinking of these two playwrights but also furnish a framework through which to reconsider racial representations in modern American drama.

II. "Race", Postcolonial Studies, and the United States

An in-depth analysis of racialization in the United States is outside the scope of this study. But it is essential to point out from the start that race in my study is not a biological (that is, "natural") but a social construct. I agree with scholars like Henry Louis Gates, Jr., who define that "race is not a real category other than in the reality of its pernicious effects experienced by people of color. As a sociohistorical concept, race, then, functions primarily to legitimize hegemony and racism by denoting Otherness, hence superiority/inferiority".

In her discussion of the origins of racialized thinking in the United States, Ann Louise Keating likewise maintains that race is not a "permanent, transhistorical" marker:

In fact, the Puritans and other early European colonizers didn't consider themselves "white"; they identified as "Christian," "English," or "free," for at that time the word "white" didn't represent a racial category. Again, racialization was economically and politically motivated. It was not until around 1680, with the racialization of slavery, that the term was used to describe a specific group of people. As Yehudi Webster explains, "The idea of a homogeneous white race was adopted as a means of generating cohesion among explorers, migrants, and settlers in eighteenth-century

America. Its opposite was the black race, whose nature was said to be radically different from that of the white race"(9). Significantly, then, the "white race" evolved in opposition to but simultaneously with the "black race."(912)

Ann Louise Keating's claim that the institution of slavery gave rise to the black and white races in the United States is not uncontested. But because of the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of determining once and for all which originated first and instituted the other, it is more accurate to maintain Ania Loomba's position that they went hand in hand: "the relationship between racial ideologies and exploitation is better understood as dialectical, with racial assumptions both arising out of and structuring economic exploitation"(113).

Before I investigated further the links between racialization and oppression, let me establish how postcolonial theory can be usefully applied to the particular case study of the United States. Although many scholars of postcolonialism confine their analyses to Third World nations, like India and Algeria, many others have begun to include the United States as a postcolonial society in their studies. I agree with those who maintain that ongoing racial struggles and racial exploitation in America bear a certain resemblance to the histories of postcolonial nations.

Scholars of postcolonial theory take great pains to warn us that each and every colonial scenario is unique. Likewise, I am not arguing that the colonization of blacks in America fully replicates the colonial archetype. One major distinction, for example, is that in most postcolonial models formerly colonized nations have successfully ousted their colonizers as a result of the nationalist movements of the twentieth century. However, the two racial groups under investigation in this study, white and black Americans, continue to inhabit America together despite black activists' call for a return to the motherland, Africa. This enforced coexistence has naturally prolonged the black nationalist struggle since the exploitation of this minority group has not ended with Abolition, whereas the termination of colonial rule in other cases might indicate the end of exploitation. Another peculiar aspect of American history is the displacement of colonial subjects, which led to not only the loss of African land(s) but also cultures and tribal languages. Most colonized groups, on the other hand, have had access to these sites of resistance in their nationalist struggles. Furthermore, while we may surmise that the latter had a national or at least communal identity prior to their colonization, Africans, who came from different tribes, had to construct a communal identity after their relocation to America. Consequently, African-Americans' claim to national identity/culture/homeland had to lie elsewhere: in African. Such significant differences between the colonial history in the United States and elsewhere would obviously further complicate racial relations in this country (Mongia, 1996, p.45-46).

Current postcolonial theory traces its beginnings to the work of Frantz Fanon (1925-1961), a psychoanalyst educated in France who, for a considerable part of his life, considered himself "white" and French. Upon realizing that France did not regard its black subjects equal to its white citizens, he turned his back on this culture and the West in general and began his resistance work against colonialism in Algeria. Fanon's psychoanalysis of the relationship between the Negro and his white colonizer had a profound impact on much of the more recent postcolonial studies. Ania Loomba maintains, therefore, that

In recent years, Fanon has been treated (often to the exclusion of other important figures) as the most important anti-colonial writer-activist; he has become, in the words of his comrade and critic Albert Memmi, "a prophet of the Third World, a romantic hero of decolonization." (143)

Edward Said's *Orientalism* (1978), another landmark in postcolonial scholarship, investigates how the Orient was constructed as a concept by the Occident to fit its colonial desires. Even if Said had not launched colonial discourse analysis, *Orientalism* is still considered by most postcolonial scholars to be a crucial work in the field.

III. THE WHITE SELF AND ITS NON-WHITE OTHER

In *Black Skin, White Masks*, Fanon interprets how the colonizers invent a non-or-sub-human identity for the natives in order to demarcate themselves from the subordinate group with the ultimate goal of establishing their "superiority" and justifying their rule. In return, the colonized respond to this process of inferiorization first by identifying themselves with their colonizers, but later, when they find out assimilation is not to be, they seek validation by insisting on the value of their native culture. Fanon based his hypotheses on the theories of the Self and the Other, according to which the Self (the white colonizer) constitutes everything outside of it, alien to is as "the Other". Thus, the Other (the colonized black) emerges in opposition to the Self, symbolizing what the Self is not or does not have. Such opposition is, by definition, a Manichean one: one is what the other is not. This dualistic positioning, ensures that both groups are also locked into a symbiotic relationship; without one, there can't be the other. Yet *in Black Skin, White Masks*, Fanon did not merely put to use the psychological implications of these terms but redefined them to stress their political significance in the colonial context.

Likewise, in *Orientalism*, Edward Said argues for the necessity for polarized images of the Oriental and of the European in order for imperialism to survive and thrive: "The Oriental is irrational, depraved (fallen), childlike, 'different'; thus, the European is rational, virtuous, mature, 'normal'" (40). The comparison holds true in other colonial/racial contexts, more specifically, in the American one, as I will demonstrate later in this study. Thus, Othering, as exercised by those in power, associates the Self with positive, "superior" attributes and the Other with negative, "inferior" ones to rationalize their subordination.

Another strategy the colonizer employ to dehumanize their subjects is to represent them in the plural so as to deny their individuality and, consequently, their humanity. Albert Memmi remarks that statements like "'They are this.' 'They

are all the same,'" constrain the colonized to an "anonymous collectivity", which in return both establish and uphold stereotyping (85). Homi Bhabha exposes the inherent contradiction in this strategy when he says: "The colonial discourse produces the colonized as a fixed reality which is at once an 'other' and yet entirely knowable and visible" (23).

Yet it is neither easy nor credible to generalize about the psychological and political mechanism of Othering. One of the underlying reasons for the paradoxical nature of Othering is that, as Catherine Hall points out, "the projection of 'the other' is also always about repressed aspects of the self. Relations between colonizer and colonized are characterized by a deep ambivalence, 'the other' is both an object of desire and derision, of envy and contempt…" (70).

IV. WHITENESS AND THE COLONIZED

Examinations of the concept of whiteness have been long in the making. Richard Dyer, a pioneer in this field asserts in his influential essay "White" that the dominant group presents itself as the norm, thereby making whiteness the norm, "the natural, inevitable, ordinary way of being human" (44). While "black is always marked as a color…white is not anything really, not an identity, not a particularizing quality; because it is everything - white is no color because it is all colors" (45). Therefore, Richard Dyer argues, by rendering itself invisible, whiteness has evaded analysis, further safeguarding its indomitableness. "It is the way that black people are marked as black (are not just 'people') in representation that has made it relatively easy to analyze their representation, whereas white people…are difficult, if not impossible, to analyze *qua* white" (46).

Other theorists also stress the socially "unraced" nature of whiteness. For instance, Ross Chambers calls whiteness the "blank" category, the unmarked and the unexamined.

[Whiteness] has a touchstone quality of the normal, against which the members of marked categories are measured and, of course, found deviant, that is, wanting…Whiteness is not itself compared with anything, but other things are compared unfavorable with it, and their own comparability with one another derives from their distance from the touchstone. (189)

Whiteness is not only invisible but also indivisible, that is, singular (Whites), whereas it presents nonwhiteness as plural (blacks, Hispanics, Asians, Native Americans, etc.). These diversified groups are further homogenized with the assertion that "'all Xs are the same,'" while the opposite applies to whites, who are all perceived as individuals (Chambers, 1997, p. 192).

What all these theories have in common is their denial of a voice and a separate consciousness to oppressed groups. Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak has directed our attention to this implicit premise with her essay "Can the Subaltern Speak?" In it, after answering her own question in the negative, she determines that the intellectuals should speak for the subaltern. Ania Loomba further complicates these issues by asking:

In what voices do the colonized speak—their own, or in accents borrowed form their masters? Is the project of recovering the "subaltern" best served by locating her separateness from dominant culture, or by highlighting the extent to which she moulded even those processes and cultures which subjugated her? (231)

Frantz Fanon introduces the so-far absent voice of the decried group when he states, "Because it is a systematic negation of the other person and a furious determination to deny the other person all attributes of humanity, colonialism forces the people it dominates to ask themselves the question constantly: 'In reality, who am I?'" (*Wretched* 250).

As the oppressed groups strive to overthrow the yoke they have been suffering under for centuries, they re-define their Other and themselves, as Catherine Hall illustrates:

For colonization is never only about the external processes and pressures of exploitation. It is always also about the ways in which colonized subjects internally collude with the objectification of the self produced by the colonizer. The search for independence and the struggle for decolonization, therefore, had to be premised on new identities. (69)

So American blacks claim a separate and positive self-identity especially during the Black Arts Movement and Black Nationalism in the 1960s. Fanon's prophecy had been fulfilled. He had foreseen that "the construction of essentialist forms of 'native' identity is a legitimate, indeed necessary, stage in the emergence from the process of 'assimilation' imposed by colonial regimes to a fully decolonized national culture" (Moore-Gilbert, 1997, p. 179).

Therefore, blacks or other oppressed groups have never been merely objects. They as subjects have participated, directly or indirectly, in the processes that were meant to shape them. For example, although white Americans desired to "control the black gaze," to be invisible to black people, blacks, while seeming to have accorded with this wish out of fear, did indeed observe whites, according to bell hooks:

An effective strategy of white supremacist terror and dehumanization during slavery centered on white control of the black gaze. Black slaves, and later manumitted servants, could be brutally punished for looking, for appearing to observe the whites they were serving as only a subject can observe, or see. To be fully an object, then, was to lack the capacity to see or recognize reality. (168)

bell hooks proves here that despite Richard Dyer's insistence on the "invisibility" and alleged normalcy of whiteness, those qualities were not just handed down and accepted by non-whites. bell hooks's contention that "black folks associated whiteness with the terrible, the terrifying, the terrorizing" illustrates the often-ignored subject-position of non-white (170). Dyer's and other such scholars' analyses of whiteness exclude the perspective of non-white communities, who perceive whiteness in widely divergent terms. For blacks, whiteness is neither a good nor a benign

power, but one "that wounds, hurts, tortures" (hooks, 1997, p. 169). My analysis of August Wilson's play should contribute to amending the limitations of "white studies," which has highlighted thus far only the perspective of whites themselves.

The above postcolonial theory helps us better understand racial thinking in America. But we cannot disregard the various problems arising out of this theoretical framework. The polarized construction of the colonizer and the colonized inevitably invites controversy. Stuart Hall critiques concepts of fixed, stable cultural identities, and hence the basic premise of nationalist movements:

Far from being eternally fixed in some essentialised past, they [cultural identities] are subject to the continuous "play" of history, culture and power. Far form being grounded in a mere "recovery" of the past, which is waiting to be found, and which, when found, will secure our sense of selves into eternity, identities are the names we give to the different ways we are positioned by, and position ourselves within, the narratives of the past. ("Cultural Identity" 112)

Cultural identities, according to Hall, are problematic; they are "Not an essence but a positioning" (113). Stuart Hall, like Homi Bhabha, sees ambivalence in postcolonial narratives and constructions, an intellectual position which has the potential to dismiss any attempt at identity formation as artificial and arbitrary.

V. CONCLUSION

This article studies Eugene O'Neill's "*The Emperor Jones*" and August Wilson's "*Joe Turner's Come and Gone*" with the intention of exploring how their racial narratives can be read in relation to each other as well as to postcolonial theory in general.O'Neill is an Irish-American, he is white, so his racial other is non-white, in America generally, the white self is opposite to the black other. O'Neill's otherness is blackness. O'Neill's black characters present a bewildering heterogeneity to scholars. Especially his earliest attempts at depicting blackness promote some of the contemporary racial stereotypes; hence, the association of blackness with the jungle, cannibalism, and primitiveness. While *The Emperor Jones* made a striking break in Eugene O'Neill's approach toward his Racial Other as he shifted his focus from the exotic West Indians to the burdensome fates of black Americans. (How did O'Neill manage to disown the privileged white perspective? I am not sure one can provide a definitive answer to that question. Nevertheless,) it is obvious that O'Neill the man as well as O'Neill the dramatist befriended the subordinate: sailors and prostitutes, for example. Maybe because of his sympathy for the underdog, Eugene O'Neill was able to see, more often than not, African-Americans as human beings, not as people with a skin color darker than his. His work draws attention to the economic, social, and political injustices affecting them while highlighting their following psychological and mental anguish. August Wilson is an African-American, so his racial other is the white. His otherness is whiteness. Wilson's fictive black world, as seen in *Joe Turner's Come and Gone*, on the other, is peopled with many whites, most of whom remain off-stage, but nevertheless play a tremendous role in the lives of his black characters. Wilson's vision of whiteness is homogeneous; he stresses in this play how whiteness is associated with economic power and exploitation, social privilege and law in the black imagination. August Wilson thinks Whiteness as economic power and economic exploitation, Whiteness as social privilege and whiteness as law. Whiteness, has many evil attributes in Wilson's drama, but its predominant quality for the playwright is that of economic power derived from proprietorship and its aftereffect, economic exploitation. Whites, since their initial contact with blacks, have approached them as free or cheap labor and have capitalized on their labor. Thus, even after the Abolition, the American history of the twentieth century—which Wilson had been rewriting in his cycle of plays—remains one of abuse and bondage for African-Americans. Black Americans, now free, can still not enjoy sovereignty, economic independence, or cultural equality and are unfortunately still within the tight grasp of the white majority. *Joe Turner's Come and Gone* (1988) examines the lives of African-Americans in the 1910s in a Pittsburgh boarding house. The black owners of the establishment, its residents, and the travelers frequenting it while on their personal quests, frame the dramatic interest in *Joe Turner*. Among these displaced black characters dwells one white man, Rutherford Selig. A peddler, he provides Seth, also the owner of the boarding house, with raw materials and then sells the end products to other blacks in the community. Although Selig does not exploit Seth, Selig's relationship with Seth is still mainly one in which the white man symbolized the capital, and the black man the labor, While Selig's main difference from the other white characters of Wilson is that he is not mean. He is, for example, clearly welcome in the black boarding house, where Seth's wife Bertha hopes to make him feel at home: "Sit on down there, Selig. Get you a cup of coffee and a biscuit" (7), and "You know you welcome anytime, Selig" (11). What distinguish Selig from all other white characters Wilson has created is his likeability and his sense of belongings in the black community. Members of two ethnic groups with histories both opposed and complementary, O'Neill and Wilson provide invaluable information about the nature of racial conceptualization and indoctrination in America. The political and social consequences of their racial identity, both received at birth and deliberately chosen later in life, illumine the narratives they have constructed about their Racial Other. Unfortunately, I have had to limit the scope of this comparative study to the texts of the plays under consideration, thus ignoring the wider implications of performance.

REFERENCES

[1]   Berlin, Normand. (1982). Eugene O'Neill. New York: Grove.

[2]   Bhabha, Homi K. (Nov.-Dec. 1983). The Other Question—The Stereotype and Colonial Discourse. *Screen* 24,18-36.
[3]   Bogard, Travis. (1972). Contour in Time: The Plays of Eugene O'Neill. New York: Oxford UP.
[4]   Bogumil, Mary L. (Dec. 1994). Tomorrow Never Comes: Song of Cultural Identity in August Wilson's Joe Turner's Come and Gone. *Theatre Journal*, 46.4, 463-476.
[5]   Brown, Sterling A. (April 1993). Negro Character as Seen by White Authors. *Journal of Negro Educations* 2,179-203.
[6]   Chambers, Ross. (1997). The Unexamined. Whiteness: A Critical Reader. Ed. Mike Hill. New York: New York UP, 187-203.
[7]   Clark, Barrett H. (1929). Eugene O'Neill: The Man and His Plays. New York: Robert M. McBride.
[8]   Cohn, Ruby. (1971). Dialogue in American Drama. Bloomington: Indiana UP.
[9]   Cooley, John. (1982). Savages and Naturals: Black Portraits by White Writers in Modern American Literature. Newark: U of Delaware P.
[10]   Delgado, Richard, and Jean Stefancic. (1997). Images of the Outsider in American Law and Culture. Critical White Studies: Looking Behind the Mirror. By Delgado and Stefiancic. Philadelphia: Temple UP, 170-178.
[11]   Dyer, Richard. (1997). White. London: Routledge, 44-65.
[12]   Fanon, Frantz. (1967). Black Skin, White Masks. New York: Grove.
[13]   Fanon, Frantz. (1968). The Wretched of the Earth. New York: Grove.
[14]   Gelb, Arthur and Barbara Gelb. (1973). O'Neill. New York: Harper & Row.
[15]   Gillett, Peter J. (1976). O'Neill and the Racial Myths. *Eugene O'Neill: A Collection of Criticism*. Ed. Ernest G. Griffin. New York: McGraw, 46-58.
[16]   Hall, Catherine. (1996). Histories, Empires and the Post-Colonial Moment. The Post-colonial Questions, Chambers and Curti, 65-77.
[17]   Hall, Stuart. (1996).When Was "The Post-Colonial"?: Thinking at the Limit. The Post-colonial Questions: Common Skies, Divided Horizons. *Chambers and Curti*, 242-260.
[18]   Hall, Stuart. (1993). Cultural Identity and Diaspora. Identity: Community, Culture, Difference, Mongia, 110-121.
[19]   hooks, bell. (1997). Representing Whiteness in the Black Imagination. *Displacing Whiteness: Essays in Social and Cultural Criticism*. ED. Ruth Frankenberg. Durham: Duke UP,165-179.
[20]   Loomba, Ania. (1998). Colonialism/Postcolonialism. London: Rutledge.
[21]   Memmi, Albert. (1965). The Colonizer and the Colonized. New York: Orion.
[22]   Mongia, Padmini, ed. (1996). Contemporary Postcolonial Theory. London: Arnold.
[23]   Moore-Gilbert, Bart. (1997). Postcolonial Theory: Contexts, Practices, Politics. London: Verso.
[24]   O'Neill, Eugene. (1988). Complete Plays. Ed. Travis Bogard. 3 vols. New York: Library of America.
[25]   O'Neill, Eugene. (1988). Thirst. Complete Plays. Ed. Travis Bogard. Vol. 1. New York: Library of America, 29-51.
[26]   O'Neill, Eugene. (1988). The Emperor Jones. Complete Plays. Ed. Travis Bogard. Vol. 1.New York: Library of America, 1029-1061.
[27]   Shafer, Yvonne. (1995). Breaking Barriers: August Wilson. *Staging Difference: Cultural Pluralism in American Theatre and Drama*. Ed. Marc Maufort. New York: Peter Lang, 267-285.
[28]   Said, Edward W. (1978). Orientalism. New York: Pantheon.
[29]   Wilson, August. (1988). Joe Turner's Come and Gone. New York: Plume.

Hongmei Zhang (1975-), female, MA of Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics, Inner Mongolia University, 2008. She is currently a lecturer and she has been teaching College English since 1997. She is interested in Literature, especially in American modern theater and she ever did research on this field in the United States throughout the years of 2007 and 2008. She has published a number of articles on literature and teaching research.

The Validity of the Vision: The Scholar's "Fight to Find the Lost Element"

Bahee Hadaegh

Shiraz University, Iran

Abstract—In the context of Anorld's poetic landscape, the "forest glade" is gone and the "glimmering sea is far beyond the reach of people who are wandering in the "darkling plain" where the genuine self is buried. The inability to find the genuine self, brought about by loss of hope, made the inhabitants of the "burning plain" continue their oscillations between the frustrating world and what they unconsciously felt to be its essential existence. It is actually because of this lack of courage that Empedocles suspends his own life. The inhabitants of the "burning desert" wait passively, and the culture simultaneously wait for the light; they are shown as awaiting some revolution, but they are in a mood of "not being" or in a continual disappointment, without specific purpose. The aim of this essay is to show the changes in the passive, meditative mood of Arnold's characters who begin the active life of the quest to find the genuine self. This quest begins with the story of "The Scholar Gipsy".

Index Terms—The Scholar Gipsy, Anorld's poetic landscape, lost element, quest

I. INTRODUCTION

The unhealthy situation of Victorian life in Arnold's poetic world is demonstrated this way:

All his store of sad experience he
Lays bare of wretched days;
Tell us his misery's birth and growth and signs,
And now the dying spark of hope was fed.
("Scholar Gipsy" 185-8)

They confess their inability to find their buried self because of their passive waiting: "yes, we wait it-but it still delays" ("Scholar Gipsy 181"). There is no active deed or a positive search for the buried self and consequently the result is useless like what Empedocles does in his fruitless waiting

Whose insight never has borne fruit in deeds
Whose vague resolves never have been fulfilled;
From whom each year we see
Breeds new beginnings, disappointments new;
Who lose to-morrow the ground won to-day-
("Scholar Gipsy" 175-9)

What seems strange to these men is a profound belief in hope, though they "never deeply felt, nor clearly willed" ("Scholar Gipsy" 175). According to Arnold's note (1989) in the Yale Ms., "The misery of the present age is . . . in [men's] incapacity to suffer, enjoy, feel at all, wholly and profoundly" (P. 300). "The Scholar Gipsy" is a call to renew the lost hopes and to search actively for the genuine self which is powerless to be born in the passive, solitary mood of Empedoclean life. It can be considered as Arnold's second stage in finding the true self after experiencing his previous failure in the first stage of solitude.

The earlier poems of Mathew Arnold up to 'The Scholar Gipsy" represent a contemplative life, without any manifestation of Homeric characters who act and talk according to the genuine self without giving way to meditation and passivity.

The social life in the "burning plain" for the most part does not allow men to act according their buried selves. Once they want to grasp it, a strong force of the arid desert pulls them down. The effort of Calliclean active life turns out to be Empedoclean disappointment just before it takes its appropriate productive shape.

The aim of this essay is to show the changes in the passive, meditative mood of Arnold's characters who begin the active life of the quest to find the genuine self. It can be considered as Arnold's second stage in his way to discover the buried life. This quest begins with the story of "The Scholar Gipsy".

II. DISCUSSION

Arnold's 1853 *Preface* (1995) calls for a change in the continuation of suffering and contemplation. It is true that Arnold began his poetic career as a man alienated from his society in his first stage of his poetic career, but at some point he came to realize that the burden of isolation was too heavy to bear. He was convinced that he was better to get involved in his society than to repudiate it. As Madden says, "Unlike the early letters, in which he warned Clough that

it was better to do and be nothing than engage in philistercy, . . . the later letters and criticism were firmly set against 'quietism'" (P.135).

A. H. Warren (1950) holds that it "was an attempt to alter the canon of English poetry" (p.159). Martin Corner (1973) also refers to it as "a call to the true path which directed the English poetry into a new course" (p.223). This new course seems to be, as S. M.B. Coulling (1969) believes," Arnold's refusal to be a mere spokesman for his age" (p.234).

In Arnold's earlier poems what dominates the whole atmosphere is his view expressed in the letter to Clough: "What you have to say depends on your age" (p.65). The poems are really a true representation of chocking atmosphere of his age without any trace of practical search to find the genuine self. But in the 1853 *Preface*, Arnold (1995) desperately talks about the great "confusion of the present time" (I, p. 8) and escapes from it by his invitation for the energetic quest.

Arnold refused to publish *Empedocles on Etna* in his 1853 volume of poems for the reason expressed in the *preface*, because the poem depicts merely a contemplative and passive life which fails to find the buried self.

Abjadian (1995-96) believes that Arnold wrote *Empedocles on Etna* since the topic was appealing to him and at last he suppressed it because it did not conform to the principles of the *preface* (p.25).

Arnold could no longer agree with a drama in which "suffering finds no vent in action; in which a continuous state of mental distress is prolonged, unrelieved by incident, hope, or resistance, in which there is everything to be endured, nothing to be done" (*CPW* I, p.15).

Evaluating his characters and being influenced by some social movements like Carlyle's doctrine of work, Arnold attempted to activate his heroes and himself. He solved the moral malady of Victorian victims and helped them a step forward in finding their genuine selves. Arnold moved from subjectivity to objectivity. Stopford A. Brooke (1989) believes that Arnold found a way to find his true self in his escape from self-consideration (p.128).The main purpose of the 1853 *Preface*, according to Arnold, is to choose "A great human action, . . . an excellent action, noble and significant, some noble action of a heroic time" (*CPW* I, p.12). Although this action is by far different from what Aristotle recommends, it is considered as a escape from fruitless passive and alienated life which offers no help in finding the genuine self. In a letter to Clough, Arnold (1986) explicitly reveals the secret of which the Victorian victims were ignorant: "What men want is something to animate and ennoble them, such a feeling is the basis of my poetics" (p.146).

The passive mind needs an ennobling force to make it active and lead it to find the buried self. Arnold in the second stage of his poetic career, around the year 1852 onward, felt the necessity of the unchained mind. Byron in the "Sonnet on Chillon" refers to this aspect as "the eternal spirit of the chainless mind." It is the liberation of men's buried capabilities and redirection of them towards salvation. According to Arnold the active working of mind, which is called imagination, makes men flee from the bondage's and help them find their true beating selves. Wilson Knight (1955) refers to what Hamlet believes in this regard, that the destiny of man depends on what his active mind decides for him (p.58).

Submission is no longer desirable; instead of looking backward to the realm of solitude, the active life of imaginative reason looks forward to the realm of self-recognition. The only things that are available to the inhabitants of the "darkling plain" are the endurance, sad patience, and despair.

In "The Scholar Gipsy" Arnold points to the lack of real faith and activity in the world. Man's life of troubles and trials wear out the energies; weariness soon overwhelms their spirits and frustrates their endless plans and efforts to find their buried selves:

For what wears out the life of mortal men?
'Tis that from change to change their being rolls;
'Tis that repeated shocks, again, again
Exhaust the energy of the strongest souls
And numb the elastic power. (142-5)

In "The Scholar Gipsy" Arnold tries to renew the only remaining hope to which the inhabitants of the "darkling plain" can trust to save their lives. It is a miracle to believe in the possibility of belief. The imagined Scholar seems to be that possibility who seeks to find his ignored self in an energetic quest. Roper (1969) says:

The age is in a condition which precludes the recovery of hope and faith, it can at most, little as it in, hope to recover hope, but even that may be a delusion. (p.225)

"The Scholar Gipsy" manifests the possibility of good dreams in a bad time, and if the poem somehow doubts the validity of such dreams, it is never against it and even pleas for it. After all, it is what the Scholar Gipsy dreams and hopes to achieve.

To dream of a good future, man needs an active mind. The usual current of modern world with its full materialistic desires makes men of the "burning plain" act like a machine. There is no space left for faith or imagination because men are wearied by both the bliss and pain of life as well as a thousand schemes that tire their brains. Thus, the creativity has vanished and people's mind cannot find out any hope to bring buried self to the surface and act according to it: "Till having used our nerves with bliss and teen/ And tried upon a thousand schemes our wit" ("Scholar Gipsy" 146-7).

What Arnold emphasizes most in "The Scholar Gipsy" is the plea for active mind and the necessity of the quest to find the genuine self. The very application of the word "Gipsy" with its Hindu origin refers to the mysterious arts and

the traditional wisdom implying an active, working brain: "His mates, had art to rule as they desired/ The workings of man's brain" (44-5).

The poem begins and ends with an activity, a plea for the "quest" rather than a mere exposition of a hopeless reflection: "Go, for they call you, shepherd, from the hill;/ Go, shepherd, and untie the wattled cotes!" (1-2). The Shepherd is the alter-ego of Arnold who summons us for the quest to find our genuine selves.

It is explicitly a call for search and activity, not the activity of the routine life; but a personal and private search for the elevation of man's buried life. The speaker elaborates upon the "quest" to which the shepherd is summoned to do at night when his daily work is done, at night where his mind is not occupied with the trivialities which have actually damaged the true self and one must cast them out to be pure and get nearer to his true origin.

The shepherd at the beginning of the poem is the norm to whom all other characters are supposed to refer in their actions and life style. Arnold points out that it is not possible to dissociate contemplation, imagination and feeling wholly from the workaday life and action. The modern perplexing affairs have dried the imaginative faculty and completely have dissociated it from the routine life.

The quest itself includes the combination of the energetic activity and a nightly imaginative work of the Gipsies. The Scholar Gipsy is in the search of the unified faculty which has been separated from the life of the Victorian victims. The Scholar is weary of pursuing only the Hebraistic actions of Oxford and seeks the Gipies who represent the unified power of imagination:

Who, tired of knocking at preferment's door

One summer-morn forsook

His friends, and went to learn the gipsy's lore (35-8)

In his Oxford days, the Scholar feels a sense of agitation and unrest because of the incompatibility between the harsh, intellectual, Hebraistic way of life with his delicate, beating inner self. He leaves Oxford and searches for a new life with which he feels a greater affinity. Mental activity is what the practical, physical activity of the Victorian life lacked and the Scholar is in the quest of it. The desire for a clam, shady place to begin the mental activity is the strong motive of the quest. Arnold finds the affinity of the Scholar in Glanvil's *Vanity of Dogmatizing* with himself and feels the necessity of a great action: the quest to reach the ignored, forsaken mental activity.

According to Michael Thorpe (1969), the lost thing that both the Scholar and Arnold are seeking is the imaginative power which can awaken the dormant minds and will "bind and unify all which the age lacks" (p.87). "Because thou hadst-what we, alas, have not" ("Scholar Gipsy" 100).

Arnold flies from Empedocles whose mind was the slave of the scepticism of the modern mind. It is true, however, that Empedocles also ventures to climb the mountain to find an opportunity to wrestle with himself and liberate his imagination, and he is also similar to "The Scholar Gipsy" since he belongs to the past age of superstitious Aberglaube and the world of miracles (*Empedocles* I. i, 112), but, unlike the Scholar, he has kept the contamination of the skepticism and intellectualism and has denied his religious ethics. He embraces the materialistic hypothesis as set out in the last three stanzas of "In Utramque Paxatus" (I. ii, p.176). Empedocles destroys his venture by keeping his intellectualism.

"The Scholar Gipsy", on the other hand, leaves his intellectual life wholly and seeks only the lost imagination. This is a step forward to find his genuine self. The Scholar, at first, uncontaminated his past life which was really the great obstacle to reach his true self, and now is freely and creatively he starts his quest to find the truth by pursuing the life of the imaginative Gipsies. He is freely seeking sequestered corners to activate his mental ability ("Scholar Gipsy" I, 71), and roam the hills and rocks with a lap of flower. Wilson Knight (1955) says, "In religious phraseology, the Scholar Gipsy has faith. His faith is less intellectual than instinctive, an impulse, and is freedom, and pushes forward" (p.58).

Still nursing the unconquerable hope,

Still clutching the inviolable shade,

With a free onward impulse brushing through

("Scholar Gipsy" 209-11)

The Scholar's quest seems to be an instinctive impulse reacting against the intellectual, doubt-stricken life of the "burning plain." He instinctively uncontaminates his past by leaving the modern Hebraistic Victorian plain. It is a practical reaction against the life which has no affinity with the Scholar's inner self. Arnold shows the Scholar's quest to point the necessity of a renewal, a rebirth in the Victorian passive life.

It is a trip to the forest glade and what it specifically offers is an escape from the battle and the chance to give oneself up to thought. So, Arnold's poetic landscape proposes a "quest". Each man must break the chain of necessity imposed on him by setting on the storm-tossed sea of life or by engaging full heatedly in the strife of the plain. Stuart P. Sherman (1917) believes,

Man must return up the life stream, following the hints of the buried self, passing through the sequestered glade-perhaps pausing for refreshment by thinking things over and making the final steep and difficult ascent to the mountain top throne of the truth (p.60).

Apparently Arnold believes in what Epictetus in Part II of his *Discourses* mentions. He points out that however pleasant an inn or a meadow may be a man should not linger there too long; he should continue with his real business, which is to get to his spiritual home. There is a world of difference between the merrymaking of the strayed revelers

who would stay too long in meadows to enjoy their lives, and achieve the mission in which "The Scholar Gipsy" tries to find his genuine self. Arnold's Scholar Gipsy confronts the incomplete, defective western intellectualism with the lost true self. Paul Edwards(1962) believes that it is the search for "the vegitation and liveliness of the Dionysian culture" which is in sharp contradiction with the practical Roman, Apollonian, Victorian dried society (p.67). The too academic culture of modern life has buried the deeper creative wisdom of human beings and the Scholar with his mission is going to cry the availability and possibility of its revival.

The Scholar decides to kindle his mind into powers beyond the limited world of academic intellectualism. He is searching the intuitive power of the east. He has been equipped with other instruments of knowledge, with the secret unknown to the world and half-known to him. It is half-known to him because he has not still reached the imaginative power, and unknown to the world since people ignore it wholly.

The decisive spirit of the speaker in "The Scholar Gipsy" implies the urgency of the quest. To sharpen his imagination, the speaker reads the "often-read tale" and this is the way he enters the world in the Victorian practical world. The Scholar who is another quester is "rapt" (119); that is, dedicated to follow the destroyed life of imagination. His life is not an easy, negative waiting, and in order to create a balanced, true self, starts to attach himself to the world of intuition. Leavis (1945) believes, "while his friends live bellow in warmth, in their eternal week-end, he sets to search for the hidden half of human nature" (p.12).

The scholar fights to find the lost element:
And once, in winter, on the couseway chill
Where home through flooded fields foot-travelers go,
Have I not pass'd there on the wooden bridge
Wrapt in thy clack and battling with snow,
Thy face towards Hinksey and its wintry ridge?
Turn'd once to watch, while thick the snowflakes fall,
The line of festal light in Christ-Christ-Church hall
Then sought thy straw in some sequester's drange.
(112-121)

The wisdom which the scholar strives to gain is old, and most importantly nature-rooted, and, therefore, it demands a situation of its own to be captured, a situation that is offered by nights. It is to be undertaken by night to be nearer to the source of the object of the quest: the lore, the magic, the wisdom of the gipsies. The wisdom is a kind of secret which needs "heaven-sent moments," as Arnold says and adds to Glanvill's story. According to David L. Eggenschwiler (1967), the Scholar waits for the spark exactly because of this important fact (p.11). This spark is the integral part of the Gipsies by which they can influence men's thought. It is the complementary element to the active, practical life of the day time of which Victorian victims are ignorant. "They can bind them to what thoughts they will" (p.48).

It is the imaginative wisdom at the top of Romanticism and acts to enliven the hidden self. This knowledge attacks the one-sided intellectual men and is expressed in the exaltation of imagination. To quote Dyson "it is the enlightenment of the minds, the return to Hellenism" (p.21). The Scholar Gipsy has found dry and rationalistic Victorian intellectualism unsatisfactory and is seeking a new kind of awareness where Hellenism, imagination, and faith join the action of Hebraism and save his genuine self. The oriental wisdom according to Culler (1966) "represents any kind of divine or natural lore such as cannot be gathered from books but can be gathered intuitively from the world of nature, and has the revolutionary ardour" (p.183).

The use of word "spark" supports this notion. In *Manfred* Byron uses the term "Promethean Spark" which has the changing function. In "Scholar Gipsy," Arnold tries to capture this faculty and activate it. It is not a negative waiting for the spark to fall, it is rather an energetic quest to awaken that spark. The Scholar's quest of the gipsies along with the speaker's call to shepherds to follow the Scholar, all signify the positive action to enliven the dormant faculty and save the buried self. To be awakened, the "spark" needs a world of its own, a world of imaginative calmness, natural scenes and retired places. The process, indeed, is Arnoldian: the rendering of a mood in the situation where the mood is actually experienced.

The speaker energetically decides to haunt that spark. He withdraws to a nook far from the cries of sheep and the reapers. He withdraws from noise and light of the crowded day to await the renewal of the lost faculty.

The Scholar himself prepares such a condition. He lies with a lap of flower as the speaker lies in a boat. Here the emphasis is on the sameness of the speaker's and the Scholar's posture. In this way Arnold wants to imply that to be nearer to the imaginative world, there needs some basic requirements. The object of the "quest" for the two questers can be found in a calm place. Not only the speaker but also the Scholar move through the landscape of natural scenery and prepare their grounds to find their buried selves.

Or in my boat I lie
Moored to the cool bank in the sammerheats.
'Mid wide grass meadows which the sunshine fills,
And watch the warm, green-muffled Cumner hill,
And wonder if thou haunt's their shy retreats. (65-70)

The place is also dark, when the "green" is "moon-blanch'd": Cross and recross the strips of moon-blanch'd green" (9). The Scholar is also seen "on summer nights" (73). The fact that the eyes of the Scholar are dark emphasizes a calm, imaginative atmoshpere where the mind of the person is not in the chains of any antinatural factors: "There, where down cloudy cliffs, though sheets of/ shy trafficers, the dark Iberians come" (246-7).

Whenever there is a quest for imaginative faculty, there is a dark place with its peace. Only twice in the poem light appears and it is when there is no talk of the search. One is *the sun image* of the first stanza, with the references to the "Scarlet popies," which connotes a civilized nature and not a wild one and the others when the Greek ship is seen at "sunrise" from which the intuitive Tyrian trader escapes. The Gipsies are the true companions of the dark, cool places. "And roam, the world with that wild brotherhood" (38).

The Scholar himself picks the "green-muffled Cumner hills" (69) pointing on to the dark Iberians who are descending from their "cloudy cliffs" (248). The Scholar has become a part of the forest where the feeding black bird is not disturbed by his presence:

Above the forest-ground called Thessaly-

The blackbird, Picking food,

Sees thee, nor stops his meal, nor fears at all; (114-16)

Arnold asks the Scholar to avoid the "darkling plain" so that his desire for the quest may not be weakend:

Still fly, plunge deeper in the bowering wood

Averse, as Dido did with gestrue sturn

From her false friend's approach in Hades turn,

Wave us away, and keep thy solitude! (205-9)

Another quester, the Tyrian trader, makes his own use of the dark, secluded environment to catch his desired spark and then discourse his true self. Nature's darkness, and cold hold no terror for the Scholar or Tyrian Trader. The Tyrian Trader feels at home on the deeps. Earlier in his poems Arnold refers to the inhabitants of the forest glade who act according to their genuine selves. These people are mostly children and youths. In his quest, the Scholar Gipsy meets only these people. This means that in pursuing the life of the Gipsies, the Scholar has saved his buried life from the contamination of Hebraistic world.

Children, who early range these slopes and late

For creases from the rills,

Have known thee eying, all an April-day, (105-7)

The simple people who are living in a close contact with nature also see him because they share the wisdom which the Scholar is seeking: "Shepherd, have met him on the Hurst in Spring" (59). The poet also sees him due to his creative imagination, and energetic life result from the awakened "spark":

And once, in winter, on the causeway chill

Where home through flooded fields foot-travelers go,

Have I not passed thee on the wooden bridge, (120-3)

In the third scene the speaker says, "And I myself-seem half to know thy looks": The speaker confesses explicitly that through being close to natural lores, he has become similar to the Scholar Gipsy: "And we imagine thee exempt from age/ And living as thou liv'ston Glanvil's page" (8-9). The created mood of the "forest glade" that the follows the hints of the buried self, is actually the prescribed solution and the cure of the wounds of the "burning plain." All of the questers in "The Scholar Gipsy" except the final Tyrian Trader are the symbols for that prescription. They imply that to get rid of the present situation and find the genuine self, one must seek to activate his dormant faculty of imagination just like what the quester does in "The Scholar Gipsy".

Regarding the importance of the natural scenery of "The Scholar Gipsy" and its forest-glade situation, Randal keenan says, "Arnold came to see the contemporary problems as essentially social and cultural ones. In his great despair, he gazed fondly into pastoral settings similar to those in "The Scholar Gipsy" (85). Arnold himself in his *Culture* and *Anarchy* speaks of, "the Greek idea of beauty and of human nature perfect on all sides [which] adds to itself a religious and devout energy" (V).

Culler believes that the main function of the Scholar in the first part of the poem is reflected in the "Vision". Lines 51 to 130, are to hypotatize the speaker's retired mood (182). The speaker is Arnold the Prophet who shows people a model of a perfect, right society in the guise of the Shepherd at the beginning of the poem. He mentions the vision of the Scholar to represent the quest for the genius self. The symbol of the Shepherd is only an abstract one and the speaker tries to concretize and analyze it through the magnified Vision by the Scholar. Before the Vision there is only an unidentified quest and a spark from heaven which has not fallen yet. From the speaker's dream onward the unidentified model is associated with faith, hope, and purpose which are the elements of that quest. Roper (1969) says, "the dream of the Scholar is the true image of the world of being to the inhabitants of the world of becoming in the "darkling plain" (p.221).

The happy "dream" of the Scholar's "unclouded joy" is pushed into "the long happy dream" of a barren life. The dream acts as a high belief which is to destroy the light ones. The maximum contribution of the imaginative "quest" done by the dream is to make the vicious movement of the self stop before it leads to its future evil consequences. It seems to act like a catalyst to make the buried self active. Arnold creates a situation of the "forest glade" to confront

with the arid "darkling plain" and the barren self. In this case he influences the dormant faculty of human heart and awaits for its better future condition.

The object of the "quest" is created in the Vision and it proves that it is not very different from the capability to dream of a good future.

Obviously, the dream vanishes soon:

But what - I dream! Two hundred years are flown
Since first thy story ran through Oxford halls

And thou from earth art gone
Long since, and in some quiet churchgard laid.
(131-6)

But what is worth mentioning is that there is only a single stanza in which the dream is repudiated as a mere illusion. To fulfill his desired plan which is the influence of that imaginative vision on the genuine self, Arnold does not leave the speaker frustrated in his real world. The dream is for the speaker a powerful shock which makes him continue imaginatively in accordance with that ideal in the real world. It seems that the imaginative story has influenced his genuine self as it is supposed for the Victorian victims as well. There follows nine stanzas where the substance of that dream is regained. Culler (1966) says, "The structure is the vision, the loss of vision, and the recreation of it in a different mood" (p.185). It is also safe to say that the speaker is the physician, the Vision is the prescription, and the world of the Shepherd or the final Tyrian Trader is the Utopian model or the cure.

The validity of the "Vision" is so strong that the speaker is now already with the object of the "quest". The poet is like the Scholar with his book and a Gipsy in the field. Now he is as solitary as the Scholar and, like the Gipsies, he is a wonderer.

Immediately in the next stanza after the awakening, the speaker emphasizes the vitality of the soul of the quest. He is himself a quester, implying that his genuine self has been affected: "No, no, thou hast not felt the lapse of hours" (14). The intensity of the vision is so strong that it continues even in the most real aridity of the Victorian world where Goethe is present.

There is a full range of accounts concerning the position of the real world which is in a sharp contrast with the "forest glade" of the Vision. In such a condition one finds the speaker still keeping on his quest. Thus, the "quest" toward the imaginative world is proved to be useful and it really works. The social barren self cannot dominate it. The dream has not been vague in enlivening the buried self of the speaker. C. H. Leonard (1833) believes that the vision has its positive, constructive function for Arnold even when he feels the sad impression of Goethe, Dichthung and Wahrheit and has its influence on his lost self (119).

It is true that the Scholar Gipsy died when the speaker awakened, but he is reborn in the life of the speaker or in his genuine self without his beginning to dream again. While the speaker is speaking in the full dark atmosphere of doubt, inability and impotency of modern "darkling plain" in the sober light of the day, the Romantic imagination of the dreamer has been changed to a moral truth which is everlasting and has its continuity in such a world. Thus, the shape of that imaginative possibility which is the possibility of hope to discover the buried self through the "quest", has turned out to be more real.

The emphasis is no longer on nature, forest-glade situation, and the scenes of the woods with the reference to the Romantic agents who are elusive and invisible from the eyes of people. Since the dream is like a lesson, or a moral pattern, what is supposed to be done, takes its shape more seriously and with a practical severity. The Vision of the Scholar as an inhabitant of the "forest glade" with emphasis on his imaginative side and, of course, on his true self, turns to be a purposeful wanderer who has preserved his innocent imaginative part in the Victorian "darkling plain." He is seen as a firm, decided agent who is going to protect his genuine self: "Thou hadst one aim, one business, one desire" (152). Here, in the resurrection of the speaker, the imaginary Scholar gets the unity he needs to confront with the confusing real world. The fact that he has changed to a practical man preserving his integrity is shown once more: "Firm to their mark, not spent on other things" (163).

The image of the quest, as it should be, was once manifested in the ideal model of the Scholar through the world of the vision. But as the influence of that ideal, affects the real world, the quester changes also to a more practical person. In order to preserve the gained integrity, or the true self, the decided quester of the reality undertakes some practical functions. The quester now, is a reality of the classical world; the hero of a real civilization. Dido represents a person who rejects her dominant social values which demand a distancing from her genuine self. She is seen in Hades, the real Victorian "burning plain," preserving her integrity.

The ideal quester emerges in the person of the Tyrian Trader, a practical, real agent. The Greek mariners in the story of the Tyrian Trader are the representatives of the unjust and corrupt businessmen in sharp contrast with the Tyrian Trader. He is not in a condition to follow the false society of the Greeks who demand a separation from and the ignorance of the genuine self. In a positive, practical function, the Tyrian Trader seeks another new world, purer and better to contact with.

What is important is that the Tyrian Trader has his own heroic vitality in his triumphant revolt. He shows another invigorating variation upon the escape of the Scholar from his university and going to the woods. As E. K. Brown (1969) says:

That the Tyrian Trader's flight before the clamorous spirit of Greeks is exactly analogous to the Scholar Gipsy's flight before the drink and clatter of the smoke-frock's boors or before the bathers in the abandoned lasher or before the Oxford riders blithe. Both flight express a desire for calm, a desire for aloofness. And little ingenuity is required to discover a similarity between the gipsies and those 'shy traffickers, the dark Iberians,' to whom the Tyrian Trader flies (pp.225-5).

The difference lies in the fact that the Tyrian Trader follows the pattern or the prescription of the vision and preserves his integrity, and then ventures to *hold forth* across the Mediterranean until he passes through the "straits" and finally captures the fresh air of the "North Atlantic" which Empedocles and the Scholar desire but do not achieve. The vision which acts as a prescription in the poem demands a situation of the "forest glade" where one is seen merely as preserving his integrity, or uncontaminating the barriers to reach the genuine self. His only action is to uncontaminate himself and preserve his soul from the "darkling plain's" infections and get nearer to the "forest glade" or keep his genuine self untouched.

The Tyrian Trader, on the other hand, following the prescription of the vision, not only has his own strifes with the Greek mariners and leaves them to saw himself from their infected thoughts, but he also acts in the real world and ventures to enter a new place and witness the "wide glimmering sea" after passing the strait. The Tyrian Trader has learned his lesson in the vision completely and applies it to the world of reality. The result proves the authenticity of the prescription since we see him in the "glimmering sea" when he has found his genuine self. Culler states, "Whereas Dido could not break out of her Hell, the Trader . . . 'straits' and is rewarded with the fresh air" (191).

And day and night held on indignantly
O'er the blue Midland waters with the glade,
Betwixt the Syrtes and soft Sicily,
To where the Atlantic raves
Outside the western straits, and unbent sails
There, where down cloudy cliffs, through sheet of foam.
("Scholar Gipsy" 242-7)

The Tyrian Trader adjusts his desired imaginative world to the real world and achieves a final balance of "forest glade's" innocence and the practicality of the "wide glimmering sea." Sherman (1917) in his *Matthew Arnold: How to know him* gives the reason why Arnold at last turned to ancient worlds and characters in his later works as Tyrian Trader. He says, "Arnold referred to great ancients, not only for being positive and critical, but also for achieving what we too must achieve if we are to carry through our modern experiment successfully . . . the union of imagination and reason" (p.21).

The Tyrian Trader's escape is accompanied by bringing back into the touch of reality; the combination of the imagination with calture. He gathers the various imaginative supplies throughout his "quest" and mixes it with the world of reality to use them practically and it is in this way that he reaches wholeness. Irving Babbit (1995) believes:

What Arnold attacked in "The Scholar Gipsy" was his lack of wholeness. In working out his model of a rounded human nature that he sets up for imitation he turns to the past, for if the positivist is not willing that the past should be imposed on him as a dogma he admits its validity as experience. It is many-sided for this or that aspect of it we need to go to this or that country or individual or period. (p.2)

This is actually the reason of the Trader's escape to other countries where he gains his wholeness. Babbit (1995) quotes a sentence from Arnold himself, saying that the Tyrian Trader's escape to a purer culture shows the ideal position of imaginative reason which he sought. The Trader grants his bales to the world of reality and mixes the imaginative story of the "quest" with the reality of the world of reason: "the dark Iberian come;/ And on the beach undid his cordid bales" (249-50).

The "cordid bales" of the Tyrian Trader bear the goods which are likely to be perishable and since the poem does not mention what specifically they contain, it bears a mystery and magic background that the whole poem is supposed to handle through the introduction of the "quest". It shows that if a person is a true quester, he will be rewarded with the discovery of the genuine self. it speaks of the authenticity of success in finding the buried self through the quest.

As Ilana Blumberg points out, the course of development in Arnold's Scholar from his first stage up to the Tyrian Trader, proves a line of maturity in Arnold's spiritual condition. After the publication of *The Origin of Species* by Darwin, Blumberg (1997) says:"Arnold imagines a chain not just of intellectual progress, of faulty epistems yielding to sounder ones, but also of spiritual progression, a process towards perfection, an evolution. Arnold reveals a real, practical concern for social/ moral change as well as intellectual." (2 of 2).

III. CONCLUSION

The final simile in "The Scholar Gipsy" clearly shows the possibility of the hope which Arnold first tries to raise and then in his *The Function of Criticism at the Present Time* he raise the possibility of the involved intellectualism and the conjection of moral and intellectual responsibility. The possibility of an ideal position in the "darkling plain" of

Victorian age is shown through the fact that the Tyrian Trader's search after following the prescription manifested in the vision, has its final reward. He has something to present to the "shy traffickers" which means that he has found his true self. the quest for the genuine self has been proved to be positive and fruitful. In mentioning the Iberian people, Arnold once more insists on his ideal position of the self. At the beginning of the poem Arnold shows this perfect model, the introduction of the Shepherd with his day work and nightly imagination. The nature of the true self is repeated in the guise of the "Shy traffickers". A group of people who are both traffickers with the connotation of work, practicality, and energy, and are shy in the sense of softness, moderation, timidity and simplicity. Thus, the quester who is himself a shy trader is seen on the verge of finding his Utopia. A situation for which the speaker at the beginning of the poem desperately invokes a vision as a hint of revival. this Utopia is a self-including both in feeling and practice. It is the embodiment of that "Sparkling Thames" to which the Scholar Gipsy earlier in the poem alludes suggesting both length and depth.

The final simile is clearly the result of the quest for the genuine self. It proves that following the Gipsies' imaginative faculty which the Victorian people lacked, alongside with their practicality makes a balanced norm which constitutes a genuine self. The succession of the Tyrian Trader clearly connotes the possibility of one's succession for finding his genuine self through the quest, a quest for the missing part of the self to which the speaker refers through the image of the vision.

The real picture of the genuine self with the maturity and its real life appears later in *Sohrab and Rustum.* "Scholar Gipsy" is the image of the possibility of man's rebirth after his long sleep of his passive life. Sohrab is a manifestation of that second birth. As F. L. Lucas says, "the genuine self, here, means the life of natural magic and moral profundity" (49).

REFERENCES

[1] Abjadian, A. (1995). "Arnold's 1853 Preface: Poetic Practice & Theory." *Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities* (Fall & Spring), 23-40.
[2] Arnold, Matthew. (1960). The Complete Prose Works of Matthew Arnold. Ed. R. H. Super: Michigan: Michigan University Press.
[3] Arnold, Matthew. (1989). The Yale Manuscript of Matthew Arnold. Ed. S.O.A. Ullmann. Michigan: Michigan: Michigan University Press.
[4] Arnold, Matthew. (1960). The Complete Prose Works of Matthew Arnold. Ed. R. H. Super: Michigan: Michigan University Press.
[5] Arnold, Matthew. (1902). Essays in Criticism. Ed.R.H. Super: Michigan: Michigan University Press.
[6] Babbitt, Irving. (1995). Irving Babbitt on Matthew Arnold. New Brunswick: Transaction Publishers.
[7] Blumberg, Ilana. (1997). "On Matthew Arnold's Function of Criticism." *Literary Journal* 2: 1-6.
[8] Brooke, Stopford. (1989). Four Victorian Poets. New York: Russell & Sussell.
[9] Brown, E. E. (1969). Studies in the Texts of Mathew Arnold's Works. New York: Russell.
[10] Coulling, S. M. B. (1969)."Matthew Arnold's 1853 Preface: It's Origin and Aftermath." *Victorian Studies* 7: 234-242.
[11] Edwards, Paul. (1962). "Hebraism, Hellenism and "The Scholar Gipsy." *Durham University journal* 45: 21-7.
[12] Keenan, Randal. (1965). The Poetry of Arnold. New York: Monarch Press,
[13] Knight, G. Wilson. (1955). "The Scholar Gipsy: An Interpretation." *RES, N.S.* 6: 53-62.
[14] Leavis, F. R. (1945). The Common Pursuit. London: Chatto & Windus.
[15] Lucas, Frank L. (1966). Ten Victorian Poets. 3d. Hamden, Conn., Archon Books.
[16] Thorpe, Michael. (1969). Matthew Arnold. London: Montague Mouse.
[17] Warren, A. H. (1950). English Poetic Theory: 1825-1865. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Bahee Hadaegh, born in Shiraz/ Iran, 08.01.1974. Ph.D. English literature, drama (NSW, Australia, Wollongong University, 2009). M.A. English literature (Shiraz, Iran, Shiraz State University, 2000). B.A. English literature (Kerman, Iran, Kerman State University, 1998).

She is presently working as Assistant Professor at department of English Literature, Shiraz State University, Shiraz, Iran. She is a full-time faculty member teaching Literature courses to M.A. and B.A. students. She is also thesis examiner of Ph.D. candidates. She has 9 years of teaching experience at different universities in addition to part-time jobs at IELTS centre at Wollongong University, NSW, Australia. More than four years of constant cooperation with Translation offices, translating literary, philosophical, technical, and medical texts.

Her specialty is Drama, Operas, and Transnational Literature focusing on Eastern Mysticism and Western Literature. Her idea about the effective applicability of literature in moral enhancement of societies is what supports the majority of her researches.

Using Corpora for Error Correction in EFL Learners' Writing

Qinqin Luo

School of Foreign Languages, Southwest Petroleum University, Chengdu 610500, China

Ying Liao

School of Foreign Languages, Southwest Petroleum University, Chengdu 610500，China

Abstract—**This study reports on a small-scale study exploring the effects of using corpora in the process of revising essays in English as a foreign language (EFL). 30 undergraduate students from two College English Classes in China participate in the experiment. The BFSU CQP web is used for assisting experimental group to correct the lexico-grammatical errors in writing. The findings reveal that corpora as reference resources are more helpful than the online dictionary in helping learners make accurate corrections and reduce errors in free production. The following questionnaires indicate that participants generally show positive attitudes toward corpus use in writing. However, there are also some challenges to overcome while using corpora such as too much time spent in analyzing data, too many examples in the concordance lines and so on. These findings suggest the need for more well-planned corpus-based activities to help learners benefit as much as possible from corpora-assisted learning.**

Index Terms—**corpora, error correction, EFL learners, writing**

I. INTRODUCTION

A lack of grammatical or lexical accuracy in writing is a major problem for English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. In China, the lexico-grammatical errors are commonly seen in EFL learners' writing, which to some extent prevents learners from producing high-quality essays. Just as Yoon (2008, p.45) states, the mastery of lexical and grammatical accuracy can lead to "an increased confidence in themselves as L2 writers as well as a possible increase in the quality of their writing". However, providing the correct forms directly to learners may not always be the only, or actually the most effective, way of correction for it may prevent the learners from testing alternative hypotheses. And it may also lead to learners' laziness, which is not beneficial to the development of their linguistic competence. Thus the most effective way for both learners and teachers may be "making learners try to discover the right forms". (Corder, 1981 p.11).

Data-driven learning (DDL), proposed by Johns (1991), is considered as an effective way to help learners solve this problem since it advocates inductive, discovery-oriented learning. In this process, students act as researchers to analyze corpus examples and engage in autonomous and exploratory learning. Over the past decade, corps consultation in the classroom has been regarded by some L2 writing researchers as one of the most promising areas that can inform L2 writing pedagogy and broaden language teaching and learning (Bloch, 2007; Conrad, 2008; Granath, 2009; Yoon, 2011). Numerous studies (Coxhead & Byrd, 2007; Flowerdew, 2010; Tribble, 2009) have shown that corpus examples are effective in helping learners with lexico-grammatical patterns to enhance L2 learner writing performance. However the empirical studies about actual corpus use in learners' writing in China are rarely seen due to the following reasons: firstly, corpus tools are not easy enough for learners to use (Kosem, 2008) and texts sampled in corpora are so difficult that learners can hardly comprehend, especially for lower-level learners. Secondly, a considerable number of teachers don't have a pedagogical background in using corpora. What is more, many EFL learners in China are accustomed to being told directly what to do by a teacher and not willing to assume the responsibility for their learning (Boulton, 2009b).To tackle this problem, the corpus for learners to use should be carefully selected and sufficient training is also necessary to help learners benefit as much as possible from using corpora in writing. The present study attempts to apply corpus use in EFL learners' error correction in writing by providing them with easy-handled corpora and sufficient training on corpus consultation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Essay writing has been increasingly considered as a process rather than a final product since process approach was proposed at the end of 1970s. This approach advocates that writing should be learned through the writing process itself and concentrates on the development and expression of ideas for the purpose of developing the writers' ability of discovering, analyzing and solving problems so as to improve their writing ability(Deng, et.al, 2003). In the whole writing process, revision strategies play a significant part in learners' writing development. However, it's usually

difficult for EFL learners to identify errors themselves, so "most approaches to self-correction do not leave learners totally to their own devices, but require teachers to provide some support" (Todd, 2001, p.94) This support usually means detecting and pointing out the errors such as underlining the errors or informing them of the nature of the errors. Then learners are supposed to correct the errors on their own. Some learners do the correction work just by intuition which usually results in the wrong correction, while some others try to seek support from resources such as dictionaries, reference books. In recent years there has been some research on learners' use of corpora as reference tools to solve linguistic problems in writing since DDL was advocated in language teaching and learning.

Among these studies, some researchers mainly focus on students' lexical errors. For instance, in Todd's (2001) study, 25 postgraduate students at a Thai university self-corrected lexical errors coded by their teacher by consulting a web-based corpus. The findings revealed that these learners were able to induce valid patterns from self-selected concordances and to use these patterns in self-correcting errors. But another research done by Gaskell & Cobb (2004) concentrates on grammatical errors. This study investigated the role of using concordance feedback in correcting L2 learners' sentence-level writing errors. In their research, 20 Chinese EFL participants in an English writing course handed in ten essays in a fifteen-week semester and revised essays by referring to corpus examples. The results showed that "adapting concordances for lower level learners' grammar development is less straightforward than for lexical development" (Gaskell & Cobb, 2004, p.317). However, the results were also positive, because learners got a higher accuracy rate of error correction when the online concordance links for errors with instructions were provided to them.

There are also some studies concerning various types of errors which include lexical errors, grammatical errors, and capitalization errors. For example, Chambers and O'Sullivan (2004) conducted a research project involving native English speaking learners of French, aiming to investigate the effects of corpus use in correcting various errors and learners' evaluation of the process of corpus consultation. In this study, a small semi-specialized corpus was used as reference sources by 8 graduate students to correct errors marked by their teacher after a 3-week training in concordancing. The findings were positive since 64 changes (75%) were made correctly among all the changes (85) that they made. And after that, O'Sullivan and Chambers (2006) conducted another similar research on 14 undergraduate French major students. In this research, 122 changes (about 73%) were correct among the 166 changes they made through corpus consultation. In the two studies, corpus consultation was confirmed to be useful in reducing native language interference even though learners can correct all kinds of errors. What's more, it proved that corpus use was more useful than dictionaries and grammar books while correcting errors relevant to prepositions and idiomatic expressions. When it came to the evaluation of corpus consultation, the undergraduates were slightly less positive than the post-graduate students. This is consistent with Granath's (2009) opinion that the advanced learners benefited more from corpus use.

In spite of the above-mentioned positive effects of corpus consultation, Tono, Y. et. al (2014) showed that not all types of errors were appropriate for correction by consulting corpora. In their research, they concentrated on three error types while learners used corpus in the process of revising compositions in English as a foreign language. The findings revealed that "there was a significant difference in the accuracy rate among the three error types when the students consulted the corpus: omission and addition errors were easily identified and corrected, whereas misformation errors were low in correction accuracy"(Tono, Y. et.al, 2014, p.147). In addition, Chang & Sun's (2009) experiment indicated that students behaved much better in the collocation use (verb + preposition) in the proofreading tasks with the support of scaffolding prompts, which proved the necessities of teachers' guidance and instruction especially for lower-level students. These studies indicate that the type of tasks and proper training may influence the effects of corpus consultation thus teachers should take the factors into consideration while giving students corpus-based assignments.

Besides the above, Pérez-Paredes, Sánchez-Tornel and Alcarez Calero (2012) conducted a research from a different perspective, which explored 24 EFL learners' search behavior in BNC and other web services. It was conducted in the form of tracking learners' interaction with corpus-based materials during focus-on-form activities tackling the use of English cleft sentences. The first group used only the BNC, while the second group used other web services and/or guided corpus consultation. The results revealed that the second group showed better performance, but it was also found that POS tags, regular expressions or wildcards were not used by both groups, and they just used the very simple functions of the BNC just like they were using Google. There is also another study Chang (2014) which analyzed leaners' preference for corpus. It was a case study on the autonomous use of general and specialized corpora for academic writing by Non-native English speaking (NNES) graduate students in an EFL setting. The results indicated that both corpora helped students a lot as reference resources but the specialized corpus was regarded better due to its direct relevance to academic writing. From it, the participants could naturally learn more about the writing conventions of their discipline. These two studies reveal that the selection of corpus should be cautious. Firstly it should be easy to handle just like Google, and then it should meet learners' needs.

It can be clearly seen from the above studies that although these factors such as error types, learners' language proficiency, teachers' guidance or training, types of corpora may influence the outcome of corpus use, it is also rewarding to apply corpora in error correction in writing. However, are corpora better than the traditional resources as reference tools in helping learners correct errors? Studies about this comparison are relatively few. Although Boulton (2009a) compared the effects of using traditional sources and corpus data in language leaning for reference purposes, his focus was on linking adverbials but not on errors. Thus more empirical studies are needed to determine whether

corpus use is more effective than the traditional sources in improving L2 writing. The present study is an empirical one selecting BFSU CQP web, which can provide user-friendly interfaces and easily accessible and readable corpora, as the reference resource for learners. And it attempts to investigate whether the use of corpora is more helpful in helping lower-level EFL learners correct lexical-grammatical errors and reducing the number of errors in free writing. Meanwhile, learners' perceptions about corpus use are investigated in the form of questionnaires.

III. METHOD

A. Research Questions

The present study was designed to investigate the effects and student's evaluation of corpora-assisted error correction in EFL learners' writing. The following research questions are addressed:

1) Will error correction with the help of concordances reduce errors in free production? Which one is more useful in helping learners reduce errors in free production, consulting corpora or consulting the online dictionary to correct errors?

2) Is corpora-assisted error correction more useful in making the right corrections compared with dictionary-assisted error correction?

3) What are EFL learners' attitudes toward the corpora-assisted error correction?

B. Participants

The study was conducted in a lower intermediate level compulsory College English course. 30 students (20 males, 10 females) participated in the study. 15 of them from one class are in the experimental group, and 15 from another class are in the control group. The participants in the study were all native speakers of Mandarin Chinese who have been learning English as a foreign language (EFL) for 7 years. They have taken part in College English Test Band 4 (CET 4 for short) in July, 2014, and all of their scores range from 400 to 424(The total is 710). And their writing score in the previous final exam ranges from 7 to 10(The total score is 15). They are carefully selected to ensure there are no significant differences in language proficiency and learning motivation. An independent t-test was performed to examine their average score in the experimental group and the control group and the results showed that the two groups were equivalent in both their language proficiency and writing competence. They have to take CET 4 at the end of the term, thus both the two groups have strong motivation to improve their language proficiency especially wring competence.

C. Instruments

1. BFSU CQP web

CQP web is a web-based fourth generation corpus analysis tool, "intended to address the conflicting requirements for usability and power in corpus analysis software" (Hardie, 2012, p.380). It is easy to handle enabling technically less competent learners to exploit corpora just like browsing web pages. The functions provided by CQP web are including: collocations, concordancing, frequency lists, keywords and so on (Xu & Wu, 2014)

The Beijing Foreign Studies University (BFSU) CQP web was set up by Mr. Wu and maintained by Dr. Xu and Mr. Wu of the National Research Centre for Foreign Language Education. Until March 7th 2015, thirty six corpora are available. When learners log on to BFSU CQP web (http://124.193.83.252/cqp/) they can have easy access to a list of corpora. By choosing a corpus they can see the screen (as in Figure 1), where they can perform queries or select another menu option. And they can go back to the main menu easily and choose a different corpus to consult. For this particular experiment, we choose the BFSU CQP web for the experimental group and instruction is given on how to correct errors using the tool by way of a revision manual. Teachers also encouraged students to focus on the other types of errors to make themselves more familiar with the corpus interface, and in this way they can also know better about how to interpret the concordance results.

Menu	Brown corpus (AmE 1961) : *powered by CQPweb*

Fig.1: The screenshot of Brown corpus indexed in BFSU CQPweb

Compared with other online corpus, BFSU CQP web has its own advantages: Firstly, EFL learners can have easy access to multiple corpus examples. Just as Frankenberg-Garcia (2012) stated, multiple concordances are more useful than dictionary definitions in helping participants to correct the use of words that they knew but frequently misused. And the research also proved that multiple corpus examples seem to help more consistently than single corpus examples in autonomous error correction. Thus multiple corpus examples presented by BFSU CQP web can help EFL learners better in correcting errors than a single online corpus. Secondly, the parallel corpora can function as a dictionary when learners are confused about some new words in the concordance lines or unable to express what they want to convey in target language.

2. Online dictionary

Traditionally learners correct the lexico-grammatical errors by referring to dictionaries. In dictionaries, learners can get not only definitions, collocations, synonyms, antonyms and usages, but also the grammatical information of target words. Chan (2012) investigated the use of grammatical information in a monolingual dictionary by advanced Cantonese ESL learners, which prove that it was useful in helping learners determine the correct use of a word. However, the dictionary that learners use in the research is paper dictionary. According to our investigation, most learners prefer an online dictionary to a paper dictionary for quick reference in this technology-based era. Thus we choose the online dictionary (http://dict.cn/) for the control group to correct errors in their articles. This dictionary not only provides functions of the monolingual dictionaries but also has the advantages of bilingual dictionaries.

D.   Procedure

The following procedure was adopted.

Step 1 Training: from hands-off DDL to hands-on DDL

One teacher-friendly way to encourage students to focus more on error correction, is to train them in methods to query online corpora. Considering all the participants had no prior experience in consulting corpus, we divided the training into two stages. In the first stage, hands-off DDL was adopted. That's to say, students needn't get direct access to corpora at the beginning, but it was the teacher who consulted the corpora and prepared printed materials based on concordance for them. As for the task in the training stage, we firstly required all the participants to complete the same error-correction task. Just as Bernardini (2004) recommended about training, we can start with convergent tasks that lead learners to the same outcome. When learners are more skilled in doing the task, the more divergent, or independent tasks can be assigned to them. Thus the training materials in this stage were like this:

Hands-off DDL tasks: Correct the following wrong sentences with the help of corpus examples below. All the following examples are from Corpora in BFSU CQP web. (accessed 1/9/2014, http://124.193.83.252/cqp/)

1) Despite he is lazy, he is good at all his subjects.

a. President Musharraf seems to to be hanging on despite the fact that the vast majority of Pakistanis don't want him.

b. Amazingly, despite the fact that many of Kerry's congressional colleagues had faced similar….

c. Today the source nation keeps almost everything despite the fact that a foreign museum or university is usually paying for….

2) He started to take his study seriously since then.

a. The crisis has been renewed since then but the confusion has hardly been compounded.

b. There has been a special fascination since then in the role played by the Supreme Court in that transformation.

c. But a lot has changed since then.

In the second stage, hands-on DDL was adopted. That's to say, learners were required to consult the corpora on their own to accomplish the given tasks out of class after being trained about how to consult the corpora in BFSU CQP web. And then the teacher commented on their performance in error-correction in the class.

Hands-on DDL tasks：Correct the following wrong sentences with the help of BFSU CQP web

1). He introduced an <u>approach to learn</u> English in the meeting.

2). I would <u>appreciate</u> if I could give an early reply.

3). I am glad to tell you I will <u>be graduate</u> from our school.

Step 2 Writing Practice

1) Essay tasks

All the participants were required to finish the writing assignments given by the teacher in the given time and submitted them on time. They were supposed to compose 6 essays in this term. The assignments were mainly argumentative essays.

2) Teachers' guided feedback

The teacher underlined all the lexical-grammatical errors in essays and highlighted those that should be corrected with the help of corpus examples or the online dictionary. Participants were also advised not to limit themselves to the underlined errors. They were encouraged to select words or phrases from their compositions that they were not satisfied with and see whether they could use the corpora or the online dictionary to improve those parts.

3) Learners' autonomous error correction

Learners in the experimental group corrected the highlighted errors by consulting the corpora in BFSU CQP web, and wrote down the correction or the new word or phrase beside the errors of the original essay (highlighting those changes resulted from using the corpus). Learners in the control group referred to the bilingual dictionaries to correct the highlighted errors. Both the sentences with highlighted errors and the revised sentences should be kept for teacher's evaluation. Then they handed in the second version of the essay on time. Besides it, the experimental group still had to record the details of the word they searched, the typical concordance examples and what they discovered. The control group also had to make a record of the results from the dictionaries, making the teacher know whether this correction was based on the dictionary.

As for some errors that were easy to be corrected, such as spelling mistakes, they could correct them directly without referring to any materials. But these were not included into the number of right corrections while calculating the accuracy rate, only those corrections with the assistance of corpus examples or dictionaries being considered.

4) Teachers' evaluation and comment

The teacher evaluated whether the correction was right or not, and found out the factors that may influence the right correction. And then a comment was given on the participants' correction work, and some suggestions were given about how to make right induction from corpus examples and apply the rules into correction work.

Step 3 Questionnaires

A 6-point Likert scale questionnaire was used in this study. The questionnaire included 20 items to which the respondents were required to show their degree of agreement from completely disagree to completely agree. The majority of items were adapted from questionnaires in Yoon & Hirvela (2004) and Huang (2014). The researcher designed the remaining items specially for this study. These items could be divided into 3 parts. The first part was about the positive sides of corpus use in error correction, the second part was about the difficulties in using corpus and the third part was about the overall evaluation of corpus use in writing. All statements were presented in English. At the end of this term, questionnaires were delivered to the experimental group about their perceptions of using corpus for error correction.

E. Data Collection and Analysis

To compare the number of errors in the experimental group and control group, the teacher kept a record of the total number of errors every time when the participants handed in essays. And when learners submitted the revised essays, the number of corrections they made through consulting corpora or the online dictionary and the number of right corrections (accuracy rate) should be also recorded for further analysis. To know the changes in the number of errors in the whole process, the teacher had to calculate the number of errors in 6 essays respectively. Questionnaires were collected immediately after the participants completed them.

IV.   RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A.   Comparison between Two Groups in Total Number of Errors in Writing Tasks
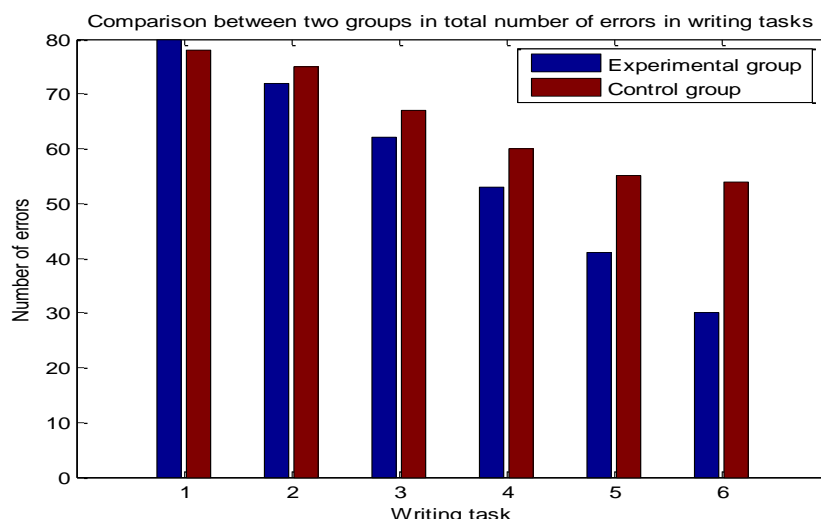
Fig. 2   Comparison between two groups in total number of errors in writing tasks

It can be seen from the above figure that there is a gradual decline in the number of lexico-grammatical errors in both of the two groups. The teacher's focus on lexico-grammatical errors may stimulate participants to pay more attention to errors. They may spend more time in checking after finishing the writing task. However, it seems that corpora-assisted error correction is more useful than dictionary-assisted error correction in helping learners reduce errors in writing. In the first article, the total number of errors committed by the two groups is almost the same, 80 for the experimental group and 78 for the control group. Nonetheless, in the last two articles, the experimental group had much less errors than the control group. Especially in the last writing assignment, the control group had altogether 54 errors, while the experimental group just committed 30 errors, which means 2 errors on average for each participant. The results indicate that corpus examples are more useful in helping learners reduce lexico-grammatical errors in the long run. Since the participants spend much time in analyzing corpus data relevant to their own errors, they may have a deeper impression on these errors and master the right usage of words or phrases better. They may try to avoid the previous errors in the following tasks. However, for the control group, it's sometimes unnecessary to analyze lexical or grammatical rules by themselves since these can be got directly from the dictionaries. According to the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 2001), language input does not become intake unless it is consciously registered. That means that learners cannot learn the grammatical features of a language unless they notice them but the limited examples in the dictionary are insufficient for noticing to take place. Thus they may easily forget what they get from dictionaries, which may result in the repeated errors in articles.

B.   The Accuracy Rate of Corrections in Experimental Group and Control Group
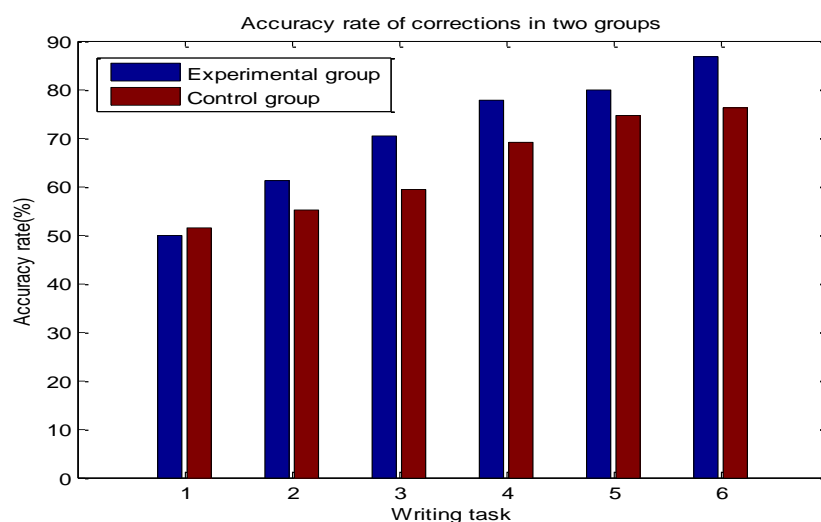
Fig.3   Accuracy rate of corrections learners made in two groups

It can be seen from the above figure that participants' ability to correct lexico-grammatical errors improved with more tasks being finished. The results prove that besides the traditional online dictionary, corpora can be also useful resources for error correction, which provide support for the studies demonstrating that learners are able to make right

corrections according to concordance evidence (Gaskell & Cobb, 2004; Gilmore, 2009). By comparing the online dictionary and corpora, we found that corpora are more useful in assisting learners make more accurate corrections in the long run. At the beginning, the experimental group may not be accustomed to using corpora for error correction and it may be a little hard for them to induce the right language patterns from long lists of corpus examples. While learners in the control group just adopt the traditional way of correcting errors, they needn't spend long time in analyzing data. Thus the accuracy rate is a little higher in the first article. But with more practice in using corpora, the experimental group gradually become more experienced and skilled. In the following five articles, they have got higher accuracy rate than the control group. The results indicate that corpus examples are generally more useful in helping learners make right corrections.

Another thing that should be noted is that although participants are encouraged to rewrite some unsatisfactory phrases or sentences that are not highlighted by the teacher, no one has done this. What they have done is just correcting the highlighted parts. Some participants demonstrate that it is difficult to improve an unmarked piece, which is consistent with Chambers & O'Sullivan's (2004) discovery.

C.   The Positive Effects of Using Corpora in BFSU CQP Web for Error Correction

TABLE1
POSITIVE SIDES OF USING CORPORA IN BFSU CQPWEB

Category	disagree（%）	Agree（%）	M	Std.
Learn the meaning of words	27	73	4.00	1.25
learn the usage of words	7	93	5.13	0.83
Identify linguistic problems in writing autonomously	27	73	4.40	0.99
increase the language awareness	20	80	4.13	0.99
master grammatical knowledge	40	60	3.80	1.21
master usage of phrases	13	87	4.33	0.72
Incidentally learn other new words	20	80	4.40	0.99
Improve the content of writing	67	33	2.80	1.08
Increase confidence in writing	27	73	4.07	1.03
Improve overall writing quality	20	80	4.53	0.92

1. Completely disagree   2. disagree   3. Somewhat disagree   4. Somewhat agree   5. agree   6. Completely agree
1-3：disagree   4-6 agree

All the 15 participants in the experimental group finished the questionnaires. The results of the questionnaires show that a vast majority of learners in experimental group show positive attitudes toward corpora-assisted error correction. About 93% respondents agree that corpus use in writing is helpful to learn the usage of words since the concordance line can show long lists of authentic examples which can help learners discover language patterns better and 87% believe usages of phrases can be also mastered better by being constantly exposed to the expressions. 80% respondents believe that corpus use can increase their linguistic awareness, help them learn other new words incidentally and improve the overall writing quality. But when it comes to learning the meaning of words, only 73% participants agree and 27% think the dictionary may be more useful since learners can obtain the meaning directly without any attempts to guess or induce. As for learning grammar, 40% disagree. For some of them, it may be difficult to work out the grammatical rules from the concordance lines. And sometimes when they want to correct grammatical errors by consulting corpora, they may fail to get what they want. Thus they think it's not very useful to learn grammar via corpus examples. Finally, only 33% participants find corpora useful in improving the content of the essay. Because we just focus on the lexico-grammatical errors in this study, the content is naturally ignored by learners. While evaluating learners' error-correction work, we found the corrections about contents are hardly seen. They really learned nothing about how to improve the content by analyzing corpus examples. To change the present situation, the teacher should increase learners' awareness of improving contents by reading concordance lines and the corpus selected for them should include the relevant genre relevant to the topic of the essay.

D.   The Difficulties Learners Encountered in Corpora-assisted Error Correction

TABLE 2
DIFFICULTIES IN CORPORA-ASSISTED ERROR CORRECTION IN WRITING

Category	disagree（%）	agree（%）	M	Std.
new words in concordance lines	20	80	4.40	1.18
cut-off sentences	27	73	3.93	1.28
Too many examples in concordance	27	73	3.93	0.88
Limited examples in concordance	33	67	3.73	1.39
Lack of concordance technique	40	60	3.60	1.06
Lack of ability to induce rules	27	73	4.20	1.08
Time-consuming in analysing	13	87	4.73	0.96

1. Completely disagree   2. disagree   3. Somewhat disagree   4. Somewhat agree   5. agree   6. Completely agree
1-3：disagree   4-6 agree

Although many participants show positive attitudes toward corpus use, there are still some difficulties which make learners frustrated. About 87% participants report that it's too time-consuming in analyzing data thus they sometimes draw conclusions just based on several examples, which may result in the wrong induction. New words in concordance lines also pose great difficulties to learners especially those with a small vocabulary. They feel frustrated while encountering frequently appeared unfamiliar words. In addition, 73% participants think it is a problem to have too many examples while 67% claim that too limited examples in concordance line may also make learners confused. Furthermore, cut-off sentences and lack of ability to induce rules are also considered as important factors resulting in learners' wrong induction and inappropriate self-correction. Finally, there are still 67% respondents considering that a lack of concordance technique also cause trouble to them. A major reason is lack of training and corpus-based activities. Therefore, more training and well-planned concordance exercises should be provided to help them overcome the above difficulties.

E.   The Overall Evaluation of Corpora-assisted Writing

TABLE 3
OVERALL EVALUATION OF CORPORA-ASSISTED WRITING

Category	disagree（%）	agree（%）	M	Std.
Corpora are better than the online dictionary for error correction in writing.	40	60	3.53	1.46
I will continue using it in future writing.	27	73	4.00	1.20
Overall, it's useful reference resource for writing	100	0	5.07	0.70

1. Completely disagree   2. disagree   3. Somewhat disagree   4. Somewhat agree   5. agree   6. Completely agree
1-3：disagree   4-6 agree

Almost all respondents show different degree of agreement on that corpus is really useful resource for writing. Just as O' Sullivan & Chambers (2006) indicate, corpora can be consulted at any stage of the writing process. For instance, it can be used to check whether an element of writing is correct, whether it expresses the desired meaning, and if not, to find alternatives which can precisely fulfil these functions (Aston, 2001; O'Sullivan & Chambers, 2006). Besides it, it's also helpful in the context of error feedback and self-correction, which has been proved in this study. However, there are still 40% who disagree that corpus is better than the online dictionary since the dictionaries present definitions and even the rules of collocations directly. There are indeed some studies such as Dziemianko (2006) and Chan (2012) claiming that examples in dictionaries can provide information about collocation and colligation, but Frankenberg (2014, p.139) expressed that the best way for language comprehension is "a definition plus examples that specifically contain contextual clues to facilitate understanding rather than examples whose main function is to illustrate collocation and colligation" and the exemplification in dictionaries is not usually repeated, which is not helpful for language production. Thus learners who show negative attitudes to corpus use should be encouraged to develop the habit of using corpora to profit more from this kind of discovery learning since corpus use can also develop learners' cognitive skills and ability to tackle problems on their own. But just as the students in Yoon & Hirvela (2004)'s say, as reference resources, dictionaries and corpora can sometimes complement each other. They can choose the appropriate type of material according to the given tasks. Finally, 73% respondents agree that they will continue using corpora in future writing because the authentic examples can help them produce more natural and accurate essays. In the meanwhile, the use of corpora can stimulate them to do autonomous learning. As for those who're reluctant to go on using the corpora, teachers can provide more help for them and make them realize the great potential of corpus use.

V.   CONCLUSIONS

This paper addressed an issue of empirical validation of the effects of corpus use on L2 writing in terms of revision tasks. The findings confirmed the positive results of using corpora for revising compositions by concentrating on lexical and grammatical errors in EFL learners' essays. Firstly, corpora as reference resources for error correction are more useful than dictionaries in helping learners reduce errors in free production. Secondly, corpus data is more helpful in providing support for EFL learners to make more accurate corrections than dictionaries. Just as Flowerdew (2010) states, learners' interaction with corpora can facilitate their mastery of phraseological patterning such as collocations, colligations and semantic preferences and prosodies, which can't be easily obtained from dictionaries or grammar books. Furthermore, from learners' perspective, corpora have great value in developing their writing competence since corpora not only allow them to solve their linguistic and writing problems but also raise their language awareness through problem-solving with authentic texts.

The findings of the study provide significant implications for teaching writing in EFL classroom in China. It's a good choice for teachers to incorporate corpus use in writing instruction, especially when learners revise their essays. This can not only reduce teachers' burden to correct errors for learners but also promote their discovery or autonomous learning. But the corpus-based activities should be carefully planned to try to overcome the difficulties that learners may encounter. The first thing to consider is that sufficient training should be given before they are involved in corpus consultation, especially to the lower-level learners. Another noteworthy thing is that teachers' guided feedback about errors play a significant role in helping learners revise their writing productions. Thus when learners are not proficient

enough to identify errors themselves, teachers should provide the necessary guidance to ensure the success of the corpora-assisted learning.

There are still some limitations of the present study. Firstly, it is just a small scale study with only 30 participants taking part in. More learners should be involved in the further study. Secondly, this study just focuses on lexico-grammatical errors in writing. Obviously besides simply checking lexico-grammatical errors in corpora, EFL learners can use corpora for many other learning purposes, but for Chinese lower-level learners of English, this may be the most practical use of corpora for foreign language writing in autonomous learning. However, the further study can try to focus on the content of writing exploring whether corpora can help learners improve their contents.

REFERENCES

[1]   Aston, G. (2001). Learning with corpora. Houston: Athelstan.
[2]   Bernardini, S. (2004). Corpora in the classroom: an overview and some reflections on future developments. In J. M. Sinclair (Ed.), *How to use corpora in language teaching.* Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 15-36.
[3]   Bloch, J. (2007). Technologies in the second language composition classroom. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
[4]   Boulton. A. (2009a). Testing the limits of data-driven learning: language proficiency and training. *ReCALL*, 21(1), 37-51.
[5]   Boulton, A. (2009b). Data-driven learning: Reasonable fears and rational reassurance. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 35(1), 81-106.
[6]   Chambers, A. and O'Sullivan, Í. (2004). Corpus consultation and advanced learners' writing skills in French. *ReCALL*, 16 (1), 158–172.
[7]   Chan, A. (2012). Cantonese ESL learners' use of grammatical information in a monolingual dictionary for determining the correct use of a target word. *International Journal of Lexicography*, 25(1), 68–94.
[8]   Chang, W.L. & Sun, Y.C. (2009). Scaffolding and web concordancers as support for language learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning,* 22(4), 283-302.
[9]   Chang, J.Y. (2014). The use of general and specialized corpora as reference sources for academic English writing: A case study. *ReCALL*, 26 (2), 243-259.
[10] Conrad, S. (2008). Myth 6: corpus-based research is too complicated to be useful for writing teachers. In J. M. Reid (Ed.), *Writing myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching.* Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press, 115-139.
[11] Corder P. (1981). Error Analysis and Interlanguage. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[12] Coxhead, A. and Byrd, P. (2007). Preparing writing teachers to teach the vocabulary and grammar of academic prose. *Journal of Second Language Writing,* 16, 129-147.
[13] Deng, L.M., Liu, H., Chen, P., Chen, Y., Zhang, Y.W. (2003). The systematic study on process approach and its implications for the teaching reforms of college English writing. *Waiyu Jiaoxue [Foreign Language Teaching]*, 6, 58-62.
[14] Dziemianko, A. (2006). User-friendliness of verb syntax in pedagogical dictionaries of English. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag.
[15] Flowerdew, L. (2010). Using corpora for writing instruction. In McCarthy, M. and O'Keeffe, A. (eds.), *The Routledge handbook of corpus linguistics.* London: Routledge, 444-457.
[16] Frankenberg-Garcia, A. (2012). Learners' use of corpus examples. *International Journal of Lexicography*, 25(3), 273-296.
[17] Frankenberg-Garcia, A. (2014). The use of corpus examples for language comprehension and production. *ReCALL*, 26, 128-146.
[18] Gaskell, D. and Cobb, T. (2004). Can learners use concordance feedback for writing errors? *System*, 32 (3), 301-319.
[19] Gilmore, A (2009). Using online corpora to develop students' writing skills. *ELT Journal*, 63 (4), 363-372.
[20] Granath, S. (2009). Who benefits from learning how to use corpora? In K. Aijmer (Ed.), *Corpora and language teaching.* Amsterdam. Netherlands: John Benjamins, 47-65.
[21] Hardie, A. (2012). CQP web – Combining power, flexibility and usability in a corpus analysis tool. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics,* 17(3), 380-409.
[22] Huang, Z.P. (2014). The effects of paper-based DDL on the acquisition of lexico-grammatical patterns in L2 writing. *ReCALL*, 26, 163-183.
[23] Johns, T. (1991). Should you be persuaded: Two examples of data-driven learning. In: Johns, T. and King, P. (eds.), Classroom concordancing. *English Language Research Journal*, 4, 1-16.
[24] Kosem, I. (2008). User-friendly corpus tools for language teaching and learning. In: Frankenberg-Garcia (ed.), *Proceedings of the 8th Teaching and Language Corpora conference.* Lisbon: ISLA, 183-192.
[25] O'Sullivan, Í. and Chambers, A. (2006). Learners' writing skills in French: Corpus consultation and learner evaluation. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15 (1), 49-68.
[26] Pérez-Paredes, P., Sánchez-Tornel, M. and Alcaraz Calero, J. M. (2012). Learners' search patterns during corpus-based focus-on-form activities. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 17(4), 483–516.
[27] Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), Cognition and second language instruction. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 3-32.
[28] Tribble, C. (2009). Writing academic English: A survey review of current published resources. *ELT Journal*, 63(4), 400-417.

[29] Todd, R. W. (2001). Induction from self-selected concordances and self-correction. *System*, 29 (1), 91-102.

[30] Tono, Y，Satake, Y & Miura, A. (2014). The effects of using corpora on revision tasks in L2 writing with coded error feedback. *ReCALL*, 26 (2), 147-162.

[31] Xu, J.J. & Wu, L.P. (2014). Web-based fourth generation corpus analysis tools and the BFSU CQPweb case, *Waiyu Dianhua Jiaoxue [Computer-assisted Foreing Language Education]*, 5, 10-15.

[32] Yoon, C. (2011) Concordancing in L2 writing class: An overview of research and issues. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10, 130-139.

[33] Yoon, H. (2008). More than a linguistic reference: The influence of corpus technology on L2 academic writing. *Language Learning & Technology*, 12(2), 31-48.

[34] Yoon, H. and Hirvela, A. (2004). ESL student attitudes toward corpus use in L2 writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing,* 13, (4), 257-283.

Qinqin Luo was born in Hubei, China in 1982. She received her Master degree in foreign language linguistics and applied linguistics from Huazhong University of Science and Technology in 2006. She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Southwest Petroleum University, Chengdu, China. Her research interests include computer-assisted language teaching.

Ying Liao was born in Sichuan, China in 1978. She received her Master degree in foreign language linguistics and applied linguistics from Southwest Petroleum University. She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Southwest Petroleum University, Chengdu, China. Her research interests include language teaching and teacher development.

The Effects of Teaching Self-regulated Learning Strategies on EFL Students' Reading Comprehension

Najva Nejabati

College of Foreign Languages and Literature, Science and Research Branch, IAU, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—The present study examined the effects of teaching self-regulated learning strategies on EFL students' reading comprehension. Upper intermediate undergraduate EFL students (N=24, each group containing 12 students) were assigned to experimental and control groups. The experimental group received training on self-regulated learning strategies and how to use these strategies in their reading comprehension course in 8 sessions, 4 weeks and 16 hours, while control group did not receive any instruction. Two parallel multiple choice TOEFL reading tests were used to measure the effects of self-regulated learning strategy training. The data was analyzed through a sample of independent sample t-test. The results of the study suggested that experimental group performed significantly better on posttest administration of the reading test.

Index Terms—self-regulated learning, L2 reading comprehension, self-regulated learning strategies, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the main goals of education evolution is to enhance students` capability in learning how to learn. In order to attain this goal, teachers are needed to teach students the required knowledge, skills and strategies. Students also must reserve the taught knowledge and skills helping them become skillful long-lasting learners. Learning to learn is defined as the cap ability to strive and endure in learning to adjust learner`s learning process over true and effective managing the time and information. This process is related to the self-regulated learning theory which was introduced in 1980s by Zimmerman. The process of self-regulated learning requires students` monitoring their learning strategies independent of the teacher and peers and adjusting them if necessary. Monitoring activities include checking content of study, judging learning difficulties, assessing progress and predicting learning outcomes (Cheng, 2011).

It is a multi-dimensional activity that requires an individual`s cognition, emotion, action and surroundings. Using self-regulated learning strategies, learners are able to create improved learning habits, enhance their study techniques, monitor their progress, evaluate their performance, utilize strategies to enhance the desired outcomes and assess their academic progress and learning (Zumbrun, et.al 2011).

The utilization of self-regulation to learning is known as a sophisticated process comprised the awareness and application of learning strategies further, comprehensive cognition and self-awareness (Lockee, 2008). Schunk and Rice (1998) suggest that to promote students` self-regulated learning, they must be provide with opportunities for self-reflective practices that improves their skills to monitor, evaluate and adjust their performance during learning process. These practices help students find their own learning strategies that reinforce their learning and achievement most effectively. As long as self-regulation is not a personality trait, students can manage their behaviors and affect to enhance their learning and performance (Pintrich, 1993).

A self-regulated cycle helps students enhancing their learning and perception of control over the learning process (Zimmerman, 2002). So, regarding this view point to learning process, recent research in the field of self-regulated learning has emphasized the important role of locus of control dimensions and attributions as motivational variables of self-regulated learning.

According to Peterson (1990) as cited in Tavakoli and Ebrahimi (2011), negative attributional styles are related to lower grades, vague goals, weak usage of learning strategies and lower achievement. Furthermore, students can adjust these attributes by becoming aware of them and getting guidance from the teacher. Zimmerman (2000) believes that self-regulated learners interpret the attributes for judging themselves in the field of academic tasks and enhancing their learning.

As Williams and Burden considered (1979) learning does not happen in gap and many different leaner-internal and learner-external factors such as environmental, social, political mediate in complex ways until they could be able to define learning outcomes. Furthermore, the way learners recognize the world has a great influence over their educational achievement (Salmaninodoushan, 2012a).

In general issues about language learning reading to comprehend is an important goal; a fundamental prime upon which all comprehension activities are measured using some criteria of excellence e.g. good reading comprehension,

poor reading comprehension, and comprehension failure. The concern with the issue of improving reading comprehension has also increased in recent years (Tella et.al. 2009).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Self-regulated Learning

Zimmerman and Schunk (2008) defined self-regulated learning (SRL) as feelings, actions and thoughts that are self-generated and directed regularly toward the achievement of students' goals (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008). Also, as Zimmerman (1989) states "self-regulated learning refers to learning that occur when individuals are metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants in their own learning process" (Zimmerman, 1989, p. 329). As Boekaerts (1999) stated "self-regulated learning is a powerful construct in that it allows describe various components that are part of successful learning". As the idea of self-regulated learning began to receive considerable attention from educational psychologists, different theories were proposed by them to address what absolutely is meant by the term "self-regulated learning" and also to identify its components.

Research on self-regulation of academic learning and performance developed two decades ago to answer the question of how students become master of their own learning processes. In contrast to measures of mental ability or academic performance skills, as Soureshjani (2011) states "self-regulated learning refers to self-regulation learning (SRL) refers to the self-directive processes and self-beliefs that enable learners to transform their mental abilities, such as verbal aptitude, in to an academic performance skill" (Pintrich 2002 Cited in Soureshjani 2011).

SRL is an aggressive process students employ in order to enhance and learn academic skills such as set their goals, select and display strategies and self-controlling the effectiveness, alternatively as a conscious activity appears to students as a result of impersonal forces. Although SRL was viewed as primarily considerable during personally directed forms of learning, such as seeking help from peers, parents and teachers. The main issue is whether a learner presents personal initiative, insistence, and adaptive skill. These proactive attributes of learners arise from helpful motivational feelings and beliefs besides metacognitive strategies (Zimmerman, 2008).

In addition to its distinctive effects on the learner, SRL has deep implications for teacher-learner interaction. SRL learners are not only passive, but they are very active in a manner that they are able to know their own strengths and weaknesses and when needed to seek and access information which is conduct to learning (Zimmerman, 2002).

Nowadays self-regulated learning has become an important factor in research and a large number of studies have been undergone about self-regulation. Aksan (2008) in her research conducted on a descriptive study: epistemological beliefs and self-regulated learning. She concluded that self-regulated skills facilitate selecting appropriate learning strategies for students. Consequently, it is needed that students recognize how they are learning and how this learning is appeared.

B. Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension as a skill is of paramount in second and foreign language classrooms. It is considered as an enjoyable activity transfer much information. Also it is a means that the learners by which can enhance their knowledge (Rivers, 1981). Alderson defines reading as "an enjoyable, intense, private activity, from which much pleasure can be derived, and in which one can become totally absorbed" (Alderson, 2000, P.8). It is a process by which the relevant knowledge will be activated and related language skills will be accomplished by an exchange of information. It is required that reader focuses attention on reading materials and integrates the previous acquired knowledge and skills to comprehend what someone else has written (Shahmohammadi, 2011).

However, reading is always purposeful. It is an integral part of the daily life, assumed to be an activity that everyone do. The reason for reading depends on its purpose (Berardo, 2006). The goal of reading is read for meaning or recreate the writer`s meaning. By definition, reading involves comprehension. When readers are not comprehended, they are not reading. So, regarding this definition, reading for the purpose of improving pronunciation, practicing grammatical forms, and studying vocabulary do not constitute reading because they are not engaged comprehension (Chastain, 1988).

The ultimate goal of reading is that students learn to interact with the reading productively so as to determine meaning.

Nature of Second Language Reading

Reading is attended as primary source of comprehensible input. According to Ahmadi Gilakjani et.al (2012) we considered reading as an interactive process mediated between the reader and the text. The fundamental concept is that the reader reorganizes the available information in the text not only based on the knowledge achieved from the text but also from the prior knowledge of the reader.

Scholars mention reading as an active process and refer to interaction of different constituent of skills in concurrent operation; of these cognitive skills` interaction resulted in fluent reading comprehension. Reading concerns both lower-level identification skills automatically and rapidly and higher level comprehension or interpretation skills (Hernandez, 2003). It is a receptive one in that the reader is receiving a message from the writer. As Chastain (1988) writes "recent researchers in reading describe the reading process in a way that implies an active reader intent upon using their background knowledge and skills to recreate the writer`s intended meaning" (Chastain 1988, P. 216).

Reading comprehension is assumed to be the ability to construct meaning before, after and during reading through linking reader`s background knowledge and the presented information by the author in the context. It is constructing an acceptable accurate meaning by making the connection between what has been read to what the readers already know and think about all of this information until it is recognized (Ahmadi Gilani, et.al 2012).

Generally there are two types of reading comprehension: intensive and extensive. These two types will be explained in the following section.

-Extensive reading: according to Hedge (2005), extensive reading is scanning and skimming activities and reading large quantity of materials. It is aimed at obtaining the gist to facilitate reading comprehension. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002) extensive reading is reading abundantly in order to reach to a general understanding of what is read. Despite the variations available in the ways in which an extensive reading program is administered, it shares the fundamental assumption that students are expected to read a relatively large amount of text while enjoying reading.

Extensive reading is aimed at developing good reading habits, building up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and encouraging a desire for reading (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). Researches show that extensive reading is effective in increasing reading speed and comprehension. It is appears to lead to substantial vocabulary learning and learners show their development in spelling and vocabulary knowledge. It is also reported that extensive reading enhance students` affective domain such as motivation and attitude to read (Yueh Shen, 2008).

Intensive reading is reading in details to recognize and understand the meaning of the words and definition of passage. This kind of reading emphasizes the syntactic and semantic forms of the text, details within the structure, in order to understand the literal meaning and implications (Day, 2003). According to Hedge (2005), in intensive reading, students read the text to identify the writer`s objectives, it is as reading carefully and slowly to recognize the details. According to her, intensive reading activities in the classroom are intended to train students in the strategies needed for successful reading. They involve careful study of texts and familiarize students with features of written English.

Hafiz and Tudor (1989) considered that intensive reading generally contains a lower speed and supports a higher degree of understanding in order to improve and refine the skills for word study, enhance passive vocabulary, reinforce skills related to sentence structure, increase active vocabulary. The pedagogical value of extensive reading is the assumption that exposing students to large quantities of meaningful and interacting second language materials in long term will produce beneficial effects on learners` command of the L2.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were24 male and female upper-intermediate EFL students at BA level at Islamic Azad University, Dezfool branch, Iran. For the purpose of research, students whose scores were within the range of one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean were selected as participants. So 24 male and female of these participants were selected for this study. The participants' mean age was 20-24 in this study.

B. Instruments

In order to conduct the purpose of the present study four measuring instruments were used, namely, a language proficiency test; two samples of reading test; self-regulated learning questionnaire provided data for this research. Finally, the data has been analyzed SPSS version 19.0 software.

1. Language Proficiency Test

In order to homogenize the participants, a language proficiency test -- a TOEFL test -- was used. This test was a sample of original TOEFL test (1995) consisting 140 multiple choice items. 50 items were for listening, 40 items for structure and 50 items for vocabulary and reading.

2. Reading TOEFL Test

A standard reading test was used for determining their reading proficiency level before the treatment period as pretest and its second administration as post test to determine their reading comprehension level after the treatment. The reading test was a sample of TOEFL practice reading test in the form of multiple choice item consisting of 25 items and its parallel form for the posttest.

C. Procedure

In order to conduct this research, to begin with a sample of TOEFL test was administered among 45 selected intact groups of male and female EFL students in third semester at BA level in order to be homogenized according to their general proficiency. Among them 24 students that their score match the required cut score, were selected as participants of this study. After dividing the participants in to experimental and control group the reading TOEFL test was administered. Then, the treatment was executed just for experimental group. After the treatment, the posttest administration of the aforementioned reading test was done. The participants were assured that their identities and responses would be kept confidential.

D. The Design of the Study

The present study is experimental since it aims to determine the effects of teaching self-regulated learning strategies on students` reading comprehension through a period of treatment effects, and also it is quasi-experimental since the participants are selected from an intact group of the students and then assigned randomly in to experimental and control group.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The objective of the present study was to determine whether teaching self-regulated learning strategies have any effects on students` reading comprehension, and to be able to meet the objective of the study, collected data were analyzed in the form of descriptive and inferential statistics.

A. Descriptive Statistics of the TOEFL Test

The participants of this study were homogenized through a TOEFL test. The results of descriptive statistics of the TOEFL test is presented in table 4.1. According to the results of the table, the mean of the scores was 66.57, and the standard deviation was 10.34. So, in order to have a homogenous sample, 24 students were chosen whose scores fall within the range of one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean.

TABLE 4.1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TOEFL TEST

Descriptive Statistics	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
TOEFL.	45	50.00	80.00	66.5778	10.34076
Valid N (listwise)	45				

B. Testing the Null Hypothesis

To verify or reject the null hypotheses of the study, the researcher intended to conduct independent sample t-test between the mean scores of the participants in pretest and posttest administration. Table 4.3 and 4.4 show the results of independent sample t-test between control and experimental groups in pretest and posttest

Table 4.3 shows the independent sample t-test between the groups` scores in pretest. As the table depict the significant level of the mean scores in pretest is at the level of 0.602 which is higher than the alpha level (0.05). So, there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control group in pretest administration of the reading test.

TABLE4.3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST BETWEEN CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS IN PRETEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
ReadingSRL Contrl	Equal variances assumed	.113	.740	.529	22	.602	.41667	.78777	-1.21707	2.05040
	Equal variances not assumed			.529	21.950	.602	.41667	.78777	-1.21728	2.05062

Table 4.4 demonstrates the independent sample t-test between the mean scores of the students in the experimental and control groups in posttest administration of the reading test. Based on the data represented in this table it can be seen that the significant level of the mean scores is 0.015 being smaller than the alpha level (0.05). So, it can be concluded that there is significant difference between the mean score of the students at the posttest administration of the reading test; consequently, it can be judged that the null hypothesis is rejected

TABLE4.4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST BETWEEN CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS IN POSTTEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Readingpost	Equal variances assumed	.028	.869	2.624	22	.015	1.91667	.73038	.40194	3.43139
	Equal variances not assumed			2.624	21.484	.016	1.91667	.73038	.39983	3.43350

In the abundance of literature upon self-regulated learning and achievement especially in reading comprehension, a number of researches which the results of this study are in line with can be found. The emphasis on the crucial role of self-regulated learning strategies (Zimmerman, 2002; Schunk & Rice, 1998) and reading comprehension in education is obvious in the related literature upon both, especially when Wolverton (2008) consider that students who use SRL strategies are more successful in academic work and developmental reading.

Protontep (2008) in his study investigated students` self- regulated learning strategies and English reading comprehension in an extensive reading program. The students were divided in to lower and upper level according to their reading comprehension pre-test scores. The findings of his study showed that there were significant differences between students` English reading comprehension per-test and post-test scores especially for the lower level group. Also, findings from the self-regulated learning interview schedule indicated that students reported frequently using metacognitive and performance regulation strategies. In addition, from the students` verbal protocols of reading, they reported using self-regulated learning strategies in the performance or volitional control phase more than often in the forethought or self-reflection phases.

Again, going back to the data analysis tables it is obvious that the results of this study are in line with the abovementioned fact that students who learn self-regulated learning strategies are more powerful in academic achievement especially in reading comprehension.

At the end, it is important to emphasize that like any other research this research experience some limitations and delimitations; therefore, any conclusion, must be made cautiously and interpreted in the light of those limitations and delimitations that the researcher had in conducting the research (Khaki, 2013). The researcher also hopes that the results of this study will be useful for learners, teachers, material developers, curriculum designers, and policy makers to create an atmosphere that is suitable for language teaching and learning and leads the learners to achieve their goals in learning and enhancing their reading comprehension skill.

V. CONCLUSION

In this study the effects of teaching self-regulated learning strategies on EFL learners reading comprehension was investigated. As the results indicated there is statistically significant difference between mean scores of the two experimental and control group in posttest administration of the reading test (P=.016<.05). So, it can be concluded that teaching self-regulated learning strategies have effects on EFL learners reading comprehension. Therefore, it can be concluded that teaching self-regulated learning strategies have statistically significant effect on students` reading comprehension, and the null hypothesis, teaching self-regulated learning strategies have statistically no significant effects on students` reading comprehension, was rejected.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the present study can help teachers to teach reading comprehension more effectively as an important skill, and using teaching self-regulated learning strategies as an effective factor in developing reading comprehension and also general achievement. Besides teachers, syllabus designers can use the findings of this study in providing materials which contain proper contents to language learners and teachers, design exercises and deploy these strategies to achieve their goals which is reading comprehension. They should provide handbooks for teachers which contain guidelines for efficient teaching through strategies. This will lead teachers to teach effectively and learners to be more independent and lifelong in the language learning process. The above-mentioned conclusion derived from the present study should encourage teacher educators, administrators, and policy makers to take advantage of the effects of teaching self-regulated learning strategies by providing EFL teachers with preparation programs and experiences that help them enhance their teaching methods and strategies in their teaching especially in teaching reading comprehension (Nejabati, 2014).

REFERENCES

[1] Ahmadi Gilakjani, M.R., Nizam Ismail, H., & Pourhossein Gilakjani, A. (2012). Impact of teaching reading strategy on students` reading comprehension proficiency. *The international journal of language learning and applied linguistics world,23*(1), 78-95.

[2] Aksan, N. (2009). A descriptive study epistemological beliefs and self-regulated learning. *Proccedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 54(*1), 896-901.

[3] Alderson, J.Ch. (2005). Assessing reading. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

[4] Berardo, S.A. (2006). The use of authentic materials in the teaching of reading. *The reading matrix,* 60-69.

[5] Boekaerts, M. (1999). Self-regulated learning : where we are today. *International of educational research, 23(1),* 445-457

[6] .Cazen, A. M. (2012). Self-regulated learning strategies: predictor of academic achievement. *Precedia Social and Behavioral sciences, 33(2),* 104-108.Cheng, E. (2011). The role of self-regulation in enhancing learning performance. *International journal of research and review.*

[7] Chastain, K. (1988). Developing second language skills, theory and practice. United States of America: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

[8] Cheng, E.C. (2011). The role of self-regulated learning in enhancing learning performance. *The International Journal of Research and Review, 6 (1),* 1-16.

[9]   Day, R. (2003). What is extensive reading? *Teacher Talk.*21, 1-3.

[10]   Hedge,T.(2000). Teaching and learning in the language classroom. Oxford,Oxford University Press.

[11]   Hernandez, A. (2003). Making content instruction accessible for English language learners. *International Reading Association.* 2, 125-149.

[12]   Khaki,sh. (2013). The Relationship between Learner Autonomy and Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in Iranian EFL Learners. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature,* 2(5).

[13]   Lockee, E. (2008). Motivation through conscious goal setting. *Applied and Preventive psychology,* 21 (5), 117-124.

[14]   Nejabati, N. (2014). The Effect of Locus of Control Training on EFL Students' Reading Comprehension", *International Journal of English Language Education*, 2014.

[15]   Pintrich, P.R. (1993). The role of motivation in promoting and sustaining self- regulated learning. *International journal of Educational Research,* 31(2), 459-470.

[16]   Pintrich, P.R., & de Groot, E. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 1, 33-50.

[17]   Pintrich, P.R., Smith, D.A.F., Garcia, T.,& McKeachie.W.J. (1991). A manual for the use of motivated strategies for learning questionnaire. *National Center for Research to Improve Postsecondary Teaching and Learning.* 53(3), 801-813.

[18]   Protentep, S. (2008). Self-regulated learning by Thai university students in EFL extensive reading program. *Journal of Humanities.*2, (1), 26-37.

[19]   Richards, J.C., & Schmit, R. (2002). Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics. UK: Longman group.

[20]   Rivers, W.M. (1981). Teaching Foreign-Language Skills. The University of CHICAGO Press.

[21]   Salmaninodoushan, M.A. (2012). The impact of locus of control on language achievement. *International Journal of Language Studies, 6,* 123-130.

[22]   Shahmohammadi, N. (2011). The effects of gender based materials on reading comprehension. *International Journal of Human Resource studies,* 2, 10-14.

[23]   Schunk ., D.H., & Rice, J.M. (1998). Learning goals and children`s reading comprehension. *Journal of Reading Behavior,* 21, 279-293.

[24]   Soureshjani, K. (2011). Self-Regulation and Motivation reconsideration through Persian EFL Learners' Writing Achievement. *Journal of Research Humanities*, 11, 55-80.

[25]   Tavakolizadeh ,J., & Ebrahimiqavam, S. (2011). Effects of teaching of self-regulated learning strategies in attribution styles in students. *Journal of Research and in Educational Psychology.*9 (3), 1087-1102.

[26]   Tella, A., Tella, A., & Adeniyi, O. (2009). Locus of control, interest in schooling, self-efficacy and academic achievement. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences,* 168-182.

[27]   Williams, M., & Burden,R. (1997). Psychology for language teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[28]   Wolverton, L. (2008). Self-regulated learning strategies of successful developmental reading students (PhD dissertation). Capella University, Minnesota, United States.

[29]   Yeuhshen, M. (2008). Reading EFL learners´ responses to extensive reading: survey and pedagogical application. *Reading Matrix.*8, (2), 111-123.

[30]   Zimmerman, B.J., & Schunk, D.H. (1997). Social origins of self-regulatory Competence. *Educational psychologist,* 32(1), 195-208.

[31]   Zimmerman, B, J. (1989). A social cognitive view of self-regulated academic learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 81,329-339.

[32]   Zimmerman, B.J. (2002). Becoming self-regulated learner: an overview. *Theory into practice journal,* 41(2), 317-325.

[33]   Zimmerman, B.J. (2008). Investigating self-regulated and motivation: historical background, methodological development, and future prospect. *American Educational research Journal*, 45(3), 166-185. doi: 10.3102/0002831207312909.

[34]   Zimmerman, B. J., & Schunk, D. H. (2008). Motivation: An essential dimension of self- regulated learning. In D. H. Schunk & B. J. Zimmerman (Eds.), *Motivation and self -regulated learning: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 1−30). New York: Laurence Erlbaum.

[35]   Zumbrunn, sh., Tadlock, J., Roberts, E. (2011). Encouraging self-regulated learning in the classroom: a review of the literature. *Metropolitan Educational Research Center.10*, 1-28.

[36]   Zusho, A., Pintrich, P.R., & Coppola, B. (2003). Skill and will: the role of motivation and cognition. *International Journal of Science Education, 25(1)*, 1081-1094.

Najva Nejabati was born in Dezfool, Khoozestan, Iran, in 1983. She received her B.A. in English translation in 2009 from Islamic Azad University, Karaj Branch. Now she is PhD candidate in TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch. She is teaching English As a foreign language at University.

She has been working as Translator in translation office in Karaj, for 5 years. Her areas of interest include psycholinguistics, testing and assessment, teacher training, learner autonomy and self-regulated learning, language teaching methodology, and also the study of ecological issues related to second pedagogy.

An Empirical Study of Schema Theory and Its Role in Reading Comprehension[*]

Yanmei Liu

School of Applied English Studies, Shandong University of Finance and Economics, Jinan, China

Abstract—**Schema is the abstract and organized knowledge structure. Access to pertinent schema in reading would greatly facilitated meaning extraction and meaning retention. This paper quantitatively and qualitatively explored the effect of schema and how it works in reading process and finds out that readers with appropriate schema would perform significantly better than those without in both immediate and delayed recalls. That is they would recall more correct ideas and omit fewer ideas and in their expansion of the original text, more elaborations rather than distortions will be found. Besides, readers provided with schema tend to recall the text more coherently and logically.**

Index Terms—**schema theory, reading comprehension, meaning extraction, meaning retention**

I. INTRODUCTION

In his book *Critique of Pure Reason*, Immanuel Kant (1963) claimed that "new information, new concepts, new ideas can have meaning for an individual only when they can be related to something the individual already knows". Pearson & Johnson defined comprehension as "building bridges between the new and the known" (1978, p. 24). That means meaning does not have a separate, independent existence from the reader, and prior knowledge of the reader or schema counts a lot in the extraction of meaning from the graphic words in the print.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Schema Theory

Under the influence of Gestalt Psychology, Bartlett (1932) was the first person that explored the functioning of schema in the process of reading, but he was still hazy about how schema worked in the reading process at his time, neither did he form a sound theory of it to account for the nature of reading.

It was since the 1970s, with the development of cognitive psychology and people's deepened understanding on the process of reading, that schema once again became the focus of scholars' interest. Since then various names and definitions have been proposed for schema, with Minsky (1975) putting forward "frame" concept, dealing particularly with stereotypical situation, Rumelhart (1977) developing story grammar, analyzing narrative stories; Schank et al. (1977) suggesting script, describing event sequences and Sanford (1981) preferring the term "scenario", referring to typical situations. However various the name or wording for this concept, they share the same essence that readers' prior knowledge directly impacts upon new learning situations and thus can be seen as the variants of schema.

Generally speaking, schema can be defined as the abstract knowledge structure the reader brings to the text. A schema is abstract in the sense that it "summarizes what is known about a variety of cases that differ in many particulars" (Anderson & Pearson, 1988, p. 42) for the economy of our memory.

A schema is structured in the sense that it represents the relationships among its component parts. Far from being linear as the arrangement of words in the print is, what these words evoke in readers' mind is a highly complex and hierarchical structure of certain situation. When human beings experience the world, they mediate or conceptualize their experiences into concepts, relations, etc. through the brain and store them in the memory. These concepts and relations etc. are not stored randomly in the brain, but are combined into "networks composed of knowledge spaces centered on main topics" (Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981, p. 94). In this way, a schema might be representations not only of entities in a certain situation, but also the roles those entities play in the situation. It is the different roles of those entities that connect the entities in the schema into an organized structure.

To put it simply, a schema is a knowledge structure. According to Ausubel et al. (1978, p. 168), it can refer to "significant substantive and organizational properties of the learners' total knowledge in a given subject-matter field" and can also refer to "the substantive and organizational properties of just the immediately or proximately relevant concepts and propositions within cognitive structure" (ibid). In brief, a schema can be a concept or it can be a set of related concepts. It can be about objects, ideas or phenomena (Irwin, 1986, p. 103). For instance, readers probably have a schema for a chair that includes the characteristics of chairs and a mental image of a typical chair. Similarly, they also

probably have a schema for going to a restaurant that includes such things as looking at the menu, paying the bill and so on.

As it is almost impossible for human beings to remember all the specific people, events, objects, impressions etc. they encounter in real life, these abstract yet structured schemata representing the typical or prototypical situations of certain occasions become necessary in understanding their surroundings as well as discourses.

B.   Empirical Studies about Schema Theory

Schema theory was first examined in L1 reading comprehension (e.g. Bransford & Johnson, 1972, 1973 etc.) and was later acknowledged in EFL/ESL reading.   Numerous studies in this area varying in experimental designs and purposes have been carried out and led linguists as well as practitioners to the realization that apart from language problem in EFL/ESL reading, readers' prior knowledge is also a determinant factor for effective and efficient reading.

Numerous studies (e.g. Hudson, 1988; Floyd & Carrell, 1987; Carrell, 1983; Qi&Wang., 1988 etc.)examined the effect of language competence/complexity and prior knowledge on reading comprehension and find out that background information is more likely to determine the comprehension of a passage than linguistic factors. Other studies(e.g. Gatbonton and Jucker, 1971; Steffensen and Joag-Dev, 1984; Levine& Haus, 1985; Kintsch & Franzke, 1995 etc.) explored how content familiarity affected reading comprehension and revealed that subjects familiar with the reading passage recalled and inferred significantly more ideas while those unfamiliar forgot or misinterpreted significantly more ideas.

Still other experiments (e.g. Alderson & Urquhart, 1988 etc.) were carried out to investigate the role of EFL students' background discipline or the knowledge of a particular academic field in reading comprehension and the findings supported that students from a particular discipline would perform better on tests based on texts taken from their own academic discipline than students from other disciplines.

C.   Rational for This Study

The studies mentioned above revealed that schema does influence reader's comprehension of a text, but how it will exert its influence is not fully examined.   Some of the studies only adopted multiple choice questions (e.g. Qi&Wang, 1988) as instruments which increases the likelihood of guessing. Besides, most studies focused on whether schema facilitates meaning extraction in reading, few has explored the effect of schema on meaning retention, which while may be as well important for readers.

In view of these deficiencies in previous studies, this experiment is designed to examine the influence of schema on both EFL students' **reading comprehension** and their **meaning retention** by analyzing both the immediate and delayed **recall protocols** of the subjects.

This research aims to answer two questions.

Research Question One: Do students with pertinent schema **comprehend** better than those without?

Research Question Two: Do students with pertinent schema **retain** better than those without?

III.   METHODOLOGY

A.   Participants

This study took 110 sophomores of two parallel classes from Shandong Trade Union College as subjects, with each class 55 students. The subjects were regarded as the intermediate level in English and   the proficiency of the two groups showed no significant difference. To avoid "Hawthorne effect", the whole process was carried out by their regular English teacher in their normal class environment.

B.   Instruments

This study employed four data collection instruments: one passage for both groups, a questionnaire for the control group, relevant schema for the experimental group, an immediate recall after reading and a delayed recall after a week's interval by two groups.

The reading passage was the description of some activities children and adults would conduct on Halloween excerpted from *The U.S.A. Customs and Institutions*. (For detail, see Appendix A). The passage selected was considered as appropriate for subjects after examined by their teacher and read by other students of the same level with the subjects. And it was assumed that understanding the passages would involve some background knowledge.

To make sure the control group did not possess background knowledge about the passage, they would be assigned a questionnaire in Chinese about Halloween, its origin and activities etc. designed by modifying Levine & Haus' (1985), while the experimental group would be taught pertinent background knowledge before reading (see Appendix B).

Both groups would read the same passage within the same time, and do the same recall task almost immediately after reading. Both groups would be asked to recall the passage again after a week's interval. Both recalls should be done in English.

C.   Procedures

The experimental and control groups were tested respectively in their regular class periods. For the control group,

first a questionnaire was assigned to find out whether they had relevant background knowledge. The questionnaire is composed of 5 questions, 2 points for each. If a student scores above 6 points, he/she would be excluded from the control group. Students who failed to follow the requirements during the experiment were also excluded from both groups. In the final analysis, there left 47 subjects in the control group and 51 in the experimental group.

After the questionnaire completion, the passage was handed out and students in the control group were allowed 8 minutes to comprehend it, and the passage was taken back after that.

To avoid short-term memory effect on the passage, two tasks unrelated to the passage were conducted before the recall. Finally, subjects were allowed 15minutes to recall the text as well as possible in written form in English.

For the experimental group, their teacher first provided them with some pertinent schema on the topic (see Appendix B) and then asked them to read and recall the text following the same requirement for the control group.

A week later, both groups would recall the passage again, with the same requirements as in the first recall. During this interval, both groups were asked not to refer to any reference on Halloween.

D. Scoring

For ease of scoring, the passage containing 252 words was parsed into 82 idea units.

Examples of idea units:

Most American children/ have a wonderful, exciting day/ on Halloween.

(3 idea units)

Both the immediate and delayed recall protocols of two groups were scored according to how many idea units they contained. An idea unit was regarded to have been recalled if it was reproduced verbatim, or if the essential meaning of that particular idea unit was produced. Five types of ideas would be marked: correct recall, overt errors, elaborations (correct expansion of the passage), distortions (incorrect expansion) and omissions (the ideas not recalled). The inter-rater reliability for the scoring of the recall protocols was r=0.96.

IV. RESULTS

Idea units of correct recall, elaborations, distortions, overt errors and omissions were collected in both the immediate and delayed recalls and quantitatively analyzed by SPSS and qualitatively analyzed by the researchers.

A. Quantitative Analysis

To examine whether schema has a role to pay in meaning extraction, the immediate recall protocols of two groups were analyzed into the five categories and compared through Independent-sample T test.

TABLE 4.1
MEAN COMPARISON OF THE TWO GROUPS IN THE ALMOST IMMEDIATE RECALL

group	Correct recall	elaborations	distortions	overt errors	omissions
control group	23.98	0.21	2.28	3.76	58.02
experimental group	28.53	3.84	0.37	3.06	53.72

TABLE4.2
INDEPENDENT -SAMPLES T TEST OF THE TWO GROUPS IN THE ALMOST IMMEDIATE RECALL

	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Correct recall	-3.192	96	.002	-4.550
Elaborations	-8.109	53.298	.000	-3.630
Distortions	6.364	63.822	.000	1.904
Overt errors	3.511	96	.001	.707
Omissions	3.014	96	.003	4.295

Mean comparison and Independent-Samples T Test showed the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in their recall of correct idea units and elaborations and at the same time, the control group made significantly more distortions, overt errors and omissions than the experimental group.

To test Research Question Two, similar mean comparison and Independent-Samples T Test for the delayed recall of

the control and experimental groups was carried out and resulted in the following data.

TABLE 4.3
MEAN COMPARISON OF THE TWO GROUPS IN THE DELAYED RECALL

group	correct recall	elaborations	distortions	overt errors	omissions
control group	18.58	0.66	2.64	3.85	63.15
experimental group	22.45	5.64	0.41	3.03	59.33

TABLE 4.4
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST OF THE TWO GROUPS IN THE DELAYED RECALL

	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Correct recall	-2.761	96	.007	-3.599
Elaborations	-7.256	56.041	.000	-4.987
Distortions	7.930	70.528	.000	2.226
Overt errors	3.350	96	.001	.811
Omissions	3.038	96	.003	3.815

Mean comparison and Independent- Samples T Test revealed that the experimental group significantly outdid the control group in their delayed recall of correct idea units and elaborations. Meanwhile, the control group produced significantly more distortions, overt errors and omissions than the experimental group in their delayed recall

B.   Qualitative Analysis

Apart from quantitative results from SPSS, qualitative difference in recall protocols of both groups was also obtained and analyzed.

Qualitative analysis of the recall protocols by the experimental and control groups revealed that the experimental group not only recalled more correct idea units and made fewer omissions in their almost immediate recall, but also arranged the ideas of the text in a well-organized way with some specific information of the text. In contrast, the control group not only recalled fewer correct idea units and made many more omissions, but also poorly organized the recall.

For example, the control group had more tendencies to make some abstractions rather than recall the specific information in the text. And in the recall of "Some communities build bonfire reminiscent of the Celtic celebrations in the Middle Ages", and "Halloween, which began hundreds of years ago as an evening of terror", few subjects in the control group could fully understand, while the experimental group, provided with the Celtic origin of this festival, obviously outperformed the control group.

Apart from the generalizations and lack of ability to understand some part of the text, some rote memory with little understanding of the passage was also found:

For example: one student in the control group wrote:

American children bring their costumes to school and spend the last few hours of the school day with spooks instead of with book. Trick just so so. Celtic snacking camarel-covered apples, apple cider and pumpkin. Masqurae parties.(I can't understand what I am writing.)

As for the expansion of the ideas, the experimental group made more elaborations, and the control group made more distortions. For instance, one student of the experimental group recalled "They put up their costumes and (go to everyone home) said trick-or-treat"; another recalled "(they went to door to door to ask for something)…"; another wrote, "People can take the Jack-o-lantern to (keep away from ghosts)"; to list just a few. In contrast, a considerable number of subjects in the control group recalled "…they will take [beautiful] clothes to school", or "they dress [very beautifully]".

In the delayed recall, both groups suffered some forgetting during the interval and made more interpretations of the ideas in their recall instead of using the exact wording of the texts. However, except some lack of specific details, the experimental groups could still keep a well-organized text and remain the coherence of the whole text. Yet the control groups could only recall some general and even vague ideas and some part of their recall even could not keep coherent.

The following examples were from subjects of the experimental group.

If not, they (go out and knock at doors) and say "trick-or-treat"…

they wear (mask) and costumes…

(The children ask for gifts. If you don't give them, they will trick)…

They put up bonfires to (drive away the spirits)…

They dress up look like spooks (because they believe spooks look this will be afraid)…

Yet subjects in the control group fossilized some distortions they made in their almost immediate recall and made some rationalization (Bartlett, 1932) according to their general knowledge, or the wrong schemata they fell back upon. For example:

At party, (they dress up differently), and [the most beautiful] will get the prize…

They eat apples and so on. [some recall the past]…

Celtic would build a bonfire，[adults recall past around the fire]…

Another subject, possibly influenced by the spending of some Chinese festival twisted some ideas of the original text to fit the Spring Festival schema.

V. Discussion

A. Research Question One

Both quantitative and qualitative analysis revealed that the students provided with relevant schema would comprehend the meaning of the passage significantly better than those without, revealing the facilitative role of schema in readers' extraction of meaning.

In the reading process, the perceived information should go through another two processing systems---working memory and permanent memory (Carroll, 2000, p. 47). Working memory, as many experiments have revealed, has the size limitation as consisting of only about 7 chunks maximally. This limited amount of information in working memory, if neither integrated with information in the permanent memory, nor actively and repeatedly rehearsed, can be lost in "20-30 seconds" (Reed, 1982, p. 89). Due to these limitations of working memory in capacity and duration, for information to be learned, it is necessary to be transferred, either through integrating information on the page with readers' prior knowledge or through actively and repeatedly rehearsing that information, to the permanent memory---which, on the contrary, is unlimited in capacity and duration.

As common sense tells people, the latter kind of transference is just like children's attempt to remember a poem by actively repeating it. It will consume rather long time but yield little meaning for readers. So this kind of transference, in Goodman's (1982) sense, cannot be defined as reading at all. In this case, reading can be fulfilled only through the integration of information on the page with readers' prior knowledge.

Yet how is new information integrated in the reading process? In Ausubel's assimilation theory (1978, p. 124), readers' preexisting knowledge structure or schema (if any) can be defined as "A", and the new information as "a". When a new idea "a" is meaningfully learned and linked to relevant established idea "A" in the reading process, both ideas are modified and "a" is assimilated into established idea "A", creating the new ideational product "A'a'" with new meaning through the integration.

The new ideational product as a unified pattern, establishes various connections among its components, thus "relating the symbolically expressed ideas in a non-arbitrary and substantive fashion" (Ausubel et al, 1978, p. 41) to what readers already know. In this way, the newly learned meaning becomes an integral part of the particular ideational system. Schema, in this assimilation process serves as a supportive background structure or "anchoring ideas" in Ausubel's term (1978, p. 170) to integrate new information.

Besides, in the reading process, having larger and better-connected patterns or schemata to integrate new information will facilitate the processing speed and thus free up more space in working memory. This available space in turn, can be used for reflecting on new information and for problem solving. In this manner, the relevant schema, in fact, helps to solve the problem of the limited capacity of working memory.

In the absence of the relevant schema, readers can only try to transfer this information from working memory to permanent memory through "rote learning" (Ausubel et al., 1978, p. 144) or verbatim and mechanical learning. When information is rotely learned, according to Ausubel et al. (1978, p. 146), it will be "incorporated into the cognitive structure in the form of arbitrary associations". These associations are discrete, self-contained entities, organizationally isolated from readers' established ideational systems.

Various experiments, including this one, however, have revealed that human mind has a rather frail capacity for processing arbitrary and verbatim associations as discrete and isolated entities in their own right. Thus it will take longer time and more effort for readers to process such information in working memory.

In summary, reading with the activation of the relevant schema can easily assimilate new information into the prior knowledge structure in a substantive and non-arbitrary way, thus consuming less time and effort in working memory. On the contrary, reading without the activation of relevant schema will result in long and laborious processing in working memory. Information that is rotely remembered turns out to be hard to be integrated with readers' prior knowledge structure; hence little comprehension resulted.

B. Research Question Two

It is evident that both meaningfully and rotely learned information will suffer from another memorial

process---forgetting during the interval between reading and retrieval. But according to Ausubel et al. (1978, p. 138), there is an important difference between forgetting that occurs after meaningful learning and forgetting that occurs after rote learning. It is believed by Ausubel et al. (1978, p.143), during the second phase, the retention period itself, meaningfully learned meanings, with the support of relevant schema, tend to be integrated into the relevant ideas in the cognitive structure that assimilate them, thus suffering less forgetting. Rotely learned meanings, on the contrary, tend to be interfered by the incoming of another discrete process, hence more forgetting.

Apart from the superiority of forgetting after meaningful learning to that after rote learning, in retention process, retention resulting from meaningful learning is also superior to that resulting from rote learning. First, since meaningful learning has some advantages inherent in the substantive and non-arbitrary relatability of new ideas to relevant, established ideas in cognitive structure as discussed above, it "circumvents the drastic limitations imposed by the short item retention and time spans of rote memory on the processing and storing of information"(Ausubel et al., 1978, p. 64). New ideas thus processed are demonstrated as incorporated more easily and made more available after learning. Second, a new idea acquired by assimilation to a well-established relevant idea will tend to gain some of the inherent stability of the original idea and hence be retained longer.

In a word, the substantive and non-arbitrary integration of new ideas with established schema makes the acquisition of meaning much easier and faster. At the same time, the stability of the integrated organization or the dissociability of new information from the previous knowledge makes forgetting more restrained and retention more durable.

VI.   FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

The main findings of this study can be summarized as follows:

Quantitative and qualitative analysis of the two groups' immediate recall protocols revealed that schema, serving as the readers' cognitive context and the supportive knowledge to assimilate new information, greatly facilitated the process of meaning acquisition.

Quantitative and qualitative analysis of the two groups' delayed recall revealed that information assimilated into readers' prior knowledge gained more stability and less dissocciability and thus could be retained longer and better than information that had nothing to cling or attach to.

This study provides some invaluable insights into the nature of reading. That is, schema theory, with both its theoretical and practical feasibility and effectiveness as is demonstrated in this thesis, breaks through some traditional views on the nature of reading and sheds new lights on the teaching and learning of EFL reading. Since meaning, as schema theory suggests, does not reside in the text itself, but should be reconstructed by readers through the interaction between the text and their prior knowledge, more attention should be paid to what is going on in the readers' mind and a learner-centered and process-oriented reading method should be highly recommended in hope to bring about great improvement in the effectiveness and efficiency of the teaching and learning of EFL reading.

NOTE

In the qualitative analysis, all examples are what subjects exactly wrote. In the analysis of subjects' recall protocols, information in () refers to elaborations, and information in [] refers to distortions.

APPENDIX A.   THE READING PASSAGE

Most American children have a wonderful, exciting day on Halloween. If Halloween falls on a school day, they bring their costumes to school and spend the last few hours of the school day with spooks instead of with books. After school and perhaps on into the evening, they go trick-or-treat. Often, here is a party at a friend's home or at the local community center. At most Halloween parties, prizes are given for the best costumes. Bobbing for apples, telling fortunes (predicting the future), playing scary games, and snacking on caramel-covered apples, candy, apple cider, and pumpkin pie are all part of the fun. Some communities build a bonfire, reminiscent of the Celtic celebrations in the Middle Ages. The children may sit around the bonfire telling scary stories while roasting hot dogs or toasting marsh-mallows. Halloween, which began hundreds of years ago as an evening of terror, is now an occasion of great fun. It is certainly one of the favorite holidays of American children.

Although Halloween is celebrated most enthusiastically by children, adults sometimes get into the act too. College students and other adults may attend masquerade parties or participate in Halloween parades. Places of business are often decorated with jack-o-lanterns, scary crows and witches. And sometimes a serous, hard-working adult employee will arrive at the office dressed as a tube of toothpaste or a garbage can. No one is too old to enjoy the fun of surprising friends by doing a little creative costuming.

APPENDIX B.   THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE CONTROL GROUP

Please briefly answer the questions:
1. Do you know something about Halloween?
2. What activities would be carried out on this day?

3. Why do people have such activities?
4. What do people usually eat on that day?
5. Why are such a tradition?

APPENDIX C.   HALLOWEEN SCHEMA FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Halloween falls on October 31st.

There are two origins of Halloween, one is from Celtic worship of Death , the other is from the Roman's worship of the God of the orchard. There are two colors associated with the festival: black---linked with death and yellow---associated with harvest.

The legend of the Celtics: the Celtics were said to worship the God of nature, and were afraid of the arrival of winter. Because winter often associated with death or ghosts. October 31 is the last day of a year according to their calendar, and they think ghosts will come out from the grave on that day. Priests often lit a fire to scare ghosts and even threw the harvest grain on the fire as gift to the ghost. The Celtics often wore the same clothes as the ghost and believed that the ghost would not hurt them. Now people will enjoy the fancy masquerade where they would put on every kind of scary clothes.

The children were the happiest in the festival. They can go "treat or trick" to each house to ask for presents. If the owner does not give them, they often do some mischieves, for example painting color strokes in the house, blowing soap bubbles to glass and so on.

Jack-o'-lantern is also from the legend of the Celtics. It is said that they used to keep a candle inside the pumpkin to frighten away the ghost.

The legend of the Romans: The Legend of the Romans mainly is linked to the harvest. After the harvest, Romans show their gratitude to the God of the orchard and would have a feast to enjoy the harvest food.

REFERENCES

[1]   Alderson, J. C., and Urquart, A. H. (1988). The test is unfair: I'm not an economist. In P. L. Carrell, J. Devine, and D. E. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive approaches to second language reading* (pp. 168-182). Cambridge: CUP.
[2]   Anderson, R.C. & Pearson, P. D. (1988). A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading comprehension. In P. L. Carrell, J. Devine, and D. E. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive approaches to second language reading* (pp. 37-55).   Cambridge: CUP.
[3]   Ausubel, D. P., Novak, J. D., and Hanesian, H. (1978). Educational psychology: A cognitive view (2nd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
[4]   Bartlett, F. C. (1932). Remembering: A study in experimental and social psychology. Cambridge: CUP.
[5]   Beaugrande, R de. & Dressler, W. V. (1981). Introduction to text linguistics. London: Longman.
[6]   Bransford, J. D., and Johnson, M. K. (1972). Contextual prerequisites for understanding: some investigations of comprehension and recall. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 11, 717-726.
[7]   Bransford, J. D., and Johnson, M. K. (1973). Considerations of some problems of comprehension. In W. G. Chase (Ed.), *Visual information processing* (pp. 383-438). New York: Academic Press.
[8]   Carrell, P. L. (1983). Three components of background knowledge in reading comprehension. *Language Learning*, 33(2), 183-207.
[9]   Carroll, D. W. (2000). Psychology of language (3rd ed). Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[10]   Floyd, P., and Carrell, P. L. (1987). Effects of ESL reading of teaching cultural content schemata. *Language Learning*, 37(1), 89-108.
[11]   Gatbonton, E. C. and Tucker, G. R. (1971). Cultural orientation and the study of foreign literature. *TESOL Quarterly*, 5, 137-143.
[12]   Goodman, K.S. (1982). The search called reading. In Frederick V. Gollasch (Ed.), *Language and literacy: The selected writings of Kenneth S. Goodman* (Vol. II, pp. 18-22). London: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd.
[13]   Hudson, T. (1988). The effects of induced schemata on the "short circuit" in L2 reading: non-decoding factors in L2 reading performance. In P. L. Carrell, J. Devine, and D. E. Eskey (Eds.), *Interactive approaches to second language reading* (pp. 183-205). Cambridge: CUP.

[14] Irwin, J. W. (1986). Teaching reading comprehension processes. Englewood Cliffs N. J.: Prentice-Hall.
[15] Kant, I. (1963). Critic of pure reason. (1st ed.1781, 2nd ed. 1787, N. Kemp Smith, Translator.) London: Macmillan,.
[16] Kintsch, W. & Franzke, M. (1995). The role of background knowledge in the recall of a news story. In R. F. Lorch, Jr., and E. J. O'Brien (Eds.), *Sources of coherence in reading* (pp.321-333). Hillsdale N. J.: Lawrence Erbium Associates.
[17] Levine, M. G., & Haus, G. J. (1985). The effect of background knowledge on the reading comprehension of second language learners. *Foreign Language Annuals*, 18(5), 391-97.
[18] Minsky, M. (1975). A framework for representing knowledge. In P. Evinston (Ed.), *The psychology of computer vision* (pp. 211-277). New York: Winston.
[19] Pearson, D. & Johnson, D. D. (1978). Teaching reading comprehension. New York: Holt, Rinehart.
[20] Qi Luxia &Wang Chuming. (1988). Background knowledge and language complexity in reading comprehension---a report of an experiment. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 2, 24-31.
[21] Reed, S. K. (1982). Cognition: Theory and applications. Monterey, California: Brooks/ Cole Publishing Company.
[22] Rumelhart, D. E. (1977). Toward an interactive model of reading. In S. Dornic (Ed.), *Attention and performance* (Vol. 16, pp. 573-603). New York: Academic Press.
[23] Sanford, A. J. & Garrod, S. C. (1981). Understanding written language. New York: John Wiley& Sons.
[24] Schank, R. C. & Abelson, R. (1977). Plans, scripts, goals and understanding. Hillsdale, N. J.: Erlbaum.
[25] Steffensen, M. S., & Joag-Dev, C. (1984). Cultural knowledge and reading. In J. C. Alderson and A. H. Urquhart (Eds.), *Reading in a foreign language* (pp. 48-62). London: Longman.

Yanmei Liu was born in Binzhou, China in 1979. She has obtained her M.A. in English language and literature from Shandong University and is currently a lecturer in Shandong University of Finance and Economics, Jinan, China. Her research interest is second language acquisition and corpus linguistics. This article is among her research outcomes when she was a visiting scholar at Beijing Foreign Studies University, China from July, 2015 to July, 2016.

The Effect of the Dicto-gloss as a Cooperative Learning Technique on EFL Learners' Self-efficacy in Writing

Moussa Ahmadian

Dept. of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Arak University, Arak 38156-8-8349, PO. Box: 879, Iran

Majid Amerian

Dept. of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Arak University, Arak 38156-8-8349, PO. Box: 879, Iran

Elham Lavasani

Dept. of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Arak University, Arak 38156-8-8349, Iran

Abstract—This study investigates the effect of Dicto-gloss as a cooperative learning technique on the perceived self-efficacy of Iranian EFL learners in writing. There were 46 Persian speaking EFL learners participated in this study. Out of 46, 23 participants were taken as the experimental group and the other 23 as the control group. They were heterogeneous due to the cooperative nature of the study. As the first phase of data collection, a self-efficacy in writing questionnaire developed by Yavuz-Erkan (2004) was administered to both groups as a pretest in order to evaluate the degree of their self-efficacy in writing. The experimental group was exposed to the Dicto-gloss technique of cooperative learning, while the control group was exposed to the traditional method of writing instruction in TEFL writing classes. After 13 sessions of treatment, the self-efficacy in writing questionnaire was reapplied to both groups as the post test. The participants' scores in the two groups were calculated and compared. The results revealed a difference between the two groups, indicating the effects of THE dicto-gloss technique of cooperative learning on self-efficacy in the writing of EFL learners.

Index Terms—cooperative learning, the Dicto-gloss technique, self-efficacy in writing, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the significant elements of education reform is to recognize the importance of the affective variables in learning second language. Honeck (2013) believes that most of the students have negative beliefs about their second language learning abilities and writing skill due to possible factors such as academic inexperience, language barriers, cultural differences, stress, tension and apprehension. He argued that these negative factors may affect learners' academic success. When confronted with completing the required tasks for their ESL/EFL courses, students need to have self-confidence. This required self-confidence in performing task is called "self-efficacy" (Bandura, 1977). The reason behind why many students have difficulty in school is not just because they are incapable of performing successfully but, according to Pajares (2002), because they are incapable of believing that they can perform successfully. He believes that many, if not most, academic crises are crises of confidence.

Self-efficacy, as a component of social cognitive theory, refers to the belief that one can successfully perform a task (Bandura, 1977). In academic settings, self-efficacy helps a student put efforts and persistence on a task. Bandura (1997) argues students' judgments in their capabilities to perform a particular task influence their academic achievement, since these beliefs affect emotional states such as stress, anxiety, apprehension, and depression, as well as motivation. Researchers have clearly shown the self-efficacy beliefs influence academic achievements directly or indirectly through its influence on goals (see Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). This means that if individuals have a high degree of efficacy, they will set challenging goals and persist in achieving them.

It should be noted that self-efficacy judgments are both "task-specific" and "situation-specific" (Bandura, 1986). The term writing self-efficacy was coined by Frank Pajares (2003), to mean that a strong sense of confidence enables the learners to write well when writing an essay because it delivers greatest interest, attention and persistence in the face of difficulties in writing process. Self-efficacy beliefs have been noted as one of the strongest predictors in writing performance (Klassen, 2002).

Interestingly, self-efficacy is malleable and can be enhanced by many strategies (Bandura, 1986). In educational settings, instructional syllabus and teachers can implement a lot of strategies to motivate and enhance the self-efficacy beliefs of learners. For instance, one of the student-centered approaches is cooperative learning. The idea of

cooperative learning, according to Joseph (2004), is based on the premise that an individual can only achieve his/her goals, if other members of the group with whom s/he is learning can equally attain their goals. Johnson & Johnson (1999) also mention that unlike individualistic or competitive learning, cooperative learning activities result in greater effort for achievement, more productivity, greater commitment, more self-esteem, greater social competence, more positive interpersonal relationships, and greater psychological health. Hence, it is assumed that cooperative learning, as learning and teaching strategy, can be implemented for self-efficacy beliefs.

One of the techniques that can be used in cooperative learning activities is the Dicto-gloss technique. The term was originally introduced by Wajnryb (1990). Dicto-gloss, according to Jacobs & Small (2003), is "an integrated technique for language learning in which students work together to create a reconstructed version to them by their teacher" (p:1). Dicto-gloss is an activity that naturally incorporates the elements of a text read cooperative learning, it is "a classroom dictation activity where learners listen to a passage, note down key words, and then work together to create a reconstructed version of the text" (Vasiljevic, 2010, p, 41). In fact, it is a model that embodies the current language teaching method for its learner autonomy, cooperation among learners, curriculum integration, focus on meaning, diversity, thinking skills, alternative assessment and teachers as co-learners (Jacobs & Farrel, 2001). It is an effective way of combining individual and group activities which can potentially have several advantages over other models of writing performance. Dicto-gloss can thus be used as a cooperative technique in EFL classroom activities. However, in spite of its possible effects, the use of this technique has not been studied in classroom activities as far as self-efficacy in writing is concerned. As a result, this study explores the impact of the Dicto-gloss technique of cooperative learning on self-efficacy of EFL learners.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a considerable body of research on finding the relationship between self-efficacy construct and other variables in second language contexts. Many researchers have examined self-efficacy construct in relation to learning strategies, language apprehension, motivation, self-esteem, critical thinking, age, learning styles, personality traits, language performance and second language achievement. The study of all these researchers shows that the learners' self-efficacy effects learners' motivation to learn (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Pajares, 2003; Schunk, 1991).

As far as self-efficacy in writing in EFL classrooms is concerned, there is not considerable research on the investigation of self-efficacy beliefs in second language writing. Prilah (2011) conducted a study on 120 Malaysian ESL learners' writing self-efficacy and found that the learners' overall self-efficacy was at a moderate level, which paralleled their moderate level of writing performance. Shah (2011) investigated the writing self-efficacy of Malaysian students learning English. They also studied the relationship between the learners' writing performance and their self-efficacy. Descriptive analysis of their study showed that the participants had a medium level of self-efficacy in writing and there was a significantly positive relationship between self-efficacy and writing performance.

It is interesting that efficacy is not perpetual and genetic characteristic or a congenital ability which could be present or absent in the people's capabilities or behavior (Bandura, 1997). The controversial issue is that if self-efficacy is not a congenital and permanent behavior and if its cultivation is affected by many external factors and affective functions, there must be some strategies to enhance this construct.

Research has proposed several strategies for this purpose, some of which include goal-setting, rewards, feedback and modeling are the suggested strategies for improving self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) suggested that self-efficacy can be enhanced through four major sources: "Mastery experience", "vicarious experience", "verbal persuasion", and "emotional arousal". According to him, mastery experience, which is the most influential sources of efficacy information, refers to the past experiences of success or failures of people. It means that people who have experienced successful performance tend to have high self-efficacy; hence, past experience plays a key role in developing self-efficacy beliefs. Vicarious experience, in the learning context, is when learners observe their peers accomplish a task successfully: they enhance efficacy beliefs about their own abilities in accomplishing the task and hence this situation can develop the learners' self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Social persuasion based on Bandura's explanation (1997) refers to the time when people receive encouragement and positive feedback which affect their efficacy. Bandura then mentions that the fourth way of increasing self-efficacy is concerned with emotional arousal (1997). In fact, affective arousal is divided into positive and negative responses. With negative responses, stress, anxiety, fatigue, negative attitude, and adverse mood can be experienced when facing challenges (Pajares, 2002). Consequently, in learning context, learners who have not language apprehension in performing the task, feel relaxed and see the learning situation as pleasure, so their efficacy beliefs can be enhanced.

Although there is a vast body of research that show the application of cooperative activities in second language learning is effective (Slavin, 1995), studies related to using cooperation for enhancing self-efficacy beliefs are not enough. One study (Ahour, 2012) tried to find out the effect of Cooperative Directed Learning on the writing performance of ESL undergraduate students compared to Directed Reading without cooperation and no treatment. The results revealed that the Cooperative Directed Learning had better performance in writing fluency and writing accuracy than Directed Reading without cooperation and treatment. Their finding verified the importance of using cooperative learning for writing.

As mentioned earlier, not enough research has been done to suggest the effectiveness of cooperative learning in increasing learners' self-efficacy. Reisberg & her colleagues (2012) conducted a study to examine the effect of cooperative education on the three dimensions of self-efficacy: work, career, and academic of students OF undergraduate-engineering. Of the three forms of efficacy, work self-efficacy was found to be affected by cooperative teaching. Fletcher (1990) attempted to explain how cooperative learning activities might strengthen learners' self-efficacy. As a consequence, there is a lack of research in developing self-efficacy beliefs of EFL learners in writing through cooperative learning. In fact, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, there is no study examining the impact of the dicto-gloss model of cooperative learning on self-efficacy of EFL learners in writing. Accordingly, the purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of the Dicto-gloss as a cooperative learning technique on self-efficacy in the writing of EFL learners.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

46 Persian speaking English learners, both male and female, took part in this study. They had passed already several basic courses in speaking, listening, reading, and writing in English in Pooyande institute. The participants had been already ranked based on their total scores on the language proficiency test administered by the institute. In fact, the principal factor for cooperative learning activities is heterogeneous groups (Slavin, 1982), so they were not needed to be on the same level of language proficiency. Kagan (1992) justifies the reason behind the heterogeneous group of learners as he believes it develops opportunities for peer support, maximizes cross-sex and cross-ethnic relations, and ensures that each group has one proficient participant. Johnson and Johnson (1989) argue many advantages of heterogeneous group of learners. They believe that such group formation improves social behaviors and develops self-esteem, enhances acceptance of differences and learners' tendency to have higher self-efficacy. Slavin (1982) clarifies cooperative learning as an "instructional methods involving small heterogeneous groups work together towards a common goal (pp.10-11). Slavin (1995) refers to Piaget and Vygotsky's developmental theories which emphasize on the problem solving by interaction among peers.

B. The Questionnaire for Self-efficacy in Writing

Data in this study was collected through one questionnaire that was administered two times, one to estimate writing self-efficacy of EFL learners before treatment and the other after treatment for both the experimental and control groups. Based on the self-efficacy construct proposed by Bandura (1977), Yavuz-Erkan (2004) developed a 28-item writing self-efficacy scale to assess the amount of subject's beliefs in their writing ability. The items of this scale were graded with the four-type Likert scale: I do it very well, I do it well, I do not do it well, or I do not do it well at all. According to Bandura (1997), each statement was preceded by the phrase "I can…" (see appendix 1).The author of the questionnaire completed a number of statistical tests and factor analysis to determine the reliability and validity of his instrument. For this questionnaire, Yavuz-Erkan (2004) considered five factors for reliability and validity including: Content, Design, Unity, Accuracy, and Punctuation. The scale was found to have cronbach alpha coefficient .88 for the first factor (Content), .80 for the second factor (Design), .77 for the third factor (Unity), .74 for the fourth factor (Accuracy), and .50 for the fifth factor (Punctuation) respectively. According to the factor analysis results, the variance explained with five factors was found to be 66.16.

C. Procedure

The treatment was done for 13 sessions held once per week and 30 minutes for each session. For the first week, self-efficacy questionnaire was administered to both classes. The questions in the questionnaire focused on exploring students' writing self-efficacy. The allocated time for this test was thirty minutes. For the next and the last 8 sessions, students were given three text topics to choose one based on their interest and background knowledge. Then the students listened to the short text. In the next step, students worked together in small groups to reconstruct the text, in a completed sentence form. They discussed to make a cohesive text type. They shared the key words, key content words and key structures. At this stage, even weaker members had the capability to share their notes with groups, since even the strongest had not the ability to remember all. This helps each individual to have one thing to do in a cooperative group working and increase his/her self-esteem. However, in the last step, which was for correction and analysis, learners relied on the more competent students. This stage of process lasted about 30 minutes. The control group practiced the conventional way of learning writing. After the treatment period, the questionnaire was reapplied in order to see whether there were any changes in writing self-efficacy of learners in the experimental and control groups.

IV. RESULTS

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the pretest of self-efficacy in order to examine whether the two groups enjoyed the same level of self-efficacy prior to the administration of the dicto-gloss model of cooperative learning activity. The scores of both groups were calculated. Table (1) presents the results of the pretest.

TABLE 1.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR PRE-TEST (BY EACH GROUP)

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest	1.00	23	14.0000	1.00000	.00000
	2.00	23	15.0000	1.00000	.00000

As Table (1) indicates, the mean scores of both the control and experimental groups are almost the same with only a slight difference. So one can infer that the raw scores of the participants do not differ greatly, and both groups had almost similar scores on self-efficacy. Also, the results of t-test shown in Table (2), statistically confirm that there is no significance difference between the variances of the groups in the pretest.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST (BOTH THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS)

		Statistics								
		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
Pretest	Equal variances assumed	.000	.000	-1.000	44	.089	.00000	.00000	-1.00000	.00000
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.000	42.000	.089	.00000	.00000	-1.00000	.00000

Table (2) provides us with the results of the Levenene's test for equality of variances. Levene's test examines the sameness of the variance of scores for two groups. With the F value of 0.00 at the significance level of 0.089 being larger than 0.05, the variances of the two groups are not significantly different. Thus, the results ($t = -1.000$, $p = 0.089 > 0.05$) indicate that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups in the pre-test.

After the treatment, the self-efficacy in writing questionnaire was reapplied to both the control and experimental groups. The descriptive and inferential statistical calculations concerning the post-test suggest some information about the variances of the two groups in the posttest. Table (3) illustrates the group statistics of the scores in the post-test.

TABLE 3.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR POST-TEST(FOR EACH GROUP)

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Posttest	1.00	23	15.0000	1.00000	.00000
	2.00	23	16.0000	1.00000	.00000

According to Table (3), there is a difference between the participants' mean scores in the pre- and post-tests.

In order to have more accurate and valid information, the independent t-test was used to compare the participants' scores in the post-test; the results indicate a significant difference between the two groups (Table 4).

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT SAMMPLE TESTS BETWEEN TWO GROUPS IN THE POST-TEST

		Statistics								
		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
Posttest	Equal variances assumed	.000	.000	-2.000	44	.009	-1.00000	.00000	-2.00000	.00000
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.000	42.000	.009	-1.00000	.00000	-2.00000	.00000

As Table (4) indicates, with the F value of 0.000 at the significance level of 0.009 being smaller than 0.05, the variances of the two groups are significantly different. Since this value is smaller than 0.05, it can be concluded that there is a statistical difference in the post-test mean scores of the Dicto-gloss and non-Dicto-gloss groups. It can be concluded that the difference at the end of the treatment could be attributed to the effect of the treatment. In fact, the results ($t = -2.00$, $p = 0.009 < 0.05$) show that the null hypothesis is rejected suggesting that the dicto-gloss model of cooperative learning activity does influence and has a significance effect on the writing self-efficacy of EFL learners

V. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to find out the effect of the dicto-gloss technique as cooperative learning on the perceived self-efficacy of EFL learners in writing. To find out possible effects, independent sample t-tests were used (SPSS 21 version 2). The analysis of the obtained scores through t-test (p value: $0.0009 < 0.05$ and $t = -2.00$) revealed

that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the groups at the post -test. It can be concluded that Dicto-gloss as a cooperative learning activity affects writing self-efficacy of the experimental group.

It can also be concluded that the Dicto-gloss technique as a cooperative learning activity in writing increases learners' efficacy. This can be due to the fact that cooperation reduces anxiety. Many researchers (Johnson & Johnson 1989, Slavin 1991, Oxford, 1997, Ghaith & El-malak, 2004, Law, 2011) believe that cooperative learning activities decrease learners' anxiety and foster their attitudes toward language learning.

Cooperative learning activities increase self-efficacy of learners through peer modeling, vicarious experience and mastery experience as the possible sources of self-efficacy enhancement (Bandura, 1997). Cooperative learning activities affect self-efficacy since it enhances learners' cognitive style and motivation through interaction and negotiation (Nunan & Lamb, 1996). It has also been argued that cooperative learning gives students "a feeling of control over what they are doing, which leads to the Learners' self-determination that is necessary for motivation and high achievement" (Bandura, 1977, p. 202). Gillies (2002) believes that "When children were provided with the opportunity of working cooperatively together to exercise control over their own learning, they were more committed to the group goals and had a greater unanimity of purpose than when cooperation was not actively promoted" (p. 139).

The results also support Garduno's findings (2001) that cooperative problem solving influences mathematics achievement, self-efficacy and attitudes toward mathematics in gifted students. Reisberg (2012) supports this hypothesis in his study, claiming that cooperative education is a means to enhance self-efficacy among sophomores in undergraduate engineering. The findings of the present study correspond to Araban's (2012) results, the cooperative learning effects on self-efficacy and academic achievement of high school students. He concluded that cooperative learning activities affect both self-efficacy and academic achievement of English students.

In the Dicto-gloss model of cooperative learning, the students learn best communicating with students of different abilities when trying to solve a problem. Different strategies are demonstrated by different individuals with different learning styles in accomplishing the task. Among other researchers (Dishon & O'leary, 1984; Johnson and Johnson, 1989) pointed out the heterogeneous group of learners develop more merits than homogenous ones as it helps people to be exposed to different information in the discourse due to differences in background knowledge and ways of learning. Such differences help the learners learn from each other. It should be noted that "Piaget &Vygotsky also emphasize the social nature of learning and both suggest the use of mixed-ability learning groups to promote conceptual changes" (Slavin, 2003, p.258). Vygotsky's (1978) most known concept, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZDP), refers to the level of knowledge that is beyond which the learner is able to do. To help a learner to move to a higher level, teachers are suggested to provide a situation of cooperation among learners. In cooperative situations, the person who is a more knowledgeable peer at a level that is just above the novice learner's abilities at that time could help the novice learner to move to the next level of knowledge. To help learners progress into their ZDP in the peer cooperative groups, more peers are expected to scaffold the novice or less proficient learners in a way to actualize their potentialities. Slavins'(1982) heterogeneous cooperative model supports Vygotsky's (1978) belief in asymmetrical relationship between peers. Cooperation does work when the peers cooperate with each other for the sake of filling the gaps.

Additionally, van Lier (1991) argued that interaction, participation, and negotiation create learning opportunities in L2 classrooms. Also, Alijaafreh (1994) mentioned learning is a collaborative process, not something that an individual does alone. In fact, teamwork is necessary in assisted performance.

Kohn and Vajda (1975) believed in the heterogeneous grouping of learners. They argued that small group organization should be similar to a natural world setting in which students of different degrees of knowledge and skills cooperate with each other and such heterogeneity increases interaction. Ohta's (2000) study revealed that learners were capable to do some tasks together that they were incapable individually. In fact, cooperative learning exhibits performance accomplishment which is a key factor for developing self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). In this study, learners accomplished the tasks in the Dicto-gloss model since they benefited from peer collaboration. Learners had repeated experiences of success. According to Schunk (1990), progress of success influences learners' efficacy and their motivation to work harder to accomplish the task. In fact, the Dicto-gloss technique of cooperative learning serves the purpose of performance accomplishment. The sense of experience in accomplishing the tasks both creates and increases the efficacy beliefs. It is obvious that the efficacy beliefs of learners in writing in the experimental group were increased through vicarious experience, peer modeling, and mastery experience (Bandura, 1997). In addition, more proficient learners in heterogeneous groups developed their sense of efficacy through "mastery experience" as one source of efficacy enhancement (Bandura, 1997). More advanced learners have an opportunity to adjust, refine, and experience with their own language through interaction (Ohta, 2000).

VI. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study show that cooperative activities influence learners' self-efficacy. More specifically, the learners who receive cooperative activities have a better sense of self-efficacy in writing. In fact, one way that teachers can increase students' self-efficacy in academic settings is through peer modeling and cooperative tasks. If students see a successful learner in their group, this would give them a positive view about their own abilities, and this would have a significant influence on students' self-efficacy. If the cooperative learning instrument is implemented correctly in the classroom, each individual is expected to be accepted as being helpful by his/her peers in the group. This means that

more proficient learners are respected for their knowledge as well as their disposition to share their knowledge; less proficient are valued for their inclination to make improvement and to share what they remember. Teachers can provide an atmosphere in the classroom which is free of anxiety and writing apprehension. Students need to enjoy from cooperative tasks with their peers and teachers can provide such situations. Therefore, by implementing cooperative tasks, teachers can help learners to mostly overcome the feeling of uncertainties about their capabilities, and develop writing self-efficacy in learners through peer modeling, mastery experiences, verbal persuasions and decreasing their apprehension and anxiety.

In addition to teachers, syllabus designers and material developers can also play an important role in this regard. They can provide materials for teaching writing to language learners and design exercises by teaching basic principles and different formats of writing. They can also implement some strategies in their materials for students to work cooperatively in classes.

APPENDIX

Questionnaire
Perceived Writing Self-Efficacy Beliefs Rate Scale (developed by Yavuz-Erkan, 2004)
Read each statement below and then use the following scale to indicate various degrees of effectiveness. Of course, there are no right or wrong answers to such questions, so do not spend too much time on any one statement, but select the answer that best applies to you. Thank you for your cooperation.
1= I do it very well   2= I do it well   3= I do not do it well   4= I do not do it well at all
1 I can write interesting and appropriate response to a given topic
2 I can easily cover all the information that should be dealt within a given topic.
3 I can use appropriate style to the task.
4 I can easily match style with topic
5 I can generate ideas to write about easily.
6 I can think of ideas rapidly when given a topic to write about.
7 I can write on an assigned topic without difficulty.
8 I can easily find examples to support my ideas.
9 I can justify my ideas in my compositions.
10 I can write grammatically correct sentences in my compositions.
11 I can use complex language in writing without difficulty.
12 I can produce error free structures.
13 I can spell very well.
14 I can use the punctuation correctly.
15 I can edit my compositions for mistakes such as punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing.
16 I can easily use structures I have learned in my class accurately.
17 I can link ideas together easily.
18 I can use transition words correctly to make my composition a better one.
19 I can use connectors correctly to make my composition a better one.
20 I can use a wide range of vocabulary in my compositions.
21 I can use synonyms in a composition rather than repeating the same words over and over again.
22 I can write a brief and informative overview of a given topic.
23 I can manage my time efficiently to meet a deadline on a piece of writing.
24 I can rewrite my wordy or confusing sentences to make them clearer.
25 I can extend the topic to fit in a given word limit.
26 I can choose and defend a point of view.
27 I can make long and complex sentences.
28 I can fulfill a writing task without difficulty within a given time limit.

REFERENCES

[1]   Aljaafreh, A.& Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal,* 78 (4), 465-83.
[2]   Araban, S. (2012). Study of cooperative learning effects on self-efficacy and academic achievement in English Lesson of High School students. *Journal of Basics and Applied Sciences Research*, 2 (9)8524-8526, 2012.
[3]   Bandura, A. (1977). Self-Efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change. *Psychological Review.* 1977, Vol. 8, No. 2, 191-215.
[4]   Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundation of thought and action: a social cognitive theory.   Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall.
[5]   Bandura, A. (1997). Self-Efficacy: The exercise of control. New York: W.H. Freeman and   Company.
[6]   Dishon, D. & O'Leary, P. (1984). A guidebook for cooperative learning: A technique for creating more effective schools. Holmes Beach, FL: Learning Publications.

[7] Fahim, M. Nasrollahi, A.(2013). The relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and critical thinking beliefs. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Vol. 3, No. 3, pp. 538-543, March 2013

[8] Fletcher, J.K. (1990). Self-esteem and cooperative education: A theoretical framework. *Journal of Cooperative Education*, 26(3), 41-55.

[9] Garduno, E.L.H. (2001). The influence of cooperative problem solving on gender differences in achievement self-efficacy, and attitudes toward mathematics in gifted students. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 45, 268-282.

[10] Ghaith, G. M., & El-Malak, M. A. (2004). Effect of Jigsaw II on literal and higher order EFL reading comprehension. *Educational Research and Evaluation*, 10, 101-115.

[11] Gillies, R. (2002). The residual effects of cooperative learning experiences: A two year follow-up. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 96, 1, 15-20.

[12] Honeck, A.Y (2013). Assessing perceived self-efficacy beliefs in the community college environment. Retrieved 29 September, 2013,from http://www.hamline.edu/WorkArea/linkit.aspx?ItemID=4294991714.

[13] Jacobs, G & Small, J. (2003). Combining dictogloss and cooperative language learning to promote language learning. The reading matrix, Vol3, No.1, 2003. Available at: http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/jacobs/article.pdf.

[14] Jacobs, G. M., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2001). Paradigm shift: Understanding and implementing change in second language education. TESL-EJ, 5(1). Retrieved May, 12, 2013 from http://www.kyotosu.ac.jp/information/tesl-ej/ej17/toc.html.

[15] Johnson, D.W., & Johnson, R.T. (1989). Cooperation and competition: Theory and research. Edina, MN: Interaction Book Company.

[16] Johnson D. W and Johnson R.T (1999) "Cooperative learning and achievement," in S. Sharan (Ed.), *Cooperative Learning 1999: Theory and Research,* pp. 173-202, New York: Praeger

[17] Joseph. S. (2004). Exploring the relationship between Self-efficacy beliefs and purpose in Life. PhD dissertation, University of Ohio.[Online]. Retrieved 29 January, 2014. Available: www.ohio.educ.com.

[18] Kagan, S. (1992). Cooperative Learning. San Juan Capistrano, CA: Resources for Teachers.

[19] Klassen, R. (2002). Writing in early adolescence: a review of the role of self-efficacy beliefs. *Educational Psychology Review,* 14(2), 173-203. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.573.

[20] Kohn, J.J., & Vajda, P.G (1975). Peer-mediated instruction and small group interaction in ESL classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly,* 9, 379-390.

[21] Law, Y. K. (2011). The effects of cooperative learning on enhancing Hong-Kong fifth graders' achievement, goals, autonomous motivation and reading proficiency. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 34(4), 402-425.

[22] Nunan, D. & Lamb, C. (1996). The self-directed teacher- managing the learning process. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[23] Ohta, A.S (2000). Rethinking interaction in SLA: Developmentally appropriate assistance in the zone of proximal development and acquisition of L2 in grammar. In J.P Lantlof (Ed). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 51-78). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[24] Oxford, R. L. (1997). Cooperative learning, collaborative learning, and interaction: three communicative strands in language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81, 443-456.

[25] Pajares (2002). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic contexts: An outline. Retrieved March, 11, 2013, from http://www.des.emory.edu/mfp/efftalk.html.

[26] Pajares, F & Schunk, D.A (2002). The Development of Academic Self-Efficacy. Cutting Edge:Enhance Your eaching: Affective Domain: Self-Efficacy Retrieved 11 April 2013 from http://www.uky.edu/~eushe2/Pajares/SchunkPajares2001.PDF.

[27] Pajares, F. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs, motivation, and achievement in writing: A review of the literature. *Reading &Writing Quarterly*, 19(2), 139-158.

[28] Pintrich, P. R., & De Groot, E. V. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol 82,No.1, 33-40.

[29] Prilah M.S., Wan Hamiah, Rosseni Din, Aminuddin Yusof & Khalid Mat Pardi (2011). Self-efficacy in the writing of Malaysian ESL learners. *World Applied Sciences Journal* 15:08-11, 2011

[30] Reisberg, R., Raelin, J., Whiteman, D. and Hamann, J (2012). The effect of cooperative education on the self-efficacy of students in undergraduate engineering. American Society for Engineering Education. AC 2012-3968

[31] Shah P. M., Mahmud W. H., Din R., Yusof A., & Pardi K. M. (2011). Self-Efficacy in the writing of Malaysian ESL learners. *World Applied Sciences Journal (Innovation and Pedagogy for Lifelong Learning)*, 15, 08-11

[32] Shunck ,D.H (1991). Self-efficacy and academic motivation. *Educational psychologist*, 26, 207-231.

[33] Slavin, R.E. (1982). When does cooperative learning increase achievement? *Psychological Bulletin*, 94, 429-445.

[34] Slavin, R. E. (1991). Synthesis of research on cooperative learning. *Educational Leadership,* 48, 71-82

[35] Slavin. R. E. (1995). Cooperative learning: Theory, research, and practice (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

[36] Slavin, E.R. (2003). Educational Psychology. Theory and Practice. Allyn & Bacon: Pearson

[37] van Lier, L. (1991). Inside the classroom: Learning process and teaching procedures. *Applied Language Learning*, 2.29-68.

[38] Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). Mind in Society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, Mass: Harvad University Press.

[39] Vasiljevic, Z. (2010). Dicto-gloss as an Interactive Method of Teaching Listening Comprehension to L2 Learners. www.ccsenet.org/elt. Vol.3. No. 1.

[40] Wajnryb, R. (1990). Grammar dictation. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[41] Yavuz-Erkan, D. (2004). Efficacy of cross-cultural e-mail exchange for enhancing EFL writing: A perspective for tertiary-level Turkish EFL learners. Unpublished Dissertation Abstract. Cukurova University, The Institute of Social Science English language Teaching. Adana/Turkey.

[42] Zimmerman, B. & Bandura, A. (1994). Impact of self-regulatory influences on writing course attainment. *American Educational Research Journal,* 31, 845-862.

Moussa Ahmadian is now an associate professor of Dept. of English Language and Literature at, Arak University, Arak, Iran. He received his MA in TEFL from Tarbiat Modaress University, Tehran, Iran, in 1989, and his PhD in applied Linguistics from The University of Sheffield, UK, in 1995. His fields of interest are Psycholinguistics and Instructed SLA, TEFL, Critical Discourse Analysis, Translation Studies, and Literature, on which he has published and presented a number of papers in Inter/national Journals and conferences. He runs courses on translation, English Literature, and Applied linguistics for BA and MA students, and Psycholinguistics, FLA, and SLA for PhD students of TEFl. He has carried out a number of research projects on Translatology, Textology and Intertextuality, and has supervised a great number of MA theses relating to his fields of study.

Majid Amerian holds a Ph.D. in TEFL from Allameh Tabataba'i. He is an Assistant Professor and a faculty member at Arak University. He has authored and co-authored some research articles in national and international journals. His main research interests include Vygotskian sociocultural theory, dynamic assessment, discourse analysis, second language writing and postcolonial studies.

Elham Lavasani, was born on November, 14, 1984 in Tehran, Iran. She is holding an M.A. in applied linguistics, English Language Teaching, from Arak University, Iran. She is currently teaching in Tehran. Her research interests include the psychological aspects of language learning and teaching, self-esteem and self-efficacy and implementing different techniques and strategies of enhancing efficacy construct.

The Implementation of Module-based Methodology in College English Teaching

Liu Peng

School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Science and Engineering, Zigong, China

Chunrong Wu

School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Science and Engineering, Zigong, China

Xianjun Tan

International Cooperation and Exchanges Office, Sichuan University of Science and Engineering, Zigong, China

Abstract—**In response to recent reforms in the National College Entrance Exam and China's College English Curriculum Requirements issued in 2007, the research explores the module-based method college English teaching. Twenty students are recruited to participate and given extra help of one-hour long lesson each time in sixteen weeks. Enlightened by the arrangement of in-class used textbooks, the researcher distributes the 16-hour lessons into three modules: the module of five-hour vocabulary-grammar, the module of reading-writing, and the module of listening-speaking. The researches shows that this module-based can greatly stimulate students' interest in English learning, cultivate their potentials and develop their comprehensive skills.**

Index Terms—**college English test band four, module-based method, college English teaching**

I. INTRODUCTION

Since early 1980s, China's College English Curriculum Requirements (henceforth the Requirements) have experienced five stages of reforms: 1980, 1985-1986, 1999, 2004 and 2007, which demonstrates that English plays a significant role in China's higher education. Considering varieties of axiomatic factors which might stand in the way of great efficiency in English teaching and learning, the latest version of the Requirements which took place in 2007 clearly states three objectives of assessment, namely they are basic objective, intermediate objective and advanced objective. For different levels (objectives), the 2007 Requirements make a detailed list of listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translation, all of which are thought very important for any learner to master a foreign language. For all Chinese college students, their major English learning goal is to pass College English Test band four (Hence CET-4), while for higher level of English proficiency, their goal is to pass College English Test band six although some might learn English well for further or oversea studies. Thus the Requirements propose that the overall objective of College English is to "is to develop students' ability to use English in a well-rounded way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future studies and careers as well as social interactions. They will be able to communicate effectively, and at the same time enhance their ability to study independently and improve their general cultural awareness so as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchanges."

During the fifteen years of teaching career, the researcher notices that, although every new generation of students entering into college has an overall higher level of English proficiency, their English learning interest decreases, and as a consequence, they fail to work hard enough to pass College English Test Band 4, which is taken as a sign of skillfulness for college English learners. However, based on years of practical teaching, the researcher has found out that students' failure in CET-4 discourages them from making necessary adjustments to their English learning. Over two years of college English learning, their level of English proficiency declines sharply every semester. However, Recent cases also show that the higher scores the test-takers achieve, the more proficient their English is. Among other things such as students' individual efforts and scientific test-taking techniques, the greatest reason lies in that greater emphasis of national tests such as the National College Entrance Exam and CET-4 is laid on testing students' comprehensive skills.

Through further inquiry, we know about that quite a number of students feel goalless for their English learning. As we know, English is in close connection with their future job choice, advanced studies, and oversea opportunities. In better response to the 2007 requirements and helping students pass CET-4, college English teachers should focus on the following three aspects:

1. *How can we develop students' learning interest?*
2. *In what way can we dig into students' learning potentials?*
3. *And what can we do to reinforce students' comprehensive skills in language learning?*

<center>II. PRACTICAL RESEARCH</center>

A. Pre-research

The present research is based at a provincial university in west China. According to some official statistics collected by the university, the percentage of students who pass CET-4 in every academic year is about 10% lower than any other universities in the same province. However, this university is above the average in other academic activities.

In this research, the target students are freshmen. In order for students to fulfill their major goal for college English learning, the research implement a series of trials, among which module-based approach to *New Horizon College English* course is listed on top. Two textbooks supposed to be used for four-year undergraduates in class. On is Reading and Writing book, the other being *Listening and Speaking* book. For the first book there are four modules in each unit: text, vocabulary, exercise and structured writing, and for the second, as its name implies, the listening part and the speaking part. Obviously seeing, *New Horizon College English* books are in precise accordance with China's College English Curriculum Requirements. If used scientifically, it will build up students' comprehensive skills in English learning, and without doubt, help them pass CET-4. Enlightened by this arrangement of textbooks and the five objective of the 2007 Requirements, the present research implements the module-based method in practical teaching. As frontline teaching staff, all can be done is to practice, evaluate, rethink, improve, and back to practice.

Considering a large number of students in normal English class, the researcher recruits 20 students among eight natural classes of the English course (and total number of students is 236). Before recruitment, the research explains that the extra lessons are taken every Wednesday afternoon, the lesson is one-hour long and lasts 16 weeks this semester, and its purpose is to improve student's known difficult part of specific skills which are divided into vocabulary-grammar class, reading-writing class, listening-writing class and translation class. Besides that, students' strict self-discipline is expected as the lessons are totally out of volunteering actions completely disconnected with normal English performance. On the recruitment paper, three questions are asked: 1, What's your main goal of learning English? 2, What's the most difficult part in English learning? 3, What is your suggestion for English class or teachers? Based on how they answer the three questions above, the researcher gives lessons to 20 selected students on basis of module-based approach. This way can solve the following three problems: A, small class lets students abundant opportunities to participate in limited class time, and the teacher can pay as much attention to each students as he or she wants. B, students have a clear goal of each time learning in a certain period. Through attentive studies, more confidence are gained. C, all lessons can be taken in language labs: modern teaching methodologies are introduced, fun is added, and efficiency can be improved.

Here additional information needs clarifying. Firstly about 70% of students (165/236) say their main goal is to pass CET-4 in the first year of their university study, which makes students very excited to enroll in the extra lessons. Secondly nearly 89% (210) suggest various teaching methodologies be adopted, more English movies or songs be played, and pleasant (close) attention be wanted.

B. In Practice

Adapted from *New Horizon College English* books, the researcher designs four modules of teaching contents especially aimed at the specific designated difficulty in English learning.

1 Group 1 Vocabulary and Grammar

Concerning the importance of vocabulary and grammar, some quotes speak louder. "Lexis is the core or heart of language" (Lewis, 1993, p100) , while Widdowson (1990) stressed that obviously grammar played a central role in the function of language. Wilkins (1972) explained further "while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed"(p111). Take Section A, Unit Three, Book II as an example. The topic of this unit is marriage across nations. Key words are underlined, and required to translate sentences from Chinese to English. When translating, emphasize that a complete sentence with correct grammar is a must. Before practice, play "New Word" in mp3 format, let students listen over and over till all ten students can pronounce every word correctly. As is known to all, proper pronunciation reinforces the memorization of vocabulary. While practice, help analyze the sentence structure in English mind such as the sentence patterns, the tenses or voices, and the exact key words or phrases. In order to expand their vocabulary in marriage, the teacher tries to design more examples related when practicing using new words. For example: to practice the usage of compromise, students are expected to translate this sentence "要维系一段幸福的婚姻，其秘诀在于夫妻之间的包容。" The teacher illustrates three possible translations according to different level of students' English proficiency. *The couple's mutual compromise is the secret of a happy marriage.==A happy marriage lies in the couple's mutual compromise. ==Mutual compromise is the secret for the couple to maintain a happy marriage.* What's more, the teacher needs help students learn by analogy and judge the whole from the part. For example, when introducing the usage of *harbor some reservations about sth*, the teacher lists the whole bunch of news words like suspicion, prejudice, and hesitation which can take the place of reservations. Respectively in sentences: *Gail's father harbors some suspicion about Mark's marrying her daughter; People harbor some prejudice about the black's marrying the white girl; and Gail harbors some hesitation about moving to her husband's country after marriage.* In order to strengthen this knowledge, the related vocabulary in the textbooks are on-spot check. As to the "sentence structure" part in textbooks, the teacher takes one as a model explanation, the rest are done under the guidance. After that the teacher will give more practice related so that mistakes can be corrected immediately. For

example, for the usage of *despite*. Students tend to use it as a conjunction, often followed by a complete sentence. In this case, the researcher compare *despite* with *even though*. Altered from test exercises in CET-4, similar practice are added in class. For example, "尽管经历了种种的艰辛与不幸，he never gives up the pursuit of knowledge"。Two companion translations are given: *1, Even though he has encountered countless hardships and difficulties; 2, Despite countless hardships and difficulties he has encountered.* One time practice is never enough. In the beginning of next lesson, ten minutes will be spent on vocabulary dictation and grammar review.

2 Group 2 Reading and Writing

Before learning the text, homework questions will be designed and assigned to students so that they can preview the main idea and important details of the text. The development of answers is a process of understanding how the writer organizes the text, which is of much significance to constructing an English article. Take Section A, Unit One, Book II as an example. The topic of this unit is time-conscious Americans. Six questions are given: 1, What are the two things Americans save carefully? 2, How do you understand "Time is a precious resource"? 3, What is the first impression Americans leave on foreigners? Explain it with examples. 4, How do Americans do business in order to save time? 4. What do they do in order to save time? 6. What's the difference between America and other countries in dealing with time and work? The ideal answer is that students understand the text, take some important information, and answer each questions with their own words based on their understanding and important information in complete sentences with correct grammars. The referable answers are as follows: 1. There are two things Americans save carefully: one is labor, and the other is time. 2. Time is a precious resource. Once time is gone, it will never return. 3. When arriving at America, foreigners notice that everyone is in a rush, often under pressure. e.g. In the store, we can see people are eager to complete their shopping. For working people, they race through their daytime meals so that they can go back to work within time allowed. 4. In business world, people talk business directly without extended talk or welcoming cups of tea or coffee. 5. In order to save more time, America invents a series of devices such as faxes and telephones, and people prefer electronic communication rather than personal contacts, which, they think, has little or no relation to the matter at hand. 6. In America, the importance of work determines the length of time, whereas in other countries, the length of time decides the importance of work. According to the minimum words for CET-4 composition, students are supposed to write an essay of at least 120 but no more than 180 words on a specific topic. Suppose there is a composition entitled *how Americans treat time*. Here if we put all the answers above together, it exactly is the CET-4 composition with much fluency. Back to the practice of vocabulary and grammar, the six answers have the language points and grammar knowledge of "one..., the other...", "*Once*-clause", "When-doing" pattern, "rather than or have little/no/much relation to sth", "*whereas*-clause"(a new word in this unit). To practice writing skill, the first thing for the researcher is to emphasize the analysis of the text, let students comb the writer's writing thread, and imitate writing a paragraph of main body with main structures. For example, Unit Three Book II: write a paragraph of cause-effect pattern. The following is listed for good of students. Topic: Problem for mixed marriages. Cause: cultural differences, prejudices and doubts; cruel to children from mixed marriages. Effect: higher divorce rates. As long as students can have a better comprehension of the text, they can understand how the writer constructs the text. If doing it by themselves, they should have a clear idea of how to organize the structures given and create a composition of their own. Later when encountering similar topic writing, undoubtedly they will do it well.

3 Group 3 Listening and Speaking

Through practice of vocabulary-grammar and reading-writing, students' foundation of vocabulary and awareness of grammars build up day by day. Whenever they do translation, students can decide what exact words or phrases to put and what proper grammatical structures to choose. When reading, students are expected to read with questions in mind. We all know it is an efficient technique to read for a particular purpose. Along with after-reading tasks, students should make conscious efforts to understand text structure based on main idea and important details. On the issue of translation skill, as is seen, it runs through every part of the development of practical language skills. In order for students to improve their skills in speaking and speaking, the teacher makes it clear to students that, the first importance is to understand what others hear, listening is to show interest, obtain information from others, and discover the speaker's attitudes while speaking is to give information, express feelings or share opinions. Obviously like translation skill, the speaking activity takes place throughout the whole process of language learning. During the course of listening and speaking practice, the teacher emphasizes four synchronous actions: listen (to what the speaker says) with ears, read (the speaker or the exercises on exam papers) with eyes, think (what is the connection with heard information and read information) with brains, and write (down what is heard important) with pens (or by hand). From this point of view, listening is the toughest skill to train. For each unit from *New Horizon College English*, the listening exercises are designed in accordance with the same topic of what's learned in reading and writing book. For listening materials in the textbook, the researcher uses them at the first two time of listening to check students' basic abilities as the text exercises are designed in multiple choices, which can be used speculatively by students, that is they don't listen with techniques but make choices by trying their luck. For further understanding, the researcher revises some articles in forms of spot-dictation or short-answer tests. The overall principle is to devise exercises in connection with types of CET-4 tests.

C. Follow-ups

Till the semester ends, the participant students have taken altogether 16-hour extra lessons in four modules of English

learning. In order to test how they learn from this method, the researcher arranges a comprehensive test for vocabulary-grammar, reading-writing, and listening-speaking. In the meanwhile, the researcher adds "All suggestions are welcome" on the test paper. After checking students' test papers, the researcher finds out that their test-taking skills are greatly improved, and the relative knowledge has been mastered. When talking to them individually, students express that they enjoy this for the following three reasons: A, smaller class is pleasant. It enhances their class performance, stimulate their learning enthusiasm and force them to be well-prepared each time before class because they know they have opportunities to participate and teachers can give everyone enough time and attention. B, The module-based approach is of great efficiency in language teaching, especially within small groups. For each module students are given enough time to think and practice. In this way it helps students identify the difficult or important points and lets them form a systematic frame of knowledge. C, Language labs create more fun. Movie clips and music MV shown not only help students learn a language especially train their listening ability, but also it also widens their horizon in English culture. For example, when learning about the topic of true love, the researcher plays a movie entitled *Sleepless in Seattle*. The 20-minute clips show the general introduction of Sam (loses his wife) and Annie (gets engaged), the changing life of Sam (quarrels with Jonah) and Annie (starts marriage shopping), and the happy ending of Sam (flies to New York for Jonah) and Annie (confesses everything to her fiance and runs to Empire State). After viewing, the teacher explains some cultural knowledge like Uncle Sam, baby-sitter and Empire State and *An Affair to Remember*.

III.   DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTION

On basis of honest analysis, the research concludes the following factors which might hinder students' level of English proficiency. The first, this university is characterized by science and engineering. What score in English course students achieve in the National College Entrance Exam is overlooked by the admission office. What they value is that students can measure up to the minimum standard of the university, especially for those who have conspicuously high score in Maths or Integrated science course (i.e. the comprehensive test of physics, chemistry and biology). The second, the diverse sources of students lead to a sharp difference of students' level of English proficiency. In recent years the university has expanded the scale of students all over the country, namely, from over twenty-three provinces or cities or areas. Such wide coverage brings about a huge gap among learners. In order to get exact information of how huge, the researcher asks 296 freshmen for their English scores in the National College Entrance Exam, which range from 138 to 53, but the total score is 150. The third, the hardware facilities are far from satisfaction both for teachers and for students. There are three campuses in the universities. Take where the researcher's work campus as an example, in total four language laboratories are open to 7,815 students, whereas multimedia classrooms are not best choice for language learners, with bad quality of sound system. Furthermore there are not many multimedia classrooms available for English course. As a consequence, English is usually taken in ordinary classroom, blackboard and chalk best choice. Demand is far too more than supply. The fourth, large English class discourages student participants in class. On average there are more than 60 students in one class each time. As we know, language learning involves numerous practice in class. Too many students decrease the chances of class participation and teachers' attention to students of less accomplished or poor performance. And the fifth, uncreative teaching methods are popularly used in class. The whole university uses the same textbook for the same level of learners. In the university three levels are classified: four-year undergraduates, three-year juniors, and art and music majors. Before new semester, some leader decides the general process of teaching, and thus teachers use the textbook mechanically for sake of convenience. At the end of each semester a uniformed exam paper has been designed to test students' language learning respectively.

To change its negation and push college English teaching to a higher level, the researcher suggests the following ways out. Firstly, from the angle of the university authority, when admitting students, allow in a small number of students with exceptional talent but poor level of English proficiency. Before students enter college, prepare enough language labs for a large scale of language learning groups. On the day of students' entry into college, have a graded test in order to put students in a proper class for English learning. When assigning teaching task to teachers, make the class smaller for the good of teaching and learning. Secondly, various teaching methods and flexible tests should be encouraged. Boring and dull classroom teaching is far from perfect. To learn a language, to know about a foreign culture. Relaxing ways of teaching are welcome. And thirdly, Considering students' main goal in CET-4, teachers are expected to reinforce their basic knowledge of vocabulary-grammar, reading-writing and listening-speaking. Module-based methods are worth trying.

IV.   CONCLUSION

Recent reforms show that the importance of the English course hasn't been weakened in China's education of all levels. In the National College Entrance Exam its scores are not reduced but remain 150 as before. The difference is that students have twice chances to take the national tests. As for college students' CET-4, its difficulty will not be declined, but its variety of tests requires students to develop their comprehensive skills. To this end, the researcher recruits 20 students from 236 students and teach them three modules of English knowledge in language laboratory on Wednesday afternoon. After ten hours of each module learning, students'

learning interests, test-taking techniques and comprehensive skills have been greatly improved. In conclusion, front-line teachers are supposed to know about students' difficult points individually and strengthen the development of comprehensive skills. What's more, language learning should take place in a fun and pleasant environment. With a clear goal, students can reap lots of benefits of teachers' module-based method.

REFERENCES

[1] Higher Education Commission of China. (2007). College English Curriculum Requirements, Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[2] Lewis, M. (1993). The Lexical Approach: the state of ELT and a way forward. Hove, England: Language Teaching Publications, p100.
[3] Zheng Shutang. (2011). New Horizon College English. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[4] Widdowson, H.G. (1990). Aspects of Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[5] Wilkins, D.A. (1972). Linguistics in Language Teaching. Cambridge: MIT Press, p111.

Liu Peng, was born in Chongqing, China in 1976. She received M.A. degree in applied linguistics from University of Electronic Science and Technology of Chengdu, China in 2012.

She is currently an English lecturer in School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Science and Engineering, Zigong, China. Her research focuses on EFL teaching.

Chunrong Wu, was born in Yinbin, China in 1973. In June 2000 she graduated from Southwest University with M.A. Degree in applied linguistics. From Apr. 2014 to Dec. 2016 her research on "A Pragmatic-translation approach to research on applied translation" is financed by by Research Project of Education Department of Sichuan Province.

She is currently an associate professor of the English language in School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Science and Engineering, Zigong, China. Her research specialization is in applied linguistics and translation.

Xianjun Tan, was born in Zigong, China in 1982. In June 20011 he graduated from University of Electronic Science and Technology of China (Chengdu, China) with M.A. Degree in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics. From Jan. 2014 to Dec. 2015, his research on "Current situations and correspondent strategies of Cultural Zigong" is financed by Research Project of Education Department of Sichuan Province.

He is currently the chief of administrative office in International Cooperation and Exchanges Office in Sichuan University of Science and Engineering, Zigong, China. His research focuses on applied linguistics, foreign language teaching, Chines culture and foreign cultures.

The Relationship between Parents' Involvement, Attitude, Educational Background and Level of Income and Their Children's English Achievement Test Scores

Vida Hosseinpour
Department of English Language, Islamic Azad University, Saveh Branch, Saveh, Iran

Saeed Yazdani
Department of English Language, Islamic Azad University, Saveh Branch, Saveh, Iran

Mojgan Yarahmadi
Department of English Language, Islamic Azad University, Saveh Branch, Saveh, Iran

Abstract—**The present study intends to investigate the relationship between Iranian parents' involvement, attitude, educational background and level of income and their children's English achievement test scores. At first, a reliable questionnaire was used and distributed among 140 parents. Next, to categorize parents in two levels, the normal curve and the Z score analysis were used and they were divided into two groups, with a higher or lower level of involvement and more or less positive attitude. Then, to find the students' achievement, a standard final achievement test was distributed among 70 primary school student. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation and the Spearman rank Order Correlation (rho) were employed to explore the relationship between the variables. The outcomes showed that there are highly positive correlations between the parents' involvement, attitude, educational background and income level and their children's English achievement. It should be mentioned that parents' involvement and attitude were found to be really significant in their children's learning meaning the more they get involved in and the more positive attitude they have toward their young children's language learning, the more their children achieve in the education and also the higher level of parents' education and income are effective in children language achievement.**

Index Terms—**involvement, attitude, educational background, income, English achievement test**

I. INTRODUCTION

The point of the younger the better in English learning, is accepted by people (Wang and Chang, 2011; Birdsong and Molis, 2001). It is clear that childhood education has to start early and children learn most at early ages. Foreign language instruction in elementary school has been justified by educators and experts with theoretically and empirically. More particularly, in the context of this study, Iranian parents are increasingly interested in their children's English learning from the early ages. Thus, this increasing significance of learning English has encouraged more primary schools to hold English language programs as a subject in their curriculum.

Parents' attitude toward and involvement in language learning are especially important in concepts when predicting children's success in language achievement (Baker, 1992). Almost all researchers interested in investigating "children's language learning at early ages" agree that one of the most constraining factors to this progress is the lack of parents' positive attitude and involvement toward their children's language learning (McClendon Cansler, 2008). This situation is true in Asia and even more emphatically in Iran where, until now, a little attention has been paid to this point.

Many parents are not involved in their children's learning programs and they do not find themselves that much responsible in having a positive attitude and high level of involvement in the children's language learning in Iran. As far as they register students in the learning programs, they consider their duty done. The parents are not aware of their crucial and central role in their children's achievement and development in educational programs.

Obviously, many studies have been done on the effect of learners' or their teachers' involvement in and attitude toward language learning, but a little attention has been given to their parents' involvement in and attitude while it is one of the most noticeable points and a key defining feature.

The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between Iranian parents' involvement, attitude, educational background and level of income and their children's English achievement test scores. In other words, the effectiveness of their positive attitude and high level of involvement as well as level of income, and educational background as the effective factors in the students' English achievement will be evaluated. Thus, this study is to unfold the relationship

between parents' positive attitude and high level of involvement and mentioned minor factors leading to their children's learning and achieving more.

Research hypotheses

To explore the relationships in the present study, the following hypotheses were posed:

H1: There is a relationship between parents' level of involvement and their children's English achievement test scores.

H2: There is a relationship between parents' strength of attitude and their children's English achievement test scores.

H3. There is a relationship between parents' educational background and their children's English achievement test scores.

H4. There is a relationship between parents' level of income and their children's English achievement test scores.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

First of all, attitude and involvement as the two key words of the study should be defined to serve the purpose of the current study.

Attitude means "sum of positive or negative emotions, feelings, and beliefs toward any object, such as people, things and ideas, through evaluations of our own mental states. In other words, attitude means self-perception and a result of observations of our own behaviors" (Bohner & Dickel, 2011, cited in Jang, 2012). Furthermore, Gardner (1985) argued that attitude can be defined as "an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of individual beliefs or opinions about referent" (p. 9). Knowledge indicates that the human being's thoughts and knowledge of the objects in language use while emotion includes good or bad feelings toward the objects, and potential action holds the behaviors regarding the objects (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; 2011).

Regarding involvement, there are different definitions, models and traditions (Share, Kerrins and Greene, 2011). Besides this confusion is the fact that the term 'involvement' can be defined synonymously with 'participation', 'partnership', 'collaboration' or 'cooperation'. Furthermore, there is no common understanding of its definition among scholars (Whitmarsh, 2009).

Theoretical Background

English has a worldwide strong hold and many people all around the world use English as their second language (Dalby and Lane, 2002). The number of English speakers has continually increased all over the world, and the non-native English speakers speaking fluently have outnumbered the native speakers of English (Graddol, 2006).

Ballantyne, Sanderman, and McLaughlin (2008) state that early childhood language program has an essential role in preparing young English language learners for future educational achievements. Children who have an opportunity to develop basic foundational skills in language and literacy in school programs will be more successful.

As parents are the first role model of their children, young children can learn basic skills by their help and become healthy adults. Parents, with their effective roles, are able to behave their children correctly, manage dilemmas, respond and communicate with their children properly (Mann, Pearl, Behle, 2004; Leung, Sanders, Leung, Mak and Leu, 2003).

Parents and teachers should try to make a suitable learning context for children. The first learning experience acquired by the child at home should support the efforts to learn at school. Such attempts can boost the level the teacher's success in his/her class applications (Burns, Roe & Ross, 1992).

Parents' consistent involvement increases the expectancy that suitable learning will happen in the classroom and at home. Parents play such a crucial role in their children's life in case of their children academic, physical, social, and moral development that teachers must consider parents as their indispensable collaborators (Latif, Rahmany & Hassani, 2013).

Feuerstein (1990) stated that parents have cognitive, social, and emotional roles in students' development. They can form their students' self-concepts and through this efficient cognitive functioning, improve their learning. This case is culture-bound and differs in different societies (as cited in Williams and Burden, 1997).

There are some personal properties such as age, gender, educational levels, income etc. that may have effects on parents' attitudes, motivations and home literacy practices (Jang, 2012). Parents', teachers' and students' beliefs are of high importance because they can contribute to conversations about the status of foreign languages and affect every language policy choice and set a new trend for multilingual education (Griva & Chostelidou, 2011; Nespor, 1987).

Parents can play a crucial role in terms of developing their children's positive thinking concerning foreign languages. The children's achievement in multilingual competence is highly affected by parental attitudes towards foreign languages (Young, 1994).

Generally, the concept of parents' attitudes is important in understanding children's language success since parents 'attitudes influence their behavior regarding children's language learning (Tse, 1998, cited in Jang, 2012). In other words, parents' attitudes toward languages have significant impacts on children's attitudes (Baker, 1992).

A lot of studies have supported the significance of parental involvement in the children's education and specifically language learning. Parental involvement plays an important role in children education ranging from their activities at home as well as at school, and thus, it has been shown to be an important factor that positively influences children's education (Asli, 2008, cited in Abdullah et al., 2011). Based on what scholars believe, it is clear that the earlier in a

child's language learning process parent involvement begins, the more powerful the impacts will be (Cotton & Wikeland, 2001).

Research background

The variety of research outcomes indicates the beneficial impact that early foreign language learning has on children's cognitive and linguistic skills (Blondin et al., 1998). Besides, considering the growth of international relations of Iran with other countries, learning English language as an international language is considered much more important comparing to the past. The increasing number of language institutes and their language learners and also parents' interest regarding their children's English learning can clearly express the recent value of English language programs in Iran (Vaezi, 2008).

According to Griva & Iliadou (2011), parental attitudes play a vital role in motivating children to learn EFL as early as possible. Also, Cunningham (2001) demonstrated that parents' attitudes and behaviors can strongly influence their children's performances.

Although some studies of parents' attitudes and motivations in case of language learning have been carried in bilingual contexts, such as in the United States and Canada (Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006; Young & Tran, 1999), there is a lack of such research in monolingual contexts like Iran.

It is worth mentioning that parent involvement in schools has been strongly endorsed in the United States and has become a standard expectation by parents, teachers and students (Sheldon, 2002). The results of numerous studies revealed that parental involvement had a potential to improve student achievement and behavior (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990; Farkas et al., 1990).

A number of research findings related to parental attitudes toward and involvement in early language learning indicated the positive influences on children's language education improvement. In 2006, in Taiwan, a research done by the Government Information Office and indicated that most parents that had high level of involvement in and positive attitude towards early language learning and they supported English learning have more successful children (Cansler, 2008).

Finally and regarding the two minor factors of this study, parents' educational background and level of income, according to Cansler (2008), the components of parents' language attitudes, involvement and also their children achievement are also influenced by a variety of factors such a gender, ethnic background, parents' language background, social class and income level.

III. METHOD

The design of the present study is descriptive and since it intends to explore and describe the degree of relationship between two variables, correlation was used. More specifically, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation when both variables are measured at an interval level and when there are two ordinal variables, the Spearman rank Order Correlation (rho) was employed.

At first, a pilot study was employed to examine the feasibility of the researcher-adapted questionnaire from the study which was carried out by Lois Elaine McLendon Cansler in North Carolina in 2008 and check the length, layout and item sequence since no previous research had been found in the context of Iran as a survey study in this regard except the study which was carried out by Hosseinpour, Sherkatolabbasi, Yarahmadi (2015) in an experimental design to see the impact of Iranian parents' involvement in and attitude toward their children's foreign language programs for learning English. After administration of the questionnaires in the pilot study, the questionnaire yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.87.

Participants of the questionnaire

Participants of this study consisted of both students' fathers and mothers from Ferdows primary school in Tehran, Iran in 2015. All the students participating in the research were girls. It should be mentioned that both parents of a student were asked to participate and they were recognizable by the codes that the researcher assigned. They were randomly selected parents of school through the third grade students taking part in English Time 2 course.

A total of 140 parents (70 fathers and 70 mothers) were accessed through their children attending the third grade of the primary school. The parents were asked whether their children attend other English programs out of school or not and those whose children take part only in school language programs which was true about almost all of students were chosen to take part in the study.

Participants of post-test

The students who participated in the present study were 70 ones who selected according to their parents' total score (in both involvement and attitude) in questionnaire. Thus, there are two groups of students, the ones whose parents have a high level of involvement and positive attitude and the others whose parents have a lower level of involvement and less positive attitude. According to the similar codes which were assigned to the parents and their children, the total score of parents in questionnaire and the students' achievement test score will be compared to see the effect of the parents' involvement in and attitude toward language learning program.

Instruments

As mentioned above, this study utilized a questionnaire to get parents' involvement in and attitude toward their children's English language programs as well as their level of education and income and divide them into two groups of

parents with higher level of involvement, more positive attitude, higher level of educational background and income and vice versa. Afterwards, this study employed a standard final achievement test of the book, English time 2, in order to check the students' achievement and then the effect of their parents' involvement in and attitude toward their children's English language programs.

IV. RESULTS

First, based on the questionnaires analysis and according to the normal curve and Z score, the researcher found two groups of participants among the parents considering their level of involvement and strength of attitude. It should be mentioned that the data related to the questionnaire presented in this section are retrieved from another research carried out by Hosseinpour, Sherkatolabbasi, Yarahmadi (2015) in an experimental study.

The following graph and tables reveal the distribution of the parents:
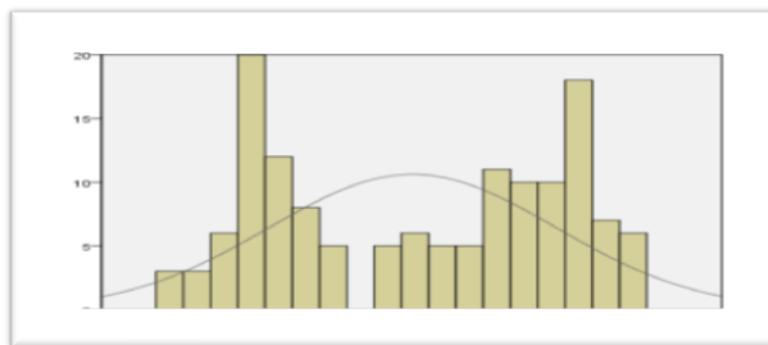
Figure I. Frequency distribution of participants based on attitude and involvement variables

TABLE I.
THE Z SCORE FOR INVOLVEMENT AND ATTITUDE VARIABLES

			Statistic	Std. Error
both	Mean		3.7549	.06813
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.6202	
		Upper Bound	3.8896	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.7613	
	Median		3.9231	
	Variance		.650	
	Std. Deviation		.80612	
	Minimum		2.38	
	Maximum		4.92	
	Range		2.54	
	Interquartile Range		1.54	
	Skewness		-.117	.205
	Kurtosis		-1.531	.407

Based on the Z score, two groups were defined as Lower Bound and Upper Bound ones. Those parents whose total scores of the questionnaire were lower than the Lower Bound number which was about 3.6 were defined as the parents having a lower level of involvement in and less positive attitude toward their children's language program. On the other hand, those parents whose total scores of the questionnaire were higher than the Upper Bound number which was about 3.9 were defined as the parents having a higher level of involvement and more positive attitude (Hosseinpour, Sherkatolabbasi, Yarahmadi, 2015).

The results of the questionnaires are to be presented by examining the hypotheses posed earlier:

H1: There is a relationship between parents' level of involvement and their children's English achievement test scores.

TABLE II.
PEARSON CORRELATION: PARENTS' INVOLVEMENT AND CHILDREN'S ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORES

		test score	involvement
test score	Pearson Correlation	1	.776**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	140	140
involvement	Pearson Correlation	.776**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	140	140

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

TABLE III.
SPEARMAN RHO CORRELATION: PARENTS' INVOLVEMENT AND CHILDREN'S ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORES

			test score	involvement
Spearman's rho	test score	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.789**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	140	140
	involvement	Correlation Coefficient	.789**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	140	140

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to table II, the Pearson Correlation is 0.77 which is close to +1. Also, table III, Spearman's rho analysis, depicts that Spearman's rho Correlation Coefficient is 0.78. Thus, we can interpret that the level of parent's involvement is highly correlated with their children's achievement test scores. In other words, parent's involvement is an effective factor in their children's English course learning and achieving. All in all, the first hypothesis stating there is a relationship between parents' level of involvement and their children's English achievement test scores is supported.

H2: There is a relationship between parents' strength of attitude and their children's English achievement test scores.

TABLE IV.
PEARSON CORRELATION: PARENTS' ATTITUDE AND CHILDREN'S ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORES

		test score	attitude
test score	Pearson Correlation	1	.750**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	140	140
attitude	Pearson Correlation	.750**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	140	140

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

TABLE V.
SPEARMAN RHO CORRELATION: PARENTS' ATTITUDE AND CHILDREN'S ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORES

			test score	attitude
Spearman's rho	test score	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.749**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	140	140
	attitude	Correlation Coefficient	.749**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	140	140

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As table IV and V show, the Pearson Correlation is 0.74 and Spearman's rho Correlation Coefficient is 0.78 being close to +1. So, it is obvious that the strength of parent's attitude is also highly correlated with their children's achievement test scores and the parent's positive attitude is an effective factor in their children's English achievement. The second hypothesis stating there is a relationship between parents' strength of attitude and their children's English achievement test scores is also proved.

H3. There is a relationship between parents' educational background and their children's English achievement test scores.

TABLE VI.
PEARSON CORRELATION: PARENTS' EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND AND CHILDREN'S ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORES

		test score	education
test score	Pearson Correlation	1	.702**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	140	140
education	Pearson Correlation	.702**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	140	140

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

TABLE VII.
SPEARMAN RHO CORRELATION: PARENTS' EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND AND CHILDREN'S ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORES

			test score	education
Spearman's rho	test score	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.664**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	140	140
	education	Correlation Coefficient	.664**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	140	140

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on the above tables II, the Pearson Correlation is 0.70 and Spearman's rho Correlation Coefficient is 0.66. Clearly, the level of parent's educational background is correlated with the children's achievement test scores. In other words, parent's educational background is also an effective factor in their children's English achievement test score. Thus, the third hypothesis, there is educational background and their children's English achievement test scores is supported as well.

H4. There is a relationship between parents' level of income and their children's English achievement test scores

TABLE VIII.
PEARSON CORRELATION: PARENTS' INCOME LEVEL AND CHILDREN'S ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORES

		income	test score
income	Pearson Correlation	1	.580**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	140	140
test score	Pearson Correlation	.580**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	140	140

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

TABLE IX.
SPEARMAN RHO CORRELATION: PARENTS' INCOME LEVEL AND CHILDREN'S ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORES

			income	test score
Spearman's rho	income	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.515**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	140	140
	test score	Correlation Coefficient	.515**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	140	140

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to above tables, the Pearson Correlation is 0.58 and Spearman's rho Correlation Coefficient is 0.51 meaning the level of parent's income is also correlated with their children's achievement test scores but not to the degree of aforementioned variables being highly correlated. It can be claimed that the parent's income level is also an

effective factor in their children's English course achievement. To sum up, the last hypothesis stating there is a relationship between parents' level of income and their children's English achievement test scores is also proved.

V. CONCLUSION

The goal of the present study was to investigate the relationship between Iranian parents' involvement, attitude, educational background and level of income and their children's English achievement test scores. As it was proved, all four hypotheses were proved and it was shown that there are highly positive correlations between the parents' involvement, attitude, educational background and income level and their children's English achievement. More specifically, parents' involvement and attitude were found to be really significant in their children's learning meaning the more they get involved in and the more positive attitude they have toward their young children education, herein language learning, the more their children are successful in the education. Besides, the higher level of education and income are effective in children educational achievement as well.

Before discussing the findings, It would be better to point that that no similar study was found to compare and check whether the outcomes of this research are in accordance with the results of them or not except the one was recently done by Hosseinpour, Sherkatolabbasi, Yarahmadi (2015) in an experimental study proving the significant impact of parents' involvement in and attitude toward their children's foreign language programs for learning English.

Many studies have supported that parental involvement can boost student achievement and behavior (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990; De Graaf, 1986; Farkas et al., 1990). Besides, Buchmann et al. (2010) proved that parental involvement leads to higher test scores and grades, better school attendance, more positive attitudes and behavior, and greater enrollment in higher education.

Moreover, the results of the present study are in accordance with what Cansler, (2008) found, in which there was a direct correlation between parental attitude and involvement in various capacities of schooling and student achievement in empirical investigations.

Finally, as it was mentioned in literature review, in line with what Jang (2012) found, a variety of parents' personal characteristics such as age, gender, educational levels, income are significant in their own attitudes, motivations, and involvement as well as their children educational achievement.

APPENDIX A. QUESTIONNAIRE

Please check the item that best describes the experiences of your child and yourself.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Applicable	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. My child talks positively at home about foreign language class.					
2. My child's comments are positive about foreign language learning.					
3. My child feels successful in the foreign language class.					
4. My child likes the foreign language.					
5. My child likes the foreign language teacher.					
6. I am receiving enough information about the foreign language program at the school.					
7. I have seen my child performing in a foreign language school program.					
8. I have visited my child's foreign language classroom.					
9. My child brings home useful foreign language worksheets, song handouts, or information.					
10. My child uses foreign language frequently at home.					
11. I am in favor of teaching a foreign language to children.					
12. I feel that studying foreign language has not jeopardized my child's progress in other subject areas, such as math or reading					
13. My child is benefiting from the elementary foreign language program at our school.					

Now we have a few questions about you and your child. Please mark the blank next to your answer for each of the following items.

1. Is your child receiving additional foreign language instruction outside of the school program?
   _____ Yes
   _____ No
2. Can you speak English?
   _____ Yes
   _____ No
3. What is your gender?
   _____ Male
   _____ Female
4. What is your educational background?

____ Bellow diploma
____ Diploma
____ Bachelor's degree
____ Master's degree or higher
5. In 2014, what was your family's monthly income?
____ Lower than average
____ Average
____ Higher than average

Additional comments: If you feel this questionnaire did not allow you to adequately express your opinion, or if you would care to elaborate on a particular point(s), please do so in the space below.

Thank you for your time.

REFERENCES

[1] Kanesan Abdullah, A., Seedee, R., Alzaidiyeen, N., Al-Shabatat, A., Alzeydeen, H., Al-Awabdeh, A. (2011). An investigation of teachers' attitudes towards parental involvement: *Educational Research Educational Research* (ISSN: 2141-5161) Vol. 2(8) pp. 1402-1408.

[2] Asli, U. (2008). Elementary pre-service teachers' opinions about parental involvement in elementary children's education, *Teaching Teacher Education*, 24, 807-817 Astone and McClanahan, 1991.

[3] Baker, C. (1992). Attitudes Language. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

[4] Ballantyne, K.G., Serman, A. R., McLaughlin, N. (2008). Dual language learners in the early years: Getting to succeed in school. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition.

[5] Birdsong, D. and Molis, M. (2001). On the evidence for maturational constraints in second language acquisition. *J. Memory Lang.*, 44: 235-249. DOI:10.1006/jmla.2000.2750.

[6] Blonding, C., Celier, M. Edelenbos, P., Johnstone, R., Kubanek-German, A., Taeschner, T. (1998). Foreign languages in primary pre-school education: a review of recent research within the European Union (London, CILT).

[7] Bohner, G., and Dickel, N. (2011). Attitudes change. *Annual Review of Psychology*. 62(1): 391–417. DOI. 10.1146/annurev.psych.121208.131609.

[8] Bourdieu, P. and J.C. Passeron (1990). Reproduction in Education, Society Culture. 2nd Edn. SAGE Publications, London, ISBN-10: 0803983204, pp: 254.

[9] Burns, C.P., Roe B.D., and ve Ross E.P. (1992). Teaching reading in today's elementary schools. Boston Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

[10] Cotton K. and Wikelund K. (2001). Parent involvement in education. Available online at Northwest Regional Education Laboratory. Retrieved May 3, 2002, from Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, Web site: http://www.nwrel.org/scpd/sirs/3/cu6.html.

[11] Cunningham, F. M. (2001). Reflecting Teaching Practice in Adult ESL Settings. *ERIC Digest Issue*, 1-7.

[12] Dalby, A. and Lane, A. (2002). Language in Danger: How Language Loss Threatens Our Future. Published by Allen Lane, Penguin Books, Westminster, England, 2002-05-30.

[13] De Graaf, P.M. (1986). The impact of financial cultural resources on educational attainment in the Netherls. *Sociol. Educ.*, 59: 237-246. DOI:10.2307/2112350.

[14] Eagly, A. H. and Chaiken, S. (2011). The advantages of an inclusive definition of attitude. *Social Cognition*, 25, 582-602.

[15] Farkas, G., Grobe, R., Sheehan, D., and Shuan, Y., (1990). Coursework mastery school success: gender, ethnicity, poverty groups within an urban school district. *American Educational Research Journal* 27, 807–827

[16] Feuerstein, R. (1990). The theory of structural modifiability. In B. Presseisen (Ed.), *Learning thinking styles: Classroom interaction*. Washington, DC: National Education Association.

[17] Gardner, R. C. (1985). Social Psychology Second Language Learning. London: Edward Arnold.

[18] Giacchino-Baker, R., and Piller, B. (2006). Parental Motivation, Attitudes, Support, Commitment in a Southern Californian Two-Way Immersion Program. *Journal of Latinos Education*, 5(1), 5 -28.

[19] Graddol, D. (2006). The future is multilingual. The Times educational supplement, *Languages*. ISSUE, 4688, Page 6.

[20] Griva, E., and Chostelidou, D. (2011). Multilingual competence development in the Greek educational system: FL teachers' beliefs attitudes. *International journal of multilingualism, Multilingual Matters Issue*, 1-15.

[21] Griva, E., and Iliadou, S. (2011). Foreign Language Policy Addressed to Greek Primary and Secondary Education: Teachers' viewpoints students' attitudes towards plurilingualism. *European Journal of Language Policy*, 3(1), 15-36.

[22] Hosseinpour, V., Sherkatolabbasi, M., Yarahmadi, M. (2015). The Impact of Parents' Involvement in and Attitude toward Their Children's Foreign Language Programs for Learning English, *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, ISSN 2200-3592 (Print), ISSN 2200-3452 (Online), 2015, Australia.

[23] Jang, B. (2012). Reducing instruction, increasing engagement [blog post]. Retrieved 2012/07/23 from http://blog.stenhouse.com/archives/2012/07/23/blogstitute-week-5-reducing-instruction-increasing-engagement/.

[24] Kanesan Abdullah, A., Seedee, R., Alzaidiyeen, N., Al-Shabatat, A., Alzeydeen, H., Al-Awabdeh, A., (2011). An investigation of teachers' attitudes towards parental involvement: *Educational Research Educational Research* (ISSN: 2141-5161) Vol. 2(8) pp. 1402-1408.

[25] Latif, M., Rahmany, R. and Hassani, MT. (2013) *International Journal of Language Learning Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)* , Volume4(3), November 2013; 293-302 EISSN: 2289-2737 and ISSN: 2289-3245.

[26] Leung, C., Sers M.R., Leung S., Mak, R. and Lau, J. (2003). An Outcome Evaluation of Implementation of the Triple-P Positive Parenting Program in Hong Kong. *Family Process,* 42 (4), 531-44.

[27] Mann, M.B.; Pearl, P.T.,and Behle, P.D. (2004). Effects of Parent Education on Knowledge Attitudes. *Adolescence,* 39 (154), 355-360.

[28] McLendon Cansler, L. E. (2008). Parent attitudes about involvement with foreign language programs for elementary students. Doctoral dissertation, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

[29] Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19(4), 317-328.

[30] Share, M., Kerrins, L., and Greene, S. (2011). "Early Years Professionalism: An Evaluation of the Early Learning Initiative's Professional Development Program in Community Childcare Centers in the Dublin Docklands". Dublin: National College of Ireland. ISBN 9780905957166.

[31] Vaezi, Z. (2008). Language learning motivation among Iranian undergraduate students. World Appli*ed Sciences Journal,* *375*(1), 54-61.

[32] Wang, L. and H. Chang. (2011). Improve oral training: The method of innovation assessment on English speaking performance. Int. J. Distance Educ. *Technol.*, 9: 56-72. DOI: 10.4018/jdet.2011070105.

[33] Whitmarsh, J. (2009) Othered voices: asylum-seeking mothers early years education. *European Early Childhood Education Research Journal*, 19 (4), 535 – 551

[34] Williams, M., and Burden, R. (1997). Psychology for language teachers: a social constructivist approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[35] Young, A. S. (1994). Motivational State Process within the Socio-Linguistic Context. Birmingham: Aston University.

[36] Young, R.L., and Tran, M.T. (1999). Vietnamese Parent Attitudes toward Bilingual Education. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 23. Retrieved July 17, 2009 from http://brj.asu.edu.

Vida Hosseinpour was born in Tehran, Iran in 1987, the youngest of the enlightened and cultured family. She attended Yazd University in Yazd, Iran to obtain her Bachelor of Science, in natural resources, after graduating from High School with honor. Because of her intensive studies in foreign languages, she completed her Master of Art in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) with highest grades and received her certification with pride on 2014 from Department of English Languages, Islamic Azad University, Saveh branch, Saveh, Iran.

The professional life for Vida didn't wait to start until her university graduation, She worked at Iran-Canada Language Institute in Tehran, Iran as an ESL teacher and became specialized working with "second language learners" of the new generation while she was attending university and working on other related topic articles. It was then she accomplished her "hands on" training with children while spending months and years to study their behaviors. As a result of this accomplishment, Vida obtained a license and certification to establish an international preschool in Tehran, Iran. Currently she is an expert in TESOL at British Culture Language Institute in Istanbul, Turkey, where she persists in developing new teaching strategies for children and their families.

Saeed Yazdani is an Iranian assistant professor in English literature, and member of the faculty of English at the Islamic Azad University, Saveh and Bushehr Branches. He has been teaching English courses at different universities in Iran for the past 18 years. He has also published books and articles in different international journals.

Mojgan Yarahmadi is an associate professor at English department in Islamic Azad University, Arak Branch and other branches in Iran.She is involved in teaching courses like Essay Writing, Teaching Methodology, Research, and Testing. She has had different articles in several subjects.

A Metaphorical Study on Chinese Neologisms

Yanxia Zheng

Faculty of Foreign Languages, Huaiyin Institute of Technology, Huai'an, Jiangsu, China

Abstract—In cognitive linguistics, metaphor is a way of thinking and an important means to perceive or conceptualize the world. It is also an economic and efficient way to create new words. With the development of the society, many neologisms spring up and are widely used by people. This paper aims at examining these Chinese neologisms from the perspective of metaphor by interpreting some examples. The findings indicate that Chinese neologisms have their semantic motivations and the interpretation of them is the result of operation of human cognition mechanism, which involves the metaphorical and metonymic thinking of human beings. This study provides a new way and perspective to study Chinese neologisms, which can also be used to study neologisms in other languages as well.

Index Terms—Chinese neologisms, metaphor, metonymy, cognitive interpretation

I. INTRODUCTION

With the rapid development of the society and the globalization of the world, new things and phenomena emerge constantly. Language, as a tool for human to express thoughts and exchange ideas, is also changing accordingly. As the most active and sensitive element of a language, vocabulary changes much faster and more notably than the other elements of the language, which attracts wide attention of linguistic researchers.

During the past 10 years, lots of new words and expressions have popped up in Chinese, which reflect and witness the fast development in every aspect of Chinese society. These Chinese neologisms provide us with a new way to observe and perceive the development of the society, the changes of the culture, and the psychology of the language users. Chen Yuan (1999), a famous Chinese sociolinguist, holds the opinion that Chinese neologisms are the pioneers to reflect social life and its changes in China.

In the process of neologism formation, metaphor plays an important role. This paper attempts to probe into how metaphor governs the production and understanding of Chinese neologisms and also gives an explanation of some of them with the theory of metaphor, which is very helpful for English learners to understand the new words, and promotes the intercultural communication as well.

II. BASIC INFORMATION ABOUT CHINESE NEOLOGISMS

A. Definition

What is neologism? Many scholars and linguistics from both home and abroad hold different opinions about it. A famous British scholar Peter Newmark (2001) defines "neologism" in his *A Textbook of Translation* as "newly coined lexical units or existing lexical units that acquire a new sense" (p.140). According to *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary* (7th ed.), neologisms are described as "a new word or expression or a new meaning of a word" (2009, p.1341). The *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* defines neologisms as "a new word or expression, or a new meaning for an older word" (2002, p.951). Wang Tiekun (1992) points out that "neologisms refer to newly created or borrowed words from other languages, from the national language of dialect words, archaisms and industry language, and also refer to existing words with new meanings and new usages" (p.16). Liu Shuxin (1990) holds the opinion that a word, which not only created, but also achieved universal acceptance and widely used by people, having its position in the vocabulary system, can be called neologism.

Based on the above definitions of neologisms, Chinese neologisms can be defined as the follows: Chinese neologisms refer to the newly-created Chinese words, or the words borrowed from other language, or the old Chinese words with new meanings, which can express the new things, new concepts, new ideas, new experiences, or new problems in Chinese society and culture. Besides, Chinese neologisms should abide by the laws of Chinese formation and should be universally accepted and widely used by a group of people.

The Chinese neologisms in this paper are mainly selected from *China's Language Life Condition Report* issued by China National Education Ministry from 2006 to 2013 on its website.

B. Classification

Chinese neologisms can be classified according to different criteria.

1. Classification According to Sources

Generally speaking, Chinese neologisms come into being from three main sources. Firstly, some Chinese neologisms are created to describe new things and new concepts, such as "打车神器", "多代住房", "断网恐惧症", etc. Secondly,

some Chinese neologisms develop new meanings from their old words, such as "正能量", "土豪", "单细胞动物", etc. Thirdly, some Chinese neologisms are borrowed from other languages, such as "阿尔法男", from "alpha male", "慕课", from "MOOC", etc.

2. Classification According to Contents

Chinese neologisms can also be classified according to their contents. With the development of Chinese society, China has witnessed dramatic changes in many fields, ranging from politics, economy to education, entertainment, and so on. As a result, a large number of Chinese neologisms have come from these fields. Based on this, Chinese neologisms can be mainly classified as new words concerning politics and economy, such as "制度笼子", "微博外交", "过渡性贷款", etc.; new words concerning science and technology, such as "云服务", "微世界"; new words concerning our social life, such as "橡皮婚姻", "半塘夫妻", "低碳旅游", etc. Of course, Chinese neologisms also have come out from other fields besides the three mentioned above.

3. Classification According to Formative Patterns

According to their formative patterns, Chinese neologisms can be mainly classified into five types, including affixations, compounds, conversions, abbreviations and overlappings (Xu Hongxin, 2008, p.8).

C.   Features

Chinese neologisms have some typical characteristics, which can be summarized as newness, dynamicness, popularization, synchronicity, etc. Newness is the most basic characteristic of Chinese neologisms, which can be understood literally. Here "new" refers to the newly-created, or borrowed words, which can not be found in old vocabulary system, or the old words with new meanings. Dynamicness refers to the constant development of neologisms, which is a dynamic, not stable process. Popularization means that neologisms are created for practical use, which are popular in people's daily life and can gain widespread acceptance. Synchronicity is to say that neologisms are the products of a specific period, which reflects the changes of society, often with a strong brand of the times.

III.   MOTIVATIONS OF CHINESE NEOLOGISMS

In *Course in General Linguistics*, the originator of modern linguistics Saussure proposes the arbitrariness of linguistic notations and he also proposes that the arbitrariness only exists in the simple linguistic notations and all the synthetic symbols have motivation (Zhao Hong, 2011, p.69). Zhang Yongyan (1981) mentions that, "the motivation of a word means the reason or evidence to express a certain meaning by a certain pronunciation" (p.9). The UK semanticist Ullmann, under the premise of admitting the arbitrariness of linguistic notations, also affirms that there should be some words with motivations among each kind of language and divides the language motivation into three categories: phonetic motivation, morphological motivation and semantic motivation (Ullmann, 1962, p.81-93).

Phonetic motivation is realized in the relation between phonetic form and its meaning. By studying the Chinese neologisms in recent ten years, it is discovered that many new words with phonetic motivations are created by homophonic word formation. Homophonic neologisms refer to the new words created by the use of homophones with similar pronunciation but different meanings. For example, the currently popular bicycle slogan "骑乐无穷" (其乐无穷) has a vivid and striking effect. In recent years, many new words have been created because of the price soaring of vegetables, such as "姜你军" (将你军), "火箭蛋" (火箭弹), "豆你玩" (逗你玩), "蒜你狠" (算你狠), "皇瓜" (黄瓜), "向前葱" (向前冲), etc., which all have achieved a vivid and humorous effect, reflecting the psychological state of the helpless citizens facing the high price vegetables. Some homophonic Chinese neologisms come from English, for example, "怕死客" (PSK, which is a short name of "Personal Survival Kit" in English), "拜客" (getting from the homophonic word "bike" in English, which is an activity of focusing on the cycling trip in Guangzhou city sponsored by a group of young people in Guangzhou).

Morphological motivation of words refers to the morphological formation of the words. There are many ways for the creation of new words in Chinese, but the most important one is to create new words by compounding and derivation. According to Zhang Jian's research, we can know that "about 80% of Chinese vocabulary is compound words" (Zhang Jian, 2009, p.20), such as "影子傀儡", "世袭招聘", "谷歌眼镜", etc. There are also many new derivative words in Chinese, such as neologisms including "族": "半漂族", "傍傍族", "闭关族", "草族", etc.

Semantic motivation is a kind of psychological association, referring to the relation between rational meaning and associative meaning with the methods of metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, and analogy. For example, "啃椅族" refers to the couples or students who stay for a long time only ordering two cups of drink in shopping mall or fast food restaurant to enjoy air conditioner; "奶瓶男" refers to the adult men with immature mentality; "灰色收入" refers to the income getting from other ways such as part-time income and stock bonus except from salary.

As we can see, Chinese neologisms have their own motivations, and most of them are closely related to Chinese culture and society.

IV. THE COGNITIVE VIEW OF METAPHOR

Metaphor, ubiquitous in both literature and in everyday conversation, seems closely associated with rhetoric. However, much research in cognitive linguistics has demonstrated that metaphor is not merely a figure of speech, but is a specific mental mapping that influences a good deal of how people think, reason, and imagine in everyday life (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff, 1987; Lakoff & Turner, 1989, etc.). A significant landmark of this period was the publication of *Metaphor We Live By* by Lakoff and Johnson in 1980, which proposes a more integrated way not only for the understanding of language but for the comprehension of human mind.

In this book, Lakoff and Johnson argue that metaphor is not only a linguistic phenomenon, but also a cognitive phenomenon, and more important, a way of thinking. The essence of metaphor is to understand something abstract by virtue of something concrete, which is a mental mapping from source domain to target domain based on the similarity between the two things. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) offer their cognitive view of metaphor: metaphors are not just a way of expressing idea by means of language, but a way of thinking about things, so that metaphor should be understood as "conceptual metaphor". In their view, metaphor is related to a much broader domain, thinking that metaphors are "grounded in our constant interaction with our physical and cultural environments" (p.119) and as they say, "metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature" (p.3).

Taylor (1989) also thinks that metaphor is a means whereby ever more abstract and intangible areas of experience can be conceptualized in terms of the familiar and concrete (p.132). Ungerer & Schmid (1996) hold the similar view that "metaphors are powerful cognitive tools for our conceptualization of abstract categories" (p.114).

From the above discussed, it can be seen that metaphor is a powerful and effective way to construct or understand an abstract category. In cognitive linguistics, metaphor is a concept in a broad sense, including similes, synecdoches, metonymies, personifications, and even proverbs as well.

V. A METAPHORICAL INTERPRETATION OF CHINESE NEOLOGISMS

This part is to give a detailed interpretation of three typical types of Chinese neologisms from the perspectives of metaphor with some examples.

A. Neologisms with the Structure "n.+n."

In Chinese ,many neologisms are featured with the structure "noun+noun", such as, "胶囊旅馆", "弹簧年龄", "沙发土豆", "鸵鸟爱情", etc. Here, two example of this type will be interpreted in detail.

Example 1: "橡皮人" (plasticine man)

In "橡皮人", "橡皮" (plasticine) should be interpreted metaphorically, which is the source domain, while "人" (man) is the target domain. By metaphorical mapping, the typical features of "plasticine", such as "no nerve, no life, no pain, no reaction", etc. will be projected to "man", then through the cognitive association of the reader or hearer, "橡皮人" can be understood, referring to the white collar workers who are numb to life, have no dreams, interests or goals and feel little pain or joy. Similarly, we can understand "橡皮婚姻", in which the typical features of "plasticine" are mapping into "marriage", meaning that the marriage almost dies due to the lack of love, vitality and passion.

Example 2: "鸵鸟爱情" (ostrich love)

"鸵鸟爱情" refers to some people who always turn a blind eye to the problems in their marriages. Like ostriches, they stick their heads in the sand, thinking that they are perfectly safe. The typical feature of "ostriches", i.e. burying their head in the sand when in danger, is mapped into "persons" by metaphor, so as to give "persons" this feature. Thus, "鸵鸟爱情" can be understood based on the similarity between the two.

B. Neologisms with Quasi-affixes

In recent years, many Chinese neologisms have been produced with quasi-affixes, including quasi-prefixes, such as "裸-", "被-", "微-", "神-", and quasi-suffixes, such as "-族", "-奴", "门", "-哥", "-客", etc. Due to its powerful productivity, affixation is always the key formative patterns in Chinese neologisms. Here two examples with quasi-affixes will be given to illustrate how this kind of neologisms is interpreted within the framework of metaphor.

Example 3: "白奴" (white-collar slave)

"白奴" is the short form of "白领奴隶" (white-collar slave), which should be interpreted in two steps. Step 1: "奴" (slave). As a single word, *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary* (7th edition) defines it as "a person

who is legally owned by another person and is forced to work for them" (2009: 1886). Sun Jia (2013) thinks that as a single word, "奴" reflects "the controlling relationship between people", while as a quasi-suffix, "-奴" refers to "the controlling relationship between person and thing". Bases on the similarity — "a controlling relationship" of the two, a single word "奴" has metaphorically developed its generalized meaning and become a quasi-suffix "-奴", referring to "a group of people who are under great economic or mental pressure in their life" (p.76-77). Step 2: "白", i.e. "白领" (white-collar). The interpretation of this word involves our metonymic thinking, i.e. using THE PART FOR THE WHOLE. "Metonymy serves some of the same purposes that metaphor does", and "metonymic concepts (like THE PART FOR THE WHOLE) are part of the ordinary, everyday way we think and act as well as talk" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.37). Here, "white collar" is used metonymically to refer to those people working in an office. By analyzing this neologism in this way, we can understand "白奴" as those people who work in offices but are under huge financial pressure and have to work as hard as slaves to lighten the financial burden. As it shows, the cognition and interpretation of "白奴" is the result of cooperation of metaphorical and metonymic thinking of human beings.

   Example 4: "水母族" (jellyfish clan)

   This is a compound word with a quai-suffix "-族", which should also be interpreted in two steps. Firstly, "族" originally means "people in an extended family", but now it refers to "a group of people with some common features" by metaphor due to the similarities between its original meaning and extended meaning. Secondly, "水母" (jellyfish) is a kind of large planktons in the ocean, whose body mainly consists of water. Here, some people, especially job hunters, are compared to jellyfish, metaphorically meaning that these people's certifications and resumes are filled with empty words and false contents while providing little real information. So finally "水母族" can be interpreted as "people who largely falsify their qualifications and resumes for career success". It is evident that the semantic cognition of this neologism also involves our metaphorical thinking.

C. Homophonic Neologisms

   Homophonic neologisms are the new words created due to the phonetic similarity between the original words and the new words, which is also the result of metaphorical thinking of human beings. Here, two examples will be given to illustrate how this kind of neologisms is interpreted.

   Example 5: "杯具" (tragedy)

   This neologism first appeared in such a sentence "人生就像茶几 ,上面摆满了杯具", which is said to be an imitation of "人生是一袭华美的袍, 上面爬满了虱子" written by Zhang Ailing, a famous female writer in China. "杯具" (cup) is the homophonic expression of "悲剧" (tragedy). In this context, "茶几" (tea table), as a source domain, is projected to the target domain "人生" (life), which activates a series of corresponding relationship between the two concepts, such as "茶几上的**杯具**—人生中的**悲剧**", "茶几上的**洗具**—人生中的**喜剧**", "茶几上的**茶具**—人生中的人与人之间存在的**差距**", etc. Life is full of tragedy, comedy, inequality, etc., just like a tea table, on which lay the cups, tea, tea sets, etc. This is the similar association these neologisms trigger in our mind about "tea table" and "life".

   Example 6: "鸭梨" (pressure)

   It seems that "鸭梨" (pear) has nothing to do with "压力" (pressure), but they are mentioned in the same breath because the two words are associated by people due to their similar pronunciation. The process of regarding"压力"as"鸭梨"is in fact the process of mapping from the concrete domain to the abstract domain, making the pressure more easily to understand — just like biting off a pear, it is easy to deal with the pressure in our life. Having such a mentality, you will not feel upset when facing pressure. Instead, you will have the confidence to meet the challenge in your life. So, even if you shout out "鸭梨好大" (pressure is so great) or "鸭梨山大" (pressure is so great, like a mountain) ，you're sure that everything is under control and nothing is to worry about. In this sense, the creation of the word "鸭梨" reflects people's wisdom of eliminating the pressure in their life and work.

VI. CONCLUSION

   This paper is intended to interpret Chinese neologisms from the perspective of metaphor. After studying the three types of Chinese neologisms: neologisms with the structure "n+n", neologisms with quasi-affixes, and homophonic neologisms, it can be found that Chinese neologisms have their semantic motivations and the interpretation of them is

the result of operation of human cognition mechanism, which involves the metaphorical and metonymic thinking of human beings.

Although Chinese neologisms are novel and unique, the construction of their meanings is still subject to the law of cognition of human beings, which reflects human's initiative and creativity when perceiving the world. In this tentative study, examples given may not be enough for us to have a full view of all the Chinese neologisms, but it offers a new perspective and method of studying the new words in Chinese, which can also be used to study neologisms in other languages as well.

REFERENCES

[1]   Chen, Yuan. (1999). Language and Social Life. Beijing: Sanlian Bookstore.
[2]   Lakoff, G. & Johnson, M. (1980). Metaphor We Live By. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
[3]   Lakoff, G. (1987). Women, Fire and Dangerous Things. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
[4]   Lakoff, G. & M. Turner. (1989). More Than Cool Reason: A Field Guide to Poetic Metaphor. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press,.
[5]   Liu, Shuxin. (1990). Chinese Descriptive Vocabulary. Beijing: Commercial Press.
[6]   Newmark, P. (2001). Modern English Words and Phrases. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Education Press.
[7]   Sun, Jia. (2013). A Cognitive Semantic Study of English and Chinese Quasi-affixes. Master thesis. Hunan Normal University.
[8]   Taylor, J. R. (1989). Linguistic Categorization: Prototypes in Linguistic Theory. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
[9]   Ullmann, S. (1962). Semantics: An Introduction to the Science of Meaning. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
[10] Ungerer, F. & H. J. Schmid. (1996). An Introduction to Cognitive Linguistics. London: Longman.
[11] Wang, Tiekun. (1992). The Criteria of Neologisms and Principles of Dictionary Compilation. *Language Application*, 4, 14-21.
[12] Xu, Hongxin. (2008). A Contrastive Study on English and Chinese Word-formation. Master thesis, Shandong University.
[13] Zhang, Jian. (2009). A Comparative Study of English and Chinese Lexical Motivation and Its Application to English Teaching. Master thesis, Changchun University of Science and Technology.
[14] Zhao, Hong. (2011). An English-Chinese Contrastive Study of Lexical Motivation. PhD thesis, East China Normal University.
[15] Zheng, Yanxia. (2004). Metaphor and Relevance. Master thesis, Nanjing Normal University.
[16] Zheng, Yanxia. (2012). Semantic Motivation and Psychological Cognition of Chinese Homophonic Neologisms. *Journal of Langfang Teachers College*, 6, 37-38, 41.

Yanxia Zheng was born in Huai'an, Jiangsu Province, China in 1968. She received her master degree in English Linguistics from Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing, Jiangsu Province, China in 2004.

She is currently an associate professor of English teaching in the Faculty of Foreign Languages at Huaiyin Institute of Technology. Her research interests include cognitive linguistics, pragmatics, English teaching and research.

A Cross-cultural Analysis of the Use of Hedging Devices in Scientific Research Articles

Atefeh Rezanejad
Allameh Tabataba'i University, Tehran, Iran

Zahra Lari
Sharif University of Technology, Tehran, Iran

Zahra Mosalli
Urmia University, Urmia, Iran

Abstract—**Hedging is a significant aspect of academic writing and it is an important resource for L2 writers (Hyland, 1994). Hence, this study set out to compare the frequency of hedges employed in different sections of research papers written by non-native English speaking authors (NNESA) and native English speaking authors (NESA). To this end, 40 research articles written by the two groups of authors was analyzed based on the taxonomy of hedges proposed by Salagar- Meyer (1994). The results showed that generally NESA utilized more hedges compared to NNESA and there is a significant difference between these authors use of hedging devices. The results can have implications for L2 teachers in that they should take measures to familiarize their students with the hedging devices and show them how to use hedges appropriately.**

Index Terms—**Hedging devices, NES authors, NNES authors**

I. INTRODUCTION

Taking the social structures and professional consequences into account plays an important role in process of the academic writing. That is, the act of academic writing is not done in vacuum. In addition to presenting the propositional fact (which may be the main focus of writing), the potential readers and their expectations should also be considered. There are some different and specific conventions to write academically which differ according to the specific discipline. The existence of such conventions insinuates the importance of considering the readers and reveals the fact that being among special discourse community requires adhering to such conventions. Metadiscourses are among these conventions which show the writer's perspective and at the same time lead the reader to a specific direction. Hyland (2005) defined metadiscourse as "the cover term for self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community" (p. 37). Thus, metadiscourse is a tool through which the writer or the speaker) communicates his/her position to the readers (or listeners). The importance of metadiscourse in language learning and teaching settings led us to investigate this area more closely in order to detect its potential effects to facilitate learning to write fluently.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. Theoretical Background

Getkham (2011) defined hedging as one mechanism whose main function is managing the tone, attitude, and information within spoken or written discourse. He claimed that tentativeness is one of the important requirements which help speakers or writers to   maintain objectivity in their language productions. One way through which this requirement can be realized is utilizing hedges. Many attempts have been done to provide different taxonomies of metadiscourse (see Hyland's taxonomy 1998, 1999; Van de Kopple's revised taxonomy, 2002; Hyland's revised taxonomy, 2004, etc.). Interactive and interactional resources are among Hyland's recent taxonomy. The former refers to resources which the writer utilizes in order to show the preferred interpretations on the behalf of the reader. *Transitions* (e.g. in addition, moreover, but, and, etc.), *frame markers* (e.g. to conclude, in my opinion, etc.), *evidential* (e.g. according to X, A claims, etc.), *endophoric expressions* (e.g. as mentioned above, as it was clear in the preceding section, etc.), and *code glosses* (e.g. better to say, in other words, etc.) are among the interactive resources. The latter, interactional resources, subdivides into *hedges* (e.g. perhaps, might, etc.), *boosters* (e.g. it is crystal clear, certainly, etc.), *attitude markers* (e.g. I agree, surprisingly, etc.), *engagement markers* (e.g. note that, pay attention to, etc.), and *self-mentions* (e.g. I, we, my, our, etc.). Hyland (2004) purported that these kinds of resources are used to "focus on the participants of the interaction and seek to display the writer's persona and a tenor consistent with the norms of the disciplinary community" (p. 139). Hedges are mainly used to avoid proposing statements absolutely and reducing the force of them. The writer can use hedges as a tool for reducing his/her commitment to the written production and for

presenting his/her statements cautiously and not absolutely. This way of presenting the findings articulates the matter-of-degree nature of truth and falsity and helps the reader to have his/her interpretations accordingly. Many have been trying to define and then to categorize the concept of hedges. One of the early and well-know definitions for hedges has been provided by Lyon (1977). He defines them as: "Any utterance in which the speaker explicitly qualifies his commitment to the truth of the proposition expressed by the sentence he utters is an epistemically modal or moralized sentence" (p. 797).

In the similar vein, Holmes (1982) defined hedges as rhetorical devices whose main function is taking the readers into account and provides them an opportunity to have their own ideas through reading. Another definition of term provided by Hyland (1996a) in which hedges were considered as linguistic devices used to "show two main purposes: a) a lack of complete commitment to the truth of a proposition and b) a desire not to express that commitment categorically" (Afshar & Bagherieh, 2014, p. 1821). In sum, the most comprehensive definition may be provided by Lakoff (1972), the pioneer in this field, "hedges are words whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy" (p. 195). Salager-Meyer (1994) categorized different kinds of hedges in terms of their functions. *Shields*, *approximators of degree*, *quantity*, *frequency* and *time*, *authors' personal doubt* and *direct involvement*, *emotionally-charged intensifiers*, and *compound hedges* are among them.

Hyland (1994) purported that epistemic modality plays an important role in academic writing. He believed that this modality deals with presence or absence of confidence on the behalf of writer in the truth of propositional information. The exact nature of academic writing makes it necessary and sometimes obligatory for writer to utilize hedges in their writing in all academic disciplines. What is different among disciplines is the use of various kinds of these metadiscourses in different disciplines. This study is an attempt to investigate the spread and the frequency of hedging devices in different sections of academic research articles in the field of applied linguistics among native (NESA) and non-native English speaking authors (NNESA).

B. Previous Studies on the Concept of Hedges

"Hedging allows writers to manipulate both factivity and affect and invites readers to draw inferences about the reasons for their use" (Skelton, 1988b, p. 107). Many researchers have attempted to define and categorized the hedging devices and their efforts resulted in different classification of this kind of metadiscourse. Classifying the hedging devices into neat and separate subcategories makes it easier for researchers to investigate the frequency and range of their use in different genres of written production. Some studies were concerned with the use of hedges in general language texts (e.g. McKinley 1983, Powell 1985, Stubb 1986), others involved with the frequency of these linguistic devices in academic writing (e.g. Kubui 1988 in medical research papers, Rounds 1981, 1982 in social sciences, & Myers 1988 in a corpus of molecular genetics), and others discussed the problem from a contrastive rhetoric point of view (e.g. Clyne 1991) (Salager-Meyer, 1994). The followings are among some research works which take hedging devices in academic writing. Behnam and Khaliliaqdam (2012) took the hedging devices into account in the Kurdish spoken language (i.e. in conversations). The researchers attempted to discover whether Kurdish speakers used hedging devices with the purpose of being less commitment to their utterances. The relevant data was collected through dialogues and interview sessions. They reported that the hedges were mainly used as mitigating devices in different conversations (interviewees with different social statues). Moreover, they reported that the role of the hedges in both Kurdish and English conversations was the same to some extent.

In a similar attempt, Nasiri (2012) investigated the utilization of hedging devices in Civil Engineering field. In his study, these metadiscourses were examined in the writings of American and Iranian writers. Nasiri (2012) also had a look on cultural backgrounds and their manifestation in the writing. Twenty research papers on Civil Engineering by writers from different cultural backgrounds (American and Iranians) were collected and the frequency of different types of hedging in them (Discussion section) was calculated. He found that these writers used different hedging devices in the Discussion section. The results also revealed that it was Americans who applied more hedges in comparison to Iranians. But, what was clear in the study was the fact that the differences observed in the writing of Iranian and American writers were not significant and cultural backgrounds were not deciding factors in utilizing hedging devices. In the same vein, Mirzapour and Rasekh Mahand (2012) compared the frequency of hedges in different parts of scientific research papers. They selected their data among Library and Information (LI) and Computer Science (CS) papers by both native and non-native writers. Holmes' (1998) lexical devices were used for analyzing the papers. Unlike previous one, this study reported the significant differences between native and non-native writers in using the hedges and boosters. A research study which is more or less closer to the present one was conducted by Samaie, Khosravian, and Boghayeri (2014). They aimed to study the frequency and the types of hedges in the field of Literature. They did this in introduction of published articles. The logic behind choosing the introduction section for investigation was that they claimed that "hedges allow researchers to establish an early niche for their research" (Samaie, et al., 2014, p. 1678). Analyzing the data revealed that English writers, in comparison to Persian counterparts, are more tentative in expressing their ideas and claims and so used more hedges.

Having reviewed some relevant literature, this study attempted to address some unanswered questions regarding hedging devices and their frequency and range of use. Generally speaking, the logic behind of this study was twofold: (1): to address the dearth of the research work on the use, frequency, and spread of hedging devices in the field of Applied Linguistics and (2) to provide more evidence for the claim that the main function of hedging devices is

reducing the writer's commitments to mentioned statements and propositions. Having taken these aims into account, this study attempted to investigate the spread and the frequency of hedging devices in different sections of academic research articles in the field of applied linguistics among native (NESA) and non-native English speaking authors (NNESA).

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The main purpose of this study to investigate the spread and frequency of hedging devices in the different sections of academic research articles in the field of applied linguistics by native (NESA) and non-native English speaking authors (NNESA) along with discovery of the existence of any significant difference in their use. Hence the following research questions were put forward:

1. How much do native English speaking authors (NESA) and non-native English speaking authors (NNESA) in the field of applied linguistics use different types of hedging devices in their research articles?

2. Is there any significant difference in the frequency of different types of hedging devices in the research papers in applied linguistics by native English speaking authors (NESA) and non-native English speaking authors (NNESA)?

3. How is the spread and distribution of hedging devices in different sections of research papers (IMRAD) by native English speaking authors (NESA) and non-native English speaking authors (NNESA)?

4. Is there any significant difference in the frequency of hedging devices in different sections of a research paper by native English speaking authors (NESA) and non-native English speaking authors (NNESA)?

IV. METHODOLOGY

The data of the present study was obtained from 40 research articles in the field of applied linguistics written by native and non-native English speaking authors (20 papers from each group of authors). The papers written by native English speaking authors were published between 2010 to 2014 and were drawn from journals such as *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning, Journal of Language Teaching and Research, English Language Teaching, MEXTESOL Journal, Language Teaching Research, International Education Studies, Theory and Practice in Language Studies and The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning* . The papers by non-native English speaking authors were published between 2012 and 2014 in journals such as *Journal of language & Linguistic Studies, MEXTESOL Journal, Journal of Language Teaching and Research, English Language Teaching, International Journal of English Linguistics, Theory and Practice in Language Studies, International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning, International Education Studies.*

Utilizing the taxonomy of hedges proposed by Salager-Meyer (1994) all papers were analyzed regarding the number of hedging devices used by native and non-native English speaking authors in different sections of research articles and the number of different type of hedges employed in different sections of research papers. Salager-Meyer (1994) divided hedging devices into five groups and her classification includes: *Shields* that includes all modal verbs which express possibility for example *to appear, to seem, probably*, *Approximators* including those words used as approximators of quantity, degree, frequency and time, for instance, *approximately, roughly, Authors' personal doubt and direct involvement* that includes expressions that expresses the writer's personal beliefs such as *I believe* and *to our knowledge*. *Emotionally- charged intensifiers* including words that are used to show the writer's reactions and feelings toward different issues, for instance, *extremely difficult/interesting* and *dishearteningly weak*, and *Compound hedges* such as *it may suggest that* and *it could be suggested that*.

After counting the number of hedges used by NESA and NNESA in different sections of papers and the number of different kind of hedges in different parts of papers, chi square analyses were run to find any significant different between the two groups of authors in this regard.

V. RESULTS

The results of the study will be presented regarding the use of different kinds of hedging devices by NNS and NS writers, any significant difference between these two groups of writers' use of hedges, distribution of hedging devices in different sections of papers written by NNS and NS and any significant difference in this regard.

1. How much do native English speaking authors (NESA) and non-native English speaking authors (NNESA) in the field of applied linguistics use different types of hedging devices in their research articles?

To answer this research question, the hedging devices used in two groups of papers had been counted and their percentages computed. Table 1 shows the frequency and percentage of hedging devices used by NESA and NNESA in their research papers. As can be seen, generally NESA used more hedging devices compared to NNESA. While native authors used 992 hedging devices, their nonnative counterparts used 624.

Regarding the frequency of use of different kind of hedging devices, as can be seen in fig.1, the hedging words that were used most frequently in the two groups of papers by native and non native authors were shields and approximators. These two categories accounted for the 77.01% and 11.49% of total hedging devices in papers by native authors and constituted 64.5% and 24.35% of hedging words used by non-native authors respectively. It should be mentioned that the frequency of using approximators was higher among non-native authors compared to native authors.

The next frequently employed category of hedging devices by native authors was emotionally charged hedges which accounted for 5.24% of the total hedging words employed by them and 2.08% of the total hedging words employed by non-native authors. Like approximators this group of hedging words was used more by non- native authors than native ones. The other category of hedging devices, compound hedge, constituted 3.62% of hedging words found in papers written by native authors and 7.85% of the hedging words found in papers written by non-native authors.

TABLE1.
FREQUENCY OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF HEDGES IN BY NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE AUTHORS

Hedging type	Shields		Approximators		Authors' personal doubt and direct involvement		Emotionally-charged intensifiers		Compound hedges		Total frequency
	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	
Native authors	764	77.01%	114	11.49%	25	2.5%	52	5.24%	36	3.62%	992
Non-native authors	403	64.5%	152	24.35%	7	1.12%	13	2.08%	49	7.85%	624

Finally, the least employed category of hedges by both native and non-native authors was author's personal doubt. It accounted for the 2.5% of the total hedges used by native authors and 1.12% of hedges used by non-native authors.
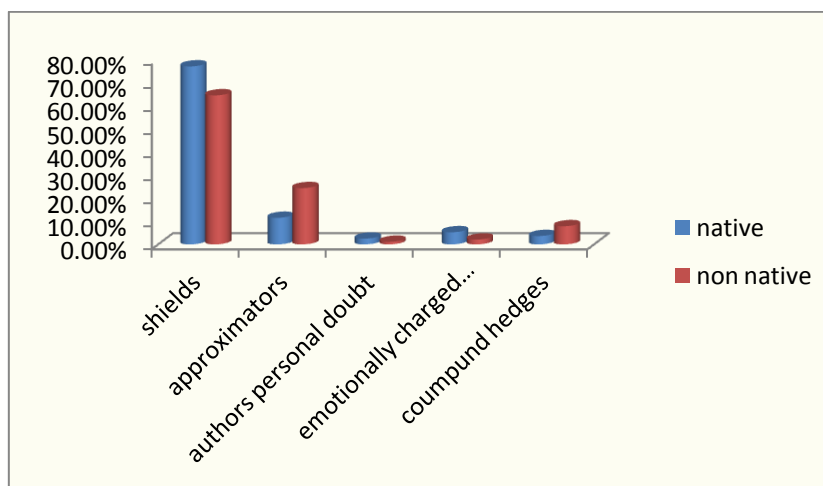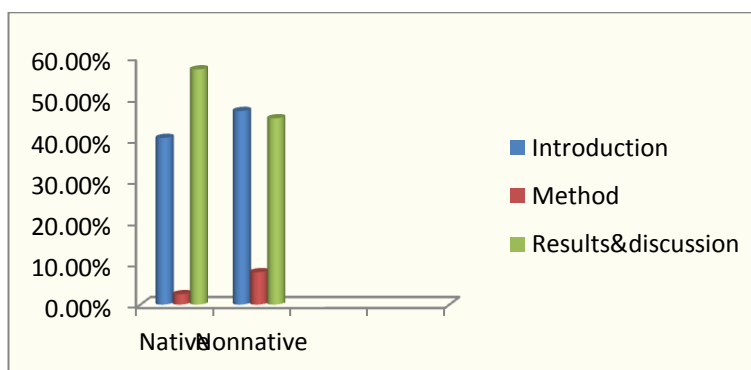

Figure 1.   Percentage of different kinds of hedges used by native and non-native authors

2. Is there any significant difference in the frequency of different types of hedging devices in the research papers in applied linguistics by native English speaking authors (NESA) and non-native English speaking authors (NNESA)?

It has been found that native authors made more use of hedging devices compared to non-native authors and the second research question addressed the significance of the observed difference. To this aim a chi square analysis was run to see if there is a significant difference between native and non-native authors regarding the use of hedging devices. Table 2 shows the results of chi square analysis. As can be seen, there is a significant difference   between native and non- native authors' use of hedging devices (X^2 = 71.70, df = 4, p < .05). In other words, native authors used significantly more hedges compared to non-native authors.

TABLE 2.
CHI SQUARE RESULT OF THE FREQUENCY OF HEDGES USED BY NESA AND NNSEA

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	71.708[a]	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	71.211	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.441	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	1609		
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.47.			

3. How is the spread and distribution of hedging devices in different sections of research papers (IMRAD) by native English speaking authors (NESA) and non-native English speaking authors (NNESA)?

The number and percentage of hedging devices in different sections of papers written by native and non-native authors are shown in Table III and Fig. 2. The results show that the most heavily-hedged section of papers by native authors is the results and discussion section with 57.05% hedging words followed by the introduction and literature

section with 40.42% hedging words. On the contrary the most heavily hedged section of papers by non-native authors is the introduction and literature review section by 46.95% hedging words followed by results and discussion section by 45.19% hedging words. And the least heavily hedged section of papers by both native and non-native authors is the methodology section with 2.52% and 7.85% hedging words respectively.

TABLE 3.
FREQUENCY OF HEDGING DEVICES IN DIFFERENT SECTIONS OF PAPERS BY NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE AUTHORS

Sections of Paper	Introduction & Review of Literature		Methodology		Results & Discussion		Total frequency
	F	P	F	P	F	P	
Native authors	401	40.42%	25	2.52%	566	57.05%	992
Non-native authors	293	46.95%	49	7.85%	282	45.19%	624

Regarding the difference between native and non-native authors in terms of the use of hedging devices in different sections of research papers, it was found that native authors outnumbered non-native authors in introduction and literature review and result and discussion sections. They used 401 hedging words in the introduction and literature section compared to 293 hedging words used by non-native authors. Native and non-native authors used 566 and 282 hedging words in the results and discussion section respectively. Using 49 hedging words in the methodology section, non-native authors outnumbered native authors who used 25 hedging words in this section.

Figure 2. Percentage of hedges in different sections of papers by native and non-native authors

4. Is there any significant difference in the frequency of hedging devices in different sections of a research paper by native English speaking authors (NESA) and non-native English speaking authors (NNESA)?

Three chi square analyses were run to explore any significant difference between the native and non-native authors' use of hedging devices in different sections of research papers. Tables 4, 5 and 6 show the chi square results for the three sections of introduction and literature, methodology and results and discussion. As can be seen, there is a significant difference between the two groups of authors in terms of utilizing hedging devices in introduction and literature ($X^2 = 694.00$, df = 1, p<.05), methodology ($X^2 = 74.00$, df = 1, p < .05) and results and discussion sections ($X^2 = 848.00$, df = 1, p < .05).

TABLE4.
CHI SQUARE RESULT OF THE INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW SECTION OF PAPERS BY NESA & NNES

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	694.00[a]	1	.000
Likelihood Ratio	945.21	1	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	693.00	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	694		
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.47.			

TABLE 5.
CHI SQUARE RESULT OF THE METHODOLOGY SECTION OF PAPERS BY NESA & NNES

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	74.00[a]	1	.000
Likelihood Ratio	94.65	1	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	73.00	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	74		
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.47.			

TABLE 6.
CHI SQUARE RESULT OF THE RESULT AND DISCUSSION SECTION OF PAPERS BY NESA NNESA

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	848.00[a]	1	.000
Likelihood Ratio	1078.60	1	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	847.00	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	848		
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 93.78.			

In addition, a chi square analysis was run to compare the general utilization of hedging devices by native and non-native authors in three sections of papers. The result of the chi square is shown in table 7 ($X^2 = 34.63$, df = 2, $p < .05$) and confirms that generally there is a significant difference between native and non-native authors in terms of using hedging devices in different sections of papers.

TABLE 7.
CHI SQUARE RESULT OF THE THREE SECTIONS SECTION OF PAPERS BY NESA NNESA

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	34.631[a]	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	34.056	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	13.654	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1613		
a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.33.			

VI. DISCUSSION

Hedging devices are tools that can be used to manage the tone, attitude and information within a discourse (Getkham, 2011). They are central to academic writing in that they help writers to reduce their commitment to the truthfulness of a statement (Hyland 1998 cited in Hinkel 2004). In addition, hedging devices help authors to express tentativeness and possibility and to present unproven propositions with caution and precision. (Hyland, 1996).

The present study had four-fold purposes. It set out to investigate the frequency of using the different kind of hedges by native and non-native authors, any significant difference between native and non-native authors, the distribution of hedging devices in different rhetorical sections of papers by native and non-native authors and the existence of any significant difference in this regard.

The results revealed that native authors employed different kind of hedging words more frequently than non-native authors. As far as the kind of hedging words is concerned, shields were the most common in papers by both native and non-native authors. This finding confirms the result of some other studies conducted on hedging devices. For instance, Getkham (2011) found that modal auxiliaries which are part of shields were the most frequently used strategy with the average of 4.35 in applied linguistic research articles. It was concluded that modal auxiliaries can be the most straight forward device to express modality. In addition Nasiri (2012) also found that shields were the most frequently utilized hedging devices by both Iranian and American authors in the field of civil engineering.

In an attempt to investigate the frequency and type of hedges utilized in the introduction section of research articles in the field of literature written by Persian and English authors, Samaie, Khosravianb and Boghayeri (2014) found that modal auxiliaries that are related to shields were the most frequent hedge types used in the corpus under study. In a recent study Afshar and Bagherieh (2014) suggested that shields were one of the most frequently employed types of hedges in the abstract section of theses in the fields of Persian literature and civil engineering.

The second research question addressed the existence of significant difference in the frequency of hedging devices used by native and non-native authors. The chi square analysis confirmed that native authors used significantly more hedges compared to non-native authors. This result is in line with some other studies done on hedging devices (e.g. Atai & Sadr, 2006; Yang, 2013, & Samaie et al., 2014). The difference can be due to the fact that the corpus of the study was from two groups of authors from different linguistic and cultural background. While one group wrote in their native language, the other wrote in a foreign language. L2 writers typically utilize few hedging devices which are "associated with conversational discourse and casual spoken interaction" (Hinkel, 2005 P.29). They do not receive much instruction

in hedging devices and how to use them and hence they are mostly unfamiliar with them. Another possible cause of the difference can be the concern of Iranian and English authors when writing their articles. While English authors write with their readers in mind, Iranian authors are not concerned much with potential readers. Hence, Iranian learners focus on propositional content of their text rather than its affective nature and as a result the discourse they create contain less metadiscourse and hedging devices compared to English authors (Falahati, 2004).

The observed difference can also be justified in terms of the difference between English and non-English rhetorical traditions. Rhetorical persuasion of many non "Anglo-American" traditions does not require hedging and many non-native authors do not concern themselves with the desirability of hedging devices, generalizations and claims (Hinkel, 2004) and as a result do not use hedging devices frequently.

The third research question was concerned with the distribution of different type of hedges in different parts of papers. It was found that native authors outnumbered non-native authors in the introduction and literature and results and discussion sections and utilized less hedging devices in methodology section compared to non-native authors. Hence, as our last research question we investigated the existence of any significant difference in the distribution of hedges in different sections of papers by these authors. The result of chi square suggested that the difference is a significant one. Although native authors used more hedges in introduction and literature and results and discussion parts compared to non-native authors, these two sections were also the most heavily hedged parts in papers by non-native authors. This is a finding that has been confirmed by some other studies (e.g. Salager-Meyer, 1994; Yang, 2013) that showed that these two sections usually feature with the frequent use of hedges.

Different frequency of hedging words in different sections of papers can be attributed to the different purposes of those sections (Falahati, 2004).

As yang (2013) stated, one of the aims of the introduction part is to introduce the topic of the discussion and researchers should review previous studies to note their limitations and estimate various view points. West (1980, cited in Mirzapour, & Mahand, 2012), stated that the reason of the study is justified in introduction part by showing the gap in the literature and the significance of the study. Therefore, authors employ hedging as a useful strategy to cautiously introduce their views toward other studies.

According to Swales (1990) discussion "mirror-images the Introduction by moving from specific findings to wider implications" (P. 133). The major aim of the discussion is to report the result and draw conclusion (Getkham, 2011). In addition authors make claim and argue the result of their study in discussion, therefore, hedges are highly represented in this part (Hyland, 1994).

Regarding the methodology section, its function is to present factual information about the participants, instruments and procedures of the study. It is the least discursive section of papers which utilizes the least amount of hedging devices (Hyland, 1994). The result of the study also showed that both native and non-native authors used the least amount of hedging in this section. What is more, non-native authors used more hedges compared to native ones in this section. This can be due to unfamiliarity of non-native authors to the rhetorical conventions of the English speaking community. They do not often receive instruction in the use of hedges and many of them conceive hedging as one the most problematic areas of English writing convention (Hyland, 1998, cited in Nasiri, 2012).

The result of this unfamiliarity and lack of instruction is that non-native authors usually make fewer hedges compared to native authors and they may use them inappropriately. Sometimes as in the case of this study, they overuse hedges in sections which do not necessitate their use.

VII. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

"Hedging refers to linguistic strategies that qualify categorical commitment to express possibility rather than certainty" (Hyland, 1996 P.251). They are one of the characteristics of many rhetorical traditions that help authors to decrease their responsibility towards the truth value of statements and to convey politeness and hesitation (Hinkel, 2005). Hedges also make it possible for authors to reveal their attitude to the truthfulness of claims and predicate potential objections (Hyland, 1996). Hyland (1994) stated that Varieties of cognition is the focus of academics and cognition is necessarily "hedges". Besides, enabling authors to express claims with precision, caution, and modesty hedges are a significant resource for academics (Hyland, 1996).

The purpose of this study was to compare the frequency of hedges used by native English speaking authors and non-native English speaking authors in their research articles and the distribution of hedging devices in different rhetorical section of papers by these authors. The findings of the study revealed that generally native authors employed more hedges compared to non-native authors. In addition, it was found that non-native authors are not so much familiar with hedges and do not know how to use them appropriately.

This can have some pedagogical implication for language instructors, particularly in second language and foreign language contexts. They should familiarize learners with the role and importance of hedging devices in academic writing. L2 students should be aware that learning to use hedging devices appropriately is a crucial communicative resource for them since it can help authors to develop academic arguments and establish a relationship with their readers (Hyland, 1996). Moreover, as a crucial tool to effective argument in scientific writing, hedging devices can help authors to gain acceptance for claim from both readers and a powerful peer group by presenting appropriate and cautious statements and to negotiate the perspective that helps the conclusions to be accepted (Hayland, 1996).

Learners should also be reminded that hedges are beneficial for them when they want to get their papers published in journals that are reviewed by native English speakers and hence find a voice in their discipline (Nasiri, 2012).

Instructors and course designers can employ various techniques to help learners improve their ability in using hedging devices. For instance, Getkham (2011) suggested that instructors include several devices related to particular functions in the curriculum. They should also make students aware of different types of hedging devices and to state the relationship among functions and language. Wishnof (2000) suggested instructors to provide students with activities that help them to increase their language awareness, in particular with regard to using hedging devices.

REFERENCES

[1] Afshar, H. S., & Bagherieh, M. (2014). The Use of Hedging Devices in English and Persian Abstracts of Persian Literature and Civil Engineering MA/MS Theses of Iranian Writers. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1820-1827.
[2] Atai, M., & Sadr, L. (2006). A cross-cultural genre study on hedging devices in discussion section of applied linguistics research articles. In *Proceedings of the conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistic* (pp. 42-57).
[3] Behnam, B., & Khaliliaghdam, S. (2012). A cross-cultural study on hedging devices in Kurdish conversation. *Acta Linguistica Asiatica,* 2(1), 73-88.
[4] Clyne, M. (1991). The Sociocultural Dimension: The Dilemma of the German speaking Scholar. In H. Berlin (Ed), *Subject-oriented Texts* (pp. 49–67). New York: W. de Gruyter.
[5] Falahati, R. (2004). A contrastive study of hedging in English and Farsi academic discourse. An unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Victoria.
[6] Getkham, K. (2011). Hedging Devices in Applied Linguistics Research Articles. *Interdisciplinary Discourses in Language and Communication*, 141-154.
[7] Hinkel, E. (2004). Teaching academic ESL writing. New Jersy: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
[8] Hinkel, E. (2005). Hedging, inflating, and persuading in L2 academic writing. *Applied Language Learning*, 15(1/2), 29-53.
[9] Holmes, J. (1982). Expressing doubt and certainty in English. *RELC Journal*, 13(2), 19-28.
[10] Hyland, K. (1994). Hedging in academic writing and EAP textbooks. *English for specific purposes*, 13(3), 239-256.
[11] Hyland, K. (1996). Nurturing hedges in the ESP curriculum. *System*, 24(4), 477-490.
[12] Hyland, K. (1996). Writing without conviction? Hedging in science research articles. *Applied linguistics*, 17(4), 433-454.
[13] Hyland, K. (1996). Talking to the academy: Forms of hedging in science research articles. *Written communication*, 13(2), 251-281.
[14] Hyland, K. (1998). Hedging in scientific research articles. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[15] Hyland, K. (1999). Disciplinary discourses: writer stance in research articles. In C. N., Candlin & K., Hyland (Eds), *Writing: Texts, processes and practices.* Routledge (pp. 99-121). New York: Routhledge.
[16] Hyland, K. (2004). Genre and second language writing. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
[17] Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: a model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, 7, 173-192.
[18] Hyland, K. (2005). Metadiscourse. London: Continuum.
[19] Kubui, A. (1988). Aspects of Hedgings in the Discussion of Medical Research Discourse. LSU: University of Aston in Birmingham.
[20] Lakoff, G. (1972). Hedges: A study in meaning criteria and the logic of fuzzy concepts. *Proceedings of the 8th Regional Meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society*, 183-228.
[21] Lyons, J. (1977). Semantics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[22] McKinlay, J. (1983). An analysis of the discussion sections of medical journal articles. Unpublished Master's dissertation, University of Birmingham.
[23] Mirzapour, F., & Mahand, M. R. (2012). Hedges and boosters in native and non-native library and information and computer science research articles. *The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 18(2), 119-128.
[24] Myers, G. (1988). The pragmatics of politeness in scientific articles. *Applied Linguistics*, 10, 1-35.
[25] Nasiri, S. (2012). Utilization of hedging devices by American and Iranian researchers in the field of civil engineering. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 4(2), pp-124-133.
[26] Powell, M. J. (1985). Purposive vagueness: an evaluation dimension of vague quantifying expressions. *Journal of Linguistics,* 21, 31-50.
[27] Rounds, P. (1981). On hedging in social science written texts. University of Michigan: Ann Arbor, MI.
[28] Rounds, P. (1982). Hedging in written academic discourse: Precision and flexibility. University of Michigan: Ann Arbor, MI.
[29] Salager-Meyer, F. (1994). Hedges and textual communicative function in medical English written discourse. *English for specific purposes*, 13(2), 149-170.
[30] Samaie, M., Khosravian, F., & Boghayeri, M. (2014). The Frequency and Types of Hedges in Research Article Introductions by Persian and English Native Authors. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1678-1685.
[31] Skelton, J. (1988). Comments in academic articles. London: CILT/BAAL.
[32] Stubb, M. (1986). A matter of prolonged field work: notes toward a modal grammar of English. *Applied Linguistics*, 7(1), 1-25.
[33] Wishnoff, J. (2000). Hedging your bets: L2 learners' acquisition of pragmatic devices in academic writing and computer-mediated discourse. *Second Language Studies*, 19(1), 119-148.
[34] Yang, Y. (2013). Exploring linguistic and cultural variations in the use of hedges in English and Chinese scientific discourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 50(1), 23-36.

Atefeh Rezanejad was born in Iran. She received her Master's degree in TEFL from Sharif University of Technology in 2013 and currently she is pursuing her doctoral degree at Allameh Tabataba'i University, Tehran, Iran. She has been teaching English for over

10 years in language institutes and universities. In addition, some of her research papers have appeared in *"The journal of Academic Ethics", "Journal of Language Teaching Skills"* and *"International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature".* She has also had some talks in international conferences held in Iran as well as the United States (e.g. International Conference on Current Trends in ELT, Urmia, Iran; isIPALL, 1ˢᵗ International Conference on TESOL, Tehran, Iran; & Pragmatics and Language Learning Conference, Indiana University, Bloomington). Her main areas of interest include Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching, ethics & academic writing, sociolinguistics, discourse Analysis, and textbook evaluation.

Zahra Lari was born in Iran. She received her Master's degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) from Languages and Linguistics Center in Sharif University of Technology, Tehran, Iran. She has been working as English teacher for more than 8 years in language institutions in Tehran, Iran. Recently she is teaching English at Sama Technical College in Tehran, Iran.

Zahra Mosalli, an MA holder of English Language Teaching, was born in Ardebil, Iran in 1987. She completed her BA on English language translation in PNU in Ardebil in 2009. Then, she did her MA in Urmia University (Urmia, Iran) on English language teaching in 2012 (1391).She has had some years of teaching experiences in different language institutes and university. She taught conversation and MA exam preparing courses in different institutes in Ardebil, Iran. Moreover, she has taught general English, advance writing, letter writing, morphology, and other courses in Mohaghegh Ardebili University, Ardebil, Iran. She has also some published research papers and books and some oral presentations in different international conferences. Some of them are as following: English for the students of Travel and Tourism Management, Mohaghegh-Ardebili publication, Ardebil, Iran, 2015 and English for the students of Economy and Commerce, Mohaghegh-Ardebili publication, Ardebil, Iran, 2015. To name some of published papers, The effect of task complexity on the quality of EFL learners' argumentative writing. IJLTR, Urmia, Iran, 2013 and The effect of task complexity on lexical complexity and grammatical accuracy of EFL learners' argumentative writing. IJALEL, 2012. Furthermore, ICALT 2012, TELSSI 10ᵗʰ, and Urmia University conferences are international conferences in which she participated.

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR) is a scholarly peer-reviewed international scientific journal published bimonthly, focusing on theories, methods, and materials in language teaching, study and research. It provides a high profile, leading edge forum for academics, professionals, consultants, educators, practitioners and students in the field to contribute and disseminate innovative new work on language teaching and research.

JLTR invites original, previously unpublished, research and survey articles, plus research-in-progress reports and short research notes, on both practical and theoretical aspects of language teaching, learning, and research. These areas include, but are not limited to, the following topics:

- Language teaching methodologies
- Pedagogical techniques
- Teaching and curricular practices
- Curriculum development and teaching methods
- Programme, syllabus, and materials design
- Second and foreign language teaching and learning
- Classroom-centered research
- Literacy
- Language education
- Teacher education and professional development
- Teacher training
- Cross-cultural studies
- Child, second, and foreign language acquisition
- Bilingual and multilingual education
- Translation
- Teaching of specific skills

- Language teaching for specific purposes
- New technologies in language teaching
- Testing and evaluation
- Language representation
- Language planning
- Literature, language, and linguistics
- Applied linguistics
- Phonetics, phonology, and morphology
- Syntax and semantics
- Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics
- Discourse analysis
- Stylistics
- Language and culture, cognition, and pragmatics
- Language teaching and psychology, anthropology, sociology
- Theories and practice in related fields

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
    o   Submission of extended version
    o   Notification of acceptance
    o   Final submission due
    o   Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublication.com/jltr/