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Contents

Foreign Language Assessment: Instructional Considerations for Students with Specific Learning Disabilities

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Abstract—**Students with specific learning disabilities (SLDs) continue to be more likely to experience anxiety about learning a foreign language, and possibly less likely to enroll in foreign language courses at all. As schools become more inclusive and more aware of diverse learning needs, it is important to be cognizant of how the individual needs of students with SLDs may relate to classroom instruction and assessment practices. What follows is a discussion of assessment practices, with an emphasis on diagnostic and formative assessment in the context of teaching students with SLDs. Given the prevalence of mobile phones and other devices in contemporary classrooms, a strong emphasis on the role of online polling resources plays a prominent role in this discussion. Specific examples of instructional activities which align with assessments are also provided, as part of a selective literature review intended to connect larger topics in language instruction to the typical needs of students with specific learning disabilities. The perspective of the discussion pertains primarily to students with SLDs in the United States, where the vast majority of foreign language instruction occurs in the middle and secondary grades.**

Index Terms—**world languages, specific learning disabilities, diagnostic assessment, formative assessment**

I. INTRODUCTION

In order to truly promote success for students with specific learning disabilities in learning new languages, there must be due consideration of both effective practices for instruction and assessment. The concern that students identified with specific learning disabilities (SLDs) experience heightened anxiety or difficulty in learning foreign languages has been documented (Barr, 1993; Dal, 2008). Although prior research efforts have centered on multisensory instruction and strategies for learning new languages (Sparks et al., 1998; Tolbert et al., 2015), it is also vital not to overlook the role of assessment in promoting success for students with SLDs. Part of the urgency for attention to foreign language instruction and assessment for students with SLDs is that many such students are expected to complete the requirements for a high school diploma; numerous states and districts in the United States now require students to complete foreign language courses as part of that process (Education Commission of the States, 2017). Rhodes and Pufahl (2009) indicated that the majority of foreign language instruction in the United States is offered at the high school level, followed by middle and elementary schools. Further, Spanish continued to be the non-English language offered most frequently in the U.S. (Rhodes & Pufahl, 2009), so any discussion or research of foreign language study for students with SLDs would more likely be relevant to students learning Spanish and the middle or high school grade levels.

What follows will be a discussion of methods of assessment, with emphasis on diagnostic and formative assessment, and the relevance of these approaches to students with SLDs. Since multisensory approaches have been demonstrated to be integral to the success of students with SLDs, a multisensory instructional context will be a necessary part of the following discussion of teaching and assessing. After briefly discussing diagnostic assessment, a general description of multi-sensory methods and prior research will lead to a discussion of specific, formative measures such as response cards, electronic polling, portfolios, collaborative projects, and student interviews.

II. BASELINE DATA AND STUDENT PROFILES

In broader educational parlance, the word "assessment" may generally connote a formal, often summative measure of performance. Special education assessment is more comprehensive, and must be understood to be an ongoing and diagnostic process (McLoughlin & Lewis, 2008). Further, "It can be defined as the systematic process of gathering educationally relevant information to make legal and instructional decisions about the provision of special services" (McLoughlin & Lewis, 2008, p. 4). Koretz (2008) similarly emphasized the diagnostic use of assessment, noting the importance of gathering multiple measurements and multiple types of data, and exercising sound judgment in forming conclusions. Accordingly, meaningful assessment must first provide information on the strengths and weaknesses of an individual, as well as a general impression of their performance, drawn from multiple sources. An important aspect of understanding how a student with a specific learning disability may function in the classroom is the unexpected pattern of strengths and weaknesses, which varies by individual and requires detailed diagnostic assessment (Schultz, et al.,

2012). A consequence of this unexpected pattern of strengths and weaknesses is that students with SLDs may experience little difficulty in some aspects of L1 or L2 learning (such as reading fluency), while struggling greatly in a related skill (such as reading comprehension). For this reason, ongoing assessment that uses multiple points of data is important in both the initial identification of a specific learning disability, and also in monitoring an individual student's performance in their coursework (Schultz et al., 2012).

As part of inclusion of students with learning disabilities in a foreign language classroom, Duvall (2006) recommended that teachers begin by assessing their own strengths and the procedures and organization of the classroom. Subsequently, Duvall (2006) provided an example of student profiles created for each student with special needs, with data gleaned either from documentation or direct observation of behaviors. This was supported by McLoughlin and Lewis (2008), who asserted that assessment hinges on clear definitions and measurable, observable behaviors. Although some of these guidelines are most pertinent to initial evaluations for special education services, and based in legal expectations, the practice of clearly and thoroughly determining a student's needs has wider applicability. An assessment of a student's individual needs, as well as strengths and weaknesses, can also be considered diagnostic assessment which informs decisions made about instruction, including determination of appropriate accommodations, strategies, and resources.

In devising and enacting a multi-sensory experience to help students with learning disabilities succeed in learning basic Spanish, it is helpful to understand relative weaknesses of an individual student, as well as strengths and preferences. For example, if a student displays a relative weakness in reading fluency in English, but is relatively strong in letter-word identification, then this has to be considered in providing instruction or intervention. Dennis (2009) determined that a flaw in numerous reading programs was the failure to adequately address the needs of individual students. In many cases, reading interventions were based in one dimension of reading, typically phonics (Dennis, 2009). Unsurprisingly, Dennis (2009) concluded that phonics interventions did have positive outcomes for students who really needed to improve their command of phonics, but other students were essentially left idling, with their reading needs ignored. Relative student weaknesses are important to assess in a Spanish program, as working with an additional language can be an opportunity to address these weaknesses, with the understanding that language-based learning disabilities are likely to manifest symptoms across multiple languages (Ganschow & Schnieder, 2006; Sparks and Ganschow, 1993).

Student strengths and preferences are also important in guiding educational decisions. McLoughlin and Lewis (2008) noted the importance of using informal procedures in addition to formal ones, which may be essential to identifying relative strengths. Such strengths and preferences may be observed in informal situations, rich data can be gathered without formal measures. McLoughlin and Lewis (2008) also remarked that it is valuable to determine which conditions are preferred by students and most conducive to accomplishing tasks. Assessing expressive preferences and comfortable conditions should shape not only accommodations and strategies for individual students, but can indicate which later modes of assessment may provide meaningful data about progress (McLoughlin & Lewis, 2008).

III. GENERAL MULTISENSORY CONSIDERATIONS

The concept of multi-sensory instruction, specifically the engagement of one or more of the five senses in educational activities is well-established; multi-sensory methods for teaching reading or language can be traced back to at least the efforts of Orton and Gillingham in the early 20th Century (Morin, 2017). In a multi-sensory foreign language program, students with learning disabilities have been shown to benefit from being engaged more fully, with multiple sensory inputs or expressions involved in learning tasks (Sparks et al., 1998). Logically, the same premise can be applied to assessments rooted in the curriculum; if the instruction is multi-sensory, the assessment should be, too. A given student would still need to correctly pronounce as many words as possible in the allotted time, but could use different stimuli to produce the responses. Translating from a new language to English could include several options, such as allowing the student to respond orally or in writing. Further, students could also incorporate movements which may have been paired with the word during instruction, combine oral responses with a drawing or gesture, or make a recognizable drawing. Instead of writing the word on paper, the student could have a more tactile experience, such as writing in sand, or arranging physical letters (magnetic, wood, paper) to spell the given words.

It is important to note that the techniques pioneered by Gillingham were intended to aid students with SLDs in reading and language tasks in their first language. However, the multi-sensory nature of principles developed by Orton and Gillingham, coupled with evidence that multi-sensory methods benefit students with SLDs learning new langauges (Sparks et al., 1998) could make the application of the Gillingham method to a second language a starting point for instruction and assessment. The Gillingham method used a technique called simultaneous oral spelling, in which a teacher says a spelling word, and the student repeats the word, names the individual letters while writing them, and then says the word (Gillingham & Stillman, 1997). The oral component of this process could be combined with using one of the tangible forms of letters instead of writing, and a further option might involve spelling the words using the names of the letters in the new alphabet (especially if the language being studied uses essentially the same alphabet as English). As the examples offered in this section might indicate, a multi-sensory approach can offer a numerous possibilities for instruction and assessment, which can address the needs of the learner, and which are also influenced by research linking elaborate encoding to memory formation and retrieval (Mayer, 2002; Medina, 2008; Moreno & Mayer, 2007).

IV. RESPONSE CARDS AND ELECTRONIC POLLING

One possible multisensory approach to support students with SLDs would be to supply the student with a series of cards illustrating a pre-selected list of vocabulary words, possibly in thematic groups. These cards could be arranged in a line in front of the student, for the sake of organization and access, and answers given by holding up and replacing cards. Assessment of spelling similarly offers a similar array of options, and may have the most direct ties to multisensory methods (Fernald, 1988; Gillingham & Stillman, 1997). This method also illustrates the utility of response cards in classroom instruction, which can have a positive impact for students with SLDs.

Generally speaking, the use of response cards has been demonstrated to promote student engagement and correspondingly increase academic success and progress in L1 learning (Heward et al., 1996; Munro & Stephenson, 2009). As with the example above, the work of Heward et al. (1996) is most relevant to elementary and middle school learners, but could have broader application to L2 learning. Response cards, particularly cards with pictorial or graphic elements, could reasonably be utilized in learning vocabulary in any new language. Response cards can also allow for more immediate corrective feedback and opportunities for teachers to identify concepts which may be challenging for students (or which may need to be covered again). Students with SLDs have been shown to experience learned helplessness to a greater extent than even other struggling students (Valas, 2001), so active participation in learning and increased frequency and quality of feedback are particularly crucial to learning goals being met. In addition to more traditional response cards, electronic polling options exist and can offer similar benefits to all students in inclusive classrooms. Two particular examples of electronic polling are Plickers and Mentimeter, both of which are proposed below as methods with applications as either diagnostic or formative assessment tools.

A. Plickers

Plickers is a free electronic polling system which allows "quick checks for understanding to know whether your students are understanding big concepts and mastering key skills" (Plickers, 2017). The principle is similar to response cards, with students using coded cards with four possible responses, with individual responses scanned by the instructor with a mobile phone. One advantage of using Plickers is that it allows for near-immediate data collection, meaning that student responses can be given prompt feedback as a seamless part of a lesson. Another advantage is that student responses can be anonymous as far as the larger class is concerned, but the instructor can assign cards to students and determine which students gave certain responses. Logistically, Plickers can also offer the benefit of not requiring a great deal of equipment or possible complications; a supply of printed cards and a mobile phone are the only tools really needed.

As diagnostic assessment, Plickers could be used effectively to identify students who may be closer to mastery, or who may need more individualized support. This information could give the instructor a basis for differentiating instruction or creating heterogeneous groups for activities. Depending on the stage in a lesson or unit of study, Plickers could also be used as formative assessment and promote similar determinations about students who may need more targeted support or more challenging tasks. For students with SLDs, using Plickers can offer the benefits of anonymous responses, active engagement, and increased opportunities for feedback or teacher interventions.

B. Mentimeter

Mentimeter is a free online polling tool which requires students to have access to a device (phone, tablet, laptop) and Internet connection, but also boasts a wider variety of question and display options than Plickers does. For example, questions can be open-ended, multiple-choice, displayed in a word cloud, or bar graph in real time. Much like Plickers, there is immediacy and anonymity of the data collection, though Mentimeter may give some added flexibility or visual variety that appeals to students.

This flexibility can be particularly valuable for diagnostic assessment, as instructors may wish to use different types of questions or obtain varying degrees of detail in diagnostic information. One example is the option to gather short, individual responses anonymously from students. As with response cards, all students have an opportunity to respond and get feedback, rather than having to depend on the instructor calling on them. This can be particularly beneficial for students with SLDs who struggle with oral expression, and can also be an effective way to incorporate the technological literacy of today's students into the classroom in a positive way.

V. FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT OPTIONS

A. Portfolios

Kleinert et al (2007) proposed the use of alternative forms of assessment, such as student portfolios, because, "this allows students multiple ways of demonstrating their knowledge of the language" (p. 27). Duvall (2006) similarly promoted the use of a portfolio of student work which could include video, audio, and written samples from a student. McLoughlin and Lewis (2008) asserted that portfolios could be an effective and meaningful way to record and demonstrate progress over time, and should be aligned with the specific instructional goals of individuals with learning disabilities. Importantly, portfolios may be advantageous for students who have experienced a pattern of failure and feel that successful learning is beyond their control or influence. A portfolio can be personalized, incorporates a variety of

experiences and expressions, and results in a tangible artifact to display growth. This process can be used as both an explicit way to practice organizational skills, which often benefits students with SLDs, but also could be framed as a consistent way to reflect on progress. This growth-based perspective can take portfolios into a more formative realm, rather than having the portfolio serve as a collection of work and summative assessment.

Because anxiety and attitudinal factors can impact student performance and motivation in a foreign language (Dal, 2008; Kormos & Safar, 2008; Levine, 1987; Scott & Manglitz, 1997; Thurston et al., 2009), assessment opportunities which do not compare students with disabilities to their peers, or imply ranking and judgment, may be more effective.

In order to make portfolios worthwhile, they must be based in the same sort of systematic process as instruction. Guidelines for doing so were described by Salend (1998), including making the goals of the portfolio explicit, deciding on procedures to be employed, selecting an array of products relevant to the portfolio goals, regular review of portfolios, and making record of the significance of items included. Beyond serving as an individualized and authentic means of assessment for students with learning disabilities, portfolios have also been established as an appropriate means of assessing students learning a second language. Yu-Ju et al. (2005) described a Taiwanese study in which electronic portfolios served as an effective way to assess not only the progress of learners, but also the success of the language program. Because the portfolios were tied closely to the language instruction, the portfolios became both a teaching tool and an assessment tool (Yu-Ju et al., 2005). As addressed by Nikolov and Djigunovic (2006), language portfolios have sometimes been embraced outside the United States as an innovative indicator of proficiency in foreign language.

B. Cooperative Projects and Products

Like student portfolios, cooperative projects and products can offer alternative avenues for students to demonstrate content knowledge and growth. Cooperative projects and products may offer flexibility in student involvement and mode of presentation. Duvall (2006), for instance, recommended a class project as an alternative foreign language assessment, such as putting on a play. Such a project could promote the inclusion of students with disabilities in meaningful ways, while still allowing flexibility for varying levels of confidence or skill. Another example of a full-class project in foreign language study was described by Pellet (2012), in which a French class collaborated to create a wiki. Pellet (2012) concluded that the active, constructivist approach allowed for meaningful learning, while also benefitting from continuous instructor feedback. Similar projects might also allow individuals or small groups of students with learning disabilities to participate in inclusive classrooms and address social skills, while simultaneously offering another means of assessment.

C. Student Interviews

Along with formative assessment practices like journals, projects, and portfolios, Ketabi and Ketabi (2014) noted that student interviews have gained traction as a form of assessment for students learning new languages. Since traditional written tests can be especially problematic for students with SLDs, a form of assessment that allows for oral expression and direct one-on-one assessment may reduce anxiety and provide more precise information about a particular student's progress. Having tests presented orally, instead of in writing, is a common and accepted accommodation for students with learning disabilities, and interviews are also accepted as a means of assessing student needs and progress. McLoughlin and Lewis (2008) stated that interviews can be employed as an alternative form of assessment when literacy creates obstacles or to set a student at ease, though it is important to note that the accuracy of the information relies upon the memory and perceptions of the student. Nevertheless, benefits of interviews are that, "an interviewer can guide the informant through the questioning, keep him or her on track, and probe for additional information when necessary" (McLoughlin & Lewis, 2008, p. 136). Interviews can also be utilized as a means of gathering further information about the student from teachers, parents, and other professionals (McLoughlin & Lewis, 2008).

When interviewing children, Kyronlampi-Kylmanen and Maatta (2011) suggested that interviews be as non-threatening as possible, with students having opportunities to personalize files, make illustrations, or talk while engaged in play. Although this particular approach is certainly intended for younger children, some of the principles described could make the interview process less intimidating, and may offer multi-sensory components appropriate to individuals with learning disabilities.

Duvall (2006) specifically included oral interviews as an appropriate form of alternative assessment for students with specific learning disabilities enrolled in foreign language courses. With regard to second language assessment, Pinter (2011) echoed the practice suggested by Kyronlampi-Kylmanen and Maatta (2011) which involved embedding interviews within larger, more familiar activities. Ehrman (1996) emphasized that interviews also serve as a means of testing, or perhaps elaborating on, perceptions and observations of students formed by teachers. Appropriate to multi-sensory instruction and assessment, Pinter (2007) explored the process of integrating video and still photos of student performance into the interview, as not only a way to spur recall, but also to create context and trigger feelings and opinions. Because of the importance of a multi-sensory approach to teaching skills and concepts in a new language, which involves neurological phenomena like working memory and attention, interviewing approaches like those described by Pinter (2007) and Kyronlampi-Kylmanen and Maatta (2011) may represent an integration of instruction and assessment.

D. Color-coded Verb Conjugation

This example is specific to teaching Spanish, namely verbs which follow regular or consistent conjugation patterns. In Spanish, regular verbs for which the infinitive form ends with "AR" are conjugated by removing the "AR" and replacing it with a different ending which corresponds to the subject pronoun. This process can be challenging, especially for native speakers of languages like English, where an analogous conjugation pattern doesn't exist. For beginning students of Spanish, it takes hours of practice and repetitions to master the conjugation of "AR" verbs. Not surprisingly, students can become frustrated with rote drills or charts; some students with SLDs are especially susceptible to being left behind in this process.

A recommended alternative is to have students create a set of cards in three categories: the verb stem (infinitive without the "AR"); the subject pronouns; the endings corresponding to subject pronouns. The subject pronouns and corresponding endings should be color-coded (red for "yo" and "o," blue for "nosotros" and "amos," etc.). This color-based system allows the student to practice independently, with the color-coding serving as a self-correcting means of automatic feedback.

Both individual and pair practice are options with these color-coded cards, and both can meet an accepted goal of formative assessment, which is to provide students with feedback and a sense of their own mastery. With Spanish regular "AR" verb conjugation, a desired outcome is that students practice to the point of gaining automaticity. This means that not only does the conjugation process need to be learned, but that fluency is an essential part of mastery.

Pair practice can be regularly used as an in-class activity and also a means of gathering data for formative assessment purposes. This functions best as a timed activity where the subject pronouns are face-down in a pile and students have to choose the correct ending and say aloud the correct subject-verb combination ("nosotros hablamos"). Students work in pairs, with each having an assigned role as either the conjugator or the person who turns over the subject pronoun cards and tallies the number of correct responses. This has several benefits, the first being that it is a brief activity (5-10 minutes) which can be done daily for a week or two. Additionally, students can basically try to top their best score and can see their progress over time. Ultimately, this serves as both a practice activity and a reasonable way to assess which students may still be struggling with the fundamental conjugation process or with fluency.

VI. CONCLUSION

Students with specific learning disabilities may still be more reluctant to enroll in foreign language courses, and the relative paucity of strategic attention to instruction and assessment to support these students has arguably played a role in what is likely an under-representation of students with SLDs in such courses. An important step is to recognize that students with SLDs tend to exhibit pronounced patterns of strengths and weaknesses that need to be assessed and understood in the context of the expectations of a foreign language curriculum. Effective educators also understand the intertwined nature of instruction and assessment, which is a particularly urgent consideration for students with SLDs.

Of course, it is imperative to understand that the multisensory instruction and assessment examples provided here have potential benefit for all students. However, students with SLDs may find success in foreign language courses extremely elusive without deliberate supports and considerations such as these. This can be considered a starting point, and an effort to fill gaps in theory and practice as concerns the inclusion of students with SLDs in foreign language courses. There is a continued need for rigorous research, much as effective assessment compels professional educators to gather frequent and valid data which can shape future directions.

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Designing an English for Special Purposes (ESP) Course: The Case of Medical Students

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Abstract—**This paper is an extract from a syllabus I have conceived and designed to be used by the medical students of the Faculty of Medicine of Porto-Novo, in the Republic of Benin. My objective in writing it is to show student teachers of English as a foreign language some of the aspects and stages that have to be considered when designing a syllabus of this kind, that is, English for Special Purposes. This course is intended for all years' medical students at the Special Faculty of Medicine at Porto-Novo, in the Republic of Benin, and in any other university, who do not speak English as their mother tongue, but who need to know this language to further their studies abroad for specialization purposes when they finish their schooling in their various countries. Composed of three integrated modules, its purpose is to bring those students to satisfy their language and communication needs. It emphasizes critical thinking and favors the acquisition of the language through the natural route of development as it is learnt by native speakers. This course is grounded on a functional/notional syllabus based on what students need and want to know.**

Index Terms—**language development, medical students, to build communication, authentic language, language practice**

I. THE COURSE IDENTIFICATION AND LAYOUT

The name of the Faculty should appear here.
Example: FACULTY OF MEDICINE OF PORTO-NOVO (Republic of Benin)

ACADEMIC YEAR (to be defined by the lecturer)

Subject/Field of study: English for Special Purposes
Course: English for medicine.

Study year	Hours	Period	Day/Time	Place
All years' medical students at the Faculty of Medicine of Porto-Novo.	Varying from 4 hours to more per week, depending on the study year.	Beginning (**Example**: November 2014.)	Varying according to the study year	Faculty of Medicine of Porto-Novo

Identification (Name, rank and qualification of the lecturer in charge)	Other collaborators
Example: Dr. DATONDJI Coovi Innocent, Docteur d'Etat en Linguistique et Didactique de la langue anglaise, Advanced Practical Certificate in Teacher Training and Inspecting for TESOL, Maître de Conférences des Universités du CAMES, Retired Fulbright Professor.	Not applicable

II. INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE

A. General Objective of the Course

Considering the place of the English language in the world today, the first and general objective of this course is to familiarize the medical students at the Faculty of Medicine of Porto-Novo with the bases of medical terms and prepare them to function in English during international workshops and conferences or simply when examining patients who are English (native) speakers.

B. Specific Learning Objectives

At the end of the session (50 hours per semester), the students are expected to be able to:

1. Communicate relatively fluently in spoken English,

2. Write papers in English for international workshops and conferences, and even attempt to write in English parts of their long papers (doctoral thesis or final dissertation),

3. Understand native speakers and respond to them in a comprehensible English,

C. Prerequisite

Knowledge of the principles of Teaching English as a Foreign/Second Language (TEFL/TESL) or English level of "Baccalaureate" (corresponding to seven years of English learning at secondary school).

D. Contents

1. Introduction: On the purpose of language.

The purpose of language is to communicate. There are mostly **seven** broad communicative functions of language. They are:

(1) Requesting and giving information; **(2)** Expressing thought processes; **(3)** Expressing opinions; **(4)** Making judgments; **(5)** Modifying people's behavior; **(6)** Expressing personal feelings; and **(7)** Interacting socially (with specific formats).

2. Session One: Just like a teacher, anyone wanting to become a doctor must endeavor to get and develop the following dimensions:

a) The academic dimension (Cf: *L'Anglais pour tous, volumes One and Two*)

b) The methodological dimension (Cf: *L'Anglais pour tous, volumes One and Two*)

c) The human dimension (Cf: *L'Anglais pour tous, volumes One and Two*)

3. Session Two: Prior aspects to be considered in undertaking the learning of a foreign/second language (Cf: *L'Anglais pour tous, volumes One and Two*)

a) The stages of learning. b) The components of an attitude. c) The components of language aptitude.

4. Evaluation (may vary):

4.1. **of the students**: The students are evaluated every semester. The evaluation is composed of two parts: a written part and an oral one. The passing conditions are specified at the beginning of the course.

4.2. **of the trainer**: A form will be filled in by the students at the end of each semester to assess their lecturer[1].

E. Note to the Attention of the Teacher and the Student

Some people think wrongly that the learning of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) consists in learning only the technical vocabulary of the concerned field or register. I completely disagree with this way of thinking. In fact, according to me, as far as the medical field for instance is concerned, what use is it for a medical doctor to know all the medical lexical items in the world if he/she cannot use them in real communication situation? If I consider for instance the word "**Cardiopathy**" known by a medical doctor, he can never use it **communicatively** if he is not able to say to his patient (s) one of the following sentences:

1) The diagnostic shows that you are suffering from Cardiopathy.

2) Your sickness is Cardiopathy.

3) I'll write you a prescription to cure your Cardiopathy.

4) If you suffer from Cardiopathy, **come to the hospital**.

In other words, all the other elements of the four phrases and which are written in **bold letters** constitute essential elements without which the single knowing of the word "Cardiopathy" will appear just useless. Concretely speaking, it is good for the medical students to learn the medical jargon or specific register, but it is certainly more profitable and practical for them to use these to engage fruitful and comprehensive conversations with their patients for establishing diagnostics and writing lifesaving prescriptions rather than lethal ones, thus increasing the death rate in our countries, by lack of competence.

III. THE COURSE MODULES

I have entitled the first module: **"Refresher component"**. The activities of this component are to be carried out for four hours on a weekly basis during the first two months of the school year[2].

1. MODULE ONE: REFRESHER COMPONENT (to be carried out for four hours weekly during the first two months of the school year, that is: **October and November,** in the Beninese educational system)

2. MODULE TWO: SPECIAL REGISTER COMPONENT (to be implemented weekly for one hour **(refresher component)** coupled with one hour of **Special Register** study (ESP) from **December to May** (= six months of the school year in the Beninese educational system)

After roughly two months of refresher course, the learners move into the second module which consists in putting them into simulations of the real-life medical register. To achieve this aim, I have designed a series entitled: **"At the medical consultation"** and featuring either conversations or dialogues between doctors and patients and students discussing medical/health issues, or points related to the same issues. Each conversation or dialogue is followed with a pedagogic follow-up work for practice by the students, in order to help them to improve their speaking and writing skills, **as in Lessons 6 below, for instance).**

3. MODULE THREE: PAPER READING/WRITING-RELATED ISSUES COMPONENT (to be carried out in four hours weekly during the last month of the school year. The third component is a kind of guideline designed to help the students to:

1. Understand papers written in English,

2. write papers in English for international audience/conferences, in order to

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[1] This is an innovation introduced by me.

[2] The school year is split into two ''semesters'' to follow the regulations of the ''Licence, Master, Doctorate'' (LMD) system of education now being implemented in Benin.

3. Write in English their doctoral dissertation (s).

IV. METHODOLOGY

Guideline:

(1) The course is entitled: **At the medical consultation**. The paper presented here is an extract which contains **six lessons**.

(2) The conversations or dialogues which constitute the essentials of this course have been composed by me, conceiver and writer of the syllabus, just for pedagogic purposes and needs. The reader is therefore constantly invited not to pay an excessive attention to their "professional" contents

(3) The teacher who is about to implement this syllabus is also invited, if he/she wishes to do so, to draw elements from it in order to adapt it to his own teaching needs and objectives in order to enrich his own lessons.

(4) The students practice the conversations or dialogues in turn, two or more students at a time, depending on the number of the characters involved, trying to guess or figure out the missing words. At the end of the practice, they look at the answer key to check their propositions. The answer key is displayed on a separate sheet that the teacher keeps with himself/herself during the practice by the students.

(5) For each level or module, it is recommended the teacher should follow the guideline referring to the progression of the modules which has been proposed for the school year.

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1 Lesson One

Stage One: Dialogue One

1. Instructions: Fill in the gaps in the dialogue below with the following words: injury; matter; pain; suffer; headache; allergy; wrong; condition; treatment; hurt; ache.

1) <u>Patient</u>: I feel really ill.

2) <u>Doctor</u>: Not again! What exactly is the **(1)…?**

3) <u>Patient</u>: I don't know. I have an **(2)…**in my joints. I have an old leg **(3)…**and I can't walk properly.

4) <u>Doctor</u>: You've been receiving **(4)…**for that, haven't you?

5) <u>Patient</u>: Yes, doctor. But it's worse now. I'm sure I've **(5)…**my back too.

6) <u>Doctor</u>: Oh! I've dropped my pen. (Patient bends down to pick it up). Thank you. I see there is nothing **(6)…**with your back after all.

7) <u>Patient</u>: Well, I **(7)…**from insomnia. I hardly get any sleep at nights. I can hear my heart beating all the time. I'm sure I have a heart **(8)…**

8) <u>Doctor</u>: Let me listen to it. No, it seems all right to me. Oh!

9) <u>Patient</u>: Are you in **(9)…,** doctor?

10) <u>Doctor</u>: Yes, I have a dreadful **(10)…**It must be an **(11)…**I get it every time I see you.

2. Answer key: (1): matter; (2): ache; (3): injury; (4): treatment; (5): hurt; (6): wrong; (7): suffer; (8): condition; (9): pain; (10): headache; (11): allergy.

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2. Lesson Two

Stage One: Dialogue Two

1. Instructions: Fill in the gaps in the dialogue below with the following words: pregnant; off; pains; treatment; medicine; expensive; take; pulse; children; get; worse; pharmacist; instructions; prescriptions; leaflet; wombs; bowels; matter; stretch; morning; clothes; normal; vomiting.

2. A dialogue between a pregnant woman (Pw) and a Doctor:

1- <u>Pw</u>: Good morning, doctor.

2- <u>Doctor</u>: Good morning, madam. What's the **(1)**…?

3- <u>Pw</u>: I feel pains in my **(2)**…

4- <u>Doctor</u>: Have you moved your **(3)** …today?

5- <u>Pw</u>: No, doctor.

6- <u>Doctor</u>: Let me see, please. Lie down on the bed.

7- <u>Pw</u>: (Lying down) Ok, doctor.

8- <u>Doctor</u>: Not like that. Take your clothes **(4)**… first.

9- <u>Pw</u>: Ok, doctor.

10- <u>Doctor</u>: Good. **(5)** …your feet/legs. (Consulting) You are pregnant. Aren't you?

11- <u>Pw</u>: Yes doctor, I am.

12- <u>Doctor</u>: When did you become **(6)**…?

13- <u>Pw</u>: Two months ago, when I missed my period.

14- <u>Doctor</u>: Where exactly do you feel the **(7)**…?

15- <u>Pw</u>: (Showing) Here!

16- <u>Doctor</u>: Have you been having a **(8)**…?

17- <u>Pw</u>: Not yet.

18- <u>Doctor</u>: Ok! Now, you can **(9)**…up.

19- <u>Pw</u>: Ok! Thank you, doctor.

20- <u>Doctor</u>: Put your **(10)** …on and sit down here.

21- <u>Pw</u>: Is it good here?

22- <u>Doctor</u>: Fine! Let me check your **(11)**… and take your temperature.

23- <u>Pw</u>: Are they **(12)**…?

24- <u>Doctor</u>: No problem. Have you been **(13)**…?

25- <u>Pw</u>: Yes, doctor.

26- <u>Doctor</u>: Since when?

27- <u>Pw</u>: Since last week.

28- <u>Doctor</u>: How often?

29- <u>Pw</u>: Every time I eat, but especially in the **(14)**…

30- <u>Doctor</u>: Have you got other **(15)**…?

31- <u>Pw</u>: No, doctor. This is my first pregnancy

32- <u>Doctor</u>: Ok. Let me write a **(16)**…for you. (Writing up the prescription) Here it is. Take it. They are tablets.

33- <u>Pw</u>: Thank you, doctor. How do I **(17)**…the tablets?

34- <u>Doctor</u>: The **(18)**…are written on the **(19)**…inside the box for the medicine.

35- <u>Pw</u>: Are they **(20)**…?

36- <u>Doctor</u>: I don't know, but the **(21)**…will tell you.

37- <u>Pw</u>: Ok, doctor. Thank you. When shall I come back?

38- <u>Doctor</u>: In two weeks' time.

39- <u>Pw</u>: What if the pains get **(22)**…before then?

40- <u>Doctor</u>: Come back anytime you have a problem.

41- <u>Pw</u>: Shall I have to pay the fees again?

42- <u>Doctor</u>: Why not? I have not spent ten years studying medicine for nothing!

43- <u>Pw</u>: Thank you doctor. Good bye.

44- <u>Doctor</u>: Good bye. Take your **(23)**…and keep healthy.

3. Answer key: (1) matter; (2) wombs; (3) bowels; (4) off; (5) stretch; (6) pregnant; (7) pains; (8) treatment; (9) get; (10) clothes; (11) pulse; (12) normal; (13) vomiting; (14) morning; (15) children; (16) prescriptions; (17) take; (18) instructions; (19) leaflet; (20) expensive; (21) pharmacist; (22) worse; (23) medicine.

Stage Two: Additional lexical items:

1- Gynaecologist= Gynécologue; 2- Gynaecological= Gynécologique; 3- Gynaecology= Gynécologie; 4- Pregnant woman= Femme enceinte; 5- To give birth (to a baby/babies); to deliver = Accoucher; 6- To bear a child/to bear children= Porter une grossesse; 7- Echography= Echographie; 8- Caesarean= Césarienne; 9- To make pregnant= Enceinter; 10- To abort, to carry out an abortion = Faire (un) avortement; 11- Abortion= Avortement; 12- Curettage= Curetage; 13- Protected sexual intercourse = Rapport (sexuel) protégé; 14- Miscarriage = Fausses couches.

Stage Three: Follow-up work: This follow-up work is meant for the students to practice as homework.

Instruction: Use each of the words in the additional lexical list above to make up five sentences of your own. During the next class, you will compare your answers to the ones of the student sitting next to you for correction if necessary and for comments.

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3. Lesson Three

A sample of some of the sentences that a doctor can use when examining a patient

Procedure:

Step one: The teacher hands to the students copies of the (material =) the lines below.

Step two: He/she and the students read them aloud together at least two times to check pronunciation.

Step three: The students are given time (to be determined by the teacher) to have a reading on their own.

Step four: The follow-up work.

1) Have you paid the fees? 2) What exactly is the matter (with you)? 3) What are you suffering from? 4) Let me see. 5) Let me have a look. 6) Let me have a closer look. 7) Have you been receiving treatment? 8) What medicine have you been taking? 9) When did the pain start? 10) Have you been seeing another doctor? 11) Let me take your temperature! 12) Let me check your blood pressure! 13) Let me write a prescription for you. 14) Here it is. Take it/Have it. 15) Come back next week.

Follow-up work: The students practice these sentences in pairs: one plays the role of the doctor and the second one plays the role of the patient. They change roles until all the students have had a chance to participate actively.

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4. Lesson Four

Stage One: Dialogue Three
Instructions: Fill in the gaps in the dialogue below with the following words: Routine, follow-up; mean; ready; note book; pregnant; financial; whining; perfusion; hospitalize; situations; father; circling; before; everything; feel; follow; strengthen; cashier's; boxes; nurse; prepare; already; of course; at once; ago; today; hurry; take; brother; call.
The dialogue: A dialogue between a gynaecologist and a pregnant woman (Pw)

1- <u>Pw</u>: Good morning, doctor.
2- <u>Doctor</u>: Good morning, madam. I think I've seen you **(1)**….
3- <u>Pw</u>: Yes, doctor. You are right. I was here two months **(2)**….
4- <u>Doctor</u>: Yes! I remember now. You were two months **(3)**…then.
5- <u>Pw</u>: Exactly.
6- <u>Doctor</u>: And what can I do for you **(4)**…today?
7- <u>Pw</u>: I've come for the **(5)**…check-up.
8- <u>Doctor</u>: Where is your consultation **(6)**…?
9- <u>Pw</u>: Here it is, doctor.
10- <u>Doctor</u>: Have you bought and taken the tablets?
11- <u>Pw</u>: Yes, doctor. I have finished the two **(7)**…already.
12- <u>Doctor</u>: And how do you **(8)**…now?
13- <u>Pw</u>: I think that the baby is in a **(9)**…to come out and be delivered.
14- <u>Doctor</u>: He better stay where he is for the time being.
15- <u>Pw</u>: I think so too.
16- <u>Doctor</u>: Anyway, lie down here.
17- <u>Pw</u>: (Lying down) Ok, doctor.
18- <u>Doctor</u>: (Consulting) I think you are right. I must **(10)**…you. You need a **(11)**….
19- <u>Pw</u>: But I'm not ready for that now.
20- <u>Doctor</u>: What do you **(12)**…by "you are not ready"?
21- <u>Pw</u>: I don't have any money with me.
22- <u>Doctor</u>: Do you want to keep your baby or not?
23- <u>Pw</u>: **(13)**…I do want to keep it.
24- <u>Doctor</u>: So, shut up and **(14)**…your husband.
25- <u>Pw</u>: I don't have a husband doctor.
26- <u>Doctor</u>: You don't have a husband. But who is the **(15)**…of the baby then?
27- <u>Pw</u>: I don't know him yet.
28- <u>Doctor</u>: Yet? So what do you want me to do now?
29- <u>Pw</u>: You must help me doctor. **(16)**…and holding her belly with both hands) The baby wants to come out, doctor.
30- <u>Doctor</u>: Ask him to keep quiet and stay inside. Under the circumstances, as I said, you need a circling. Is there anyone to attend to you?
31- <u>Pw</u>: Yes, doctor. I'm with my **(17)**….
32- <u>Doctor</u>: Ok. Ask him to go and pay the fees at the **(18)**…desk, at the reception. (Calling a nurse) Go and **(19)**…a bed for this woman, please.
33- <u>Nurse</u>: **(20)**…, doctor.
34- <u>Doctor</u>: (Addressing the woman) **(21)**…her.
35- <u>Pw</u>: Ok, doctor. Thank you.
36- <u>Nurse</u>: (Addressing the woman) Sit down here, while I get things **(22)**….
37- <u>Doctor</u>: (Reflecting) here we are! We speak of free of charge and gratuitous caesarians! But then, how do we handle those unexpected **(23)**…? How many women lose their lives and babies every day by lack of **(24)**…means? It's only God who can save this country!
38- <u>Nurse</u>: **(25)**…is ready, doctor.
39- <u>Doctor</u>: Ok. (Addressing the woman) Let's go inside. (Some time later. After the circling) Madam, you have to stay here for three days for a **(26)**….
40- <u>Pw</u>: Three days?
41- <u>Doctor</u>: Yes, madam. You are very weak. You need some **(27)**…to **(28)**…your health.
42- <u>Brother</u>: (Back from the reception) I'm back, doctor. I have **(29)**…paid the fees. Here is the receipt.
43- <u>Doctor</u>: Hand it to the **(30)**…. Come back after tomorrow to **(31)**…your sister back home. Goodbye.
44- <u>Brother</u>: Thank you, doctor. Good bye.

Stage Two: Answer key: (1) before; (2) ago; (3) pregnant; (4) today; (5) routine; (6) notebook; (7) boxes; (8)feel; (9) hurry; (10) hospitalize; (11) circling; (12) mean; (13) of course; (14) call; (15) father; (16) whining; (17) brother; (18)

cashier's ; (19) prepare; (20) at once; (21) follow; (22) ready; (23) situations; (24) financial; (25) everything; (26) follow-up; (27) perfusions; (28) strengthen; (29) already; (30) nurse; (31) take

Stage Three: Pedagogic follow-up work meant for the students to practice as homework
Task one: Use each of the words in the additional lexical list above to make up five sentences on your own. During the next class, you will compare your answer to the ones of the student sitting next to you for correction if necessary and for comments.
Task two: Each student is requested to put a question based on the dialogue. (Here are some examples of the questions that the students can put)
Question One: Why is it important to teach teenagers (TA) sexual education?
Answer One: It's important to teach TA sexual education because we want them to be protected against sexually transmitted diseases and non-desired pregnancies.
Question Two: What is the role of condom and femidom?
Answer Two: Condom and femidom help to protect people against sexually transmitted diseases and non-desired pregnancies.
Question Three: Are teenagers the only people concerned with/by non-desired pregnancies?
Answer Three: It's not the teenagers only who are concerned with/by non-desired pregnancies; the grown-up people are also concerned.
Question Four: What does the doctor need to succeed in his sexual education program?
Answer Four: To succeed in his sexual education program, the doctor needs parents-children's communication.
Question Five: What are some of the consequences of a non-desired pregnancy for girls?
Answer Five: Some of the consequences of a non-desired pregnancy for girls are: desire to commit abortion, sterility, school dropout and possibly death.
Question Six: Do you think that femidom is commonly used in our societies?
Answer Six: No, I don't think that femidom is commonly used in our societies, because, as has been reported by some women, placing it in the vagina is not as easy as placing the condom.
Question Seven: What are some of the methods which can be used to avoid a non-desired pregnancy?
Answer Seven: Some of the methods which can be used to avoid a non-desired pregnancy are:
1) Protected sexual relationships; 2) Abstinence; 3) Contraception.
Question Eight: What are some of the consequences of non-protected sexual relationships?
Answer Eight: Some of the consequences of non-protected sexual relationships are:
1) Sexually transmitted infections; 2) Irresponsible pregnancies; 3) Abortion; 4) Sterility; 5- Death.
Question Nine: What is the role of the parents in the sexual education of their children?
Answer Nine: The parents have a very important role to play in the sexual education of their children, because if they don't do so, street and school education will corrupt their children.
Question Ten: At what age can parents introduce sexual education to their children?
Answer Ten: It depends on the nature and characteristics of the children, and on the method the parents use. Generally speaking, we cannot set an age limit.
Question Eleven: Why is the concept of "non-protected" a false issue?
Answer Eleven: This concept is a false issue because in normal conditions, the normal issue of sexual relationships is pregnancy.

Stage Four: A question for debate: You are a (woman) gynaecologist; your daughter gets pregnant at the age of 13. How would you handle that situation?
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5. Lesson Five

Stage One: A dialogue between a Doctor [Dr.] and a medical student [Ms]
Instructions: Fill in the gaps in the dialogue below with the following words.
dimensions, antibiotics, fulfilled, suffering, cervix, pounded, treatment, counts, absorbent, accident, reanimation, unit, doctor, conscience, preferable, persons, previous, obsolete, circumstances, surgery, care, gaping, save, equipment, lives, several, mentioned, help, amputate, anaesthetize.
1) Ms: Good morning, Dr. An **(1)**… has just been reported.
2) Dr: Yes, you are right. It is an emergency situation/case.
3) Ms: Why, Dr?
4) Dr: Because **(2)**… people have died and there are many people seriously injured too.
5) Ms: Under these **(3)** …, what has to be done, Dr?
6) Dr: We need an emergency **(4)**… for the injured people.
7) Ms: What about the surgical **(5)**…?
8) Dr: It has to be up-to-date, not **(6)**… and non-adapted. Besides, the usual light material should be available, too.

9) <u>Ms</u>: What is it composed of, Dr?

10) <u>Dr</u>: It is composed of compress, cotton wool/cotton, alcohol, **(7)**… cotton wool, mercurochrome, bandages for making tourniquet in case of serious bleeding/haemorrhage [heməridj]

11) <u>Ms</u>: In those situations, can we operate on victims who were **(8)**… from other diseases such as: haemorrhoids, uterus/womb infection, the cancer of the **(9)**… of the uterus/womb, the cancer of the prostate, and peritonitis?

12) Dr: It depends. But what **(10)**… most is for the doctor to do everything he can to **(11)**… the **(12)**… of all patients. When you finish with the emergency surgeries, you can work on **(13)**… diseases as the ones you've **(14)**...

13) <u>Ms</u>: Where is the operation carried out?

14) <u>Dr</u>: In the operation/surgery **(15)**…, with ultra-modern and appropriate equipment. The inappropriate and worn-out equipment has to be completely thrown away if we don't want to complicate the situation of the injured people.

15) <u>Ms</u>: In what condition do we have to operate on the **(16)**…?

16) <u>Dr</u>: Depending on the situation, we have to **(17)**… them. In this case, we can practice local or general anaesthesia and do our best to avoid making **(18)**… wounds on them.

17) <u>Ms</u>: Are you saying that the light wounds are **(19)**…, Dr?

18) <u>Dr</u>: Yes of course, they are.

19) <u>Ms</u>: Please, Dr., what must be done after the operation?

20) <u>Dr</u>: After the operation, sometimes, we have to do cardio vascular or cardio-lung **(20)**…

21) <u>Ms</u>: Please, Dr. what if for instance one of the legs of the person is completely **(21)**… or pulverized?

22) <u>Dr</u>: When there is nothing else to do, we can't **(22)**… it. We have to **(23)**…, cut off the injured/damaged leg, and take measures to avoid convulsions during the surgery.

23) <u>Ms</u>: What has to be done when the operation is successful?

24) <u>Dr</u>: When all good conditions have been **(24)**…and the operation has been successful, we need to observe the patient and give him after surgery **(25)**…, consisting in medicating him/her with strong **(26)**…

25) <u>Ms</u>: I've heard that sometimes, there are conflicts between the medical staff and the patients' sires/begetters regarding the kind of **(27)**… to give the patients.

26) <u>Dr</u>: Yes, you are right. But sometimes, a **(28)**… doesn't have the time to think about all those subtle **(29)**… of human life. He just has to do his job as his **(30)**… calls upon him to do.

Stage Two: Answer key:

(29) dimensions, (26) antibiotics, (24) fulfilled, (8) suffering, (9) cervix, (21) pounded, (27) treatment, (10) counts, (7) absorbent, (1) accident, (20) reanimation, (15) unit, (28) doctor, (30) conscience, (19) preferable, (16) persons, (13) previous, (6) obsolete, (3) circumstances, (4) surgery, (25) care, (18) gaping, (11) save, (5) equipment, (12) lives, (2) several, (14) mentioned, (22) help, (23) amputate, (17) anaesthetize.

Stage Three: Pedagogic follow-up work meant for the students to practice as homework

Task one: Use each of the words in the additional lexical list above to make up five sentences. During the next class, you will compare your answers to the ones of the student sitting next to you for correction if necessary and for comments.

Task two: lexical items and sentences (Exploration and follow-up questions)

Procedure:

1) Each student first reads two lexical items/sentences and then answers related questions put by his/her mates.

2) The teacher comes in for clarifications if necessary, and presents issues for debates. For instance, the teacher may ask the students to point out the difference between lexical item **five (Cardiomyopathy)** and lexical item **six (Cardiopathy),** insisting on the concepts: **"intensive vocabulary"** and **"extensive vocabulary".** As an illustration, lexical item **five** relates to "intensive vocabulary", whereas lexical **six** relates to "extensive vocabulary".

3) When they come to **sentence 11 [The patient is under intensive care],** the teacher can ask the following questions:

   a) In what circumstances can a doctor say this sentence?

   b) To who (m)?

4) When they come to sentences **15** and **16**, the teacher may ask the students: "Are these sentences appropriate with good ethics"?

Stage Four: Additional activities: a debate about faked medicines

Section One: Background of the topic:

The fight against the faked medicines has known a rapid development and interest with the creation of what is called **"The Chirac Foundation"**, after the name of one of the former Presidents of France, Mr. Jacques Chirac[3]. A day, October 12th, has even been retained to celebrate this fight every year. A conference on this issue was held in Cotonou, presided over by President Chirac, and the headquarters of the Foundation were set up in Cotonou (Benin).

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[3] Information on the Radio Station: "Soleil FM", during its programme: 'Le Boulevard des Opinions' (Tuesday, October 2015)

Unfortunately, the headquarters moved from Cotonou to Lomé (Togo) on Monday, October 12th, 2015, after it was found out that despite the importance given to Cotonou in this fight by establishing the headquarters in Benin, it is in Benin that the fight has regressed in favor of the sale of the faked medicines which has outrageously gained tremendous momentum. Therefore, we can say that the fight has failed in Benin. This failure is clearly understandable and is easily explained by the following factors:

1) Our political leaders do not really have, so to speak, the political will to effectively fight against the faked medicines.

2) They certainly have their own financial interests in preserving and encouraging the sale of the faked medicines.

3) These medicines are publicly sold in the two biggest open markets: Dantokpa market in Cotonou and Adjégounlè market in Porto-Novo. They are managed by SOGEMA, a government-owned society in charge of managing the markets in Benin.

4) Even when the civil society invites the members of the government in charge of health to attend conferences and working sessions to discuss the issue, they do not participate.

Therefore, Dr. Moudiatou Toukourou (2015), the leader of one of the branches of the National Order of Pharmacists, has urged them "to change their attitude of **"I don't care"** in order to join them in the fight and attend the public manifestations and demonstrations scheduled for November to sensitize the populations". This sensitization is all the more important as the political will is missing and as the side effects of the consumption of faked medicines are numerous. A number of these side effects on the youth are listed below:

a) Their eyes are red looking, as if blood-injected, looking at people evasively.

b) They are hyper tensed.[4]

The youth become faked medicine-addicted because of these two factors: 1) the weakness of their purchasing power and 2) their ignorance of the side effects elicited above. There are two regrettable facts about this situation. Firstly, due to these two factors, many people prefer buying the faked medicines and indulge in the practice of using them. Secondly, even the official pharmacies do sell the faked medicines quite freely, unofficially, as it is said, supported by the government.

In Asia for instance, the medicines do not obey any formal dosage. Our frontiers are pervasive, to such extent that many medicines cannot be traced back to their true origins, thus increasing the danger in the situation. Many pharmacies are real **"crematorium"**, in the sense that the medicines sold there are not conserved according to the rules, as they are exposed to the dust coming from the streets and to heat, without any precaution of air conditioning.

Section Two: The debate:

1) Discuss in your groups the ways and means to solve the problem of faked medicines.

2) Guideline:

a) Discuss some of the reasons for the existence of the phenomenon of faked/counterfeit medicines: i) Unemployment; ii) Poverty; iii) Ignorance; iv) Manifest dishonesty, insincerity, and unfairness of the suppliers; v) The populations are badly informed or not informed at all; vi) Lack of ethics.

b) Some people say: "If you kill the street pharmacies, then you will kill the third world". What do you think about this statement?

c) Who supplies the street sellers with the medicines?

d) There is a need to sensitize the populations on the dangers/drifts of the faked medicines.

e) The networks/channels of the faked medicines.

f) It will take time, energy and good will to overcome the plague of the counterfeit medicines.

3) **Homework**: You are planning to specialize in …(write the name of the specialty: **example: pediatrics**) Write at least 15 lines to state your motivation and the objectives you want to reach.

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6. Lesson Six

Stage One: A conversation (between a Male Doctor [MDr.], a Nurse [Ns], a Man Patient [Mp] and a Woman Patient [WP], in a private clinic.

Instructions: Fill in the gaps with the following lexical items.

consultation[fees]; as [well]; like [vomiting]; talk; rubbish; toilet; next; would; meet; rent; appointment; register; expensive; disturbing; specialist; cleaner; insulting; take; private; electricity; suffering; maintenance; government; wages; half; sick; imagine; wasting; lying; exploiting.

1- Man patient (Mp): Good morning, madam. I'm seriously ill.

2- Nurse: What are you … **(1)** from?

3- Mp: I don't know exactly. I have a diarrhoea/diarrhea. I go to stool sololo/salala . And I'm vomiting … **(2)** well.

4- N: I see. This is contamination. Have you been drinking soiled water recently?

5- Mp: Are you the doctor? I want to … **(3)** to the doctor. Is he around/here?

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[4] The youth buy from the women, by the sides of the streets, varieties of tablets that they call "one giga" and that the riders of motorbikes called "Zémidjans" take in coffee, tea or "sodabi" every morning before they dash off to their daily activities to give themselves some strength in order to keep awake during the whole day.

6- N: Yes, but it is a woman.

7- Mp: A woman?

8- N: Is this a problem for you, Sir?

9- Mp: Yes, madam. I don't want to stand naked before a woman. I don't want a woman to examine my private parts.

10- N: So what do you want me to do?

11- Mp: [Holding his chest] I feel … **(4)** vomiting. [Effectively vomiting]

12- N: What **(5)**!!! Go to the … **(6)** to tidy up yourself. (Calling the … **(7).** Come to clean up this place. (Addressing the other patients)

13- Who is … **(8)**?

14- Woman patient: I am. Good morning, madam.

15- Ns: Good morning, madam. Can I help you?

16- WP: Yes, madam. I … **(9)** like to … **(10)** the doctor.

17- Ns: Do you have an … **(11)** with him?

18- WP: No, madam. It's the first time I'm here.

19- Ns: Ok, let me … **(12)** your name.

20- WP: Please do.

21- Ns: What's your name then?

22- WP: (Introducing herself)

23- Ns: Good. Now then, could you please pay the … **(13)** fees?

24- WP: How much are they, Madam?

25- Ns: 10.000 CFA Francs.

26- WP: Wow!!! 10.000 CFA Francs? That's too … **(14)**!!!

27- Ns: The doctors who work here are all … **(15)**, not generalists.

28- WP: So what? You are … **(16)** the people!

29- Ns: Are you a sick person or a police officer? Have you come here for consultation or for … **(17)** us?

30- WP: … **(18)** it as you like it.

31- Ns: Don't forget that this is a … **(19)** clinic; the doctor has to pay the … **(20),** the … **(21)** bills to have power, the bills for water, for the … **(22)** of the equipment, the various … **(23)** taxes and our … **(24)** at the end of every month.

32- WP: I see. I understand.

33- Ns: Do you want to pay or not?

34- WP: Can I pay … **(25)** now, that is 5,000 Francs CFA and the rest later on?

35- Ns: What do you mean by: "later"?

36- WP: At the end of the treatment.

37- Ns: Do you think we can guess when the treatment will end?

38- WP: Don't ask me. You said that the doctors here are specialists.

39- Ns: So what?

40- WP: So, the treatment shouldn't take long, and besides, the doctor should know when the treatment will be over.

41- Ns: I see, but he is not God.

42- WP: This is none of my business. All I know is that you said that the doctors who work here are all specialists. So, I shouldn't take long to pay the remaining half!

43- Ns: Are you really … **(26),** madam?

44- WP: More than you can … **(27)**!

45- Ns: So, pay and stop … **(28)** my time.

46- WP: I'm not, madam. It's simply that the fees are too high.

47- Ns: So, why don't you go to a state-owned hospital?

48- WP: I cannot go there, madam. People say that the doctors there do not have a good reputation.

49- Ns: But most of the time, they are the same who own private clinics.

50- WP: So how do you explain that they are not efficient when they work in public hospitals?

51- Ns: Why don't you go ahead and ask them? This is pure/sheer nonsense. This is what many people say.

52- WP: And I think that to some extent, they are right, because most state-owned hospitals are considered as death places. Generally speaking, you enter them standing and upright, but you leave them … **(29)**. [The bell rings]

53- MDr: (Calling the nurse) Nurse!

54- Ns: Yes, doctor.

55- MDr: What is all that noise at your desk?

56- Ns: It's a woman patient … **(30)** me.

57- MDr: Let me come and see. (The doctor coming to the reception room and addressing the woman patient) Good morning, madam.

58- WP: Good morning, sir. Are you the doctor? How are you?

59- MDr: I am dazzled by your smile. As soon as I saw you, my temperature jumped and my breathing choked.

60- WP: So, I can pay half of the fees?

61- MDr: Come with me to the consultation room. Come with me to my office, please!

Stage Two: Answer key: 1- suffering; 2-as (well); 3- talk; 4- like; 5- rubbish; 6- toilet; 7- cleaner; 8- next; 9- would; 10- meet; 11- appointment; 12- register; 13- consultation; 14- expensive; 15- specialist; 16- exploiting; 17- insulting; 18- take; 19- private; 20- rent; 21- electricity; 22- maintenance; 23- government; 24- wages; 25- half; 26- sick; 27- imagine; 28- wasting; 29- lying; 30- disturbing.

Stage Three: Additional lexical items:
1- DNA = **d**eoxyribo**n**ucleic **a**cid (the chemical in the cells of animals and plants that carries GENETIC information and is a type of NUCLEIC ACID): a DNA test.
2- (Institute, etc.) of forensic medicine = medico legal. 3- Medicinal = caused by a medicine = médicamenteux (Ex: arthrite médicamenteuse = arthritis due to use of drugs. 4- Arthrosis = arthrose.5- Arteriosclerosis = artériosclérose. 6- Arterial = artériel. 7- Arteritis = artérite. 8- To bloody = ensanglanter, souiller (ses mains) de sang.

Stage Four: **Pedagogic follow-up work**
Task 1: Imagine the rest of the story.
Task 2: Each student is requested to put a question based on the conversation.
Part one: Samples of the questions put by the students on the basis of the above conversation.
Question one: Why does the first patient say that the consultation fees in this private clinic are very expensive?
Answer one: He says so because 10.000 CFA Francs are certainly beyond her financial capacities.
Question two: Why does the first patient not want to be examined by a woman doctor?
Answer two: Because he doesn't want a woman doctor to see his private parts.
Question three: How do people consider/view public hospitals?
Answer three: People consider/view public hospitals as death places.
Question four: How much does the woman who made the doctor's temperature jump want to pay for consultation fees?
Answer four: She wants to pay half of the fees in a first time, and the rest later on.
Question five: What happened to the doctor when he saw the woman patient?
Answer five: His temperature jumped and his breathing choked.
Question six: What is the level of qualification of the doctors in the conversation?
Answer six: They are both specialist.
Question seven: What has the patient done on the floor in the reception room?
Answer seven: He has vomited.
Question eight: What is the nurse's feeling after the vomiting?
Answer eight: She is disgusted.
Question nine: What is the nurse's reaction after the vomiting?
Answer nine: She calls the cleaner to clean what she calls the rubbish.
Question ten: According to the patient, are doctors efficient in public hospitals?
Answer ten: No, they are not.
Question eleven: With what money do (the) doctors pay the nurses' wages in private clinics?
Answer eleven: (The) doctors pay the nurses' wages with the consultation fees.
Question twelve: What does the nurse think that the second patient has come to do?
Answer twelve: The nurse thinks that the second patient has come to insult them in the clinic.
Question thirteen: What does the doctor say at the end of the conversation?
Answer thirteen: At the end of the conversation, the doctor says: "Come with me to my office".
Question fourteen: What does the doctor say when he sees the woman patient?
Answer fourteen: When he sees the woman patient, the doctor says: "I'm dazzled by your smile".
Question fifteen: What has probably caused the patient's diarrhea?
Answer fifteen: Spoiled or contaminated water has probably caused the patient's diarrhea.
Question sixteen: How much does the woman patient propose to pay?
Answer fifteen: The woman patient proposes to pay half of the fees.
Question seventeen: Why did the woman patient come to the private clinic?
Answer seventeen: The woman patient came to the private clinic because, as she said: "Doctors in public hospitals do not have good reputation."
Question eighteen: Why was the patient surprised to hear that the doctor was a woman?
Answer eighteen: The patient was surprised because he did not want a woman to examine his private parts.
Question nineteen: What brought the patient to the private clinic?
Answer nineteen: Diarrhea brought the patient to the private clinic.
Question twenty: Why did the nurse ask the patient if she was really sick?
Answer twenty: Because the patient said strange/bizarre things.

V. Conclusion

In this paper I have attempted to show some of the steps that have to be followed when one wants to write a syllabus of English for Special Purposes. It has dealt with medical studies. It has highlighted how the syllabus has been implemented through listening comprehension exercises, reading comprehension exercises, dialogues, reading passages of various kinds and writing sessions in order to develop in the students a solidly grounded competence in the four language skills and in vocabulary building. In fact, all the four skills have been integrated, exploring the best elements of the following teaching methods:

► The Natural Approach, which allows students to participate and contribute according to their own levels of proficiency.

► The Structural Approach, which provides an understanding of grammar and builds skills for academic success.

► Total Physical Response, which builds listening comprehension through easy, enjoyable physical activities.

► Language Development through Content, which uses content area readings to reinforce comprehension and thinking skills and prepare students for mainstream academic/practice courses.

The language and the practice of authentic material have been developed throughout the syllabus. In writing it, I have paid attention to the fact that many teachers are not masters of the situations prevailing in their classes, who are often condemned to use textbooks which are narrow-minded in their approach, textbooks which are badly written in their progression, whose themes are boring to the students and far from their daily realities, inadequate with their language needs and interests, offering them few opportunities to practice the target language and take an active part in the lecture, textbooks which are finally little preoccupied by the academic successes of slow learners.

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Expatriate TESOL Teachers' Perception of Professionalism: A Study in Saudi Context

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Abstract—**Within the teaching field, the concept of professionalism has recently become controversial. Neo-liberalism has eroded the traditional meanings of teachers' professionalism and teachers are grappling with an uncertain situation regarding their professional status. To end the uncertainty and resolve the controversial nature of the concept, approaching professionalism from teachers' own perspectives has been advocated. The current study, using a qualitative research methodology, explores teachers' perceptions of the concept and nature of professionalism. The study discovered that teachers clearly regard themselves and their profession as a classic profession and of great service to the society and this perception also guides their approach to their routine work.**

Index Terms—**teachers, perceptions, professionalism, TESOL, neo-liberalism, Saudi**

I. INTRODUCTION

Professionalism, as an institution, was a source of social equilibrium. The institution, due to its social virtues, gradually evolved as an ideology (Evetts, 2012). The nature of this ideology changed with the passage of time, and in the present times, the ideology has become a source of discord among various social factions (Sachs, 2001) mainly due to conflicting interpretations and use. The process resulted in complicating the entire concept of professionalism and in an obliteration of consensual meaning of the concept. Teachers, being an integral and important segment of the society were also embroiled in this discord. Governments in different parts of the world tried to interpret professionalism for teachers in neo-liberal terms, and teachers found themselves compelled to adopt these meanings through various instruments of imposition. The governments' initiatives meant a whole new approach to teachers' work and a new form of identity- an identity which was essentially in clash with already existing identities of teachers as autonomous education experts. This clash is an example of the discord mentioned above. This discord resulted in obscuring the very meanings of teachers' professionalism. Thus, when we endeavour to search literature for meanings of teachers' professionalism, we find a great deal of polarization (Stronach, Corbin, Mcnamara, Stark, & Warne, 2010) and a lack of clearly and universally defined meanings of teachers' professionalism as well. The ambiguity of the meanings aggravates as we discover that the polarization is mainly caused by a debate about teachers' professionalism among academicians trying to represent teachers' voice, and that teachers own perspective is lacking in the whole issue. Another factor, which is noticeable in literature, is that the issues and the debate related to the meanings of teachers' professionalism are grounded in the political, social and economic circumstances of the specific context of certain countries, and whatever little representation of teachers' perspective is there emanates from the context and the issues limited to this context. Therefore, to assign clear and universal meanings to the concept of teachers' professionalism, we need to ground the debate in the teachers' perspectives from diverse contexts. This study is one such attempt. It tried to discover expatriate TESOL teachers' perspective on the meanings of professionalism in Saudi Arabian context. The stance taken in this study is based on the approach of Evans (2008) who believes that professionalism is people's attitudinal and behavioural approach to their profession and that professionalism is a sum of individual professional culture of every member of an occupational or professional group.

II. COMPLEXITY OF TEACHERS' PROFESSIONALISM

The meanings of professionalism, in simplistic terms, are understood as "a set of valued qualities and dispositions" (Sykes, 1999, p.227). Generally, in mundane life, we refer to a professional or unprofessional individual if the individual possesses or lacks in possessing certain qualities and an approved job-related behaviour. The initial understanding of the concept of professionalism was based on the professionalization model of traditional professions of law and medicine. The model helps explain the trilateral relationship of the society, occupational groups and practitioners (Evetts, 2012). Here, in this model of professionalism, the triad existed in a perfect symbiotic relationship of quid pro quo among themselves (Evetts, 2009b). The principles guiding this relationship are altruism, expertise, social service, democracy, interdependence, ethics, trust and autonomy (Evetts, 2003b). The state or society grants special social and monetary privileges to the practitioners for their altruistic, specialized, and trusted service and ethical conduct. The practitioners are allowed to form occupational communities. These democratically formed communities enjoy considerable regulatory powers in terms of regulating the conduct and behavior of its members and also

controlling entry into the profession (Evetts, 2009a). The practitioners and their communities of practice, in this model, are in an ideal and socially beneficial role and thus reaping the socially granted benefits. The whole social status of the occupational groups and practitioners appears worth aspiring for due to its socially benevolent and privileged role and thus has evolved into an ideology (Evetts, 2009b). The model has been praised for being a perfect representation and a "mode of social coordination" of work (Gewirtz, Mahony, Hextall, & Cribb, 2009, p.4), a collegial "disciplinary mechanism" (Evetts, 2003, p.24), "a distinctive form of decentralized occupational control" (Evetts, 2006, p.136), and deemed vital to "social order and stability" (Evetts, 2012, p.8) of the society.

Alternatively, the straight forward ideology or concept of professionalism when related to teachers' work lives poses an evident complexity in terms of its meanings (Hilferty, 2008). The complexity can be attributed to the politicised use of the concept as an ideology, a belief system, a discourse and a rhetoric (Evetts, 2003a). The politicisation results from the fact that the concept has been applied and interpreted by different stakeholders from their own vantage point (Hilferty, 2008).The politicised use of the concept divests it of a simple solitary meaning (Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996), and while endeavouring to understand what teachers' professionalism means, we are confronted by 'paradoxes and contradictions' (Evetts, 2006, p.135), 'inconsistent and incomplete usages' (Evans, 2008, p.2), and 'competing views about the nature of teacher professionalism' (Sachs, 2001, p.149). Therefore, any effort to discover a consensual definition of teachers' professionalism, results in discovering antithetical stances, meanings and explanations of the concept.

A survey of literature on teachers' professionalism reveals the polarization is rooted in certain issues affecting the professional lives of teachers. The issues are rooted in the social, economic and political conditions of certain societies. These conditions have stimulated certain changes in the working lives of teachers and are also responsible for creating the polarization which in turn has led to the complexity and obfuscation of the concept of teachers' professionalism (Sachs, 2001). These conditions have been described as outfalls of the neo liberal economic reforms and policies (Robertson, 1996). The main feature of these reforms and policies has been the "incorporation and marketization" of service and work (Shain & Gleeson, 1999, p.449) of the previously autonomous professionals. Some of the epithets associated with these reforms and policies are: enterprise, commodification, competition, commercialization, privatization and deregulation. A whole set of values associated with free market ideology is embedded in these epithets. Traditional societal values like fair and equal chance, altruism, collectivism, egalitarian spirit and larger communal benefit have no place in this free market economy (Barnett, 2010). Apart from other "societal and systematic change(s)" (Evans, 2011, p.852), these reforms and policies have also affected education as the "neo-liberal rationalism [introduced] free-market principles into the field of education." (Hilferty, 2008, p. 163). These free market principles were introduced in education through the mechanism of managerialism (Bourke, Lidstone, & Ryan, 2013, p.2). The principles underlying this form of management were those of the industrial management system. As a result of free market principals and the introduction of managerialism "education became redefined as an industry with inputs and outputs, operating as a .... market in which choices and competition would enhance the quality of teaching." (Bourke et al., 2013)

The principles of neo-liberal marketization were implemented in education by the state (Evans, 2011). The objective of the neo-liberal education reformation agenda (through the principles of free market competition) was to provide opportunity to the public to "have the freedom to seek better teaching and stronger education" (Holland, 2004 cited in Zeichner, 2010, p.1544). As teachers are the producers (using neo-liberal term) of education, thus the main thrust of the reforms was directed towards reformulating the way teachers worked (Evans, 2011). The aim of reformulation was to align the work of the teachers to the free-market culture of neo liberalism, by enhancing the quality of their product that is education in this case (Beck, 2008). The instrument of the reformulation was controlling the work of the teachers through managers and organizational standards of performance (Evetts, 2009b). The tools of the managerial form of control are stated to be subjecting teachers to the regimes of audit, accountability and surveillance (Evetts, 2012). The reformulation was done in the name of modernizing (Storey, 2007) the work of the teachers and the education system to meet the changing economic demands of a globalized world (Sachs, 2001).

The reformulation of teachers' work also meant the reformulation of teachers' social and professional status (Bourke et al., 2013) as occupational status is probably a statement of social status as well. Industrial is associated with workers and standard mechanical way of working. Industrialisation of education on the principles of free market, dealing with education as a product and teachers as producers of the product, specifying standard procedures for pedagogical practices similar to the mechanical procedures of the factory workers, all these mean reducing the status of a teacher from the traditional intellectual education expert to a mere "education worker" (Bourke et al., 2013, p.3). The loss of expert status implies the loss of autonomy and trust which teachers traditionally enjoyed and which also distinguished them from 'other workers' and their work from 'any work' in the society (Swann, McIntyre, Pell, Hargreaves, & Cunningham, 2010). Traditionally, teachers had the privilege of and were considered capable of autonomous "classroom decisions-making" (Day, 1999, p.5); however, with the reformulated and necessarily diminished status, they were deprived of the privilege and were required to comply with the procedures which were imposed externally by the state through managerialism. Further, if teachers needed to involve in any pedagogical decision making, they could do it only "within the limits set by the state" (Gewirtz, Mahony, Hextall, & Cribb, 2009, p.7). Such reformulation of the procedures of teachers' work and professional status, which has been termed as "the technicization of teaching" (Day,

1999, p.10) and "proletarianization" (Evans, 2011, p.852), meant teachers adopting new social and occupational role, relationship and identity. They have to adopt a new set of values which was based on the free market principles of "competition and performance" rather than on the principles of "professional judgement and cooperation" (Bourke et al., 2013). They have to redefine and reconstitute the nature of their relationship with students, parents, colleagues, supervisors and the state (Shain & Gleeson, 1999). Simply stated, teachers have to adopt the whole new meanings of what it implies to be a teacher and also of teaching.

How is all this related to the meanings of teachers' professionalism? Fundamentally, the reformulation of the meanings of teacher and teaching by the state on the principles of free market economy and the meanings attached to these by the teachers themselves are in conflict with each other. It is a conflict between what Bourke et al. (2013, p.121) terms as "emergent" and "residual" elements, and a dominant force (state in this case) trying to "promote and entrench the influence of certain 'emergent' elements… and "represent[ing] [state's] agenda of change as the necessary 'path to the future'". The teachers' traditional concept of professionalism can be taken as a residual element and the state's new version of the concept of professionalism as the emergent element, and state being the dominant force feels mandated to reconstitute the professionalism of teachers and promote this reconstitution as an effort to prepare education enterprise to meet the new challenges. However, as professionalism is "about people's being" (Evans, 2011, p.855) and the emergent elements of the state defined professionalism are meddling with this being of teaches through the instruments of managerialism, technicization, and proletarianization, there appears to be a sort of "militancy" (Bourke et al., 2013, p.123) among teachers against this meddling. The state initiatives are promoted by the state as "new professionalism" (D. Hargreaves, 1994) and "professionalization" (Whitty, 2000) of teaching, whereas teachers consider them as "deprofessionalization" (Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996). The state defined professionalism cannot become a "reality" as the teachers are not enacting it (Evans, 2011, p.862), and the teachers cannot enact their traditional professionalism because it is being eroded through reforms and power by the state as a residual from the past, hence unable to meet the challenges of the future. The friction between the emergent meanings and the residual meanings creates a complexity which hinders constituting any consensual and universal meanings of the concept of teachers' professionalism.

The friction between the state and teachers' professional community is also clearly reflected in the conceptualization of teachers' professionalism. We have conceptual approaches based on the premise that teachers' professional practices are "highly variable" (Talbert & McLaughlin, 1994, p.127) and individualistic (Evans, 2008). These individual practices constitute the collective professionalism of the group. Thus, trying to define teachers' professionalism, we should take this aspect in view, and the definition ought to evolve from within these individual practices as any externally imposed definition will be unreal (Evans, 2008). Hence, based on this premise, we have conceptualizations of teachers' professionalism such as enacted professionalism ((Evans, 2011), professionalism from within (Evetts, 2012), and democratic professionalism (Sachs, 2001). All these conceptualizations try to define teachers' professionalism from teachers' vantage point and use individual practices of teachers as a predicate for explaining what teachers' professionalism means.

However, the proponents of the state's drive of teachers' professionalization take the variability and individuality arguments as a basis for championing the reformulation of teachers' professionalism by the state. They consider individuality as null professionalism (A. Hargreaves, 2000) and consider it as a ploy to protect teachers from change (D. Hargreaves, 1994). They associate values of collaboration, teamwork, mentoring, partnership, and empowerment to teachers' professionalism. They feel that teachers need to change from semi-professional status to professional status through the process of professionalization (Beck, 2008) and advocate that the new-liberal reforms are actually a route to teachers' professionalization and modernization. They advocate that teachers need to be mentored, engaged in extensive collaboration with colleagues through teamwork, and with parents and society through a mechanism of educational partnership (A. Hargreaves, 2000). They call teachers' professionalism emanating from this process of professionalization as new professionalism (Whitty, 2000). However, these approaches are dismissed by the proponents of the 'professionalism from within' as demanded professionalism (Evans, 2011) or 'organizational professionalism' (Evetts, 2012). New professionalism is considered by them as de-professionalization, mentoring as surveillance, teamwork as loss of autonomy, and partnership as exposure to market competition and collaboration as compliance.

The polarization resulting from efforts to conceptualize teachers' professionalism is basically a discourse of promotion, rejection and conservation. The proponents of the state's version of professionalism promote their preferred type of professionalism by making it appealing to the teachers and rejecting the traditional version of teachers' professionalism as obsolete. The proponents of teachers' preferred concept of professionalism reject the state's version, considering it as a threat to teachers' identity and use the discourse of rejection to conserve teachers' traditional identity. Therefore, in this friction of discourses the meanings of professionalism are divaricate and, in literature on teachers' professionalism, we find a lamentation about the lack of single and unified meanings of teachers' professionalism:

"what it means to be professional, to show professionalism or to pursue professionalization is not universally agreed or understood" (Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996, p.4)

III. PROFESSIONALISM IN MY PERSONAL PERSPECTIVE

The complexity of the concept and the need to have a universal meanings increases as I look at the whole notion of professionalism from my perspective. I perceive that the struggle on the meanings of teachers' professionalism is rooted

in the social, political and economic circumstances unique to Anglosphere countries. Teachers in these countries face a whirlwind of education reforms (Robertson, 1996) which also included a redefinition of their professional role and identity. I approached the whole issue as an alien or an outsider to these circumstances. I find it difficult to identify with the challenges posed to the teachers by the drive of new professionalism or re-professionalization springing from neo-liberal reforms initiated by the governments in these countries. My circumstances and challenges are different than the school teachers in the Anglosphere countries (Gewirtz et al., 2009), and I am not alone in my experice. Perhaps, thousands of teachers are enacting their own professionalism in a situation like mine. To build a perspective and to help juxtapose the two kinds of professional lives and challenges (lives of teachers in Anglosphere countries and of teachers in situations similar to mine), I would try to build my professional profile. The profile will hopefully give a glimpse of the circumstance I work in and may also highlight the challenges I face. Additionally, as mentioned earlier, the profile is, perhaps, also representative of the thousands of other teachers working in the same context.

As a teacher, I fall in the broader category of a non-native English speaking teacher. My initial "claim to professionalism" (that is, my status as a professional teacher) is my postgraduate degree, knowledge of the subject that I teach, "demonstrable practical competence" (Beck, 2008, p.125) and the "practical experience" (Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996, p.5). I work on a renewable yearly contract in a higher education institute in Saudi Arabia. Prior to my contact with the literature on teachers' professionalism, I never thought of my status in terms of being professional or not professional. Teaching was an occupation adopted because of my academic qualification. The image of the teacher that I aspired to be was, and still is, that of a "benign and altruistic being serving society" (Parson, 1954 cited in Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996, p.5), and this is also the kind of persona that my society expects from me as a teacher. I enjoy freedom inside my classroom and in my routine pedagogical practices. To successfully execute these routine professional practices, I depend on my experience and "professional judgment" (Whitty, 2000) not on any externally defined standards. The government interference in the job is absolutely minimal. The affairs of curriculum, syllabus and tests are locally managed with considerable input by the teachers. My professional status depends on the societal and supervisors' approval of regarding me as a professional. The society and the supervisors trust me with my expertise for the service I am providing. Credentials for my professional success come from my supervisors in the form of an annual renewal of my contract. Though fully professional in the local work context of my own country, I face de-professionalization in the international ELT (English Language Teaching) market where native English speaking teachers are preferred and a bias against hiring non-native English speaking teachers exist (Watson Todd & Pojanapunya, 2009). This bias threatens my professionalism and to meet the challenge I try to re-professionalize myself through professional development activities such as pursuing and achieving recognized academic specialism or training in ELT. Though, the academic specialisms further strengthens my position in my country as fully professional teacher, however, in the international commercial market of ELT, I only achieve the status of a "partially professionalized" teacher (Lortie, 1975 cited in Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996, p.5), as I am only employed when native speaking teachers are not available to fill the position. My challenges of professionalization and de-professionalization are rooted in my status as a non-native teacher. However, I do not face a complexity of role and relationship as a result of these challenges. Professionalized or de-professionalized, my status and the challenges are also clear and stable. I do not face a crisis of identity as a result of emergent and residual paradigms of professionalism.

Based on this juxtaposition, I can say that the challenges faced by the teachers in Anglosphere countries perhaps do not reflect the kind of meanings and challenges which are relevant to the teachers working in my situation. Therefore, we can conclude that any debate and any emergence of meanings and challenges regarding teachers' professionalism in the Anglosphere countries lack universality. We need to widen the search for the meanings for teachers' professionalism to contexts outside Anglosphere countries. This inclusiveness may help us broaden the horizon on the issue of teachers' professionalism and may also help find a universal definition for it.

IV. RESEARCH FOCUS

Apart from an inclusiveness of contextual diversity, we also need to be aware of the point that not only meanings of teachers' professionalism may be different from one context to another; these can also be different from one individual to another. We also need to be aware of the aspect that broader meanings are the sum of the individual meanings (Evans, 2008) and the individuals in this case of teachers' professionalism are the teachers themselves. Teachers should be the ones defining the meanings of their professionalism. However, the debate in the area of teachers' professionalism is mainly shaped by the "educational analysts" divided into two groups of pro and anti new professionalism of teachers (Storey, 2007). The teachers' perspective on the meanings of professionalism and their experiences are underrepresented in literature (Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996). Therefore, there is a need not only to take the debate to the teachers themselves to find their perspective but also to "investigate individual realities at the local levels" (Day, 1999, p.11) as "teachers' work lives are heavily framed by local …traditions and norms" (Talbert & McLaughlin, 1994, p.127). This paper is one such attempt in the direction. It tries to find teachers perspectives on professionalism; their "mode of [professional] being"(Evans, 2011, p.855) based on the individual's perceptions and in a context outside the Anglosphere countries. The singular question leading the investigation is: How do teachers perceive their professionalism?

As suggested by the research question the objective is to discover the "ideologically-, attitudinally-, intellectually-, and epistemologically-based stance" of this group of teachers (Evans, 2008, p.8) through mainly trying to frame answer to questions such as:

"what they do (in the context of their working lives); how and why they do it; what they know and understand; where and how they acquire their knowledge and understanding; what… attitudes they hold; what codes of behaviour they follow; what their function is; what purpose they perform; what quality of service they provide" (Evans, 2011, p.855)

For this research the focus of investigation will be on the attitudes, values and motivation, as I believe that they serve as a framework for our actions. Thus, I shall be trying to interpret through interviews teachers' perception about the status of teaching as a profession or otherwise, the role of the teachers, the values that frame their actions and the contextual elements that motivate or demotivate them.

V. Research Context and Participants

The research has been conducted in the context of an English language centre of a higher education institution in Saudi Arabia. The centre is autonomous in status and runs its daily affairs locally. The standards for work practices are defined locally and mainly through the input from the working committees of the teachers. However, the scope and level of implementation of the standards and rules, and their interpretation remains the prerogative of the executive head of the centre. Then the change of the executive head means a whole new approach to the working of the centre and the running of the day to day affairs of the centre. Thus, there always remains vagueness and ambiguity when it comes to defining standards or rules. Teachers come from a diverse range of nationalities and educational background. The participants of the current research were expatriate teachers working in the centre. A total number of 16 purposively-selected teachers participated in the research. There were15 male and one female participants. The participants were from USA, England, Ethiopia, Senegal, Sudan, Jordan, Pakistan, Malaysia, Nigeria, Canada, Turkey, Philippines, and Ireland. The average age was 40 years and the average teaching experience was 14 years. To hide their actual identity, they are coded as T1, T2 …T16 in the findings section.

VI. Methodology

The research was conducted within interpretive framework. The standard data collection methodology of the interpretive framework is qualitative. For this research data was collected through semi-structured interviews. The open-ended interview questions were related to the concept of professionalism in general and of teachers' professionalism in particular. Data was analysed using the three stage protocol presented by Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Walker (2013). Standard ethical requirements of social sciences research were fulfilled.

VII. Findings: Teachers' Perceptions of Professionalism

A. Status of Teaching as a Profession

Teaching is unequivocally regarded as a profession distinct from other jobs a by these teachers. The reasons for regarding teaching as a profession range from the simple reason of teaching being a source of income to its being a complex job requiring a set of knowledge, skills and dedication.

On a mundane level teaching is regarded as a work. It reflects teachers perceiving work and profession interchangeably.

"...as I have already mentioned for me it's a profession because I'm earning my bread and butter." (T4)

Teaching is also perceived as a career one dedicates himself to, and to be worth of the career, one needs to possess the virtues of commitment, knowledge and expertise.

"...teaching is a profession, I would say a profession similar to a career, it's a line, you call it a line of work that you dedicate yourself to, it requires a specific set of knowledge and skills,.... it's something not everyone can do..... I think possessing knowledge in a subject doesn't mean you have the ability to teach it…… I mean personally if you ask me what's more important subject knowledge or teaching ability, I would say teaching ability was more important....so I think it's a profession in a sense that you have to develop a set of skills..." (T16)

"...we do it for a living consistently and if you have some type of expertise in it that sure is a profession....." (T7)

Teaching as a profession is regarded as having a specialized nature based on the lifelong dedication, knowledge and skills required to teach, and the specialized nature also accords it the status of an exclusive community of practice open to only those who possess these elements.

".....I believe teaching is a profession because it's something not everyone can do.....it requires training or specialized knowledge or something sort of expertise" (T11)

Seemingly, teaching is assigned with the signature traits of the classic professions. The status of teaching as a profession is justified on the basis of teaching requiring a certain knowledge base, a certain set of skills and expertise, and additionally a personal investment of the teacher in the form of long term commitment and dedication. Moreover, the knowledge base and skills are considered complementary and the teachers have an understanding that knowledge will not be effective without skills. However, pedagogical skills and expertise are given precedence over the subject

knowledge. Due to the importance of pedagogical skills as a prerequisite, teaching profession, in the perception of the teachers, attains the right to be an exclusive community of practice with restricted entry and a character different from other professions. The characteristics, thus attributed to teaching, also form the basis for perceiving teaching as a profession with a higher social prestige.

"It is a well-respected profession, similar to other white-collar professions in terms of benefits and work conditions." *(T1)*

B. Status and Role of Teachers

"……whatever the teacher does can change somebody's life" (T 16)

"....well the job of a doctor ends when he prescribes certain medicine to the patient but a teacher's job goes on because the way you become a role model for our students you give them something good which they would practice in their entire life, so the way you are inculcating the moral values, the knowledge you are giving them, it would make them …good human beings…" (T10)

"I think teaching is a profession you should not do for money but because it's something noble, you have some goals…..like sharing knowledge and educating people." (T6)

Teachers have a strong notion of the social importance and special value of their role. Data analysis revealed that teachers perceive themselves as a source of change, a source of knowledge and moral values, and as human developers. They consider teaching a calling or a vocation. Teaching, on a lowly level, is a job and therefore a source of income, however as a calling, it is much more sublime and socially valuable. Society is human beings and a good society and a healthy social order is dependent on good human beings. Teachers play a significant social role as these knowledgeable, educated, skilled and morally sound human beings evolve in their classes as a result of their teaching. Hence, teachers believe in the nurturing aspect of teaching profession (Day, Kington, Stobart, & Sammons, 2007), that is, nurturing students into the sound human beings of the future. The reason might be that most of the participants are career teachers working in non-commercial national institution, and an important aspect of all national educational institutions is to develop the human capital of the society not only economically but also socially and morally. Whereas, educational institutions embracing the neo-liberal philosophy of commercialized and commoditised education lay an emphasis on mere competencies and skills, the traditional philosophy of education contrarily lays stress on the human, moral and personality-developing aspects of education. As these teachers, probably, did not face neo-liberalism in their country or in their current context of work, thus they still believe in the traditional role of teacher and in its value for the society.

C. Nature of Service and Values

Teachers perceive their professional role socially valuable and benevolent and these aspects also inform both their perception of the nature of the professional service that they provide to the society, and also the values that guide their professional practices.

Hence, the service provided is a reflection of the role, and as the role of teachers is of social value so is the service. They serve their clients, which are students and indirectly the society itself, by transferring them not only knowledge, skills and competencies but also the ability to utilizing these for success in life, thus the underlying principle of the service is to develop the life-enabling capacities of the students.

"I suppose imparting knowledge is obviously the main thing in teaching and we have to be responsible for making sure that students are getting a lot of benefit from them" (T12)

"teachers are taking care of your future career, they are training you, they are taking care of your future plan, future objective, they put you on the right track, they show you how to be the right person in future, how to be the right asset for this world…." (T9)

The service is not limited to teaching their classes on a scheduled time and achieving curriculum standards for particular lessons. The service is to educate and enable students as learners.

"…my job is to help learners' wade through the learning process" (T5)

The job, or the service provided, is not limited to the walls of the classroom; it requires an involvement much beyond the physical locale of the classroom and the time that teachers need to spend within these walls. There is a perception of the challenging nature of the job, a job which demands a higher and consistent level of commitment.

"I mean it is a full time job, 24/7, even when you are on a vacation, you still thinking of what you wanna do with your students, there it's a full time job, it's a full time 24/7 profession not a job" (T10)

Teachers believe that the relationship of teacher and student is unique and this relationship gives teaching a distinct and special character.

"I think the quality of teaching is different because there is a very certain relationship between a teacher and students which may be is different between a doctor or his patient." (T15)

This relationship can perhaps be defined as a relationship of care and passion and here occurs an integration of personal and professional in teachers and lending an emotional quality to their work (Day, 2004).

"I think it's like parent, when you have a child you are the most responsible about that child as a teacher, I think a learner who comes to you, be it an adult or younger age, you are very responsible." (T3)

As a result of care and passion for the learning of the students and their person, the students become a source of feedback validating the professionalism of the teachers as well as a source of what Hargreaves (1999) terms psychic rewards, and also a reason for setting values in dealing with the students and engaging in professional development.

"I think the feedback that I get from my students gives me that impression that I'm a professional person." (T8)

"I think if you feel and if you see that the one particular student has benefited from you after they finish the classes… then that's the most enjoyable part." (T4)

"…you treat students fairly and objectively, making sure you assess students fairly and objectively and then ….making sure you are up to speed with research and developments in the field making sure you do the best job." (T16)

Apparently, the teachers perceive professional development important to achieve quality in their work but they are also aware that to maintain this quality professional development should be an on-going process.

"…professional development makes you true profession which is otherwise improbable" (T9)

"Professional development is an on-going thing, so as teachers we never stop developing, if you stop developing as a teacher, you stop being a teacher." (T14)

The values underpinning the service that they provide are mostly intrinsic and springing from a strong sense of the moral and vocational nature of the profession that they are pursuing. Teachers perceive themselves as moral agents. Thus, they believe that teachers, to assume the position of a role model, must practice what they desire to inculcate in their student.

"Teachers are role models for impressionable youth. If a teacher is always on time, organized, efficient, honest, open-minded, dedicated, hardworking, and knowledgeable in his/her field, this can encourage students to have the same standards as students and later in their professional life." (T13)

The teachers have a realization that they are trusted as professionals and students' attitude towards them is based on a relationship of trust.

"Students consider you as a source of knowledge, they trust you, all these two aspects I talked about: honesty, dedication; so they believe these things are already there" (T7)

Thus, they perceive that teachers need to prove themselves worth of the trust through the way that they deliver their lessons.

"You need to take your lessons seriously, you need to prepare when you go into class, you need to deliver the best lesson, it doesn't have to be perfect every time." (T15)

Regarding the well-being and care of the students, we see an integration of the personal and the professional selves of the teacher, however, when it comes to prioritizing personal over profession, the teachers prefer the later and do not let the personal interfere with the professional.

"… as a professional, I do what is expected of me, for the sake of the students and my colleagues, behaving as someone who exhibit the highest standards of teaching and who doesn't let personal feelings interfere with his her ability to perform all tasks of the job." (T1)

Overall, we find an image of a teacher whose professional self is guided by intrinsic values of honesty, dedication and altruism. These values also emerge as a drive behind ensuring high standards of performance in teaching and in the job procedures related to the classroom activities. Thus, we have a quality conscious individual who maintains quality in service to the students through keeping his knowledge and skills updated.

D. Teachers' sources of motivation

Psychic rewards are the major source of teachers' motivation and satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their job. This finding is in line with what Lortie (1975, cited in A. Hargreaves, 1999) discovered in his study.

"It's satisfying when you feel that your efforts are gaining and your students are actually benefitting. The satisfaction you know in seeing your students' progress" (T13)

Autonomy is also a source of motivation. Teachers consider it a validation of their expertise when allowed to work autonomously and the sense of being autonomous feels rewarding.

"It's motivating if I am regarded as a professional, if for example my boss or my school allows me to do freely what I want to do based on what I am trained for." (T11)

However, the autonomy mentioned here is not the unbridled use of personal judgement. The autonomy or freedom to act is grounded in the professional training that a teacher has. Thus, it is perceived as a freedom of action regulated by professional judgement and discretion.

Another source of motivation is the participatory and collegial environment. If teachers are allowed to participate in management by seeking their opinion or advice, they consider it as recognition of their position as professionals in the job but it is also considered another source of validation of their expertise.

"I think when you are being consulted on matters, most probably when you most feel like a professional, when your professional knowledge is being sought, I think it's most probably when you most feel like a professional, makes you feel good, you know it's recognition, I did not just wanted to be a cog in a machine, I wanted to be someone who had a value…. Whose position was warranted and was valued by others, and I think that's what you feel when you are treated as a professional…… it's a validation and it's a recognition." (T16)

VIII. Cumulative Image of Professionalism

The cumulative image of professional subjectivities and selves or the concept of teachers' professionalism emerging from teachers' account of their perceptions is an idealistic concept of professionalism and appears to be rooted in the paradigm of professionalism associated with the classic professions like doctors and lawyers. Teaching is an esoteric profession as it requires a knowledge base, expertise through training and experience. It also requires a higher level of commitment and dedication. The work of teachers is of special value to the students and society as it is related to the future of both. Welfare and progress of the student is the nucleus of teachers' work, commitment and dedication. The work of the teacher is guided by intrinsic values of care, honesty, trust, and altruism and all these values are to be adhered to for the benefit of the learning of the student. Monetary benefits of the work of teachers are considered of secondary importance, and greater value is attached to the psychic rewards such as students' success and appreciation for work and service. Success of students and their gratitude is the standard whereby teachers can validate the level of their professionalism. Teachers' relation with the management is based on the principles of participation, mutual respect and collegiality. Managers are considered as facilitators of autonomy, participatory environment and opportunities of professional development.

The study, in the context of TESOL teachers' perception and understanding of professionalism, helped enhance my understanding of the meanings of professionalism. As I have mentioned earlier in this paper, being a TESOL teacher just meant a work for me, a work I was entitled to do due to my educational and professional qualifications or because I could do it. I never thought of my work in terms of profession and my attitude to my work in terms of professionalism. This was due to certain factors. One factor probably can be that TESOL education and training programs perhaps do not sensitize teachers to professionalism as an identity or as subjectivity. All such programs that I have attended mainly focus on lesson procedures leading to "the mental acquisition of language" (Johnston, 2003, p.1). Another factor is that TESOL teachers teaching in countries other than their own are considered as unprofessional temporary job seekers teaching not as an end in itself but "as a means to an end: to finance travel adventures, practice a foreign language, or put off finding a "real job"" (original emphasis) (Lorimer & Schulte, 2012, p.32). Thus, the perception of TESOL teachers is perhaps more of temporary workers rather than professionals. However, this study helped realizing the professional subjectivity of the TESOL teachers and in a way also my own professional subjectivity. Although, the participants were from a range of nationalities, but there appears unanimity of perception regarding the professional being of the teachers, and it helps falsify certain notions about the professionalism of TESOL teachers. Teachers appear to possess stable professional beings with a long term commitment to their profession. They appear to believe in the educational and moral value of language teaching. For them language teaching is not just helping the students acquire proficiency in the target language but also to nurture and develop them socially and morally. Thus, TESOL teachers' who take teaching as a career, possess a strong sense of purpose and attribute special value to their work and this sense transcends national, contextual and cultural boundaries. They appear to possess a stable sense of professionalism based predominantly on the moral and futuristic purpose of teaching rather than the superficial and short term aim of developing target language proficiency among their students. They perceive their role as "emissaries of the life of the mind" (Strike, 1990, p.113) rather than mere performers of the rituals of lesson planning and instruments of target language content delivering.

IX. Conclusion

The use of the concept of profession and professionalism as a rhetorical tool by various stakeholders to implement and achieve their agenda, and probably also to reject the agenda of others, resulted in a wrangle which rather than clarifying, muddled the very meanings of professionalism (Englund, 1996). It is also a fact that the main perpetrators involved in the wrangling are academicians rather than the professionals themselves. Same is true in the case of teachers' professionalism. For teachers, the meanings of their professionalism was defined by the government and also imposed on them by the government. The meaning was foreign to the professional selves of the teachers. Adopting the foreign meanings meant acculturation in a way as to obliterate the previous professional self and assume a self which was in discord with the very nature of the professional being of the teachers. Moreover, in the whole saga of wrangling on the meanings, the participation of the teachers and their viewpoint remained ignored and the whole debate was led by the academicians becoming the mouth piece for the teachers. Representing teachers view by others, in defining what is related to the very being of the teachers, is unrealistic and impractical. It exacerbated the very complexity and vagueness of the meaning of professionalism. The current research was to reduce the complexity and vagueness by seeking teachers' perspective on the meanings of professionalism, where professionalism means the inner quality of the work of the teachers (Englund, 1996). Additionally, the aim was also to broaden the perspective by investigation a context external to the Anglosphere countries. The research helped us discover the TESOL teachers' perceptions of the concept of professionalism working in an environment where their professional identity is not challenged by neo-liberalism, and they are perceived to be teaching mainly for personal benefits rather than for altruistic purpose. We discovered that teachers' perception of their professionalism is rooted in idealistic and classic paradigm of professionalism. Teachers attached prestige and social value to their service. The finding probably also highlights that professionalization is a process mainly rooted in perceptions of the individuals rather than a kind of external process.

Intrinsic professionalization emanating from the perceptions of the practitioners is perhaps more professionalizing than extrinsic professionalization especially if it is in clash with the teachers professional being. If in clash, it meddles with the being of the teacher in a negative way and leads to a chaos of identity.

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Arabization and Its Effect on the Arabic Language

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Abstract—The present study aimed to explore the phenomenon of Arabization from foreign languages into the Arabic language where the study defined the concepts of Arabization in language and terminology, discussed the history of the concept through the history of the human civilization, discussed images of Arabization through three axes, namely: language borrowing, figurative translation, bending and compounding and their impact on the development of the contemporary Arabic language, identified the conditions of Arabization and referred to the efforts of the Academy of the Arabic Language in developing the Arabic language to cope with the modern scientific development; the study concluded a set of recommendations that concern the official planners and researchers in the field of the Arabic language.

Index Terms—Arabization, language borrowing, figurative translation, blending and compounding

I. Introduction

Arabizationis essential for our scientific life at the level of the Arab world because science is on the rise and it is continuously developing, so it should be accompanied with scientific, technical, industrial, political, literary, economic and military terms and names; therefore, it is not absurd to find many Arabized words in our Arabic dictionaries now and in the past noting that Arabization is a civilized need the Arabic language cannot live without since sciences are mutual among the world languages, which is permitted and needed.

Arabizationis no longer a developed process in the modern erawhere the Arabs in the state of Ignorance Arabizedterms like "a'lfulful"-"pepper", "A'lqurunful"- "cloves" from the Persian language, "Alsanajnajal"- "mirror" from the Roman language. In the Qur'an, there are some arabized words, such as: sajil, mishqah, abariq, and istabraq. One of the Arabized words in the Abbasid period is (Almajasti), which is the most ancient book in the astronomy of Ptolemy of Alexandria, and it was translated from Greek into Arabic by Izhaq Ben Hanin (Al-Mubarak,1989).

The researcher sees that it is important to pay attention to this phenomenon due to its importance on the linguistic level and the global civilization level as well as the need of our generations for this process to reach to the progress of civilizations in all fields leading to achieving the desired objectives and goals in modernization and development.

II. Concept of Arabization: Language and Terminology

Arabizationin language: it is derived from the root "aruba" meaning "speaking eloquently after having an accent"; "arubat a'lmar'atu- "the woman was Arabized" means that she made love to her husband". "a'rba' Arabs" (Ibrahim Anis et al., Al-waseet Dictionary, Aruba); it also means "explaining and disclosure". The arabicization of any foreign name means that Arabs spell it according to their curricula and tongue (Al-Zubaidi, 1994). Al-Jawhari says ("ta'arrab", "Arabicize" means "to be similar to Arabs"; "he was Arabized after emigration "means"he became an Arab". "His tongue was Arabized" means "he became an Arab" and "Arabizinga foreign name" means that Arabs utter it according to their methods;(Al-Jawhari, 1979) which is consistent with Al-Bustani in stating that Arabization is uttering the foreign word as Arabs do making it Arabic. (Al-Bustani, 1995).

In terminology, Arabization means: the transfer of the foreign word and its meaning into Arabic according to rules and bases guaranteeing its clarity and eloquence; (Gahnim, 1989). "mu'arab" or "Arabized" is a term used by Arabs consisting of terms of meanings in other language; Aljawaliqi (d. 540 AH) sees that the Arabized word is "foreign speech spoken by the Arabs and pronounced by the Quran. It was mentioned in the news of the prophetpeace be upon him, companions and followers; it was also mentioned by Arabs in their poems and news to distinguish between the obvious and the foreign (Al-Jawaliqi, 1995). We can also say that Arabization is dying the word with an Arabic dye when being transformed with its foreign form into Arabic. (Anis, 1985).

It is concluded that the term arabization in language and terminology revolves around many different meanings: disclosure, explanation, no formation of words by violating the grammar, syntax, eloquence, sound and significance of the language.

III. Arabization Importance

Arabs have been affected by other nations through geographical nearness, economic and trade communication and Islamic wars leading that the words of such nations travelled to Arabic as other Arabic words moved to the languages of

such nations affected by Arabs. Arabizationwas the last resort in transmitting from other languages into Arabic when there is no Arabic word to which the foreign word can be translated or when there is no word to which a verb or noun can be derived (Eisa, 1923). Arabs resorted to Arabization when their lives and culture expanded and started to contact the neighboring nations that new terms were moved into Arabic which were called the Arabized words by Arab scientists; in their travels, Arabs come into contact with other languages that some foreign words were introduced to their Arabic langue after some letters were deleted; such words were used in discussions and poetry; they were treated as classical Arabic language. (Khalifa, 1992).

The Arabization of modern science and technology is one of the pillars of the development of the country to keep up with the civilization and the creative, effective participation in all the fields of Knowledge; therefore, scientific institutions were established to discuss the issues and problems that can facilitate the historical movement in our nations where the Arab language becomes the language of modern sciences and technology as well as the language of research and teaching at Universities at different branches of knowledge (Khalifa, 1992); (Al Qassimi ,1986) said: "The researcher can measure the progress of the nation culturally, and identify the features of its culture through creed and counting their linguistic terminology; however, he can state the political and cognitive unity of the nation through the unity of its linguistic terms in humanities, science and technology" (Al- Qasimi, 1986); language is an essential component of the components of the nations' identities"(Ibrahim, 1994).

The importance of Arabization lies in : Kharyoush,(2003):

1. Contributing to the enrichment of the Arabic language in the fields of the scientific terminology, symbols and specialized dictionaries.

2. Contributing to the enrichment of the Arabic language with scientific books written in an eloquent Arabic tongue.

3. Developing the spirit of creativity and composition for students since receiving science.

4. Arabization provides us with modern scientific terms indispensable in its scientific development; it enriches the language with words expressing all human meanings (Khalifa, 1992).

The live language interacts with other languages through giving and taking; accordingly, the presence of foreign words in language is for granted; therefore, this process should be mastered through experienced researchers. (Hugh, 1990)

The Arabization of sciences is not related to the nature of the language, or its ability for absorption. Arabization is a process of refining an external word according to the weights and structure of the Arabic language, dying a foreign word with Arabic, or forming a foreign word with Arabic letters when transferred, so Arabs can utter them according to language; Arabic has the superior ability to represent and arabize foreign words according to its mold, which is one of the most specific characteristics (Al-Thaalibi, 1999). The Arabic language has letters, verbs, grammar, poetry and certain characteristics that distinguished it. Having some foreign words added a special beauty and glamor to the language not affecting its essence or identity. (Khalifa, 1992)

In stressing the role and importance of Arabization, Al-Mubarak says that changing some sounds of foreign words when Arabicizing them through deleting un-Arabic words or adding the word's weight with one of its weights may be breeding or trimming since Arabic has a coherent and harmonized system pulled together in which words go on a special format in its letters, sounds, formulations, body and structure. (Al-Mubarak, 1968)

The Arabized word is "a word borrowed by the Arabic languagefrom other languages subjecting it to its vocal and morphological system through adding, subtracting or alternating it through substituting some Arabic letters with its letters." (Al Qasimi, 2004).

IV. ARABIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL TERMS

The Arabic language's need for the scientific and technical terms is an agreed-upon issue among the Arab linguists in spite of the differing views and interpretations in solving this problem, which is one of the biggest problems of the Arabic language in the present era (Faisal, 1986).

The issue of the scientific and technical term is a need that must be pursued to realize the purpose connected with the identity of the cultural nation, and spreading modern science (Al-Samarrai, 1982) specially that launching the scientific term in Arabic is one of the targets looked for by the Academy of the Arabic Language to achieve (Al-zarkan, 1998) through the cultural treaty for the year (1945) of Arabization and translation among the Arab countries, which stipulates that uniting terms goes only to the language academies, conferences, joint committees, and brochures published by the bodies; in (1964) the cultural unity Charter which was approved by the Academy of the Arabic Language focused on the need to strive to unite the scientific and cultural terms and support the Arabization movement (Ghazal, 1977); Furthermore, Ali Al Qassimi states: "the primary objective of providing unified Arab terminology is to find an Arab common scientific languageunderstood by all scientists and technicians in various Arab countries making it an effective tool for education, research, writing, and translation in the field of science and modern technology " (Al Qasimi,1986).

The conditions of translating the scientific term by the Arab scholars are as follows (Al-Mala'ika, 1974):

1. There must be a precise relationship between the original meaning and the new meaning.

2. In setting the term, attention with the accuracy of the meaning must be taken care of before the word itself.

3. The term must not be chosen from the terms with common and known original connotations.

4. Not using one word for indicating different scientific meanings and setting one word to denote a particular term.

5. Notsetting different meanings for one scientific meaning to prevent distracting the mind of the educated; the new term should be agreed on among the Arab linguists.

6. Avoidingwords of difficult pronunciation or of fluctuating meaning due to its weight on the tongue, or filthy significance.

In his book, Sibawayh says, "they change letters that are not taken from the original language; they may attach (the foreign word) with their speech or not; they may leave the noun as is if its letters are the same as theirs either if it was built on their structure or not and finally they may change the letter which is not among their letters and that they did not change it when constructing it."(Sibawayh, 1983).

V. Arabization Obstacles

Despite the fact that Arabizationis governed by minute rules and regulations as a result of the effort put forth by the top linguists, there are some obstacles facing it, including:

1. Differentmethods and criteria of Arabizationin the Arab countries.

2. TheArabizationof the university education in the Arab Universities, which is currently considered one of the serious issues where all the Arab universities, with the exception of the universities in Syria, teach many sciences in foreign languages.

VI. Images and Means of Arabization

The means by which the arabization can be used mainly in to form new words to refer to new meanings are summarized in the following methods: (Ghanim, 2014):

- Linguistic borrowing.
- Figurative translation.
- Blending.

The following is the most prominent images of arabization used now and in the past.

1. Linguistic Borrowing:

The linguistic borrowing is one of the linguistic phenomena that received the attention of linguists; it is the process where a language takes some of the linguistic elements of another language, and attempts to copy a similar picture of the linguistic pattern of a language into another.

Alwaseet dictionary defines it as: adding or borrowing words from one language into another (Anis, 1985), which is metaphorical because of the fact that borrowing entails that the individual takes a thing to benefit from it for a while and then return it to the owner.

However, borrowing among languages is not the same since it is illogical that you borrow a certain term from a language and do not give it back. What is meant here is that the arabized and borrowed terms added to the dictionary in the vocabulary of foreign languages. (Wafi, 2004). Borrowing has happened through interaction and communication among nations (Wafi, 2010); Arabs were great and scattered tribes everywhere; so, they interacted with the Persians, Indians and Greek; one of the results of this mixture is that Arabic replaced Persian, Armenian in Iraq and Coptic in Egypt (Al-Suyouti, 1986).

We cannot say that borrowing is limited to Arabic; it is entitled to any language meant to evolve and grow. The Persian was affected by Arabic and the Persian dictionaries were affected by forty percent of the Arabic language that its dictionaries include many Arabic words. (Al-Tunaji, 1998). The linguistic borrowing is a phenomenon dispensable by any language; however, there can be some risks resulting from it, some of which include:

1. Loss of the expressive value of the Arabic root.

2. Ambiguity in the borrowed meaning in our dictionaries.

3. Difficulty in controlling the Arabized term.

4. Breaching the Arabic morphological rules.

5. Loss of the Arabic identity because of the linguistic colonialism that Ibn Khaldun saw that the nature is that losers imitate the victorious even in his own language, as we see today.

6. The linguistic colonialism might lead to other serious types of colonialism such as: the social colonialism which imitates the colonizer in his habits, clothing, and values, and the economic colonialism through heading to buy its products reaching to the cultural and religious colonialism through being colonized in everything.

Borrowing with its two parts: The Arabized and the foreign has a significant impact on civilization since that the emergence of terms in the fields of the economy, industry and commerce and philosophy has enrichedthe terms of the Arabic dictionary even that dictionaries specialized in economy, politics and philosophy emerged such as: dictionaries of scientific, engineering, philosophical and political terms…etc.

The researcher believes that borrowing is not a difficult process if confronted by specialists and those faithful from the people of the Arab nation, who are always there in every age; it with setting the accurate linguistic standards; God Himself save the Arabic language through guaranteeing His glorious book, Quran in: " We have, without doubt, sent down the Message; and We will assuredly guard it (from corruption)." (Al-Hijr 9).

2. Figurative Translation:

Figurative translation: it is the translation of a term from one meaning to another which both share a certain semantic aspect. The meaning of a term may change from an era to another as a result of the social change. Some terms include: "'Almajd-glory", "alwagha- battlefield -" and "alghoufran-forgiveness" (Wafi, 2010). Figuration means naming a thing with another name; it is a method of expanding in the language derived from the language itself and it is beneficial for its verbal elements; the old nouns can be updated to refer to modern meanings in the methods of figurative translation.

The figurative translation depends on the linguistic context in determining the term and preferring it to other terms, which is one of the properties of the Arabic language known as the antonyms (words of the same structure and different meaning). The term is used until the figurative meaning becomes the one targeting the mind; Almubarrad says: "an example of the terms of the same structure and different meaning is "wajadtu-found" in: "I found a thing" meaning I found a thing I lost and "I found Zaid generous" meaning I learned that he is generous (Al-Daqiqi, 1985).

Thus, we find that the figurative translation is another form of Arabization by analogy, metaphor, or metonymy, which is a common method among sciences.

3. Blending and Compounding:

Nihad Moosa defines blending as: making a new word through two words or more, which are different in meaning and structure; the new word takes the form and the meaning; it isa form of transferring foreign words which do not have any equivalent in Arabic. (Al-Mousaq, 1990)

Linguists' opinions regarding this context vary; some find that blending enriches the Arabic language and they find it an indispensable means in the modern Arabic language and a method ensuring keeping up with the civilization and its sciences (Al-Saleh, 2004).

Others see that there is no need for blending since it is a stranger aspect in the Arabic language arguing that the ancient linguists did not consider it a form of derivation (Al-Mubarak, 1989).

Contemporary researchers focused on the importance of considering blending a standard aspect and that it should be used in the modern sciences; however, some are hesitant in accepting its scale and only listen without any other action (Abbas, 1966). There is a team of translators who sees the necessity that the Arabized word should follow an Arabic weight to be adopted in measurement with equivalents in language; it is not enough that the Arabs speak colloquial words to be considered Arabized. The other team, including Sibawayh and some other linguists sees that Arabization means that Arabs should never speak the foreign word until it is accompanied to the structure of their speech, which might not happen.

Marwan Al-Mahasni says: "The Arabic language is one of the most compliant, flexible, and wider languages due to the various ways in creating words and terms which can be by root, figuration, Arabization or blending " (Al-Mahasni, the Arabic Language Academy). In many times, we use the scientific meanings in different structures and forms; if such forms were limited and easy, we can continue using them; however, if they were long, they should be blended to facilitate its use and proliferation, i.e. using blending is only in need when the scientific words are composed of many heavy words noticing that the live languages tend to make them short through having an equivalent for each scientific term in the Arabic language composed of one word with only one meaning.

We conclude that Arabic looks for all the capabilities and characteristics making them cope up with the flood of civilization and its knowledge and sciences; measuring in blending should be examined and used while taking into consideration the Arabic word weights and the harmony of its alphabet when being created.

There are many words which were widely used along with their counterparts in the language indicating that the language is flexible and has the ability of the absorption and translation among languages; it was not corrupted and it did not lose its identity; otherwise its fertility increased becoming a universal language of civilization and thought. (Khalifa, 1992). The Arabic language is greater and more accurate than the Semitic languages in the rules of grammar and more accurate in terms and words (Abidin, 1951); it is spoken by more than a billion Muslims, and it is a course taught in South Korean universities as a requirement of academic success.

VII. SIGNS OF DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN ARABIC AND ARABIZED TERMS

There are many signs of distinguishing between the Arabic and Arabized words, most important of which are: (Zadah, 1983)

1. Translation: It is intended to get the foreign word to us by one of the Arabic language specialists by pointing out that this word is an Arabized foreign word.

2. The weight of the word comes in accordance with the weight of the Arabic words, such as: "Abrism" based on the weight "I'f'ay'il" and other words like, "telfizion, radio, and computer" which are all names of inventions not affecting the safety of the classical Arabic language.

3. A word starting with "n" followed by "r", such as: "Narjis", which is not found in the Arabic word.

4. A word ending with a "z" followed by "d", such as: "Muhandis which is not found in the Arabic word.

5. A word having both "s" and "j", such as: "Solajan".

6. A word having both "q" and "j", such as: "Qayj" meaning Partridge, which is Persian.

Arabization is one of the important topics in the language for its increasing richness and ability for the fertile development. This topic has many aspects: relating to the Arabization of scientific terms, relating to the translation of

the great international books of literature and thought into Arabic, and relating to the Arabization of the university education (Khalifa, 1992).

This requires from Arab linguists collect,prepare and analyze all the scientific, artistic, literary, and educational terminology as well as know their synonyms and definitions in the same language. This also requires from them collect the concepts related to a certain domain of knowledge, study the relationship between these concepts, and determine a particular term for the single concept by experienced specialists in translation and localization (Al Qasimi, 1980); there are blessed efforts in these scientific fields though they are individual and unorganized but efforts whose source is the publishing houses, so they are not issued by language academies or recognized Arab universities, which we seek and confirm to have.

There is no doubt that there are too many sciences, so therefore must be a great number of terminology to replace them (Al-Samarrai, 1977); Al-Shihabi pointed out that the terminology transfer rules lie in four things, namely: (Al-Shihabi, 1965)

1. altering the old linguistic meaning of the word.
2. Deriving new words from derived or Arabic origin to denote the new meaning.
3. translating foreign words with their meanings.
4. Arabicizing foreign words with their meanings.

It is obvious that the Arab scholars focus on the need to uphold with the morphological weights and the Arabic formulas for the word to be Arabized, making these standards a basis for Arabization, such as: derivation, blending and exchange, and finally focusing on paying attention to meaning more than the Arabizedword.

The desire to keep up with the times is the power than drives Arab researchers, language academies and patriotic and national institutions to develop scientific terms because the term is the search tool and the language of understanding among scientists, and an important part of the scientific method (Khalifa, 1992).

VIII. The Arabic Language Keeping Pace with the Scientific Development and the Efforts of the Academy of the Arabic Language

It was natural that the Arabic language keeps pace with the other advanced languages without any laxity or negligence in the nature of language or its usual rules, accordingly, the Academy of the Arabic Language decided to adopt a specific scientific project so it can come out from theory into action. (Khalifa, 1992). Accordingly, the Arabic language faced its historical experience through absorbing the outcome of knowledge and sciences reached by man leading to establishing obvious rules and assets in the choice of language terms that indicate such scientific terms; the scientific heritage currently gives us large linguistic wealth which might be suitable to face the process of Arabization,

Many conferences were held for Arabizationin the Arab countries, such as Rabat, Baghdad, and Algeria, and many scientific seminars were held in the language academies and universities. Such conferences resulted in many researches; such as searching in different issues connected with the Arabization in its wide sense and they resulted with recommendations that were not followed, such as the fact that Arabization is an issue that is related with the basis of the political will of the country and the political decision made by the country at the top institutions of the authority.

The Arabic language faced the topic of the scientific terms for the first time in its history; the linguistic assets which stemmed from the nature and characteristics of the language that they enriched our language with life and made it a developed language that adopts with the civilization of the human and his culture. Accordingly, the derivation, metaphor, substitution, blending, and Arabization are some means for the growth of the language. In derivation, scientists have found a wide field for the development of the language and enriching it with scientific terminology; they were not limited to the derivation from the nouns of the meanings but they derived from the nouns of things; they said ("thahhab-made gold" from the noun "thahab-gold" and "gaddadah-made silver" from the noun "fiddah-silver". They also derived nouns from arabized names; for example, "handas-work in engineering" from "handasa-engineering" and "mantaqa-study in logics" from "almanteq- logic". (Khalifa, 1992).

The decision of the Academy of the Arabic language of Cairo to approve Arabization was final for the historical linguistic significance of the word of Arabization; however, the Arabized work must pass two important phases, namely:

First: the linguistic phase reached to by the knowledge explosion of the world in the second half of the twentieth century, i.e. after the Arabic language was used in various branches of knowledge (Al-Jalili, 1984).

Second: the national phase, which is the latest development for the significance of the arabization language making the Arabic language a thinking and a writing tool that is used in the Arabic social, economic, scientific, literary, and educational life to get rid of dependence and keep abreast of development (Al-Khatabi, 1973).

this imposes a significant role for the leagues that the Jordan Academy of Arabic called for facing and cutting the road for those calling for educating sciences in a foreign language with the plea that there are no books in Arabic regarding this and that the Arabic language is not the language of science and civilization. (Khalifa, 1992). Therefore, the academy started the Arabization of scientific books that are taught in the first year at the Faculty of Science at the Jordanian universities; the academy of the Arabic language has established the scientific foundation to enrich the Arabic language with both the scientific and technical terminology making it stand on an equal footing with the language of science in the world."

In order to develop the Arabization of the university education, it is important to Arabicize the scientific terms, foreign periodicals, mothers of sources, and scientific references placed in foreign languages (Khalifa, 1992) since the scientific research and inventions add tens of words to the human knowledge; accordingly, we see that we have no choice except to begin exercise the Arabization movement in its various fields; strengthening this facilitates us to overcome the obstacles that traversed modern nations whose national languages did not have the available reasons found in the characteristics of the Arabic language; accordingly, large efforts should be done among the joint Arab action institutions dealing with Arabization (Khalifa, 1992).

IX. CONCLUSION

After this review of the importance of the Arabic language in deepening the national and Islamic identity, in terms of the language of the Koran through history, generations and eras in all fields and levels, the present study discussed the most important issues and problems facing the Arabic language in the modern era, which is represented in Arabization; the study concluded the following most prominent results:

1. Arabization is an ancient linguistic phenomenon in our Arabic literature since the era of ignorance through the Islamic Ages right down to the present era given the geographic, economic, and political circumstances; there are words that entered into Arabic in the era of ignorance by those circumstances, such as: "filfil" from the Persian language and "tanour" form the Roman language.

2. The process of Arabization is an imperative and indispensable human need in order to meet the scientific, economic, political, military, literary and other fields; it has linguistic, scientific, and civilized benefits.

3. The process of Arabization is a linguistic license, used by researchers, scholars and translatorswhen there is no Arabic eloquent word giving the meaning and significance of the foreign word, such as: "computer" which has no equivalent in Arabic according to its weight, so it was arabized to "hasub", which is a machine name at the weight of (fa'ul); other examples include: "'l-shakoush" and "'l-satur".

4. the Arabic language used means and images of Arabization now and then to indicate the Arabized terms, including: linguistic borrowing, figurative translation, blending and derivation.

5. There are some obstacles facing the process of Arabization among which is the different methods and techniques of Arabization in the Arab countries, especially in the university education; there are significant efforts for the language academies in Jordan, and Syria in the Arabization of a lot of sciences that are still taught in foreign languages in some Arab countries for strengthening students and enabling them to master such foreign languages, which is a weak argument and it has a risk to the national and religious identity in the future.

6. our holy Arabic language faces risks that may result from the expansion of the Arabization, such as: the foreign words' competition with the classical Arabic, the loss of the expressive value of the Arabicroot, breachingthe morphological rules, and the ambiguity of the meaning of the Arabized words in our Arabic dictionaries.

7. the Arabization process can achieve its desired objectives in the scientific development if the faithful experienced in this area were available along with specialized colleges and institutions in this area in accordance with, and within the agreed criteria by the Arab language academies.

8. the study pointed out to the proofs through which we can distinguish between the authentic Arabic words and the Arabized, such as translating by one of the Arabic linguists by pointing out that this foreign word is arabized, the deviation of the morphological weight from the Arabic weights, in addition to the fact that its start should be "n" tehn "r", its final should be "z" then "d", combing both "s" and "j" and combing both "q" and "j" in one word.

9. The study also identified the conditions and criteria that must be followed to translate scientific terms, including: the presence of a precise semantic relationship between the original meaning and the new meaning, one word to denote a particular term, a new term agreed between Arab linguists, and avoid words difficult Copyright pronunciation that alienate them, or meaningful concern flip-flops.

10. The study pointed out to the role of Jordan through its language academy in Arabizing the university scientific education at Yarmouk University and University of Jordan. The success in such scientific faculties increased, which indicates that this experiment is successful and we hope that it is applied in the rest of the Jordanian and other Arab universities.

X. RECOMMENDATIONS

At the conclusion of this study, the researcher can provide the following recommendations:

1. allocating specific scientific colleges and institutes for the training of translators on Arabizing scientific terms, and others.

2. Identifying agreed upon Arabic standards among Arab language academies to carry out the Arabization process by all the international languages and translating the terms of its modern scientific innovations.

3. circulating successful experiences in the field of arabization, which are done by the official institutions and Arab universities on the rest of the Arab world institutions and publishing them to make the work unified and collective.

4. Strengthening the role of the media in translating and publishing the era innovations and submitting them to researchers in facilitated methods.

5. facilitating and supporting the efforts of translators to get to the sources, references, and foreign and Arabic periodicals, which are interested in the process of Arabization by researchers, scholars, and specialists.

6. I recommend researchers, and those caretakers responsible for the country institutions, in particular, those with the greatest impact in the development and modernization of the Arabic language being the language of the Koran and having a sacred place in the hearts of millions of Muslims.

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Indonesian EFL Students' Perceptions on the Implementation of Flipped Classroom Model

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Abstract—The flipped classroom model has gained popularity in education recently. In this model of learning, the students learn materials (e.g., by watching lectures through video) at home, and then they learn more actively in the school classroom. Although flipped classroom model has been popular, the implementation of flipped classroom in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context has not been widely published. This article reports results of research examining students' perceptions on the implementation of the flipped classroom model. It involved 30 senior high school students who joined a writing class using flippled classroom model. Data were collected by using questionnaires, immediate interview and observations. The results of the research showed that the students found the activities applied in the flipped classroom model helped them write better. The videos they watched as well as teacher and peer feedback in their writing process improved their writing ability. This study also presented some caveats for teachers when they intend to flip the class.

Index Terms—flipped classroom model, EFL students' perception, writing attitudes

I. INTRODUCTION

Due to the needs to facilitate 21st century learning in which technology becomes the core educational tool, flipped classroom model is increasing in its popularity (*Brinkley*, 2012). In the 21st century learning students tend to study by searching the knowledge from various sources, particularly the Internet. Along the lines of the 21st leaners' characteristics (e.g., critical thinkers and technologically literate learners) and what is considered as a current teaching trend among non-English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context, flipped classroom has been considered effective to facilitate 21st century learning. In a flipped classroom, technology is used to extend content delivery beyond the scheduled class. It incorporates 60% in-class learning and 40% online self-learning (conducted at home). Students' self-learning is purposively done to introduce new materials through video lectures and online readings. Furthermore, the self-learning is completed prior to the in-class learning. Meanwhile, the in-class time is used for assimilating knowledge through discussions, tasks, and group works. Therefore, students have more opportunities to interact with their teacher as well as peers. The flipped classroom model replaces teacher-centered teaching to an active learning engagement where the students-centered takes place.

There have been an overwhelming number of studies revealing the effectiveness of the flipped classroom model (e.g., Cole & Kritzer 2009; Demski, 2013; Gannod, Burge, & Helmick, 2008; Lage, Platt, & Treglia, 2000; Slezak, 2014). In Indonesian context, however, only few studies have been conducted on the implementation of the flipped classroom model (e.g., Agustina, 2015; Murtiyasa, Esti, & Ulfa, 2015; Syafitri, 2014a, 2014b). Murtiyasa et al.'s (2015) study is concerned with Mathematics teaching. Meanwhile, Agustina's (2015) study investigated the effectiveness of the flipped classroom model in teaching story telling and Syafitri's (2014a, 2014b) work examined the effectiveness of the teaching of reading using flipped model. Those studies focused on the effectiveness of the implementation of the flipped classroom model. However, studies on the students' perceptions toward the implementation of the flipped classroom have not been conducted.

In Indonesia, the flipped classroom model is considered as a new teaching model. It is, then, crucial to identify how students feel about and perceive a new teaching model used because students' own judgments on what they were experiencing enable them to recognize the ease of use and perceived of the benefits. As result, there will be a change in their attitudes, which will affect their willingness to study using that model. Therefore, this study focuses on the use of the flipped classroom model in an EFL writing class by investigating students' perceptions toward the use of the flipped classroom model.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The flipped classroom model refers to a form of teaching and learning process, in which students attend not only for in-class activities but they also manage their online self-learning. By combining the two classes, at home, the students can learn by themselves, and at school, they can be assisted by their teacher and can collaborate with their peers. With regard to writing activities in particular, the regular classes tend to be silent. All students listen to their teacher's explanation on the writing materials. It is then continued by a silent period of writing process. In contrast, in the flipped classroom model, students watch video lectures and learn other materials at home, and then they actively participate in in-class learning (Arnold-Garza, 2014; Herreid & Schiller, 2013; Snowden, 2012).

A further explanation about the flipped classroom model is given by Bishop and Verleger (2013). They describe the flipped classroom model as an educational technique consisting of two parts: interactive group learning activities inside the classroom, and direct computer-based individual instruction outside the classroom. For the computer-based instruction in a flipped teaching strategy, videos or readings are used. Furthermore, to make sure that students have watched the videos or completed the reading at home, students are required to respond to reading questions as well as quizzes to report their learning progress (Houston, 2012).

According to constructivist learning theory, students learn much by doing, discovering, exploring, and trying out new ideas (Clarke, 2008). Therefore, the best way to test a teaching model is by studying the students' learning. The students must firstly experience the model, then describe their perceptions of the implementation of the teaching model. In proportion to that theory, a previous study which revealed the effectiveness of the implementation of the flipped classroom model in the teaching of EFL writing has been done (Afrilyasanti, Cahyono, & Astuti, 2016). In the aforementioned study conducted by Afrilyasanti et al. (2016), the students have experienced the teaching of writing using the flipped classroom model. Hence, in conjunction to the students' learning experience in a flipped class, a study revealing on their perceptions toward the implementation of the flipped classroom model is conducted.

Studies investigating students' perception on the implementation of the flipped classroom model generally show positive reports. A study conducted by Herreid and Schiller (2013) for example, indicates that students have a positive association with flipped instruction. Similarly, Ruddick (2012) assuredly adds that students perceived the flipped instruction as a better or more efficient method of teaching. It also improves students' behavior (Chester, Buntine, Hammond, & Atkinson, 2011).

Probing more on the activities in the flipped classroom model, Grami (2012) and Vurdien (2011) confidently disclose that students showed positive attitudes towards peer feedback. The students enjoy commenting and receiving comments in both, in-class and online class. Additionally, students' positive perception on the activities within the flipped classroom model has been well documented by Musib (2014) and Roach (2014). The students admitted that learning using the flipped classroom model enabled them to have more time to do activities in the classroom.

Conversely, there are some mismatches as well as negative perceptions about the implementation of the flipped classroom model. For instance, a study conducted by Bishop and Verleger (2013) find that students tend to prefer in-person lectures to video lectures, but at the same time, they prefer interactive classroom activities to lectures. Parallel to the aforementioned study, Webb, Doman, and Pusey (2014) also come up with a mismatch perception from the students toward the implementation of the flipped classroom model. The students perceive the implementation of the flipped classroom model positively, however, several drawbacks were also noted. However, the students were not satisfied with the teacher's roles within their flipped class.

In order to address the gap identified in the introduction and literature review, this study purposes to explore the students' perceptions toward the implementation of the flipped classroom model. The research questions are formulated as follows:

1. How do students perceive the meaningfulness of writing activities employed in the flipped classroom model?
2. How do students perceive their writing competence after following the flipped classroom model?

III. RESEARCH METHOD

The data for this study were collected from 30 senior high school students who took writing class conducted by using the flipped classroom model. The students were required not only to join the in-class activities, but also to get involved in online self-learning activities by watching video lectures and reading online materials. As the aim of the study was to investigate how students perceive the implementation of flipped classroom model for their learning of writing, the students were given a questionnaire eliciting their perception toward the implementation of the flipped classroom model. This is because it is important for the students to make their own judgments of what they experienced from the flipped classroom model.

The questionnaire was developed to investigate the students' perception on the implementation of the flipped classroom model by using Likert-scale response choices (Bertram, 2007; Johns, 2010; Vagias, 2006). A 5-point Likert scale that ranges from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" was applied. Each of the scales has a different value, namely 5 for "strongly agree," 4 for "agree," 3 for "neither agree nor disagree," 2 for "disagree," and 1 for "strongly disagree." However, the questionnaire distributed to the students used the reversed order of the values. In order to answer the research questions, 10 questionnaire items were included and the items were based on Yujing's (2015) questionnaire items with some modification. Yujing's questionnaire items were grouped into three aspects which are meaningfulness, impacts, and competence. However, for this research only two aspects were used: meaningfulness of

the writing activities (Items 1-5) and writing competence (Items 6-10). The questionnaire for this research is shown in the Appendix.

Subsequent to the questionnaire, an immediate interview was also conducted in order to clarify the students' answer toward the results of their questionnaire. It is important in helping researchers clarify and validate the conclusions about the data in the study. Furthermore, the interview is vital for uncovering the students' own statements beyond the unyielding statements given in the questionnaire, the reasons for agreeing or disagreeing the certain statements, and students' explanation toward their conflicting choices. The interview was unguided; there was no set list of questions prepared. It was immediately given subsequent to the questionnaire based on the students' answer to the questionnaire.

In order to enrich the data, an observation toward the students' attitudes during the implementation of the flipped classroom model was also done. The observation focused on the students' participations within in-class and online self-learning activities. Students' participation within their in-class activities was observed directly from their willingness to join the discussion, work collaboratively with others, and finish the tasks given. Meanwhile, students' participation within their online self-learning activities was observed from the report on the students' activity completion as well as activeness in online discussion.

In the presentation of the results of the study, the results of the interview as well as observation will be mentioned necessarily along with the result of analysis of the relevant questionnaire items.

IV. RESULTS

The results of the research are presented on the basis of the two research questions. The first research question concerned with the students' perception on the meaningfulness of the implementation of the flipped classroom model, while the second one dealt with the students' perception of the writing competence as the result of their participation in the flipped classroom model.

A. Meaningfulness

The data about the students' perceptions on the meaningfulness of the implementation of the flipped classroom model were mainly obtained from the results of the students' questionnaire after the implementation of the flipped classroom model. There were five statements used as the pointers to examine students' perception on the meaningfulness of the flipped classroom model. Those five statements pinpoint students' perceptions about whether or not the activities employed in the flipped classroom model were beneficial for their learning of writing. The results of the students' responses on the questionnaires given are presented in the Table 1.

TABLE 1
STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON THE MEANINGFULNESS OF FLIPPED CLASSROOM MODEL

No	Questionnaire Items	Total value	N	Average
1	The work I do for English writing class is valuable to me.	120	30	4.00
2	The work I do in English writing class is a waste of time	62	30	2.07
3	The activities during the writing class improve my understanding of the key concept	117	30	3.90
4	Viewing video lectures and read the materials before class prepare me for the class activity	102	30	3.40
5	I do not see any significance to view the lecture and read the materials before class, so I do not although I am supposed to	68	30	2.27

As depicted in Table 1, it can be explained that for the first statement, the students *agreed* that the work they did for English writing class was valuable for them. The students' response to the activities in flipped classroom model is generally positive. The results of the observation confirmed that the students were actively engaged within in-class activities.

For the second statement, the students *disagreed* that the work they did in English writing class is a waste of time. When an immediate interview was done, however, it was surprising to find out a conflicting answer from a male student in the class. He said, "I did not have any time to watch the video." He did not see any significance to finish the work that he was supposed to do. This certainly challenged teachers to creatively find engaging activities which encourage students' positive responses toward the implementation.

For the third statement, it was found out that the students *agreed* that the activities during the writing class improved their understanding of the key concept. The students felt that classroom discussions as well as collaborative works within the in-class learning helped them to understand the materials better. The students considered the writing class, which is meant in the third statement, as the in-class learning. Meanwhile, the writing class here is meant to be the flipped class. Therefore, the result for the third statement was in contrast to the result of an immediate interview dealing with the second statement. As it was confirmed by the results of the immediate interview as well as the observation, not all students did the whole activities employed in their flipped classes. Yet, from the observation it was revealed that the students who industriously did the whole activities in both, in-class and online self-learning activities, earned better score than those who were not actively involved in the whole activities within in-class and online self-learning activities (See Afrilyasanti et al., 2016 for the results of the students' learning achievement in the form of score improvement). It was indicated that the students who conducted self-learning by watching the video lectures prior to the in-class writing

activities essentially improved their understanding of the key concept compare to those who did not watch the video lectures.

Furthermore, students' responses to the fourth statement revealed that they *neither agreed nor disagreed* that viewing video lectures and reading the materials in online self-learning prepared them for the in-class activities. The results of the observation on the online self-learning activities showed that some students did not watch the video. When the students were asked for their reasons for not watching the videos, they admitted that they did not fully appreciate the importance of watching. Besides, it was discovered that they would wait for the teacher's short explanation prior to the writing task in their in-class activities.

At last, students' responses to the fifth showed *disagreement*. This is in contrast to their response toward the fourth statement. They admitted the significance of viewing the video lectures yet, in fact, not all of the students watched the video.

In order to enrich the results of the questionnaire, immediate interview was then conducted. From the interview, it was found out that there were some problems, which included technical problems dealing with the facilities, access to the Internet, and excessive learning load. Some of the responses regarding the problems are presented as follows (with the original expressions in Indonesian):

• Saving the Internet quota *(Bagaimana menghemat quota Internet)*
• In the class session, the teacher will explain the material again *(Di kelas Guru akan menjelaskan lagi materinya.)*
• My data packet is not sufficient *(Paket data saya tidak mencukupi.)*
• There are so many things to do. Besides, I still have to finish more homework from other teachers *(Terlalu banyak tugas; Belum lagi pekerjaan rumah dari guru-guru lain.)*

Thus, the analysis of the students' responses revealed that they have positive perceptions toward the meaningfulness of the implementation of the flipped classroom model. However, students had disagreement on the meaningfulness of watching the video lectures as part of the online self-learning.

B. Competence

The other five statements of the questionnaire given to the students were about the students' perceptions on their writing competence as the result of the implementation of the flipped classroom model. The results of the students' responses are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2
STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON THEIR WRITING COMPETENCE IN THE FLIPPED CLASSROOM MODEL

No	Questionnaire Items	Total value	N	Average
6	I can do well in my English writing class.	120	30	4.00
7	I am confident about my ability to address the topic (narrative text) on the final exam.	62	30	2.07
8	Peers' editing and teacher's feedback help me to improve my writing,	117	30	3.90
9	I can easily understand my teacher's instant explanation,	102	30	3.40
10	I have what it takes to do well in English writing class.	68	30	2.27

The Table shows that with regard to the sixth statement, the students *agreed* that they could do well in their English writing class. It was affirmed by the results of the observation on the students' active engagement in writing in the in-class activities. However, they *disagreed* that they were confident about their ability to address the topic (narrative text) on the final exam (Statement 7). Although they thought they could do well in their writing class, they were still not sure with their performance in their final exam. In order to clarify the students' responses toward this statement, an immediate interview was conducted. Furthermore, responses were favorable regarding to the eighth statement. It was found out that the students *agreed* that peers' editing and teacher's feedback helped them improve their writing. They considered that giving and accepting feedback from their peers were okay. The interview revealed that the students felt positive toward their writing in the in-class activities as they had peer's editing and teacher's feedback. Meanwhile, for the final exam, they would not have any chance to have proof reading and peer editing process.

Meanwhile, students' responses to the ninth statement revealed that they *neither agreed nor disagreed* that they could easily understand their teacher's instant explanation. For this reason, some students preferred coming to the class without any preparation; for example, without watching the video lectures or reading the materials. For the last statement, the students *disagreed* that they could do well in English writing class. An immediate interview showed that the students were not actively engaged in their online self-learning activities; that was why they were not fully prepared with the materials. In summary, the students perceived that the flipped classroom model was beneficial for the improvement of their writing competence. They felt that the peers' editing and teacher's feedback helped them improve their writing competence regardless of the fact that they disagreed regarding the importance of video lectures.

V. DISCUSSIONS

This study aimed to answer questions on: 1) how students perceive the meaningfulness of writing activities employed in the flipped classroom model, and 2) how students perceive their writing competence after following the flipped classroom model. Each research question is discussed below.

A. Students' Perception toward the Meaningfulness of Writing Activities Employed in the Flipped Classroom Model

Students' perception toward a new teaching model applied influences their learning outcomes. Therefore, investigating how they perceive the work they do for their English writing class is crucial. Students' responses to the first and second statements of the questionnaire indicated a positive result. They considered that the activities included in their flipped classes were valuable for them and not a waste of time. This is a good starting point as the students' perception on the usefulness is related to the learning behavior, which in turn influences their learning outcomes (Davis, 1989). In line with this, students agreed that the activities during the writing class improved their understanding of the key concept. Flipped classroom model provides students abundant time for collaborative works (with both the teacher and peers). The students' engagement in collaborative works helps and elevates their writing ability. By being engaged in the activities (i.e. doing, discovering, exploring, and trying out new ideas), students learn and understand more (Clarke, 2008).

Besides, the students' acknowledgment that they preferred just listening to the teacher's instant explanation in class to watching video lectures prior to the class indicated that the teacher must not repeat the explanation given through the online class as well as the video lectures within the in-class activities. As a substitute, the classroom section must be used for checking the students' understanding on their own learning and finishing the tasks.

In short, the results of the studies showed that in general the students perceived that the flipped classroom model was meaningful. However, there were several drawbacks that are worth mentioning. One of the problems was revealed from the students' responses to fourth statements in which not all of the students agreed that viewing video lectures and reading the materials in online self-learning prepared them for the class activity. This was also affirmed by the results of the observation on the students' activeness in online self-learning as well as their responses to an immediate interview asking for their reasons for not watching the video lectures. This finding is contradictory to the reports of some previous studies (Lage, Platt, & Treglia, 2000; Wang & Zhang, 2013; Webb, Doman, & Pusey, 2014) showing that in the end of the implementation, the students prefer watching video lecturer at home as part of their online self-learning.

A possible interpretation for the different results in the students' perception with regard to the use of video lectures, it would be necessary to help students to get accustomed to the online materials given prior to the class. In addition, the students' age might also influence their readiness in attending the flipped classroom model. The previous studies (e.g., Arnold-Garza, 2014; Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Fulton, 2012; Huba & Freed, 2000; Ling, 2015; Snowden, 2012) revealed students' more positive perception as they were conducted in the university level. Therefore, it is not so surprising that the students in this study, which are high school students, could not fully participate in the video viewing.

Meanwhile, the result of the immediate interview, which disclosed the students' reasons for not finishing their online activities, is supportive to Nielsen's (2011) in which students can be unmotivated to do homework. The tasks, such as watching videos, were firstly perceived as more homework by the students because they were not used to a new kind of learning environment (Wang & Zhang, 2013). Besides, the students had so many tasks to complete, not only for the English subject but also other subjects. Hence, prioritization was necessary. It was observed that the students felt that the course workload was excessive; they had to watch some video lectures, read online materials as well as do some quizzes. Therefore, they simply chose doing one or more tasks as a way of cutting back. The rationale behind this was that disregarding one or two tasks would have little impact on their grades. For this reason, there was a small number of the students who preferred having a typical lecture classroom instructions to watching video lectures.

An important finding was that some students felt that classroom lecture is still preferable than the video lectures as it is easier for them to get distracted while watching the video lectures. Therefore, they were unmotivated to watch. Furthermore, the lacking of facilities to support the online self-learning can be inferred that parents seemed to be uninterested in accepting responsibility for flipped class facilities. Even though, ideally, parents, teacher, and students must work together by the mean of technology in order to attain a success in the implementation of the flipped classroom model. We propose the relation as depicted in Figure 1 to show the roles of three components involved in the implementation of the flipped classroom model.
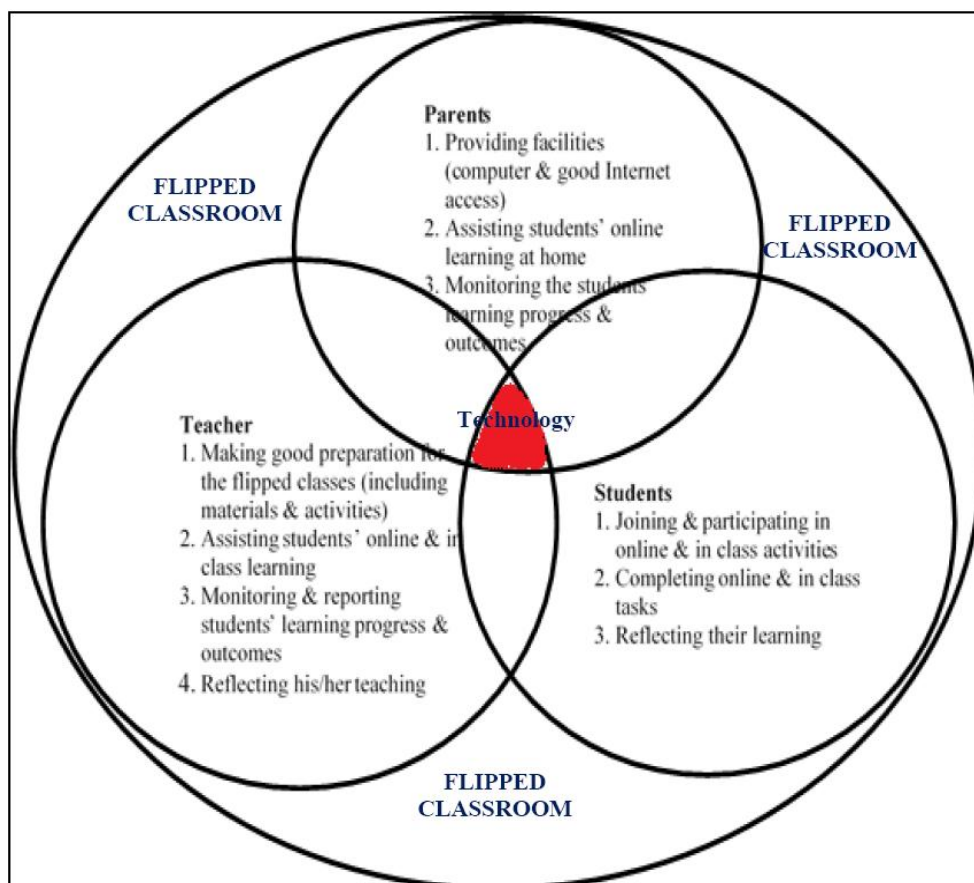
Figure 1. Roles of Teachers, Students and Parents in the Flipped Classroom Model

In general, the students admitted that learning writing using flipped classroom model was meaningful for them. However, better facilities as well as parents' supports are needed in order to have all of the students actively participate in all the outside the classroom activities (watching the video lectures, reading the online materials, and finish the online quizzes). The strong dependence on technology in completing the task (watching video), made some students unable to complete it. Many students in underprivileged communities did not have enough access to technology at home. Besides, teacher must not repeat the explanation given through the online class as well as video lectures within the classroom section, as a substitute, the classroom section must be used for checking the students' understanding on their own learning and finishing the tasks. Therefore, there is an urgency for the students to watch the videos and read the materials prior to the class session.

B. Students' Perception toward the Benefits of Flipped Classroom Model on Their Writing Competence

Students perceived the flipped classroom model is beneficial for the improvement of their writing competence. They agreed that they could do well in their English writing class. This happens as in flipped classroom model, students are assisted during their three writing stages (pre-, during, and post-writing stages). In the flipped classroom model, students have more time to do activities in the classroom as the lecture has been done through the videos that must be watch prior to the class (Musib, 2014; Roach, 2014). In addition, by having video lectures, teacher's instruction in the class becomes lesser and more communicative activities are created.

Furthermore, the students' positive perception toward the implementation of the flipped classroom model was also proven by their positive response on the eight statements that peers' editing and teacher's feedback helped them to improve their writing. They felt positive in giving and accepting feedback from their peers. This finding positively confirms Grami's (2012) and Vurdien's (2011) work that students showed positive attitudes towards peers' feedback. The students found content related feedback from their teacher and peers helped them to write an appropriate story based on the given topic. On the other hand, they expected to receive feedback on their dictions and grammar; spelling, and sentence structure the most. By having peer checking and editing prior to the along with the writing process, students felt more confidence toward their writing product.

The teacher's as well as peers' feedacback helps during the writing process. However, the feedback made the students less confident about their ability to address the topic (narrative text) on the final exam. As it was stated on their response toward the seventh statement, the students felt unconfident on the final exam as in the exam they would not have any help during the writing stage. Therefore, the teacher must also help students to be able to check their own work and get accustomed to self-editing process prior to submit or publish their work.

Further important interpretation made was about students' lacking of preparation prior to their in-class activities. Not all of the students came to the class well prepared. They seemed to prefer listening to the teacher's instant explanation within in-class time to watching the video lectures. The first analysis that can be made is that for certain materials, which are considered thoughtful, such as grammatical rules, video lectures as well as online reading; it seems to be more preferable if it is accompanied with a direct explanation. On the other hand, for materials that are considered easy in which students have already owned sufficient prior knowledge, instant explanation is considered adequately clear. As a result, some students preferred just come into the class without any preparation; without watching the videos or reading the materials. Therefore, challenges, such as students' inactive participation in online class and unwillingness to watch the videos prior to the class, must be anticipated. For that reason, Gannod, Burge and Helmick (2007) utter that flipping was a viable option and that both could reap the benefits of flipping.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

This study has reported the results of investigation on the students' perception toward the implementation of the flipped classroom model. There were two areas that students have to perceive, namely: meaningfulness of the implementation of the flipped classroom model, and the students' perception of their writing competence as the results of the implementation. In general, the students perceived that the implementation of the flipped classroom model was meaningful and they also perceived that their ability in writing improved as the results of the implementation of the flipped classroom model. However, the session in the video lectures viewing should be made more appealing by providing more interesting video materials which are not discussed again in the in-class activities. By doing so it is expected that the students will be involved in their online self-learning more intensively. Apart from the students' positive perception on the two areas of investigation, students' confidence in their abilities in writing is promoted. This is important to encourage them for further learning.

We propose some suggestions for the implementation of the flipped classroom model in the future. First, the teacher must be ready with some preventive actions. Before implementing, the teacher must ensure that all of the students understand the concept of the flipped classroom model and its procedures. Second, the teacher must also get enough support from the school as well as parents. The school must be ready with the facilities. Meanwhile, parents must also be ready with the facilities for the students' online self-learning at home and assist the students' learning difficulties. Finally, in the process of implementing, the teacher must constantly do reflection and revision on the implementation. Meanwhile, after the process of implementing, evaluation must be made in order to have a more successful implementation of the flipped classroom model.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

PERCEPTION ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF FLIPPED CLASSROOM MODEL

This questionnaire aims to know students' perception on the implementation of flipped classroom model. It has two parts: Meaningfulness and Competence.

• Read the statements with responses varying from "strongly agree" (1), "agree" (2), "neither agree nor disagree" (3), "disagree" (4), to "strongly disagree" (5).

• Give your response by putting a tick (√) in the provided space.

PART 1: MEANINGFULNESS

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1. The work I do for English writing class is valuable to me.					
2. The work I do in English writing class is a waste of time.					
3. The activities during the writing class improve my understanding of the key concept.					
4. Viewing video lectures and read the materials before class prepare me for the class activity.					
5. I do not see any significance to view the lecture and read the materials before class, so I do not although I am supposed to.					

PART 2: COMPETENCE

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
6. I can do well in my English writing class.					
7. I am confident about my ability to address the topic (narrative text) on the final exam.					
8. Peers' editing and teacher's feedback help me to improve my writing.					
9. I can easily understand my teacher's instant explanation.					
10. I have what it takes to do well in English writing class.					

(Adapted from Yujing, 2015)

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Learning Japanese through Anime

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Abstract—While studies have confirmed that there is apparent connection between interest in anime and Japanese language learning among the Japanese language learners (Manion, 2005; Fukunaga, 2006; William, 2006; Abe, 2009), the practical use of anime in teaching Japanese Language as a Foreign Language has not been studied in depth. The present study aimed to discover the language features that can be learned by the Japanese language learners through critical viewing of anime in classroom. A course named "Learning Japanese language through Anime" was carried out in one public university in Malaysia for a duration of 10 weeks. Along with the administration of the course, the participants' worksheets on language analysis and learning diaries were collected. The findings showed that language used in anime is more casual in most of the contexts involving daily life. This language use is quite different from what the students usually listen to and use in the classroom where the educators heavily emphasis on the polite ways of speaking using the material designed specifically for pedagogical purposes such as textbooks. Although at times, the language presented in anime maybe even harsh or rough in an exaggerated way, rather than ignore this, it may be better to address it critically under the guidance of educator.

Index Terms—anime, classroom activities, role language, popular culture, teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language

I. Introduction

The study of popular culture is now becoming an emerging research area within the field of education and many studies have found success putting popular culture to work in the language classroom (Frey & Fisher, 2004; Alim & Pennycook, 2007; Black, 2008). Frey and Fisher (2004) made use of graphic novels to enhance their students' reading and writing abilities. Alim and Pennycook (2007) found that hip-hop culture and rap are highly popular among youth worldwide and has been recognized as influential transformative educational tool despite their controversial position in mainstream education. According to Black (2008), incorporating popular culture in the classroom could unite the students and encourage possible connection with one another based on their interest outside of school.

In the case of teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL), while studies have confirmed that there is apparent connection between interest in anime and Japanese language learning among the Japanese language learners (Manion, 2005; Fukunaga, 2006; William, 2006; Abe, 2009), the practical use of anime in teaching JFL has not been studied in depth. The present study aimed to discover the language features that can be learned by the Japanese language learners through critical viewing of anime in classroom.

II. Review of Related Literature

A. Cartoon and Anime

There are numerous ways of defining anime. Anime is often associated and compared with the concept of cartoon. Napier (2005) states that,

"To define anime simply as 'Japanese cartoons' gives no sense of the depth and variety that make up the medium. […] Essentially, anime works include everything that Western audiences are accustomed to seeing in live-action films – romance, comedy, tragedy, adventure, even psychological probing of a kind seldom attempted in recent mass-culture Western film or television. […] Unlike cartoons in the West, anime in Japan is truly a main-stream pop cultural phenomenon" (p. 6-7).

From Napier's statement, the clear distinction between cartoon and anime could be observed. Aeschliman (2007) explained that while the term anime is used as a blanket term to refer to all animation from all over the world in Japan, many dictionaries in English define anime as a style of animation developed in Japan. In view of the definitions above, the term anime is used to define and distinct animation made in Japan with other region's animation (cartoon) in this paper.

B. The Use of Cartoon in Language Classroom

Bahrani and Soltani (2011) claimed that cartoons have been effective in increasing the motivation of language learners by being an authentic audiovisual language. "Cartoons are good sources of modified language input which

although may require less cognitive processing for comprehension, they may include new aspects of the language for low level language learners who have not acquired them yet" (Bahrani & Soltani, 2011, p. 19).

Bahrani and Soltani (2011) encouraged the use of cartoons in lessons because cartoons can provide variation for the brain as "visual information in the form of cartoons is usually processed by the right brain which is the holistic, creative, artistic side" while "the spoken word engages the left side of the listeners' brain" which "is analytical, recognizes and interprets words, performs calculations and so on" (p. 20). No matter how convincing and interesting the lesson is, after a short period of time, the learners will start to feel the dullness of the same manner of teaching involving the constant use of the left side of the brain. A cartoon, on the other hand, is a kind of visual information and is processed by the right side of the brain. Therefore, cartoons can be utilised as a tool for variety and creativity in keeping the learners less bored (Bahrani & Soltani, 2011).

Barker (2009) explained that making the learners interactive is the best way to keep them interested and engaged in lessons. Adapting cartoons into the classroom with suitable and applicable activities can promote the learners' observational, analytical, and higher thinking skills. "Cartoons can spark thoughtful conversation, and open the doors for a teacher and the student to discuss current events, social and family life, values, morals, and religious philosophies. They give insight into the world around us, and provide opportunities for genuine and meaningful communication" (Oliveri, 2007, p. 2).

Arikan and Taraf (2010) investigated the effectiveness of authentic animated cartoon "The Simpsons" in teaching English to young learners. The results indicated that the learners in the experimental group (watched and made use of "The Simpsons" as classroom material) performed better "in learning target grammar points and vocabulary items" (p. 212) as compared to the control group (followed a traditional grammar-based syllabus). Valez Gea (2013) showed that "children learn new vocabulary, expressions, other accents, different manners of speaking English, thanks to current famous music groups and popular cartoons" (p. 202). Munir (2016) also suggested that cartoon film is effective to teach vocabulary to EFL learners.

The use of cartoons in the ESL and EFL classroom has shown positive effect in improving students' language competence (Arikan & Taraf, 2010; Velez Gea, 2013; Munir, 2016). This suggested the possibility of anime to serve as an effective teaching tool in the JFL classroom.

C. Role Language (Yakuwarigo)

The research of the Japanese language used by imaginary characters in media such as novels, dramas, and anime is closely associated with the concept of "role language" (known as "*yakuwarigo*" in Japanese). "*Yakuwarigo*" is a term coined by Kinsui in 2003. Kinsui (2003) defined role language as,

"When hearing a certain way of word-usage, one can call to mind a certain image of a person (age, sex, job, class, era, appearance, looks, personality etc), or, when one is presented with a certain image of a person, one can call to mind the word-usage that person would be sure to use, we call that word-usage 'role language'" (as cited in Fäldt, 2006, p. 17).

Media characters in certain subgroups, e.g., gender, age, regional affiliation, socioeconomic status, and personal traits, are attached to "specific sociolinguistic expectations" (Hiramoto, 2010) to project their stereotypical roles. Many stereotypical linguistic styles can be observed from a character's role language, including "first-person and second-person pronouns, copula, negation, progressive form, etc." (Westman, 2010, p. 23), but the most important indicators are the pronouns (especially the first-person pronoun) and the sentence end expression (Kinsui, 2003, p. 205). Kinsui has illustrated his concept of role language using some variations of a very basic sentence (see Table 1).

TABLE I
EXAMPLES OF THE VARIATIONS OF ROLE LANGUAGE (KINSUI, 2003, P. 68).

No	Expression	Character
1	*Sou yo,* **atashi**ga shitte iru **wa**	Girl
2	*Sou da,* **washi** *ga shitte* **oru**	Old professor
3	**Soya, wate** *ga shit***toru dee**	Kansai-area people
4	*Sou* **ja, sessha**ga **zonjite oru**	Samurai warrior
5	*Sou desu* **wa yo, watakushi** *ga* **zonjite orimasu wa**	Princess-like girl
6	*Sou* **aru yo,** *watashi ga shitteru* **aru yo**	Fake Chinese
7	*Sou da yo,* **boku** *ga shitte iru* **no sa**	Boy
8	**Nda, ora** *shitteru* **da**	Country bumpkin
9	*Sou desu, watashi ga shitte imasu.*	Gender-neutral standard form

In Table 1, all the expressions from (1) to (8) have the same meaning as expression (9) "*Sou da, watashi ga shitte iru*" which means "Yes, I know". The role language indicators, such as the Japanese copula *da*, first-person pronouns, and sentence-final particles are italicised in bold (see Table 1). The role language indicators are usually identically used by the same character image in different anime. For example, the samurai characters from different anime are likely to adapt the same expression pattern of refereeing to oneself as "*sessha*" (*watashi*, which means "I"). By looking at the different expressions used by different character images from (1) to (8), it can be safely said that the language usage in (9) is not role language, as it does not suggest any specific character image to the reader. In other words, the role language level in (9) is close to "zero" (Kinsui, 2003, p. 68). The reason it is not zero is because the usage of polite form still indicates a level of social context.

These stereotypical linguistic styles are well-known and recognized by all Japanese native speakers but they are not commonly used in real life. Thus, Kinsui regards role language as "virtual Japanese", but Kinsui also argued that role language is not totally unrelated to reality. It plays important parts in real life by representing one's persona when the speaker "wants to appear in a certain way (masculine, feminine, joking, etc.)" (Westman, 2010, p. 8).

III. Methodology

The present study was aimed to answer the research question: What language features can be learned from watching anime? To address the research questions, the present study was conducted using classroom research method and collect qualitative data via the participants' worksheets and learning diaries.

A. The Participants

The present study used purposeful homogenous sampling in order to choose participants with similar backgrounds and experiences (Patton, 1990). The participants involved comprised of 11 students (9 females and 2 males). They were aged between 20 and 21 and have particular interest in Japanese popular culture such as anime, manga (Japanese comic or graphic novel), J-pop music, J-drama, video games, and cosplay (the practice of dressing up as a character from a movie, book, or video game). All the 11 participants involved were lower-intermediate learners in their second year of JFL studies in one public university of Malaysia. All the participants have learnt the Japanese language for at least 18 months and have at the minimum passed the Japanese-language Proficiency Test (JLPT) Level N4.

The JLPT is the largest-scale Japanese language test in the world. It has five levels: N1, N2, N3, N4 and N5 with the easiest and lowest level being N5 and the most difficult and highest level being N1. Student who has passed the JLPT Level N4 at the minimum seems to be a suitable participant for the present study because according to the JLPT website, student who has passed Level N4 will be "able to listen and comprehend conversations encountered in daily life and generally follow their contents, provided that they are spoken slowly" (The Japan Foundation, 2012).

The participants' profiles are presented in Table 2 below.

TABLE II
PARTICIPANTS' PROFILES.

No.	Name	Age	Gender	Interests
1	Alice	20	Female	Anime, manga, light novels
2	Betty	21	Female	Anime, J-pop music
3	Evelyn	21	Female	Anime, J-drama, J-pop music
4	Frank	20	Male	Anime, J-pop music, video games
5	Kevin	20	Male	Anime, manga, J-drama, J-pop music, video games
6	Mandy	21	Female	Anime, J-drama
7	Nancy	21	Female	Anime, manga, J-pop music
8	Natalie	21	Female	Anime, manga, cosplay, J-drama, J-pop music, video games
9	Olivia	21	Female	Anime, manga
10	Sharon	20	Female	Anime, manga, J-pop music
11	Susan	21	Female	Anime, manga, J-drama

The participants were asked to fill out consent form to grant the researcher permission to make use of the data obtained. To protect the confidentiality of the participant, all participants' names appearing in this paper are pseudonyms.

B. The Procedures

A course named "Learning Japanese language and Culture through Anime" was planned and conducted. The course was carried out in a local public university for a duration of 10 weeks. The participants were required to attend the course once a week. Time allocated for each lesson was approximately 120 minutes. All the lessons took place in a classroom equipped with a projector, computer, and connection to the internet. Table 3 illustrates the course outline for this 10-week course.

Number of Week	Course outline		
	Anime	Themes	Classroom activities
Week 1	Course introduction		
Week 2 (Lesson 1)	*Working!!* (Episode 1)	Workplace conversation Japanese surnames	Active viewing Follow-up discussion
Week 3 (Lesson 2)	*Hanasaku Iroha* (Episode 1)	Workplace conversation Japanese traditional inn (*ryokan*)	Active viewing Follow-up discussion
Week 4 (Lesson R1)	Revision lesson 1	Refer to Lesson 1 and 2	Repetition of short scenes Follow-up discussion
Week 5 (Lesson 3)	*Kimi to Boku S2* (Episode 13)	School conversation Japanese tea ceremony (*sadou*)	Active viewing Follow-up discussion
Week 6 (Lesson 4)	*Hanasaku Iroha* (Episode 19)	School conversation Cultural festival (*bunkasai*)	Active viewing Follow-up discussion
Week 7 (Lesson 5)	*Kimi to Boku S2* (Episode 1)	Family conversation Japanese bath (*ofuro*)	Active-viewing Follow up discussion
Week 8 (Lesson R2)	Revision Lesson 2	Refer to Lesson 3, 4, and 5	Repetition of short scenes Follow-up discussion
Week 9	Concluding lesson		
Week 10	Participants' presentation of "My favourite anime"		

The most important points to be considered when selecting a video to be used in the classroom include the class objective, the learners' needs, and cultural appropriateness. Other technical aspects such as the length of the video, the availability of hardware, visual quality, and compatibility should be considered as well (Mokhamad Syaifudin, 2010).

The selection criteria for anime in the present study are as follows:

• Class objectives: To teach the Japanese language and culture simultaneously and to expose the participants with authentic spoken language input

• Anime length: Approximately 20-minute long episode from a TV animated series

• Themes: Simple daily life

• Language: Match with the participants' proficiency (lower intermediate)

• Content Appropriateness: Free of violence, nudity, and excessive profanity

• Availability: Legally purchased DVD and used for non-profit educational purpose

The selected TV animated series were *Working!!*, *Hanasaku Iroha* (The Blooming Colours), and *Kimi to Boku S2* (You and Me).

C. Classroom Activities

The classroom activities carried out included active viewing, repetition, and follow-up discussion.

(1) Active viewing: Unlike passive viewing where the viewer is only exposed to the video content but does not engage with the video content at any critical level, active viewing requires the viewer to identify and analyse the viewing experience. Before the active viewing of anime, the participants were guided with a pre-viewing briefing. The pre-viewing briefing was important to inform the participants about the general background of the anime. The trailer of the respective anime was shown to the participants by using *YouTube* website. During the active viewing activity, the participants' were asked to start analysing the language used in the characters' dialogues and jot down keywords of what they noticed on the analysis worksheet given.

(2) Repetition: Prior to the lesson, the researcher identified several scenes with important or difficult dialogues. The dialogues lines in these 1 to 3 minutes short scenes were then transcribed. During the lesson, these transcripts were distributed to the participants. The participants were given time to read the dialogue lines and then the repetition activity was carried out by replaying the scenes one by one. The participants were divided into groups of three to discuss and analysis the dialogue transcripts and then record their findings with examples on the analysis worksheet given.

(3) Follow-up discussion: The follow-up discussion activity was used to stimulate communication among the participants, as well as to develop sharing and co-operative skills. This activity was also important to let the participants express their personal responses about the anime, justify any misunderstanding of cultural issues portrayed, and to relate the learning from anime to real life situations.

D. Data Collection

The data were collected via the participants' worksheets and learning diaries.

For each active viewing lesson, the participants were given a worksheet and a transcript of dialogues in short scenes selected. These transcripts will aid the participants in recording their analysis of the language used in anime. The worksheets were completed in the Japanese language and collected five times (Lesson 1, Lesson 2, Lesson 3, Lesson 4, and Lesson 5). A total of 55 completed worksheets (n=11) were collected. The function of these worksheets was to provide evidence and examples of language features noticed and learned by the participants.

Apart from recording the students' own learning and skill development during the classroom learning process, learning diaries contain the students' record of their own experiences, thoughts, feelings and reflections. The participants were given option to write their diaries in whichever language they felt most comfortable with when

recording their thoughts. All the participants chose to write their diaries in English. The learning diaries were collected 7 times (5 active viewing lessons and 2 revision lessons) and a total of 77 diaries (n=11) were collected. The functions of these learning diaries were to: (1) provide evidence of understanding of the knowledge taught in the classroom, and (2) record the participants' feelings, impressions, and experiences in the classroom.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

It should be noted that the findings presented were based on the participants' worksheets and learning diaries. Hence, the language features listed and presented were neither an exhaustive list nor do they address the precise contextual factors. It was the list of notions generated from the participants in the present study and there may be items missing to what has been explored by linguists.

The participants were found to be able to notice and learn the language features such as:
- Different levels of politeness   (文体 – *buntai*)
- Casual forms   (くだけた – *kudaketa*)
- Sentence-final particles   (終助詞 – *shuujyoshi*)
- Pronouns   (代名詞 – *daimeishi*)
- Honorific suffix   (接尾辞 – *setsubiji*)
- Swear words   (汚い言葉 – *kitanaikotoba*)

A. Different Levels of Politeness

In Japan, the Japanese people use different forms of language in different domains; for example when they speak to an elderly people or customers in business, they use the Japanese honorific form; to colleagues or friends they use the polite form; to close friends and family members, they use the plain form naturally (Wong, 2010). Although the politeness levels of spoken language were portrayed as such in the anime selected, there were some exceptions and unexpected styles were also used. The participants were found to be able to notice and identify proper and improper politeness levels through the repetition activity by looking at the human relationships (see Table 4 and Table 5).

TABLE IV
CONVERSATION BETWEEN TEACHER AND STUDENT IN THE ANIME KIMI TO BOKU S2 (EPISODE 13).

Human relationship	Dialogue transcript
Teacher and student	Teacher:　何か質問でも**あった**？ *Nanika shitsumon demo atta?* **(plain form)** [Did you have something to ask?] Student:　東先生はいつ先生になろうと**思ったんです**か？ *Azuma-sensei wa itsu sensei ni narou to **omotta n desu** ka?* **(polite form)** [Azuma-sensei, when did you decide to become a teacher?] Teacher:　それは、やっぱり大学に進学するとき**だった**かな…どの学部にするか決めるときに、どんな仕事につきたいかを自然に**考えた**しね。 *Sore wa, yappari daigaku ni shingaku suru toki **datta** kana. Dono gakubu ni suru ka kimeru toki ni donna shigoto ni tsukitai ka wo shizen ni **kangaeta**shi ne.* **(plain form)** [That was probably when I entered college. When I was deciding on my major, I naturally thought about what sort of job I'd like to do.] Student:　じゃ、ちょうど僕らと同じころには将来なにをしたいか**決めてたんです**ね。 *Jya choudo bokura to onaji koro ni wa shourai nani wo shitai ka **kimeteta n desu** ne.* **(polite form)** [So, you'd already decided what you wanted to do by the time you were our age.] Teacher:　そう言うことに**なる**のかな。 *Sou iu koto ni **naru** no kana.* **(plain form)** [Well, I guess so.] Student:　そう**です**か。ありがとう**ございました**。失礼し**ます**。 ***Sou desu** ka. Arigatou **gozaimashita**. Shitsurei**shimasu**.* **(polite form)** [I see. Thank you. Please excuse me.]

In Table 4, the student used polite forms when talking to the teacher and the teacher replied in plain forms. This is a common and proper use of politeness level, but the participants noticed that this is different from the real life situation they experienced. For example, Alice expressed that,

"When I'm talking to *sensei* (teacher), I always speak in –*masu* form (polite form) to show my respect to *sensei*. My *sensei* also talks to me in –*masu* form. However, in this anime, Asuma-*sensei* (the male teacher in *Kimi to Boku*) used plain form when he is talking to the students. I think it is up to the *sensei* to choose his or her speech style when talking to the students because *sensei* has higher status than students" (Alice, diary 3).

TABLE V
UNEXPECTED SPEECH STYLES USED IN THE CONVERSATION BETWEEN CUSTOMER AND WAITER IN THE ANIME *WORKING!!* (EPISODE 1).

Human relationship	Dialogue transcript
Customer and Waitress	Customer:　　　ねえ、ちょっと。このお店暖房**効きすぎ**よ。何とかして**ちょうだい**。 *Nee, chotto. Kono o-mise danbou **kikisugi** yo. Nantoka shite **choudai**.* **(plain form)** [Excuse me. This restaurant's heat is turned up too high. Do something about it.] Waiter: なら外に出てその醜い脂肪を燃やして**こい**。 *Nara soto ni dete sono minikui shibou wo moyashite **koi**.* **(imperative in plain form)** [Then go outside and burn off some of that ugly fat.]

In Table 5, the waitress' speech style was considered as an unexpected style because in a normal context, she should be using respectful or polite form when talking to the customer.

According to Sharon and Natalie,

"Today I learned about the conversation between customer and waiter in a *famiresu* (family restaurant). The waitress was very rude. She talked to the customer in *meirei-kei* (imperative). I think this is not right under normal situations" (Sharon, diary 1).

"The waitress was very fierce. She treated the customer in a very rude manner" (Natalie, diary 1).

In contrast to the native speakers of the Japanese language, the foreign language learners often learn the polite form before the plain form. One of the common problems of JFL learners is lack of exposure to informal settings in real life situations. Hence, they lack exposure to the usage of plain forms. Frank related his own situation with the character in anime by mentioned that,

"In the anime, close friends are talking to each other using plain form or casual form, but I still talk to my friends in polite form" (Frank, diary 5).

The majority of anime use a high school as the story background or setting because education is one of the fundamental systems in Japanese society (Napier, 2005) and most of the conversations that take place in these anime involves the use of plain or casual speech styles between friends, family members, people who are of similar age, and similar social status. Although the learners can be exposed to some formal speech styles depending on the anime selected, they are in fact listening to more informal speech styles (plain forms and casual forms) in anime. Therefore, to solve the problem of lack of exposure to informal speech styles in real life situation, Japanese language educators can consider using anime as a source of informal speech styles input for the learners.

B. Casual Form

"Informal colloquial styles are hard to acquire even for learners living in Japan because those styles are used only among people whose relationships are close" (Yoshida, 2010, p. 3). The informal colloquial styles are very closely related to the casual form (*kudaketa*), which is usually only used among close friends and family members. The casual form "uses plain verb endings and allows abundant contractions, colloquialisms" (Politeness and formality in Japanese, n.d.). Casual form is also influenced by local dialects. Anime with a school and family setting could be used to introduce different kinds of casual speech styles. Table 6 summarises the examples of casual forms noticed by the participants.

TABLE VI
CASUAL FORMS.

No.	Casual form	Standard form
C1	決めて**ない**。 *Kimete **nai**.* [I've not decided]	決めて**いない**。 *Kimete **inai**.* (Worksheet 2)
C2	お前の親は**すげえ**。 *Omae no oya wa **sugee**.* [Your parents are awesome]	お前の親は**すごい**。 *Omae no oya wa **sugoi**.* (Worksheet 2)
C3	先生に聞こえ**ちゃい**ますよ。 *Sensei ni kikoe**chai** masu yo.* [The teacher will hear you.]	先生に聞こえ**てしまい**ますよ。 *Sensei ni kikoe**te shimai**masu yo.* (Worksheet 3)
C4	心配し**ちゃった**。 *Shinpai shi**chatta**.* [I was worried.]	心配し**てしまった**。 *Shinpai shi**te shimatta**.* (Worksheet 4)
C5	学校の行事はちゃんと参加し**な**。 *Gakkou no gyouji wa chanto sanka shi**na**.* [You need to participate in school event.]	学校の行事はちゃんと参加し**なさい**。 *Gakkou no gyouji wa chanto sanka shi**nasai**.* (Worksheet 4)
C6	民ちにも知らせてあげ**なくちゃ**。 *Min-chi ni mo shirasete age**nakucha**.* [We must inform Min-chi too.]	民ちにも知らせあげ**なければ（なりません）**。 *Min-chi ni mo shirasete age**nakereba (narimasen)**.* (Worksheet 4)

Although some of the participants found the casual forms difficult to learn, the participants were interested to know more about the conjugation patterns of the casual forms. Some of the participants' commented that,

"Today, *sensei* (teacher) explained the conjugation rules to some of the *kudaketa* (casual) forms. I heard a lot of −*chau* or −*chatta* in anime before, but I didn't know the meaning. Now I learned that they are the *kudaketa* forms of −*teshimau* and −*teshimatta*" (Nancy, diary 2).

"The *kudaketa* forms are very hard to learn, but I think it is fun to know more about them because they appear quite often in anime" (Betty, diary 4).

"At first I thought *kudaketa* form is not important because I don't use it often in the real life situations. However, now I think I should know more about it if I want to become a full fledge Japanese language speaker because it seems to be quite important in natural spoken Japanese" (Evelyn, diary 4).

Language register refers to the level of formality with which you speak. Generally, when you speak under different situations or speak with different people will call for different registers (Eaton, 2012). For example, formal register for academic writing and business meeting and casual register for conversation among friends and family members. When learning a foreign language in a classroom, it is a common practice that the beginner learners will start to learn the formal register in the target language. For most people, the goal of foreign language learning is to achieve near-native speaker competence. To achieve this goal, the language learners of intermediate and advance level will need to familiarise themselves with informal and casual registers in order for them to sound more natural and make friends with the native speakers. Knowing how to differentiate between formal and informal speech styles and when to use them will definitely help the foreign language learners to fit in with the target language society better.

C. Sentence-final Particles

Japanese women's speech (*joseigo* or *onna no kotoba*) is typically described as more "polite, gentle, soft spoken, non-assertive, and empathetic" (Okamoto, 1995, p. 298) as compared to Japanese men's speech (*danseigo* or *otoko no kotoba*). One of the features that could be observed in the Japanese gendered speech styles is the sentence-final particles (SFPs). Table 7 summarises the examples of SFPs noticed by the participants.

TABLE VII
SENTENCE-FINAL PARTICLES.

No.	SFPs used by female characters.
S1	これを持って行く時に確認してくる**わ**。 *Kore wo motte iku toki ni kakunin shite kuru **wa**.* [I'll check on them when I take this out.] (Worksheet 1)
S2	いいの**かしら**？ *Ii no **kashira**?* [Is it okay?] (Worksheet 1)
S3	私一人でお婆ちゃん家、高校もそっち行く**の**。 *Watashi hitori de oba-chan uchi, koukou mo socchi iku **no**.* [I'm going to my grandma's house alone. I'll be going to school there too.] (Worksheet 2)
S4	あの制服、可愛いよ**ね**！ *Ano seifuku, kawaii yo **ne**!* [That uniform is really cute!] (Worksheet 2)
No.	**SFPs used by male characters**
S5	このままじゃ、身を滅ぼす**ぞ**。 *Kono mama jya, mi wo horobosu **zo**.* [If you continue on like this, you'll ruin yourself.] (Worksheet 2)
S6	ないなら別にいいん**だ**。 *Nai nara betsu ni iin **da**.* [That's fine if you don't.] (Worksheet 3)
S7	お前ら傍から見てると相当ばかだ**ぞ**。 *Omae ra hata kara miteru to soutou baka da **zo**.* [You guys look like idiots from over here.] (Worksheet 5)

The common feminine SFPs used by the female characters (S1-S4) included わ (*wa*), よ (*yo*), の (*no*), ね (*ne*), and かしら (*kashira*). The common masculine SFPs used by the male characters (S5-S7) included だ (*da*), and ぞ (*zo*).

Apart from the regular use of female and male SFPs, the participants also noticed some unexpected use of SFPs by certain female characters (see Table 8).

TABLE VIII
UNEXPECTED USE OF SENTENCE-FINAL PARTICLES BY FEMALE CHARACTERS.

No.	Unexpected use of SFPs by female characters
S8	私が店長の白藤杏子*だ*。 *Watashi ga tenchou no Shirafuji Kyouko da.* [I'm the restaurant manager, Shirafuji Kyouko.] (Worksheet 1)
S9	種島、後は任せた*ぞ*。 *Taneshima, ato wa makase ta zo.* [Taneshima, I'll leave the rest to you.] (Worksheet 1)
S10	あんたは今からうちの従業員*だ*。 *Anta wa ima kara uchi no juugyouin da.* [As of today, you are an employee here.] (Worksheet 2)
S11	私はしっかり空気読むむ人なん*だ*。 *Watashi wa shikkari kuuki yomu hito nan da.* [I'm definitely someone who can read between the lines.] (Worksheet 4)

The participants related the unexpected use of SFPs by the female characters to their personalities as portrayed in the anime. For example, Frank stated that,

"I noticed that Todoroki (a female character in *Working!!*) uses a lot of '*wa*' at the end of her speech. I think this goes well with her soft and gentle personalities. On the other hand, Kyouko (a female character in *Working!!*) is a manager with strong personality, so she tends to talk in a more masculine way. So it is not surprising at all when she uses '*zo*', which usually used by men, to end her speech" (Frank, diary 1).

"Recently it has been observed that Japanese women's use of language is changing and women are taking on using more neutral and even masculine forms" (Ogawa 2006; Okamoto & Sato 1992; Okamoto 1995; Okamoto 1996; Mizumoto 2006; cited in Hollis, 2013, p. 21). The findings from the participants' analysis of language used in anime reflected this phenomenon too. For example, the use of SFP, だ(*da*) in the example S8, S10, and S11. In example S9, a more masculine form of SFP, ぞ (*zo*) was used. This finding showed that although some may perceive language used in anime as more incline towards the concept of virtual language or role language (Kinsui, 2003), language used in anime also portrays and reflects the language used in reality to a certain extent.

D. Pronouns

The participant learned the differences of the use of pronoun between different gender, seniority, and situation (formal and informal). In the anime selected, most of the female characters were found to use 私 (*watashi*) or あたし (*atashi*) to refer to "I" and あなた (*anata*) or あんた (*anta*) to refer to "you" and most of the male characters used 俺 (*ore*) or 僕 (*boku*) to refer to "I" and お前 (*omae*) and 君 (*kimi*) to refer to "you" accordingly.

However, the participants also noticed that there was an exception where the old landlady in *Hanasaku Iroha* used お前 (*omae*) to refer to "you" and こいつ (*koitsu*) to refer to "this fellow" (see Table 9).

TABLE IX
UNEXPECTED USE OF PRONOUNS BY FEMALE CHARACTERS.

No.	Unexpected use of pronouns
P1	**お前**が緒花だね。 ***Omae** ga Ohana da ne.* [You must be Ohana.](Lesson 2, scene 3) Worksheet 2
P2	**こいつ**はお客様に失礼したんだとさ。 ***Koitsu** wa o-kyaku sama ni shitsurei shi tanda to sa.* [This fellow caused inconvenience to the customer.] Worksheet 2

Regarding this, Mandy commented,

"I think the language use of *obaasan* (grandmother) is quite interesting because she uses some *otoko kotoba* (men's language) and sounds quite rude. I think this is because she is an elderly person and the owner of *ryokan* (traditional Japanese inn). So she basically has the highest status next to the customers in *ryokan*" (Mandy, diary 2).

A male participant, Kevin felt that he should change the way he uses the first person pronoun by mentioning that,

"I always use '*watashi*' to refer to myself in real life situations. I have get used to this, but I think I should try to use '*boku*' (casual male first-person pronoun) and '*ore*' (casual male first-person pronoun) when I'm talking to my close friends from now on because it will definitely sound more natural to the native speaker" (Kevin, diary 5).

Unlike the English language, pronouns in the Japanese language are usually omitted from sentences when they can be inferred from context. Through watching and analysing the language use under different contexts in anime, the Japanese language learners can learn how to use the pronouns as well as to understand when not to use them in order to speak the Japanese language naturally.

E. Honorific Suffixes

In the Japanese language, there is a broad array of honorific suffixes for addressing people. For instance, "-*san*", as in "Suzuki-*san*". The common ones include "-*sama*" and "-*san*" which are gender-neutral; "-*kun*" which is mainly used for

young males and "*-chan*", which is mainly used for young females. Honorific suffixes are generally essential when referring to someone. Dropping the honorific suffix (*yobisute*) implies a high degree of intimacy and is usually reserved for very close friends, younger family members, or spouse. Table 10 and Table 11 summarise the findings noticed by the participants.

TABLE X
HONORIFIC SUFFIXES USED TO REFER TO FEMALE CHARACTERS.

No.	Honorific suffixes used to refer to female characters	
H1	民**ち**、まだご機嫌斜めなの？ *Min-**chi**, mada go-kigen naname na no?* [Min-chi, are you still in bad mood?]	Worksheet 4
H2	緒花**ちゃん**だって期待してるよ。 *Ohana-**chan** datte kitai shite ru yo.* [Ohana-chan is looking forward to it.]	Worksheet 4
H3	よかったね、菜子**ち**。 *Yokatta ne, Nako-**chi**.* [It's great, Nako-chi.]	Worksheet 4

TABLE XI
HONORIFIC SUFFIXES USED TO REFER TO MALE CHARACTERS.

No.	Honorific suffixes used to refer to male characters	
H4	要**君**のお母さんって、みかん好きですかね？ *Kaname-**kun** no okaasan tte mikan suki desu ka ne?* [Kaname-kun, does your mother like tangerines?]	Worksheet 5
H5	春**ちゃん**っていい子だよな。 *Shun-**chan** tte ii ko da yo na.* [Shun-**chan** is such a good kid.]	Worksheet 5

In H1 and H3, a special suffix "*-chi*" was used to refer to some female characters whereas in H5, the suffix "*-chan*" which is usually used to refer to female was used to refer to a male character. According to the participants, the uncommon honorific suffixes were used to show "cuteness" and "solidarity". Olivia and Susan think that,

"Usually in anime, there are a lot of *yobikata* (ways of addressing people) like '*-san*', '*-chan*', '*-kun*'. Today I saw another new *yobikata* '*-chi*' in the anime class. Actually I have come across other *yobikata* such as '*-pyon*' and '*-chama*' from other anime. I think this kind of *yobikata* is very cute" (Olivia, diary 4).

"Today we discussed about *yobikata* and *yobisute* (dropping the honorific suffix) in the class. I noticed that boys will usually *yobisute* when calling their friend's name, but Chizuru (a male character in *Kimi to Boku*) called Shun (a male character in *Kimi to Boku*) 'Shun-chan'. I think this is because Shun is quite girlish in personality or maybe Chizuru wanted to tease him or to show solidarity because they are best friends" (Susan, diary 5).

Honorific suffixes in anime appear to be more complicated than in real life situations. Apart from using the proper suffixes such as "*-san*", "*-kun*", and "*-chan*", special suffixes are used in place of proper suffixes. Different from proper suffixes, these special suffixes are invented based on the effect the speaker is trying to achieve (e.g., to show cuteness or affection). For example,

• "*-tan*": Derived from "*-chan*" to show cuteness.
• "*-pyon*": Indicating that the speaker is being very cutesy or affectionate with the person he or she is addressing.
• "*-chama*": The baby-talk version of "*-sama*".

The learners should be alerted about these special honorific suffixes which are known to be used more in anime than in real life in order to avoid misuse of these special honorific suffixes in real life communication.

F. Swear Words

A language classroom is probably not the place to learn swear words. However, to some extent, swear words, curse words, and insults do appear in authentic materials such as film, movie, drama, as well as anime. Table 12 presents some swear words identified by the participants.

TABLE XII
SWEAR WORDS.

No.	Swear words or insults	Meaning
W1	ふざけるな！ *Fuzakeruna!*	Stop being stupid! Worksheet 2
W2	頭使え、アホ！ *Atama tsukae, aho!*	Use your brain, moron! Worksheet 2
W3	バカ野郎！ *Baka yarou!*	Idiot! Worksheet 3

The participants were amused when identifying swear words in the anime. They also revealed that they actually already knew about these words from other anime, especially the *shounen* anime (anime targeted for boys). Kevin and Nancy revealed that,

"It was amusing when we discussed the word '*aho*' (moron) in the class. I came across this word in another anime before. I have a hunch that it is a bad word, but I did not know the exact meaning. In the class discussion, Nancy (one of the participants) said '*aho*' means '*baka*' (stupid) in Kansai (Western Japan) dialect" (Kevin, diary 2).

"I like to watch *shounen* anime. In most of the *shounen* anime, there are a lot of dirty words such as '*kisama*' (rude way of saying 'you'), '*temee*' (rude way of saying 'you'), '*kusogaki*' (brat), and so on. Actually we use word like '*baka*' to joke with each other in class occasionally. I think this is one way to show solidarity if you didn't mean it seriously. Also, I guess it is just a common nature for students to pick up dirty words naturally from media" (Nancy, diary 3).

The main purpose of swearing is to express the speaker's emotional state, especially anger and frustration and communicating that information to the listener (Jay & Janschewitz, 2008). Although swearing is accepted as a social phenomenon in English speaking countries, American Indians, Japanese, Malayans and most Polynesians do not have swear words in their languages (Montagu, 1967, p. 55). Some researchers recognized Japanese as a "swearless" language.

"As a matter of fact, there are some swearwords in Japanese like '*chikusho*' (animal, beast) or '*kuso*' (shit), however there are hardly anywhere near as many as the English ones, so that Japanese has been deemed an officially 'swearless' language" (Kosugi, 2010, p. 31).

Nonetheless, Jackson and Kennett (2012) challenged the myth that Japanese is a "swearless" language by looking at popular publications that educate the Japanese language learners in swearing. As a result, Jackson and Kennett (2012) raised the issue of whether swearing should be formally introduced through the curriculum.

The findings of the present study showed that swear words can be identified in anime. In fact, many anime, especially *shounen* anime, are known to have a lot of combat scenes where the characters are angry with each other and yelling swear words to show their anger. Therefore, the researcher thinks that common swear words used in anime or other type of media should be pointed out to the learners in order to warn them about the inappropriate uses of the swear words.

V. CONCLUSION

Napier confirms that anime reaches "far beyond the children's cartoon and often portrays important social and cultural themes" (Napier, 2005: back cover). However, according to Spindler (2010), "there are mixed opinions on the authenticity of the language and culture presented in anime and manga". Some have suggested that the language and culture portrayed in anime are merely representations of exaggerated and distorted version of the actual language and culture. In contrast, some have argued that there is something to be learned from anime, particularly if the learner has a firm "Japanese culture knowledge base" (p. 51).

Spindler (2010) believed that cultural knowledge base such as the understanding of the inner and outer circles in the hierarchical social system of the Japanese "would serve as a good sieve to help sift through the inaccuracies and exaggerations of the portrayed language and culture they are receiving from anime and manga" (p. 51). For example, the language used in anime is more casual in most of the contexts involving daily life. This language use is quite different from what the students usually listen to and use in the classroom where the educators heavily emphasis on the polite ways of speaking using the material designed specifically for pedagogical purposes such as textbooks.

It is a fact that educators cannot control what the students learn and see outside the classroom. One of the main concerns about the learners' interest in anime is that they may make broad judgments or assumptions about the Japanese language and culture based solely on the anime they watched. Since many studies have shown that anime has become a significant presence in most of the Japanese language learners, it has become part of the Japanese language educators' responsibility to dispel language and cultural stereotypes in anime. For example, students should be reminded not to expect the Japanese to talk exactly as in anime and not to use the words or phrases learned from the anime until they are certain of the meanings. This explains why anime should be introduced in the JFL classroom not just because it can serve as good teaching material, but also to raise the learners' consciousness on language and cultural stereotypes in anime.

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Can Topic Familiarity Override Language Proficiency in Reading Comprehension?

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Abstract—The present study investigated the impact of topical knowledge and language proficiency on the reading comprehension of Iranian EFL students. The Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was used at the beginning of the study to divide the students into two groups of low and high proficiency. Both the high and low proficiency students later read two texts of almost the same level of difficulty but different in terms of their familiarity to the students. The obtained results indicated that topic familiarity cannot override language proficiency in reading comprehension; that is, low-proficiency students could not catch up with high-proficiency students even in familiar topics.

Index Terms—reading comprehension, background knowledge, vocabulary knowledge, syntactic knowledge

I. Introduction

A. General Overview

Many EFL students find reading comprehension as one of the most challenging parts of standardized tests (Al-Shumaimeri, 2006; Burgoyne et al., 2013). Researchers, EFL teachers, and curriculum developers have always attempted to find out what the components of reading comprehension are but many of them have come to the conclusion that reading comprehension is an inferential process which needs both bottom-up and top-down processes. Reading comprehension is, therefore, an interactive process that involves vocabulary and syntactic knowledge in addition to background knowledge to be accomplished (Al-Shumaimeri's 2006; August et al., 2006; Burgoyne et al., 2013). Vocabulary knowledge and topic familiarity but have been found to be more influential than syntactic knowledge in comprehending a text. But how much and by what mechanisms these factors affect reading comprehension are issues which have not been answered precisely yet. Also, investigations on whether topic familiarity can override language proficiency in low-proficiency readers have brought about mixed results. This study tried to take a further step in clarifying these issues.

B. Vocabulary Knowledge

Vocabulary knowledge plays a significant role in understanding a text and limited vocabulary knowledge may bring about comprehension difficulties (Hall et al., 2014; Burgoyne et al., 2013). Ma and Lin (2015), in their study on the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension performance of Taiwanese students, found that subcomponents of vocabulary knowledge correlated significantly with students' reading comprehension performance. Vocabulary size, for example, had the highest correlation ($r=.43$) with reading comprehension. Vocabulary knowledge is a prerequisite for understanding a text (Ma & Lin, 2015). In a similar study, Huang (1997, as cited in Ma and Lin, 2015), also, concluded that the failure of Taiwanese students in comprehending English texts was due to deficient vocabulary knowledge.

C. Background Knowledge

Vocabulary knowledge but is not the only influential factor in reading comprehension. Fisher and Frey (2009) and Laufer (1992), for example, emphasize the role of background knowledge in reading comprehension in addition to vocabulary knowledge and that, like vocabulary knowledge, topical knowledge correlates highly with reading comprehension. To understand a text, students need to relate previously learned concepts with the new ones (Fisher, n.d.). Topic familiarity facilitates processing and understanding of a text (Burgoyne et al., 2013). Kendeou and Broek (2007) have also underlined the profound role of prior knowledge and text structure interaction in readers' comprehension of general as well as scientific texts.

In a study conducted by Strother and Ulijn (1987, as cited in Ma & Lin, 2015), it was revealed that syntactic simplification of a text did not ease reading comprehension to the extent that content familiarity did. On the other hand, Al-Shumaimeri (2006) concluded that limited background knowledge can greatly affect low proficiency students but not students with high proficiency, since their linguistic proficiency compensates for the limitation and they can overcome reading comprehension problems. The same conclusion was reached by Nassaji (2002) who stated that

readers depend more on their linguistics knowledge, that is, proficiency, when they cannot activate background knowledge. This means that linguistic proficiency of highly proficient students should not be underestimated. Students with high proficiency overcome difficulties in comprehending a text even when they cannot link the new information to the previously learned ones.

Another issue in relation to reading comprehension is the quality of text itself. If a text is written in a confusing way, even though topic familiarity might help, whatever the proficiency level, comprehension might be hampered. Inaccurate ideas and complex text structure according to Kendeou and Broke (2007) hinder comprehending texts, specifically scientific texts.

D. Statement of the Problem and Significance of the Study

Comprehending English passages has always been difficult for Iranian EFL students, especially the low-proficiency ones, for two major reasons: first, most of the original English texts contain western values and traditions with which Iranian students are not familiar. Second, their vocabulary knowledge or language proficiency is not so high as to let them overcome unknown concepts.

Due to the fact that reading comprehension performance is extremely important for students' success in universities, understanding how much topic familiarity and language proficiency affect reading comprehension seems to be necessary. Of course, studies addressing this issue have already been conducted in different parts of the world, but the findings are mixed with some placing more emphasis on students' proficiency and others on their topic familiarity.

More to the point, most of the findings about the factors affecting reading comprehension are not generalizable to other contexts due to:

1. background knowledge differences (such as knowledge of different religious beliefs and practices and cultural value judgments)
2. proficiency levels of the students taking part in different studies, and
3. generality and specificity of the selected topics

The significance of this study lied in the fact that a general religious subject was used to study the effect of topic familiarity and its interaction with language proficiency. A religious ritual is most likely to be known by an absolute majority of people living in a society in which it is practiced. However, usually people of different religious convictions know little about each other's religious beliefs and rituals. For example, almost all Iranians, regardless of whether they are dedicated believers of Islam or not, are familiar with the ritualistic practices of Eid al-Fitr (called Eide Fetr in Iran). However, the majority of them are not familiar with the ritualistic practices of Christians or the followers of other religions. Therefore, it was thought that this can be a good starting point to evaluate the potential of topic familiarity in overriding the effect of language proficiency.

E. Variables of the Study

There were two independent categorical variables in this study each having two levels. The first one of these independent variables was students' proficiency with the two levels of poor readers and good readers. Topic familiarity, the second independent variable, had also two levels comprising familiar and unfamiliar topics. There was also a dependent variable, called reading comprehension performance, the values for which were obtained by measuring students' performance on reading comprehension tests.

F. Research Question and Hypothesis

The present study tried to answer the following research question:

RQ: Can topic familiarity override linguistic proficiency of students in reading comprehension?

The following null hypothesis was formulated based on the stated research question:

H0: Topic familiarity cannot override linguistic proficiency of students in reading comprehension.

G. Design of the Study

This study enjoyed an ex-post-facto design because no variable was manipulated in the study and the only thing done was to give the participants a proficiency test followed by two reading comprehension tests. No treatment, no control group, and no random assignment were involved but students were divided into two proficiency groups of high and low in each class based on their performance on OPT. OPT measures students' grammatical, vocabulary, reading and writing abilities. According to the guidelines of the test, any part of the test can be omitted if it does not serve objectives of the study. Since writing ability is not related to reading comprehension in its strictest sense, the participants were not tested on this part of OPT. Vocabulary and grammatical knowledge but contribute to students' comprehension of the reading material directly. That is why, the participants were asked to answer questions in these sections in addition to the reading section.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Overview

Researchers have always sought solutions to the problem of comprehending a text in a foreign language. Some of them have prescribed syntactic and semantic simplification and many others activities that are believed to enrich vocabulary knowledge. EFL instructors may have unclear ideas about the importance of components of reading comprehension and about the extent to which each component affects comprehension (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

B. In Support of Background Knowledge

One of the main approaches toward reading comprehension has been based on Bartlett's (1932) schema theory. Schemata has been categorized into formal and content schemata, however, elaboration on different types of schemata was not an issue in this study. This study looked at schemata in general as the amount of relevant knowledge needed in general English reading comprehension courses named cultural schema by Yule (1996).

In a study Al-Shumaimeri (2006) concluded that there was not a meaningful difference between the high- and low-proficiency students' performance on familiar texts but this difference was significant on the unfamiliar texts to the benefit of highly proficient students. Moreover, Oller (1995) mentioned that cultural schema helps readers associate text information with their personal experience and infer the implied meaning. For cultural schema Erten and Razi (2009) have given the interesting example of different expectations Turkish and British students may have about breakfast, the former expecting tea, cheese, and olive, and the latter expecting coffee, cereal, and bacon.

Although some scholars claim that new schema should be created, modified and changed for reading comprehension to happen, the majority of them believe that there is little need for schema creation. Preexisting schema can be activated and used in many occasions (Nassaji, 2002). Comprehension will simply fail if the needed schema is not activated (Carrell, 1984, as cited in Nassaji, 2002). A good example to explain how schema helps comprehension would be the one given by Nassaji (2002, p. 449), "if in reading a text, a reader encounters a sentence such as "He pounded a nail into the wall," the word "hammer," which is one of the default values associated with the verb "pound," will be simultaneously activated and used to fill in the empty slot for the agent of the verb, leading to the inference that the pounding has been probably done with a hammer." Some researchers (e.g., Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983, as cited in Burgoyne et al., 2013) believe that background knowledge is only activated and utilized when vocabulary and linguistic knowledge is provided.

Due to the fact that reading comprehension is an inferential process, text familiarity thus helps students infer and make out what the text is about (Chou, 2011). Hammadou (1991) found that beginner-level students depended more on inference than advanced-level students since inference helps novice students link their previous information with the new unfamiliar one. Inferencing happens based on the readers' schemata or prior knowledge (Anderson & Pearson, 1984). Needless to say, comprehension happens through a process of linking new information in the text to the prior knowledge in the mind, linking one part of the text to the other parts, and connecting different elements to each other. Therefore, making out the relationship between the above mentioned processes is only possible with the means of inferencing (Nassaji, 2002).

There is evidence that topic familiarity enhances the understanding of a text in a foreign language (Abu Rabia, 2003; Nassaji, 2003; McLaughlin, 1987; Shen, 2004). Understanding a text for readers with prior knowledge of the topic is easier compared to readers without that knowledge (Bartlett, 1932; Kendeou & Broke, 2007). Garcia (1991) found that when differences in background knowledge were controlled, ESL students could comprehend texts as well as natives. Nassaji (2002) has stated that only a few researchers have disputed the critical role of background knowledge in reading comprehension. Successful reading and text interpretation is bound to sufficient prior knowledge (Chou, 2011; Steffenson et. al., 1979). Levin and Haus (1985) also found that expertise knowledge of low-proficiency EFL learners enabled them to perform as good as high-proficiency learners in reading comprehension tasks. According to the above studies, it sounds logical to say that sufficient schemata of low proficiency students compensate for insufficient linguistic ability.

No doubt, L1 reading is different from L2 reading. Carrell and Grabe (2010) have the following to say in support of the importance of background knowledge:

L2 readers do not have the same language resources as L1 readers at the outset of learning; they do not share all the social and cultural assumptions and knowledge bases that L1 readers use when reading in their own language; they do not share all the background knowledge that is often assumed about how the world works; they often are learning in the second language for various reasons. (p. 216)

Many scholars (e.g., Carrell & Grabe, 2010; Koda, 2005; Grabe, 2009) have identified the differences between L1 and L2 reading such as cultural, linguistic, experiential, cognitive, social, and individual differences. Children learning English as a second or additional language do not have the same cultural background and socio-cultural experiences as do their monolingual native peers have. This disparity leads to difficulty in understanding the passages that come from the target culture (Burgoyne et al., 2013). Moreover, findings of the studies conducted in communities with participants speaking an Indo-European language (such as German, Spanish) cannot be generalized to communities whose language backgrounds are sharply distinct like Altaic and Asiatic languages (Al-Shumaimeri, 2006). Exposure to the culture of a foreign language builds background knowledge and helps reading comprehension in that language to a great extent (Johnson, 1982).

For comprehension of a text there is a need for interaction between the background knowledge of an EFL student and text information (Burgoyne et al., 2013). Students feel more engaged, enthused, and enjoy reading when they find texts

that are culturally related to their local values (Tomlinson, 1998; Dörnyei, 2003). Due to the fact that most of the original English books are written in the UK and the US, they include materials dealing with western values, traditions, and culture, therefore, they are less likely to be digested by EFL learners (Robertson, 2002). According to Haynes (1984), students make use of local, rather than global clues in guessing of the word meanings. Therefore, it can be said that the more socio-culturally familiar the students are with the texts, the more guessable the words' meanings and thus text understanding would be.

Reading comprehension is also affected by the readers' purpose of reading. Background knowledge, for instance, might be activated and used properly when a student wants to learn new information through strategies such as reading slowly and thinking about how information fits with prior information in the text but not when a person, for example, reads newspaper headlines and skims stories, in which background knowledge might not be needed and used (Grabe, 2009). Comprehension occurs when readers can successfully extract embedded information from the text and combine them with their own existing information and experience (Koda, 2005).

Alptekin (2006) recommended word change, i.e., replacing some unknown words of an original text with those familiar to students, which he believed would lead to better understanding. Unlike this study, he did not use two texts of the same level of difficulty. Instead, he used two versions of the same text with the second version having the names of characters, places, etc. changed for cultural nativization. His findings revealed significant difference in favor of cultural schema. Likewise, Erten and Razi (2009) found that students reading the tampered version of a text outperformed (M=79.18; effect size d=.81) their classmates reading the original version of the same text (M=64.55; effect size d=.15). "In the culturally familiar version, where the text was nativized, the students seemed to find it easier to allocate attentional resources to more linguistic elements and construct mental representations of the familiar context" (Erten & Razi, 2009, p. 70).

C. In Support of Language Proficiency

Contrary to the view that background knowledge facilitates reading comprehension more than language proficiency, there have been scholars who have attributed more effect to language proficiency or even denied the effect of background knowledge. Hammadou (1991), for example, found that American students' comprehension performance in Italian and French courses was far better in unfamiliar texts than in familiar ones. Hudson (1988) and Carrell (1983), likewise, are of the idea that background knowledge does not help EFL learners' reading comprehension performance of all levels and only students with very low language proficiency benefit from background knowledge.

Many researchers have also concluded that it is not just insufficient background knowledge that hinders reading comprehension, rather some learners possessing the background knowledge have been found to be unable to activate their background knowledge (e.g., Carrell, 1983; Ridgway, 1997; Roller, 1990). Background knowledge can only facilitate reading comprehension of students with certain levels of proficiency (Pulido, 2004). Pulido, accordingly added that cultural familiarity does not help low-proficiency students understanding of a text.

Looking at the issue from a different perspective, Chou (2011) concluded that topical familiarity and background knowledge are two distinguishable factors and they should not be interchangeably used since familiarity with a topic alone does not necessarily help reading comprehension as it is expected, rather it is terminological knowledge as part of background knowledge which is more influential.

Bernhardt (1991), whose finding is noted in many works such as Carrell and Grabe, (2010), was among the first and rare scholars who rejected the influence of background knowledge in L2 reading comprehension. "While finding that the effects of background knowledge were statistically significantly correlated with recall protocol scores on the topic (Pearson's r=0.27; P<.05), Bernhardt (1991) pointed to the weak nature of correlation. Moreover, "when the results were broken out by individual texts, which had been controlled for similarity in style and text readability, correlations ranged from 0.11 to 0.59, all weak to moderate correlations" (Carrell & Grabe, 2010, p. 225).

According to Koda (1994) findings in L1 reading comprehension cannot stand for L2 reading comprehension due to difference in linguistic proficiency of L1 and L2 readers, readers' prior experience of L2 reading, and because of L2 reading being a cross-linguistic phenomenon.

Low proficiency readers cannot understand texts with low cohesion to the extent they can understand texts with high cohesion but highly proficient readers experience little trouble understanding either texts (McNamara, 2001). When readers cannot associate themselves culturally with a text, they depend more on their vocabulary and linguistics knowledge (Nassaji, 2002).

Reading comprehension is also influenced by the text structure. Texts with complex structure are quite difficult to understand even if the words are familiar to students, therefore proficiency of students plays a crucial role in comprehending both familiar and unfamiliar complex texts (Meyer & Freedle, 1984). Inaccurate ideas and complex text structure hinder comprehending a scientific text (Kendeou & Broke, 2007). In their study Kendeou and Broke aimed at investigating the effects of interaction between text structure and prior knowledge on the comprehension of scientific texts. They compared Law students with students of other fields and concluded that Law students, because of dealing more with complex texts and familiarity with complex structures, were able to perform far better than other students.

We should take this fact into account that L2 knowledge, world knowledge, professional knowledge, and proficiency of learners vary greatly from each other, consequences of which would determine their failure or success in second language reading comprehension tasks (Carrell & Grabe, 2010). Also, for students to be successful in academic reading

courses, they need to be able to identify main ideas of the texts, make inferences, understand the difference between fact and opinion, summarize textual information, etc. (Celce-Murcia, et al., 2014). These skills need practice and therefore proficiency.

D. Vocabulary Knowledge

Vocabulary knowledge constitutes a major part of linguistic knowledge and language proficiency. The impact of vocabulary knowledge on text comprehension has long been the main focus of many empirical studies such as Nation (1990). Vocabulary knowledge is an essential part of background knowledge and it is vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners that determines their reading comprehension performance (Chou, 2011; Joshi & Aaron, 2000). Comprehension happens when vocabulary of a text is understood (Hancock, 1998).

Vocabulary knowledge has been recognized as one of the most important prerequisites in English reading comprehension of Taiwanese students (Ma & Lin, 2015). In many studies such as Qian (2002) and Martin-Chang and Gould (2008) vocabulary knowledge has been considered to be a counterpart to background knowledge helping students decode and understand passages. Garcia (1991) in agreement with Chou (2011) and Qian (2002) argued that insufficient vocabulary knowledge hinders comprehension of a text and also the questions that follow it. In a recent study on the impact of vocabulary knowledge on reading comprehension performance Ma and Lin (2015) came up with a significant contribution of 20%.

Many scholars dealing with reading comprehension difficulties have come to this point today that structural simplification of texts does not help reading comprehension to a great extent compared to lexical simplification that is evidenced to ease reading comprehension greatly (e.g., Erten & Razi, 2009; Horwitz, 1988). Expressive vocabulary has also been found to affect reading comprehension a great deal (Ricketts et al., 2007). Expressive vocabulary affected adult struggling readers' reading comprehension with a variance of 10.7% (Hall et al., 2014).

Laufer (1992) found a significant correlation of vocabulary size, .50 to .70, with comprehension of scientific texts. Likewise, Ma and Lin (2015) found that vocabulary size as a subcomponent of vocabulary knowledge had a correlation of $r=.44$ with reading comprehension. It is shown by Burgoyne et al., (2013) that limited vocabulary knowledge brings about difficulties in text comprehension. "The mastery of academic reading skills requires not only the integration of comprehension abilities but also the development of a very large vocabulary and a reasonably good command of grammar resources" (Shiotsu, 2010, as cited in Celce-Murcia et al., 2014, p. 189).

Vocabulary size's importance in understanding a text has never been denied. L1 students, naturally, know thousands of words orally before starting to read regardless of their syntactic knowledge, and have an implicit socio-cultural experience of the community they are living in while L2 readers are neither familiar with the language nor have the same socio-cultural background (Carrell & Grabe, 2010). Therefore, it is a must that L2 students develop sufficient vocabulary knowledge for effective reading.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were all Muslim Iranian EFL learners in one English language institute in Ardabil city in the northwest of Iran. Obviously, all of them had firsthand experience of celebrating Eid al-Fitr as Muslims living in an Islamic state. According to an informal survey conducted, less than 8 percent of the participants had ever heard of Easter Day holiday. All of the participants had at least one and a half year of English language learning experience. Therefore, they were familiar with placement and reading comprehension tests. All of the students were teenagers between 13 and 18 years old. The proportions of male and female students were almost the same with twenty two students in one class and twenty one in the other. The participants' first language was either Azeri or Persian.

The participants in the classes were given a proficiency test and were divided into two groups of low-proficiency and high-proficiency based on their performance on this test. The cut-point was selected so that the students could be divided into two almost equal groups in each class. The results of the proficiency test were taken to be generalizable to students' reading comprehension ability because in addition to the reading section of the test, grammar and vocabulary, too, are considered to contribute to students' reading comprehension. Dividing students into two groups of high and low reading proficiency was done in order to investigate whether students with low reading proficiency could comprehend a familiar text to the same extent that students with high reading proficiency could. Dividing was also intended to see if language proficiency of highly proficient students could compensate for their limited topic knowledge compared to students with low language proficiency but topic familiarity.

B. Materials

At the beginning of the study an Oxford Placement Test, OPT, was administered to determine language proficiency of the participants. The obtained results could be used to divide the participants into two groups of high- and low-proficiency. Later on, two reading comprehension tests, one about Eid al-Fitr and the other about Easter Day, were given to the participants.

The first passage ("Eid al-Fitr," n.d.) and the second passage ("Easter Day," n.d.) both were retrieved from a website offering different levels of English texts for learners along with a number of questions following them to check the

users' reading comprehension. After being retrieved, the difficulty of each passage was measured using two scales, Flesch Reading Ease and Gunning Fog Test. In both of these scales a larger number points to an easier text. Also, a few more questions were added to the end of the texts to measure the participants understanding more accurately. The number of questions following each text, as a result, aggregated to 10 each having the value of one point.

Although the second passage, Easter Day, with 230 words, with Flesch Reading Ease of 44 %, and Gunning Fog Index of 14.10 was a bit more difficult than the first passage Eid al-Fitr, with 189 words, Flesch Reading Ease of 54 %, and Gunning Fog Index of 14.95, both of them were almost at the same range of difficulty.

The first passage, Eid al-Fitr (Appendix A) was chosen because all of the participants were Muslim Iranian EFL learners and had firsthand experience of celebrating this event. The second passage, Easter Day (Appendix B), was chosen since an absolute majority of the students had never heard of this Christian ritual. Also, it became evident in closer examination that, a few of the students who stated that they had heard of the event knew actually nothing about it. A reliability analysis of each text was also carried out. The reliability of the first text (Eid al-Fitr), using K-R 21 reliability formula, turned out to be .71, while the reliability of the second text (Easter Day) was .68. Both of these reliability estimates are at the acceptable level. The calculations are given below.

$$\text{Eid al-Fitr} = \frac{K}{K-11}\left(1 - \frac{M(K-M)}{K(S*S)} = \frac{10}{9}\left(1 - \frac{22.11}{62.5}\right) = .71.$$

$$\text{Easter Day Reliability} = \frac{K}{K-11}\left(1 - \frac{M(K-M)}{K(S*S)}\right) = \frac{10}{9}\left(1 - \frac{24.4}{63}\right) = .68$$

C. Procedures

The data collection was conducted in two branches of an English language institute in Ardabil city in the northwest of Iran. All of the participants were teenagers at the age range of 13 to 18 divided to two groups of high and low proficiency in each class. The students were given a pretest with two texts, Eid al-Fitr and Easter Day, with15 minutes for each of them, that is, 30 minutes in total, to read the and answer the questions that followed them. To counterbalance the reading of texts, students in one of the classes started the test by reading the familiar text and students in the other class started it by reading the unfamiliar one. This was done to minimize the possible advantage of taking one test before the other. The teacher had explained the test procedure fully before its administration, therefore, the students were not allowed to ask for further clarifications.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

As it was said in the previous section, a proficiency test was given to the students as the first step in the study. The reliability of this test was estimated using Cronbach Alpha Test. The result of this test is given in Table 4.1 below. Pallant (2013) states that reliability measures above .70 are acceptable.

TABLE 4.1.
RELIABILITY OF THE PROFICIENCY TEST

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.861	60

The reliabilities of the pretests were discussed in the previous section. As it was said, to estimate the reliabilities of the pretests, the K-R 21 test was used. In calculating the values of K-R 21, we use the mean and standard deviation of the distribution of students' overall scores and it is more appropriate when there are a variety of question types. Chronbach, however, works with correlations between the items and therefore it is important that the items be of the same type.

In this study there were two categorical independent variables each with two levels and one dependent continuous or scale variable. Therefore, the appropriate statistical test for examining the research hypothesis was a Two-way between-groups ANOVA. According to Pallant (2013) this technique allows researchers to look at individual and joint effects of the two independent variables on the dependent variable. The advantage of using a Two-way between-groups ANOVA over running two Independent-samples T-tests is that, in addition to testing the main effects of the independent variables, researchers can also explore the interaction effect, if there is any, and also avoid the family-wise or type one error. Table 4.2 provides us with a description of the variables and their levels and the number of students who took the reading test. Please note that each student read two passages, one about Eid Al-Fitr and the other about Easter Day. This is the reason why the numbers in Table 2 are twice as big as the actual number of students.

TABLE 4.2.
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES AND THEIR DESCRIPTIONS

Between-Subjects Factors

		Value Label	N
proficiency level	1.00	high proficiency reader	44
	2.00	low-proficiency reader	42
topic	1.00	familiar	44
	2.00	unfamiliar	42

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances (Table 4.3) shows a *P* value that is larger than .05 at 95% of probability level. This means that the variances of our dependent variable across the groups have been almost the same and therefore the homogeneity assumption had been met.

TABLE 4.2.
TEST OF HOMOGENEITY

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]
Dependent Variable: scores on reading

F	df1	df2	Sig.
2.311	3	82	.082

One of the most important tables among the outputs of a Two-way ANOVA is the table of Tests of Between-Subjects Effects. This table provides us with two pieces of very important information; first, whether there has been an interaction effect between the two independent variables or not. Second, what the main effect of each independent variable has been. Interpretation of the main effects becomes difficult if we find an interaction effect. This is because, according to Pallant (2013), "in order to describe the influence of one of the independent variables, you need to specify the level of the other independent variable" (p. 279). Fortunately, the value calculated for the interaction effect in this study was not significant, as can be seen in the fifth row of Table 4.3. This frees us from interpreting main effects with caution. The *Sig* values for the main effects but are significant for both independent variables at *P*=001<.05 level. This means that both proficiency level and topic familiarity have been influential in students' reading comprehension performance. However, the partial eta squared values show that the effect of proficiency has been much stronger than the effect of topic familiarity.

TABLE 4.3.
MAIN AND INTERACTION EFFECTS OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects
Dependent Variable: scores on reading

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square F		Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	396.313[a]	3	132.104	41.176	.000	.601
Intercept	2528.958	1	2528.958	788.250	.000	.906
Proficiency level	265.517	1	265.517	82.759	.000	.502
Topic	130.378	1	130.378	40.637	.000	.331
Proficiency level * topic	.145	1	.145	.045	.832	.001
Error	263.082	82	3.208			
Total	3228.000	86				
Corrected Total	659.395	85				

a. R Squared = .601 (Adjusted R Squared = .586)

Since there are only two independent variables each with two levels, multiple comparisons of variables are not needed. Figure 4.1 below shows the non-existence of interaction between the independent variables schematically. That the lines representing the independent variables do not cross each other means that there has been no interaction. Also, both with familiar and unfamiliar topics students with high proficiency in each class have outperformed students with low proficiency.
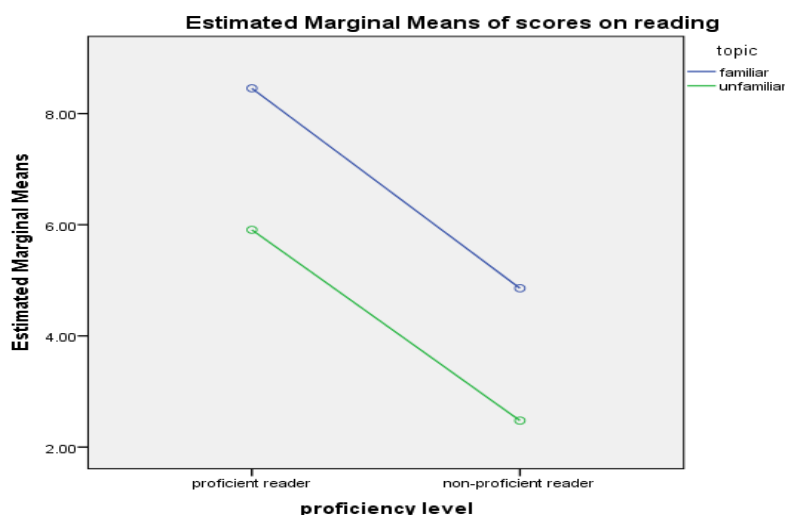
Figure 4.1. Proficient and non-proficient students' scores in terms of familiar and unfamiliar topics in both classes

We found no interaction effect between our independent variables but significant main effects for both of them. However, we found larger effect size (Partial Eta Squared) for proficiency in comparison to topic familiarity in our Tests of Between-Subjects Effects and can see the same thing visually in Figure 4.1. All these findings bring us to the conclusion that we should accept our null hypothesis that topic familiarity cannot override high levels of reading proficiency.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Our findings give support to the idea that as students get more proficient in their second language, their reliance on background knowledge diminishes although, with regard to many studies supporting the effect of background knowledge, it does not seem logical to say that this reliance becomes unnecessary altogether. Therefore, the findings of this study are in line with the findings of studies that have found substantial effects for the components of reading comprehension performance or language proficiency as a whole.

With respect to language proficiency the findings of this study support Hudson (1988), Carrell (1983) and Hammadou (1991), who argue that background knowledge does not help EFL learners' reading comprehension performance too much at higher levels. This means that at higher levels of proficiency background knowledge cannot override linguistic proficiency. From the perspective of these researchers, the effect of background knowledge is more prominent at earlier stages of learning a second language and not as much significant at later stages. This finding is confirmed by Meyer and Freedle (1984) as well. These researchers believe that proficiency plays an important role in understanding both familiar and unfamiliar complex texts. On the flip side, McNamara (2001) states that language proficiency can even compensate for the lack of cohesion in the text implying that proficiency is more important than other elements. The findings of this study, however, cannot confirm Pulido's (2004) claim that cultural familiarity does not help low proficiency students' understanding of a text. Instead, the study has found a significant effect for topic familiarity which would be helpful to readers at all levels.

Vocabulary knowledge is considered to be the main component of reading comprehension ability (Chou, 2011; Hancock, 1998: Joshi & Aaron, 2000; Ma & Lin, 2015). This point is echoed by Laufer (1992) and Celce-Murcia et al., 2014 as well. The idea is that, comprehension happens when vocabulary of a text is understood. Insufficient vocabulary knowledge is believed to hinder comprehension of both the text and the questions that follow it (Chou, 2011; Garcia, 1991; Ma and Lin, 2015; Martin-Chang & Gould, 2008; Qian, 2002). The statements of all these researchers are in one way or the other in line with the findings of this study because as it was said, vocabulary is an essential component of reading comprehension ability.

APPENDIX A. EID AL FITR

Eid al-Fitr is a Muslim holiday that marks the end of Ramadan, the Islamic holy month of fasting. *Eid* is an Arabic word meaning "festivity", while *Fiṭr* means "to break fast"; and so the holiday symbolizes the breaking of the fasting period. It is celebrated after the end of the Islamic month of Ramadan, on the first day of Shawwal.

Eid al-Fitr is sometimes also known as the "Smaller Eid" as compared to the Eid al Gorban that lasts three days following the **Hajj** (the pilgrimage to Mecca) and is casually referred to as the "Greater Eid"

At the end of Ramadan every Muslim is required to pay **Zakat al-Fitr** (a special fast breaking alms) as a token of thankfulness to God for having enabled him or her to observe the obligatory fast.

Typically, on the day of the ***al eid*** Muslims generally greet each other and have a small breakfast before attending a special ***Eid prayer*** that is performed in congregation at mosques or open areas like fields, squares etc. Muslims are encouraged to dress in their best clothes (new if possible) for the occasion.

Answer the following questions.
1. When is Eid al Fitr celebrated?
2. What else is Eid al Fitr called?
3. Do Muslims fast on the day of Eid al Fitr?
4. Is Eid al Fitr more important than Eid al Gorban?
5. Why do Muslims pay Zakat al-Fitr?
6. What kind of clothes are Muslims encouraged to put on for Eid prayer?
7. Is Eid al Fitr prayer performed individually?
8. Which month comes after Ramadan?
9. Break fast in line 2 means:
    a. sleep
    b. pray
    c. have food or drink
    d. thank someone
10. *Lasts* in line 5 means:
    a. starts
    b. continues
    c. ends
    d. is celebrated

APPENDIX B. EASTER DAY

Easter Day is the central religious feast in the Christian world. According to Christian scripture, Jesus rose from the death on the third day after his crucifixion. Some Christians celebrate this resurrection on Easter Day or Easter Sunday (also Resurrection Day or Resurrection Sunday). Easter is a moveable feast, meaning it is not fixed in relation to the civil calendar.

According to the traditions, Easter Sunday is celebrated by taking part in an Easter vigil, lighting a new fire outside the church early on Sunday morning. Another custom involves lighting the Paschal candle and decorating it with studs to celebrate Christ's wounds. Chanting of the Easter proclamation, reading the Old Testament, singing hymns and wishing happy Easter Day are other characteristics of the celebration.

Relatively newer elements such as the Easter Bunny and Easter egg hunts have become part of the holiday's modern celebrations, and those aspects are often celebrated by many Christians and non-Christians alike. The Easter Bunny, which is a counterpart to the Santa Claus of Christmas, brings gifts, a basket of colored eggs, to children on the night before the celebration. Easter eggs used to be painted chicken eggs, but a modern custom is to substitute chocolate eggs, or plastic eggs filled with confectionery such as jelly beans. These eggs are often hidden, allegedly by the Easter Bunny, for children to find on Easter morning.

Answer the following questions.
1. Is Easter Day celebrated on the same day each year?
2. Where does Easter story come from?
3. Where do Christians light fire during Easter vigil?
4. Were Easter Eggs in the past made of chocolate?
5. Have Easter Day traditions remained the same by the passage of time?
6. What aspects of Easter Day are often celebrated by Christians and non-Christians alike?
7. Are the New Easter Eggs painted chicken eggs?
8. What is Easter Bunny on Easter Day like compared to Christmas?
9. Resurrection in line 3 means:
    a. festival
    b. reappearance
    c. event
    d. accident
10. *Wounds* in line 7 means:
    a. clothes
    b. buyers
    c. traditions
    d. injuries

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The Implementation of Natural Semantic Metalanuage and Semantic Field in Language Teaching: A Case Study

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Abstract—This study aimed at developing a model of learning Balinese vocabularies by implementing Natural Semantic Meta-language (NSM) and semantics field theory. This finding was expected to establish a natural atmosphere of Balinese learning based on semantics primes. Semantics primes development on the basis of semantic field can overcome abstractness meaning of certain words. To prove the truth of the theory construction, the researcher modified a research and development which refers to Borg and Gell models. Data were collected before and after the development of model with certain indicators: the rapid in understanding words meaning, skill in using the word in natural sentence structure, and students' learning creativity. Significance was measured by using t-test formula for correlated samples. Based on statistical analysis, it was proved that the implementation of NSM and semantic field theory was very effective (significant) in learning Balinese vocabularies on students grade 1, 2, and 3. Effectiveness of learning was achieved because the materials adhering to the natural principle of language acquisition and the availability of direct meaning comparison between words were intuitively related. Direct comparison could overcome the cognitive limitations of students grade 1, 2, and 3 in primary school.

Index Terms—natural semantic metalanguage, semantics primes, semanitc field, input hypothesis

I. INTRODUCTION

There are more than 800 languages in Indonesia one of which is Balinese language. The existence of Balinese language is very apprehensive. The apprehension to the Balinese language has been proposed by researchers and language observers who predicted that the language is nearly dead. The anxiety is based on the number of the language speaker is getting decreased. Indonesian statistics agency reports that declaim in number of Balinese speaker have been 1% every year (Alwi and Sugondo, 2003). Another fact also revealed that 71% of Balinese speaker are old people and only 29% are children (Wiguna, at al, 2015). The number gives a very clear signal that a language death has happened. This phenomenon could be a fact if there is no revitalization effort.

A lot of revitalization effort has been done by government of Bali Province. Some of Balinese language revitalization concrete efforts, are: (1) recruiting contract counselors of Balinese language who are assigned at *desa pakraman* 'tradition village', (2) promoting Balinese lesson as a compulsory local content at all levels and kinds of school, and (3) giving authority to regent and mayor to appoint professional Balinese teachers. Those revitalization effort was affixed in Regulation of Bali Province Territory Number 3 year 1992 and Regulation of Bali Governor Number 20 year 2013. The effort has not been successful to overcome declaim in number of Balinese active speakers which is predicted only one million people from four million of population of Bali island, as launched via Bali Post local media, dated 15 March 2008 by The Head of Culture Department of Bali Province (Sumatika, 2008).

The data above clearly indicates crucial point that Balinese language construction was laid on children speakers which the number is getting declined. Therefore, Balinese language construction orientation needs to be focused for Elementary students, especially the first three grade. Nevertheless informal education track, Balinese language construction does not seem to show good result yet. From a short interview that undertaken classically to 114 elementary students, 83% of the respondent stated that Balinese language is such a difficult lesson and is not interesting. This fact encourages the developmental effort on Balinese language learning materials to be more accomodative and relevant to students needs.

The needs on a more accomodative Balinese language learning materials is felt to be very urgent in paradox empirical condition. The paradox condition is triggered by the unsuitable learning materials with linguistic competence, language needs, and the students' environment. Justification of unsuitable learning materials is pursuant to Arnawa's study (2005) result that children at 4-6 years old are not relatively ready to learn *Bahasa Bali Alus* 'respect style of Balinese'. However, the subject has been a compulsory material as implied in text book of *Kusumasari 1* for the first grade students of Elementary school between 6-7 years old average. This material choice is not suitable with *input hypothesis* which clarifies that language learning will be effective if study material is higher one level than leaner's competence at that time that is going on naturally (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). Another language fact contributing to study material imbalance is the materials choice commonly used by Balinese speakers. Balinese vocabulary learning

materials are dominated with archaic words, such as: *bebedag* 'small horse', *wiwi* 'small goat', *apa* 'small monkey', *tai* '*kitten*', etc. The vocabulary teaching will be stopped in the students' cognitive level because it is not applicated in Balinese language usage naturally considering the main purpose of Balinese language teaching is to improve chidren' skill in speaking Balinese language (Disdikpora Provinsi Bali, 2006). Sosiologically and culturally, Balinese language skill improvement has strategic value. Sociologically, Balinese language is an ethnic identity that also builds Indonesian diversity. Culturally, Balinese language has its literature and letters. The sosiological and cultural value encourage more specific concrate effort so that Balinese learning effectivity in elementary level can be realized. One of the convincing efforts is improving the effectivity of Balinese vocabulary learning by implementing natural semantic metalinguistic theory (NSM) and semantic field.

II. THEORETICAL CONSTRUCTION

Natural semantic metalanguage theory (NSM) clarifies that there is a meaning set on every unchange language. The meaning set is first mastered by a child at the time when language acquisition occurs. The meaning set is called as semantics primes (Goddard, 1996). Semantics primes is presented with a set of word. Semantics primes can be clarified into semantic prototype, such as: *substantives, determines, quantifiers, evaluators, descriptors, mental predicates, speech, action-events-movement, existance and possession, life and death, times, space, logical concepts, intensifier, augmentor, taxonomi-partonomy, and similarity* (Wierzbicka, 1996). Every semantic prototype encompasses semantics primes element in different number. The total number of the semantics primes element is about 60. By the 60 semantics primes, the children Balinese vocabulary which is connecting intuitively can be developed.

This NSM concept is in accordance with semantic achievement hypothesis. In this hypothesis, it is clarified that children semantic development and general cognitive development is connected by semantics primes that is representing category or principal to classify thing or situation (Chaer, 2003). For development need of Balinese vocabulary study material model, the words that represent the semantics primes, such as *dingeh* 'hear', *neneng* 'see', *kisid* 'move', *gede* 'big', *besik* '*one*', *rasa* '*feel*' and others can be used as reference for the children vocabulary development. Then, every word presenting the semantics primes is derived to produce another vocabulary which meaning is still intuitively related to the semantics primes. For example, the word *nengneng* 'see' can be derived into the word *balih* 'watch, *iwasin* 'observe', *sledet* 'glance', *delok* 'view', *intip* 'peep at', *tolih* 'look toward by turning the head', *delik* 'look at with big eyes', *dengeng*'stared wide-eyed, and some others. Derivative meaning explication is standing on semantics primes. Such as the word *balih* means <u>*nengneng igel-igelan*</u> 'watching artshow', *tolih* means *nengneng ke samping* 'stare at to left or right', *intip* means 'seeing while hiding' , and so on. Another concept from NSM theory which has practicable value in Balinese vocabulary teaching is allolexy. Allolexy is identical with synonym, that is different word but it is used to present the same semantics primes. Different word choice is caused by distribution factor (Wierzbicka, 1996). Distribution variation example of the use semantics primes, *nengneng* and *cingak*, which both have meaning 'see' is found in the following sentence:

(1) Melahang <u>*nganengneng*</u> *apang enggal dueg!*
　　Good-suf pre- look 　　so that quick understand.
　　'Look carefully so that you can understand quickly'

(2) Becikang 　<u>*nyingak*</u>　 *mangda gelis wikan!*
　　Good –suf pre-look　so that　quick smart.
　　'Look carefully so that you can understand quickly'

The verb *nyingak* in sentence (2) is an alolexy of the verb *nganengneng* in sentence (1). The use of the verb *nyingakin* in sentence (2) is caused by its distribution with another word which is *kruna alus* 'respectful variation word'. Distribution variety of the use Balinese semantics primes is hoped to be able to enrich children vocabulary contextually. Semantics primes application from this NSM theory can be used as pedal of children Balinese vocabulary development more purposively and functionally.

NSM theory application in vocabulary learning is integrated with semantic field theory. Both relations are linear and complete one another because they stand on the same philosophy basis, i.e. word meaning derivation is centered at semantic core. Meaning field concept is visualized as lexical circle which is built by semantic association net and inter word relation contact. The inter word relation is formed naturally in cognitive map because vocabulary of a language is arranged in mosaic of meaning field (Parera, 1990:67-70). The relation inter word can be patterned into two, that is nature reality picture and culture. Nature reality is naturalistic fact that is not the result of learning. The word *pasih* 'sea' and *danu* 'lake' are two Balinese words which presents nature reality, while culture meaning field is a learning result reality that is presented through word, like the word *ketipat* 'rice cake boiled' and *capil* '*hat*'.

Nature and culture reality is realized through a set of word through collocation and set. Collocation refers to semantic and domain bound existence while set refers to paradigmatic relation. Paradigmatic relation is characterized by the existence of inter word substitution potential (Harimurti, 1993).

NSM theory and semantic field is implemented in Balinese vocabulary learning through the forming of semantic field circle by placing semantics primes derivation elements as development center. The use of semantics primes element as center of semantic field is based on basic assumption that the meaning element is first mastered by a kid at language acquisition (Wierzbicka, 1996; Goddard, 1997). The combination of both theories is operationally done by

determining a semantics primes as the semantic center which is further is developed by collocation principal and set, which is part of semantic field theory. For example, a teacher determines semantics primes *aba* 'bring' as semantic center that furthermore together with children is developed based on semantic field principal. Semantic derivation of semantics primes *aba* 'bring' produce some words which the meaning is center on *aba*, for example: *suwun* has alolexy with *sunggi* 'bringing something on head', *sangkol* 'bringing something by lapping in front of the body, *sangkil* 'bringing something by lapping on the left or right side of the body', *gandong* 'bringing somebody on the back', *tikul* 'bringing something on the back of shoulder,' *gandeng* 'bringing something on the back by bike or motorbike', *tegen* 'bringing something on the shoulder', *singal* 'bringing a baby on the waist,' *gosong* 'bringing something by lifting equal with stomach' (Warna, and friends 1978). The next step, the students together with the teacher make natural sentence by using the semantics primes derivation vocabulary *aba* 'bring' suitable as Balinese morphosyntaxis norm, such as the following example.

(3). I   Meme   nyuun   sok.
    Art mother pre-carries basket
    'Mother carries basket on the head'

(4). I   Putu   negen   tambah.
    Art Name pre-carries hoe
    'I Putu carries hoe on the shoulde'.

By such procedure, Balinese vocabulary development involves kid cognitive process through semantic classification analogy. The essence of classification is a summary and a simplification (Sumarsono, 2004). The application of NSM theory and semantic field is suitable as vocabulary teaching approach, that is lead the students to classify new words and make sharper difference about vocabulary they have known (Tarigan, 1986). The application of NSM and semantic field in Balinese vocabulary learning like this is suitable as language learning basic principal.

Empiric condition above encourages the effort of arranging Balinese vocabulary development program for Elementary Students grade 1,2, and 3, that up to now have never been done. This research is designed to get the aim. Explicitly this research intends to develop learning model of Balinese vocabulary. The developed teaching model of Balinese vocabulary is hoped as vocabulary teaching prototype of others local language in Indonesia.

III. METHOD

This research is designed with research and development design in education field. The result hoped from this research is a development model of Balinese vocabulary learning material suitable with learning needs for Elementary School students, grade 1, 2, and 3. To get the result, this study implementation refers to Borg and Gall (1983) development research model modified to be four steps, they are: (1) planning, (2) model development, (3) model try out, and (4) model revision. The planning stage includes problem analysis. Problem analysis was done through students' perception quarrying about Balinese teaching and learning achieving. Perception quarrying was done with short interview (classical) to Elementary Student grade 1, 2, and 3. Recognizing learning achievement was done with vocabulary test.

Data found in the planning stage became basis for designing product of Balinese vocabulary learning materials. Learning material was designed by using semantic primes as the center of semantics which is developed in meaning field circle. Prior to the try out, the design was validated by an expert judge of Balinese language. The design is tried out in a limitedly at Elementary School 6 Dalung, Kuta Utara, Badung, Bali, Indonesia. The locus was chosen as the characteristic of the students was very heterogeneous. The limited try out result was used as the base for revision of the model. This level 2 revision result was also validated by an expert before being tried out more widely. Research was done in the form of brainstorming. Input obtained in brainstorming became pedal to revise the model before being determined as a model product of Balinese vocabulary teaching for Elementary Student grade 1, 2, and 3.

Model effectiveness was measured by comparing learning result on both pre test and post test. The effectiveness indicator was (1) students' speed in comprehending word meaning, (2) students' skill in using vocabulary in natural sentence structure, and (3) students' learning creativity. Every indicator has score ranged from 1 to 4. Score 1 means very ineffective, while score 4 means very effective. Testing was done by some steps: (a) determining the number of respondent (60 students); (b) counting maximum score (4 x 3 x 60 = 720); (c) counting maximum score for each instrument item (4 x 60 = 240); and (d) checking significance by using t-test formula. If the *post test* score higher than *pre test*, then the developed model is declared effective (Sugiono, 2012).

IV. RESEARCH RESULT

A. Balinese Vocabulary Teaching Prior to Model Development

Prior to model development, vocabulary teaching refers to the book Kusumasari as the compulsory reference. This book consists of 6 volumes which is suitable as the level number in Elementary School. The Book *Kusumasari* 1, 2, and 3 are used for Balinese lesson grade 1, 2, and 3 of the Elementary School. In *Kusumasari* book 1, vocabulary material choice is focused on (1) part of human body, such as *bok* 'hair', *mata* 'eye', *alis* 'eyebrow', *cunguh* 'nose' (common variety of Balinese vocabulary) and *prabu/duur* 'head', *karna* 'ear', *kanta* 'neck' (respective variety of Balinese

vocabulary); (2) daily food group, such as: *be* 'fish/meat', *jukut* 'vegetable', *sambel* 'sauce'; (3) household equipment, such as: *dampar* 'bench', *kekeb* 'clay steamer lid', *dangdang* 'large metal vessel for steaming rice', *kuskusan* 'bamboo plaited for steaming', and *siut* ' wooden hoarsing tool'; (4) clothes classification, such as *udeng* 'head gear', *saput* 'waist clothes', *slempod* 'shawl', *baju* 'shirt', and *topi* 'hat'. In Book Kusumasari 1, Balinese vocabulary is thought by referential approach, where the students are introduced by word reference that is thought. Reference introduction is done directly or using picture media. Teaching vocabulary about parts of human body is thought by point toward parts of their own body. In this book, learning material arrangement of Balinese vocabulary was generally done partially, i.e. vocabulary is thought autonomously as a morpheme unity and the use is only a few trained in a natural sentence

Semantic relation *tungkalikan* 'antonym' such as: *anteng* 'diligent' its antonym is *mayus* 'lazy', *cenik* 'small' its antonym is *gede* 'big' is the first vocabulary material which is loaded in book Kusumasari 2. The second material is *kruna alus* 'respect variety word' on Balinese costume domain, such as *destar, kuaca* 'shirt', *umpal* 'shawl', *kampuh* 'waist clothes', *wastra* 'cloth'. The third material is about agriculture equipment, such as: *lampit* 'harrow', *tenggala* 'plow', *singkal* 'part of plow that pierce wedge', *kejen* 'plow eye', *uga* 'the tool that hook the cows/bulls when plowing, *srampang* 'hoe', etcetera. The fourth material is synonym, for example *rurubin* its synonym is *tekepin* 'is covered', *pedih* its synonym is *gedeg* 'marah'. The use of some vocabularies has been thought in sentence, but its lexicon meaning is not explained yet. As the result the students' memorize word and sentence without understand its meaning and using.

In book *Kusumasari* 3, Balinese vocabulary study material is begun by synonym, such as *patut,* its synonym is *beneh* 'benar', *uug*, its synonym is *benyah* 'broken', *ngranang,* its synonym is *makada* 'cause', and so on. Furthermore it is followed by *anggah ungguhing basa* 'speech levels' in Balinese, such as *negak* (common) its polite word is *mlinggih* 'sit down', *ngigel (*common) its polite word is *masolah* 'menari', *mulih* (common), its polite word is *budal* 'come home', etcetera. Balinese speech level seems more dominate the study material choice in book Kusumasari 3.

Based on document registration toward book Kusumasari 1, 2, and 3 found data: (1) vocabulary choice is done randomly without estimating the center and semantic field; (2) vocabulary choice is not suitable with students communication needs because vocabulary material is chosen based on prescription of adult speaker (teacher), (3) vocabulary meaning that is thought is not explained yet based on nature language semantic feature. All of those facts seem contribute toward the low result and Balinese learning motivation of the students. Based on testing result on study material model predevelopment that study material development effectiveness so far is used 0,315 or 31,5% with learning indicator achievement level such as the following: (1) the word meaning understanding speed level of students grade 1, 2, and 3 is 0,36 or 36%; (2) the using skill of vocabulary in nature sentence structure is 0,288 or 28,8%; and (3) student learning creativity is 0,296 or 29,6%. This empirical condition would like to be improved through this research.

B. Development of NSM and Semantic Field-based Balinese Language Vocabulary Learning Model

The average age of Elementary Student grade 1, 2, and 3 are 6- 8 years old. Seeing from the cognitive development, the children in those ages are at the end of preoperational phase and enter the beginning of concrete operational phase (Sund, 1976 and Chaer, 2003). In this period, the child linguistic competence development is featured by : (1) the ability of presenting object and event, (2) the ability of developing cognitive structure, (3) the ability of developing sentence structure, and (4) the ability of implementing grammatical rule (Owens, 1992). To support the linguistic competence, the children need appropriate vocabulary so that they able to express the action and object that arranged into a simple sentence. The action and object is happened and exist around the children. The action that dominates the children life in age 6-8 years is playing and socializing with their friends in the same age. The need object is nature things to fulfill socializing needs.

Based on language needs analysis of Elementary Students grade 1, 2, and 3, Balinese vocabulary teaching model that is based on *natural semantic meta-language theory (*NSM*)*. In this NSM theory, semantic centering is found in certain lexicons that presenting primitive meaning or *semantics primes* (Wierzbicka, 1996b and Goddard, 1997). Orienting to grade 1, 2, and 3 and by standing on NSM theory, so that semantics core list is formulated that is becoming integral part of Balinese teaching, such as: *awak* 'body', *anu* 'something', *luung* 'good', *gede* 'big', *tawang* 'tahu', *mrasa* 'feel', *ngomong* 'say', *mlaksana* 'doing', *kadaden* 'happened', *kisid* 'move', *ngelah* 'have', *pidan* 'moment', *tongos* 'place'. Furthermore, every semantics core is developed by semantic field theory.

NSM theory implementation and semantic field will produce a very dynamic lexicon pattern. For example, when the semantics primes *awak* 'badan' is developed by semantic field, it will produce word list such as: *mata* 'eye', *kuping* 'ear', *cunguh* 'nose', *layah* 'tongue', *gigi* 'tooth', etcetera. If the word *mata* is described semantically, it will produce canonic sentence pattern (1) *Mata bagian awak ane anggo ninggalin* 'Eye is the part of the body to see' and (2) *Ninggalin nawang anu nganggo mata* 'Seeing is knowing omething by using eyes'. Therefore, it is illustrated clearly that there is semantic field between eye and knowledge. Vocabulary development program that is based on NSM theory and semantic field is parallel with basic principal of children cognitive development that is children knowledge expansion through outside world absorption by using five senses (Sujiono, at. al., 2006).

NSM theory implementation and semantic field in Balinese vocabulary teaching that is visualized with lexicon circle. The word that presents semantic primes become semantic center that will be developed by meaning close principal in semantic field, such as the following example.
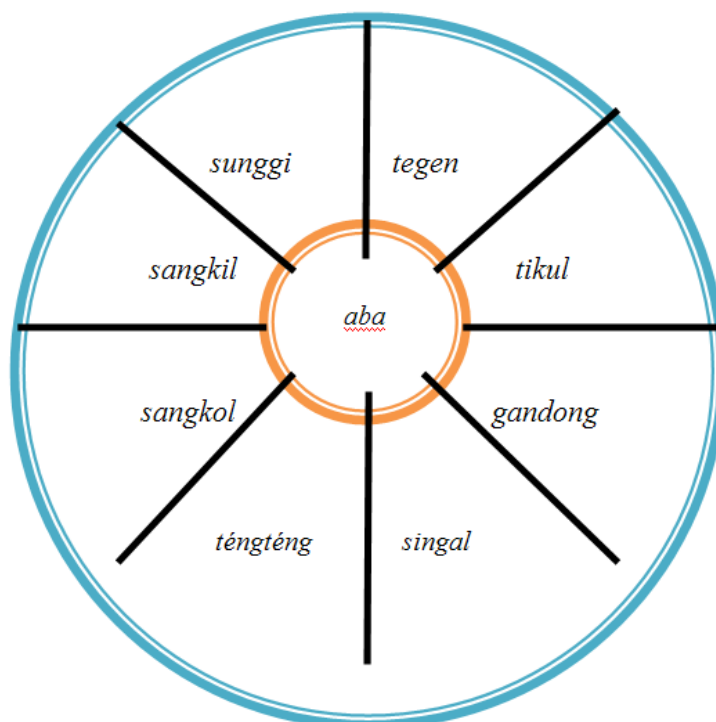
Figure 1. Dynamic Model of Balinese Vocabulary Development

The figure 1 above shows the word *aba* 'bring' located in the center of circle is a semantic prime element and the words around are its semantic derivation that is developed based on lexicon semantic field principal. The semantic field circle can explain the meaning of each word that surround semantics primes. For example, *sunggi, aba aji sirah* 'bringing on head'; *tegen, aba aji bau* 'bringing on shoulder'; *tikul, aba aji durin bau,* 'bringing on the back of shoulder'; *gandong, aba aji tundun* 'bringing on the back'; *singal, aba panak di bangkiang* 'bring a kid on waist'; *tengteng, aba aji lima beneng tuun* 'bringing by hand downward'; *sangkol, aba aji lima makadadua di malun awak* 'bringing by both hands in front of the body'; *sangkil, aba disamping aji lima aneh* 'bringing at the side with a hand'; etcetera. By vocabulary developing model like that, a student can compare the difference more detail and the similarity of vocabulary semantics that exist in one semantic field.

Furthermore, every vocabulary that have been learned was used in nature sentence, for example: *I Putu nengteng layangan* 'I Putu is holding a kite'; *I Made ngandong I Komang,* 'I Made carries I Komang on the back'; and so on.

Based on test result of Balinese vocabulary development which bases on NMS theory and semantic field it was drawn that the effectiveness of Balinese vocabulary learning materials development model of Elementary Students grade 1, 2, and 3 was 0,738 or 73,8% with achievement indicator as follows. (1) speed level of word meaning comprehension was 0,717 or 71,7%; (2) vocabulary using skill in nature sentence structure was 0,738 or 73,8%; and (3) students' learning creativity was 0,758 or 75,8%. Furthermore, significance of research result test was done by the following step.

(1) Test of Model Predevelopment Data Normality

TABLE 1.
TEST OF MODEL PREDEVELOPMENT DATA NORMALITY

No	Classification	Interval Class (IC)	f_o	f_e	$f_o - f_e$	$(f_o - f_e)^2$	$\dfrac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$
1	$\overline{X}_{-3SD} - \overline{X}_{-2SD}$	0,42 - 1,54	0	1,2	-1,2	1,44	1,20
2	$\overline{X}_{-2SD} - \overline{X}_{-1SD}$	1,54 - 2,66	7	8,4	-1,4	1,96	0,23
3	$\overline{X}_{-1SD} - \overline{X}$	2,66 - 3,78	28	20,4	7,6	57,76	2,83
4	$\overline{X} - \overline{X}_{+1SD}$	3,78 - 4,90	11	20,4	-9,4	88,36	4,33
5	$\overline{X}_{+1SD} - \overline{X}_{+2SD}$	4,90 - 6,03	12	8,4	3,6	12,96	1,54
6	$\overline{X}_{+2SD} - \overline{X}_{+3SD}$	6,03 - 7,15	2	1,2	0,8	0,64	0,53
Total			60	60			10,67

From the analysis result, it was obtained that gained χ^2_{stat} in the amount of 10,67 while χ^2 table part with df = 6-1 = 5 and significance standard 2,5% shows X2 in the amount of 12,833. Therefore $\chi^2_{stat} < \chi^2$ table (10,67<12,833), Zero

hypothesis (H_0) is received. It can be concluded that there is no difference between hope frequency and empiric frequency or data spread come from population with normal distribution.

(2) Testing of Data Spread Normality upon Model Development

TABLE 2.
TESTING OF DATA NORMALITY UPON MODEL DEVELOPMENT

No	Classification	Interval Class (IC)	f_o	f_e	$f_o - f_e$	$(f_o - f_e)^2$	$\dfrac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$
1	$\overline{X}_{-3SD} - \overline{X}_{-2SD}$	5,59 - 6,68	0	1,2	-1,2	1,44	1,20
2	$\overline{X}_{-2SD} - \overline{X}_{-1SD}$	6,68 - 7,76	8	8,4	-0,4	0,16	0,02
3	$\overline{X}_{-1SD} - \overline{X}$	7,76 - 8,85	12	20,4	-8,4	70,56	3,46
4	$\overline{X} - \overline{X}_{+1SD}$	8,85 - 9,94	24	20,4	3,6	12,96	0,64
5	$\overline{X}_{+1SD} - \overline{X}_{+2SD}$	9,94 - 11,02	15	8,4	6,6	43,56	5,19
6	$\overline{X}_{+2SD} - \overline{X}_{+3SD}$	11,02 - 12,11	1	1,2	-0,2	0,04	0,03
Total			60	60			10,53

From the analysis result is gained χ^2_{stat} in the amount of 10,53 while χ^2 table part of df = 6-1 = 5 and significance standard 2,5% shows χ^2 in the amount of 12,833. Therefore $\chi^2_{stat} < \chi^2$ table (10,53 < 12,833). Hence, zero hypothesis (H_0) is received so that it can be concluded that there is no difference between hope frequency and empiric frequency or data spread come from the population with normal distribution.

(3) Testing of research variant homogeneity, with the following formulation

$$F = \frac{\text{the biggest variant}}{\text{the smallest variant}}$$
$$= \frac{1,26}{1,18}$$
$$= 1,065$$

From the analysis result it was gained that F*max* = Fstat in the amount of 1,065 while Ftable on significance ½ α = 0,025 with df = 59,59 was 1,674. This means Fstat < F(0,025, 29,29) or 1,065 < 1,674. Hence H_0 is received, so that can be concluded that there is variant difference of each group or both group come from population that has homogeny variant.

(4) Testing of research significance

TABLE 3.
TABLE OF SIGNIFICANCE TESTING

No	X_1	X_2	d	$d - \bar{d}$	$(d - \bar{d})^2$
1.	5	8	3	-2,07	4,27
2.	4	8	4	-1,07	1,14
3.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
4.	4	9	5	-0,07	0,00
5.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
6.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
7.	3	10	7	1,93	3,74
8.	5	9	4	-1,07	1,14
9.	7	7	0	-5,07	25,67
10.	3	8	5	-0,07	0,00
11.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
12.	3	8	5	-0,07	0,00
13.	4	11	7	1,93	3,74
14.	3	8	5	-0,07	0,00
15.	5	9	4	-1,07	1,14
16.	7	10	3	-2,07	4,27
17.	3	10	7	1,93	3,74
18.	3	7	4	-1,07	1,14
19.	3	10	7	1,93	3,74
20.	3	12	9	3,93	15,47
21.	6	9	3	-2,07	4,27
22.	5	9	4	-1,07	1,14
23.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
24.	3	10	7	1,93	3,74
25.	4	10	6	0,93	0,87
26.	4	7	3	-2,07	4,27
27.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
28.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
29.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
30.	4	10	6	0,93	0,87
31.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
32.	5	8	3	-2,07	4,27
33.	3	10	7	1,93	3,74
34.	3	7	4	-1,07	1,14
35.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
36.	4	9	5	-0,07	0,00
37.	3	10	7	1,93	3,74
38.	3	10	7	1,93	3,74
39.	6	9	3	-2,07	4,27
40.	4	9	5	-0,07	0,00
41.	3	7	4	-1,07	1,14
42.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
43.	3	8	5	-0,07	0,00
44.	4	8	4	-1,07	1,14
45.	3	10	7	1,93	3,74
46.	5	9	4	-1,07	1,14
47.	4	10	6	0,93	0,87
48.	6	7	1	-4,07	16,54
49.	3	8	5	-0,07	0,00
50.	3	10	7	1,93	3,74
51.	5	10	5	-0,07	0,00
52.	3	8	5	-0,07	0,00
53.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
54.	5	7	2	-3,07	9,40
55.	3	7	4	-1,07	1,14
56.	6	9	3	-2,07	4,27
57.	4	9	5	-0,07	0,00
58.	3	8	5	-0,07	0,00
59.	3	8	5	-0,07	0,00
60.	3	9	6	0,93	0,87
Total	**77**	**180**	**5,07**	**-2,07**	**4,27**
n	**60**			**-1,07**	**1,14**

Based on table 3 above, t-test score is counted using the correlating sample with the following formula.

$$ t \;=\; \frac{\overline{X}d}{\sqrt{\dfrac{\Sigma \left(X_d - \overline{X}d\right)^2}{n(n-1)}}} $$

$$ t = \frac{5.07}{\sqrt{\dfrac{72.7}{60(60-1)}}} = 35{,}36 \qquad \text{Obtained:} \quad \begin{aligned} t_{table} &= 2{,}3 \\ t_{stat} &= 35{,}36 \end{aligned} $$

Based on the analysis result above, it was obtained that $t_{stat} > t_{table}$. Thus, it can be concluded that there was a significant difference between predevelopment and postdevelopment of NSM and Semantic Field-based Balinese langauge vocabulare learning materials development for grade 1, 2 and 3 Elementary school students.

C. Discussion

Quantitatively, this research result shows that there is a significance learning result difference between before and after the implementation of NSM theory and semantic field on vocabulary teaching. The reliable NSM theory for vocabulary learning is based on the universality of semantics primes. Semantic prime is the first semantic element that is mastered on its language acquisition period, so the teaching becomes more natural. Semantic prime is semantic core that can be developed by collocation principal and set that become part of semantic field theory. Development of semantic core with meaning field principal gives an ease to the Elementary Students grade 1, 2, and 3 who are not skilled to think implicitly. The ease is embodied as the presence of comparison of lexical semantic features which can be comprehended by students. The presence of comparison can directly reduce vagueness and abstraction of word meaning that has been becoming students' cognitive burden.

Apart from theoretical implication mentioned above, NSM theory implementation and semantic field also contributes pragmatically because vocabulary as learning materials was collected based on natural condition of Balinese language so that it has a high practicability value. Vocabulary taught is adjusted with linguistic need and cognitive development level of Elementary Students grade 1, 2, and 3, which exist at the end of preoperational phase and enter the beginning of concrete operational phase. Cognitive development in this phase needs 'real reconciliation' as the result of limitedness in abstracting a concept. The real reconciliation can be explicated by semantic comparison that is presented in a meaning field. Hence, a correct NSM and semantic field application in Balinese vocabulary learning on Elementary Student grade 1, 2, and 3 can omit the prescriptive vocabulary teaching.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on analysis result, it was proved that NSM theory and semantic field is very effective to implement on Balinese vocabulary learning for Elementary Students grade 1, 2, and 3. This conclusion was made because point t_{stat} (35, 36) was much larger than point of t-table (2,3). Another fact that supports this conclusion is the improvement of learning effectiveness. Before the implementation of NSM theory and semantic field, the effectiveness of Balinese vocabulary learning only reached 31,5% with speed level of word meaning understanding (36,0%), the use of skill in sentence was in the amount of 28,8%, and student learning creativity was 29,6%. Upon NSM theory and semantic field implementation, the effectiveness of Balinese vocabulary learning increase to 73,8% with some indicators, such as (1) speed of word meaning understanding (71,7%), (2) students' skill of using words in sentence raised to 73,8%, and (3) student learning creativity increased to 75,8%. Learning effectiveness increase occurred because material choice was consistent with nature language acquisition principal, as it has been lined by NSM theory and determined the needs and language competence of the students. Another factor that supported learning effectiveness increasing was the presence of inter word semantic comparison in a meaning field in semantics primes frame.

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Transplanting and Manipulating Context from a Corpus: A Pre-writing Strategy

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Abstract—The purpose of this research was to examine the impact of transferring and contriving the perspective and message from a collection of written or spoken text, in the context of teaching English writing as foreign d language. The entire research was conducted with a view to create a writing strategy for use in the popular EFL workbook, New Interchange 3. The research further developed into concept mapping the learners' ability at a pre-writing stage on English as a foreign language (EFL) to generate better argumentative essays. On the basis of the results achieved through analytical and experimental case study, the paper intended to design a course plan for the non-native learners of English in the TEFL Writing classes at the College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University. The paper further evaluated and examined the usefulness of the language tools of corpus, collocation and context as pre-writing strategies. It has been the desired objective of the researcher to observe, analyze, and establish the importance of corpus, collocation and context (C3) as viable pre-writing tools. A case study was conducted to ascertain and present the scientific practicability of the teaching of transferring and manipulating a context as a pre-writing strategy.

Index Terms—concept mapping, New Interchange 3, EFL, corpus, collocation, context, learning strategy

I. Introduction

Pre-writing strategies use writing to generate and clarify ideas. While many writers have traditionally created outlines before beginning writing, there are other possible prewriting activities. This research paper is based and developed on a course design the researcher made during the fall semester of 2016 for the TEFL class at the College of Languages and Translation. The researcher was instructed to create a strategy for use in the popular EFL workbook, New Interchange 3. In this paper, however, the same strategy is being used which have been abbreviated as C3. It is taken beyond what it was originally intended for. In designing the curriculum, this strategy had been tested, as a case study, on a non-native learner of English, and in the process, some hard facts were deduced from the results achieved thereafter about the ineffectiveness of the traditionally prevalent pushed-down curriculum, where language learners are expected to sit quietly while they listen to whole-class instruction or fill in their worksheets. The research also reinforced the viability, in today's demanding language learning atmosphere, of the developmentally appropriate practice where the course designer takes into account those aspects of teaching and learning that change with the age and experience of the learner. Many of the lessons the present researcher learned, though, were not only in what was taught, but how he conducted the study. At several key points, some errors were made in testing methods and it showed in the results. After some reflection, it was felt that the errors were a good learning experience for the researcher, as will be explained later. It was hoped that from the beginning of this venture the researcher would be able to see some kind of result, whether good or bad, from his work.

The name C3 stands for corpus, collocation, and context. This is a linear, step-by-step strategy that is believed to use skills that constantly relate back to a text's topic. The rationales will be detailed later in the paper for each step in C3, but basically this is a process of transplanting context from a text for use in pre-writing strategies. It is hoped that in this process, students will, at a minimum, be able to access schemata that would otherwise be left dormant in writing exercises. However, activities that clarify meaning, give stronger associations to previously known words, and allow for students to generate "new" semantic and syntactic structures hopefully will propel them to explore their writing potential.

In this paper, the researcher will test this process on a fairly advanced student named Terry, a 20-year old whose native language is Chinese. Terry was a registered student in the under-graduate Chinese language and translation course, studying English as a second language. He was asked to read four short stories in total and write summaries for each. For the first two summaries, he was not shown any pre-writing strategies, and was on his own to perform the task. He was then introduced to C3 and set on task to implement the pre-writing strategies for the last two summarizations.

II. Research Objective

From the onset, the researcher wanted to observe three things. First, he wanted to see if C3 increased the amount of writing performed by the participant in a summarizing task. It was the researcher's intention to see if accessing schemata using these steps actually provided more written work. Secondly, he wanted to see if it was possible that by

doing this study, it might inhibit the learner or be burdensome to them while writing. Although it is hard to document or validate these kinds of affective factors, any kind of distraction initiated by learning something new should be at least noted.

The researcher also wanted to observe any changes in grammar and discourse markers. If in fact Terry changed his writing style, even minimally after learning the strategy, then this could serve as fuel for further research. In short, it was the researcher's objective to analyze the quantity and quality differences in the pre-and post-strategy writing samples.

III. Literature Review

There have been various on researches on the role of vocabulary in transferring the context from a text. Recent research has revealed that learners need context to apply vocabulary and even more so to store words. If lexical grouping exercises are used out of context, they could slow down the acquisition of new vocabulary. With regard to the quality of words learned, Carroll and Mordaunt (1991) write, "More effective, less random lists are those developed for indirect presentation in a situational lesson. Such a lesson would gather- with a widely variant degree of glossing- words and phrases relevant to specific people, places, tasks, or social situations" (p.24). Although these authors in their article are referring to the Frontier Method of vocabulary learning, the idea of germaneness in learning still applies. One of the major themes in the process of C3 is to use and manipulate vocabulary that is relevant to what the topic at-hand.

Elaborating on the use and efficacy of the corpora in teaching pre-writing to L2 learners, Yoon & Jo (2014) say that studies on students' use of corpora in L2 writing have shown the advantages of corpora not only as a linguistic resource to improve writing abilities but also as a cognitive tool to develop learning skills and strategies. This case study seeks to develop new lines of inquiry by comparing the effectiveness and learning strategy use in corpus-based writing revision. Different effectiveness and learning strategy uses were also observed relative to the corpus use contexts as well as according to student proficiency levels.

A large body of work has demonstrated the benefits of corpus-based activities in second language writing pedagogy (Charles, 2007). Those studies have generally shown the positive effects of corpus use on the development of students' linguistic and rhetorical aspects of L2 pre-writing. Given that the linguistic domain often leaves a major challenge even for advanced L2 writers (Kennedy & Miceli, 2010), corpus-based learning can provide learners with a valuable resource to deal with prolonged linguistic problems. Many corpus studies in L2 writing have manipulated corpora as resources to provide feedback on learners' writing (Yoon & Jo, 204). For example, Gilmore (2009) showed how learners are able to integrate corpus observations into the redrafting stage of pre-writing to improve the naturalness of writing.

In more recent studies of indirect corpus use, Boulton (2010) conducted several classified studies to test the effects of corpus in language learning. He was mostly interested in the effectiveness of paper-based corpus materials. He constantly found that indirect corpus outputs were more effective than traditional references such as bilingual dictionaries and grammar manuals. Boulton (2010) argued that printed materials provided the conditions for "individual exploration later on with the accompanying benefits of greater autonomy, learner centeredness, and life-long learning" (p.44).

The studies conducted by Yoon & Hirvela (2004) demonstrated the potential of corpus use in a wide variety of implementations in writing classes, including students' corpus use to improve their knowledge about common usage patterns of words and to increase confidence in L2 writing enhancing students' awareness of grammatical patterns and rhetorical functions in writing classes.

Regardless of the type of corpus use, this study found that teacher's guidance and scaffolding was crucial in helping to lead learners to successful experiences in corpus analysis. In this sense, we stress that teachers must receive basic training in accessing corpora and evaluating concordances. As Sinclair (2004) noted, "a corpus is not a simple object, and it is just as easy to derive nonsensical conclusions from the evidence as insightful ones" (p.2). When training familiarizes teachers with the corpus-based environment, they can facilitate students' autonomous learning and make them become active language detectives.

Justifying the need of using or manipulating the corpora for teaching writing to L2 learners, Mukherjee (2006) says that the corpus makes it possible to focus on individual learners' inter-language skills and to provide them with spot-on feedback. The corpus can be analyzed both by teachers and by students. For example, individual learners can use a concordance display of their own mistakes as a starting point for data-driven learning activities.

While previous studies have been inconsistent about the relationship between proficiency levels and the effect of corpus use, the present study revealed that corpus-based instruction can benefit different levels of students if we consider their different patterns and strategies relative to the two corpus applications. The indirect use of corpora appeared to have greater effectiveness in error correction and also in raising learning awareness (Bernardini, 2004). If the findings in this research are replicated, then it can reassure teachers with less-endowed technological infrastructures- -particularly in developing countries-- that indirect use can still benefit students' linguistic acquisition in L2 pre-writing.

IV. Discussion: Corpus, Collocation, and Context

C3 uses short stories or any corpus, as ready-made context that can be immediately applied to existing vocabulary and pre-writing strategies. It is not the intention of the researcher to reinvent the wheel here, by creating a new set of language learning techniques; as there are plenty of good ones out there. But this research is driven by an empirical observation through the scholarly sound literature reviews and the practical experiments in classroom that this combination of already-used techniques gives this strategy a unique twist. There are links and connections between the given topics of a story and the language used that can serve as a catalyst for generating even more writing tasks.

Before beginning to explain this approach, it is imperative to mention the reasons behind the divergence taken in this paper from the original C3 made in poster form illustrated in the end of this Discussion. Attached to this paper is a picture of the poster and noted below are numbers that correspond with each step highlighted in bold-face type. As this strategy was originally based on an EFL classroom setting, the first step originally was an awareness raising activity. Here, the researcher has skipped that stage and went straight to the reading of the text. In short, it will mean combining steps 2 and 3. Skipping over the awareness-raising activity was partly due to the participant's level of English, the time allotted to do this, and the length of text which was fairly short.

The participant began this strategy by reading the text. After reading, he was instructed to find the main idea of the story. This is an extremely important step, as the whole strategy depends on and uses the topic or main idea. This step need not be thorough, as it is only for the raising of awareness, so only a few words or a sentence need to be written about the main idea. Here, it is important that the learner knows what the text is about, and write it briefly on paper. If the text is too far above the learner's ability in the TL, then it is not assured as to how much benefit this will have as they might be off the mark in comprehending the passage's main idea. As a consequence, selecting materials becomes a thorny issue for instructors. Learner comprehension and managing comprehensible input can be treated in a subsequent paper; here the researcher will focus on learners who are able to manage and comprehend what they are exposed to.

The next task after finding the main idea will be to find single words in the text that give some amount of proof to choosing the main idea, and create a list of these words tasks. If the main idea was for example, about saving whales, then the list one would compile would relate directly to that. The words extracted from the story could be 'ship' or 'mammal', depending on what was discussed in the text. It is important at this juncture that the student realizes that although this is an explicit learning strategy, the compilation of words used should not be isolated from the text. In other words, choosing words out of interest in learning the word would be off track, as a good deal of effort went into bridging and sequencing all steps based on topic.

It is also important to point out the role of student choice in compiling a topically relevant list. In an article about vocabulary generation, Sokmen (1992) states, "When learners are engaged in making sense of the lexicon and are able to expand vocabulary to their own needs, they retain more words" (Sokmen, p.16). Although the topic is what drives the word list, it is still a matter of choice what specific parts of the story the learner wishes to focus on. Referring to choice as a motivating factor, Carroll and Mordaunt (1991) also agree, "Students enjoy the fact that words are student generated rather than given to them as an assignment, thus making the process personal and therefore more meaningful" (p.24). As creativity plays a pertinent part in the mind mapping activity in step 6, its important that the student be able to choose exactly what words they will choose to map out, so that they have a measure of enjoyment and a feeling of responsibility towards their writing.

After the student has generated a list of topically relevant words, using the BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations (a collocational dictionary), the student finds the word's collocates. It is important to note here that the student should have an awareness of collocations before implementing this strategy. Having a large cache of memorized collocations here however, does not serve the overall goal. When presenting collocations to students, Lewis states, "It must be stressed that the primary purpose of the activities is awareness-raising, rather than formal 'teaching'." (Lewis 1997, p.260) In this the researcher deems it necessary to explain what a collocation was to Terry prior to any exposure to C3. It was taken for granted that he understood what a collocation is after being told, however, that this was something that would be addressed in the analysis part of the paper.

Although the participant in this study was not comfortable with the idea of how a collocation really works, Lewis would support the notion that large amounts of knowledge of specific collocations are not absolutely necessary to use them. Concerning this, he says, "One important implication of the arbitrary nature of collocation…It is very much a case of being in 'telling' rather than 'teaching' mode." (Lewis 2000, p.35) This was also part of my explanation to Terry, which was more or less, "just try it", after seeing him struggle with understanding what a collocation is.

The next step was to choose which collocates, if any, are relevant to the topic. In experimenting with how practical this specific exercise may be, the researcher found that although many collocations are absent from the BBI dictionary, it is thorough enough that students will find collocates more often than they wont. It may also be the case that no collocation is relevant to the topic of the reading. If this is so, then the student will need to find a new word. The researcher, however, does not practically consider that the student's discarding of a collocation from their list, even if irrelevant to the story, is a waste of time. Knowing what to exclude from something is in itself, an act of understating the boundaries of what is germane to the topic. It may take more time for the student to go back and choose new words from the text to explore collocations for, but the process of eliminating irrelevant collocations is beneficial at least to a small degree.

After finding the word in the BBI and listing the relevant collocates, the student chooses a few to work with in a mind mapping-type activity. For this study, the researcher has chosen to limit the amount of collocations used to keep the task manageable for the learner. For example, if the student has a list of 10 relevant words, he might use five or six of them to find collocates, and then narrow that down for the mapping activity. If we were to ask the student to make mind maps for 6 collocations, it could be easily expected that the maps to be scant and lacking creativity. For this research the researcher has decided that two mind maps would suffice for brainstorming on how to summarize a short story.

Using the whole collocation from the BBI, on a separate place on the paper, a mind map is generated. The student is instructed to explore every option a word may present, and detail that in a bubble-type format. It is believed that the semantic value a collocation has, elicits ideas and accesses schemata from the learner in a unique way. For example, using the word 'quiet' for a mind map will evoke certain thoughts and ideas. Using the collocation 'keep quiet', however, contains more linguistic baggage and therefore can elicit more specific and targeted ideas for mind mapping. After seeing this collocated pair, the researcher conjured up ideas about a library and authority and peoples fingers over their lips. This is a bit more specific, as a single word can lead the learner down a path that strays from the main idea. One might think of 'quiet' as referring to nature, whereas 'keep quiet' provokes a more targeted response. It is the aim here that if a student chooses a relevant collocation which refers back to the topic, then there will be a good chance that they will have schemata access in a similar way, which produces more semantic value.

Adaptations to the mind maps could be used, having students not only generate associated words, but also opposites or words that have degrees of value such as 'hot-warm-cold'. The mind mapping activity can be a very creative exercise. A well thought out display of a learner's lexical framework can not only aid the learner, but also the instructor, in seeing not only the amount of words a student knows, but also what they have tendencies to write or think about.

After having a sufficient amount of associations in their map, the student is finally set on task to summarize the story. He is told to use the mind map as a reference, but to keep in mind that the maps are not the story, and that a summarization of the text is the task-at-hand.

V. THE STUDY: METHODOLOGY – RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

The study that tested this pre-writing strategy was conducted over two sessions. For these, the researcher selected four texts for Terry to read. He was given no prior instructions other than to summarize for the first two readings, and was shown how to do C3 for the last two readings. The texts used were two American folktales and two short stories written by random authors. For the folktales, he was given 5 minutes to write as much as he could, and for the stories, he was given 7 minutes. Only once during each of the allotted times the researcher gave him a signal as to how much time he had remaining. In this paper, these readings and assignments will be referred to as Tasks 1 through 4. The folktales were administered first and third and the short stories were second and fourth.

In choosing the texts to read, the researcher wanted to use two different discourse types that had a similar amount of words contained in them. For example, the folktales had roughly the same amount 483 and 274 respectively, while the short stories had 722 and 927 words. This was important in that for the first session, both one folktale and one short story were used, and for the second session, the other folktale and story were used. This amounted to at least a small degree of consistency, given that not too much analysis of the text was taken, aside from discourse type, level, and length. Syntactical structures and grammar issues were not addressed.

The folktale readings were acquired through a link from an ESL website, although apparently they were written for a non-native speaking audience. Barring a few instances of colloquialism found in folklore, they are certainly at a lower level and within reach for the participant. The short stories however were a bit more complicated and had an appeal that a 20 year old might find interesting. For example, the reading for Task 2 was "The Match", a story about a soccer player that holds his shot and mortally wounded brother in his arms. The other short prose was "The Bully", a tale about a man who sees his childhood bully later on in life, in a position of vulnerability. Although it was not recorded, Terry was closely observed as he read each article. He seemed much more interested and involved in the short stories than he did reading about folklore.

The researcher then set out to implement this study by following a series of steps. Initially, the first two summary activities were not given any instruction other than to summarize the passage. During the second meeting between us however, the learner was made aware of the C3 strategy prior to reading. It was quite predictable that after reading the text, the learner should be put on task to use the strategy, as the reading is fresh in his mind. The opposite would be to read, and then stop to learn about C3, and then go back to use the text in a summarizing activity. This approach seemed a bit disjointed, so the researcher opted for the latter.

Since this was a new strategy for Terry and given that the researcher gave him minimal assistance during his first run-through with the process. For example, Terry was watched as he chose a collocation and answered a couple of questions. The specific collocation that he chose to mind map was thus noted down, thus showing him how to make use of the space left on the paper. Here it is not necessary to look further into what kind of impact, if any, this may have had since it did not take any of the burden or responsibility off of him.

Picture of the poster form:
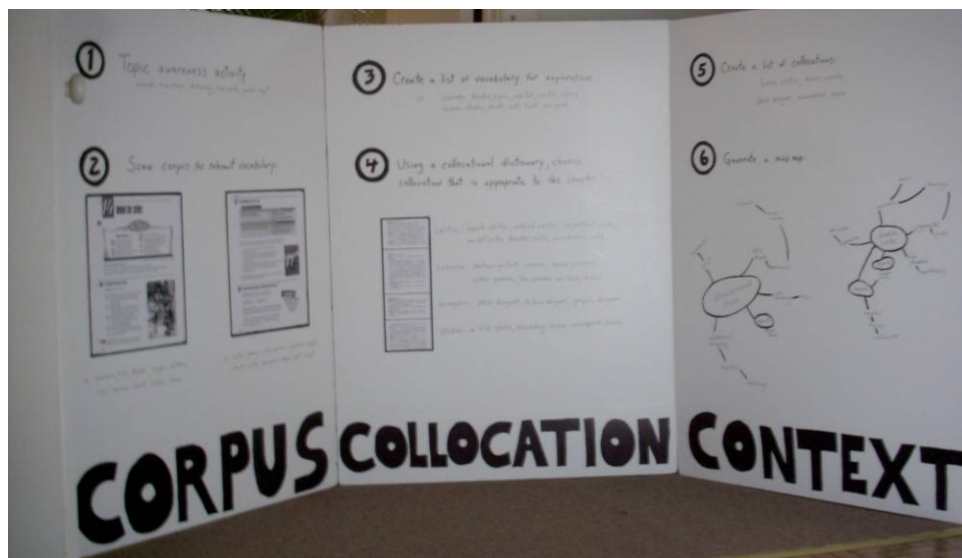
Empirical Results

Below is a chart that details some of the information that I acquired from Terry's writing:

A- # of words in the reading
B- # of words written in the summary
C- # of sentences written in the summary
D- average # of words per sentence in the summary

	A	B	C	D
Task 1	483	99	8	12.3
Task 2	722	107	10	10.7
Task 3	274	92	7	13.1
Task 4	927	113	8	14.1

A salient feature of Terry's writing was that there was hardly any difference in the amount of words produced on each day. For example, in Tasks 1+2 on the first day, he produced 206 words total. In Tasks 3+4 following the first session, he produced 205 words. It is observed that this is an exceptionally close number and was a bit shocked when the totals were calculated.

Terry also kept the summaries fairly consistent in length when comparing the two different reading types assigned. For the Tasks that involved American folklore, the total words produced were 99 and 92 respectively, and for the short story tasks, the numbers were 107 and 113. Although these numbers are a bit different, the difference between them is but the completion of a sentence or two.

What was puzzling though was that the amount of information between the two discourse types was considerably unbalanced. For example, the folklore texts had a total of 757 words, while the short stories contained 1649 words. Since the number in the second group was more than double the first, it would seem to follow that there would be more to write about. The researcher had also assumed that because the prose had more situations that required inference that it would contribute to more schemata access. In addition, there was also more time to write for the short story summary task. This was startling for me because the writing had relatively similar amounts of words in light of the huge gap in length of provided text.

There was also a trend in the manner in which he began his summarizations. Beginning sentences in Tasks 1, 2, and 4 started out, "This story is talking about…" and in the third task, the opening line is, "It's about a great driller." From this, it seems that Terry is following some kind of writing convention. Although that is painfully obvious to point out, its is important in that it may give clues to affective factors such as a priori writing experiences, boredom, or a lack of desire to give real introspection to the writing assignment. More likely, in my opinion, is that when asked to perform a summary, he reverts back to his L1 writing conventions. This may be the case, although the researcher is not familiar with Chinese writing. However from the researcher's experiences with Asian students, regurgitation of information is the norm for many writing assignments.

Lastly, it is important to make a note that although it is difficult for to label with precision the collocations in Terry's writing, the researcher did go through the summaries and list the collocations he wrote, and it was discovered that this was the only representation where teaching C3 had any effect. In summaries 1 and 2 there were 3 collocations in his work. It is noteworthy that the researcher didn't include "fall down on his knees" and "good friend in the world" from Tasks 1 and 2. It was included because in a chunk of meaning, if one part is wrong then collocate is certainly off base. As they are chunks, they need to retain their semantic as well as syntactic values.

In the third and fourth Tasks, a total of 9 collocations were found. In Task 3, however one of the collocations that was tallied was taken from his list in step 5 of the C3 process, which was though written down, but Terry had already acquired it from the BBI. This was interesting to because in Task 3 Terry was given a minimal assistance with the steps leading up to the mind map. In light of that, he really only produced on his own, 3 collocations, whereas in the fourth Task, he came up with 5. Why this is relevant is that even when he produced more collocations, yet in the fourth Task, he failed to use the proper procedures, which entailed transplanting the collocations from his collocate list to the mind map. His mind maps were just the words 'friend' and 'love' in Task 4, and he produced more collocations in that summary than the rest. There is a possibility that just the exposure to collocations lowered some of the affective filters and allowed him to relax his English usage and use more colloquial terminology.

VI. STATEMENT OF LIMITATIONS

One of the dilemmas for this project was the skimming and scanning aspect of reading. Originally C3 was intended to use skimming for main idea, and then scanning to get words that fit the topic. Then only after that, is the student set on task to read. This would be effective for a comprehension type-activity and I wrestled with the choice of having Terry skim and scan before he reads, or read then skim and scan.

As a proper ode of research, scrutiny, and analysis it was needed to research as to how summarizations work, which would have shed some light on this choice. Needless to say, the researcher opted for the easier route, which was to have him read first, as he then would have less of a chance of getting off-topic. That, in turn, would have meant lists in the proceeding stages that were irrelevant to the story read. Doing a study with more participants here too, would have given me options to do both.

It is believed that the most major flaw in planning this study is that it was only a longitudinal study of two sessions; which is almost a contradiction in itself. Had the researcher incorporated more than one student, data would have some measure of credibility. In this case, one person was chosen and he was only given two sessions in which to be observed. This is clearly not a valid means of conducting research in which data for any real conclusions to be drawn from. Although it casts a large shadow over the results, it was still a learning process for the beginning of further research on the topic since pre-writing planning is the most elemental and significant aspect of learning successful writing.

Lastly, it can be fairly explicated here that it is when a student begins to internalize what happened in a text, or in any kind of writing activity, that they can gain from a schemata accessing exercise. The process of C3 is not holistic language device and it is not complete. Rather it is one combination of exercises that are organized for use on specific skills directed at the task of preparing to write.

VII. ANALYSIS, CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Overall it can be said that there is no evidence that C3 had any effect whatsoever on Terry's writing, other than exposure to more meaningful chunks of language. It is nevertheless believed that the overwhelming lack of evidence for progression in quantity of writing is not simply that the strategies were ineffective. But there's more to it than that. Because the writing samples were so closely related in amount of words and sentences written, there must be more influencing his writing than what is easily seen from the pre- and post- writing samples. There are factors like familiarity of the reading material, time limits, and life issues that play a part in a student's motivation. A study conducted with more participants would have shed more light on this issue.

Although C3 has potential for further development, it gives a lot less qualifying information about the words than many writing strategies do. For example, it excuses pronunciation, words origins, and morphemes to name a few. It cannot, moreover, be articulated with surety whether those elements of language awareness are germane to pre-writing exercises, but nonetheless in so far as input is concerned, C3 is limited to the scope of words taken from a text and collocations. These are obviously not the only requisite tools for writing, and more instruction would definitely be required to groom an effective writer than just step-by-step process writing instruction.

Advanced students generally benefit more from text-driven vocabulary retention strategies than do beginners. This is partly due to a lack of ability to realize context for beginners, as they simply do not possess the vocabulary or decoding processes to infer much from a given text. Advanced learners however, can read supplemental information to further clarify or solidify what was considered previous knowledge. Ostensibly, one of the best things about pre-writing strategies is that it can be done individually. In this case, a text and a collocation dictionary are the only resources needed. Therefore, an advanced student could work productively by himself, as they already have schemata for approaching a writing activity. The challenge here, for the higher-level learner, would be to make appropriate judgments of what is or what is not topically relevant. A beginning language learner would on the other hand, have to wrestle with decoding the language in addition to any qualitative analysis of discourse. So the researcher would recommend that a process like this be utilized by learners who are above a beginning level of language proficiency.

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The Metaphor of Consumerism

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Abstract—This research uses semiotic of metaphor to unmask the underlying meaning beneath the semiotic of consumerism on television advertisements. This research attempts to explain how advertised products are being used, through the means of semiotic of metaphor by scrutinizing the dynamic relationship between sign and signifier. Semiotic of metaphor makes the products 'alive' within human society hence, this implies that the very existence of human beings is no longer determined by the presence of another human being, instead the very existence is now determined by the presence of certain commercial products in possession. The society, in term of consumerism, views the products as animate or living entities within the sphere of living. Commercial advertisements use metaphorical expressions to relate and exchange in two major concepts: products are humans, and humans are products' users. Thus, nowadays, humans tend to seek their purpose of living and existence through consumerism. The result of this research shows that television commercial advertisements mainly work by means of certain metaphorical symbolism: it shapes society's perspective into believing that the very existence of human beings, the actualization of self, and differentiations among them are achieved by using or purchasing certain advertised products therefore, the products serve as the symbols of those achievements.

Index Terms— metaphor, consumerism, semiotic, product, society of consumerism

I. INTRODUCTION

Lately, society is stuck in a state of near no-availability of space and time to distant itself from the massive attacks of information, via any advertising tool relating to consumerism. The media as a means of distributing information is occupied by commercial advertisements (television, newspaper, and online media) and thus leads to unstoppable flow of commercial advertisements to the society. This phenomenon is undoubtedly indicating society's transformation into a new age, the age of consumerism. Baudrillard (2011, p. 3), a French social thinker, states that nowadays people are no longer surrounded by their fellow human beings, but objects of commercial consumption. This implies that each individual in a society seeks the very existence, purpose of living, and the meaning of life by purchasing certain products, which is greatly amplified and encouraged by the media that never ceased to flood the society.

Advertisement has occupied society's public spaces; its scope is not merely in term of media in common (television, newspaper, online media), but the extent of places frequently visited by people such as café and mall. Moreover, in selling products to the society, today's advertisements has accomplished techniques that allows the society to believe in it through the use of promises, hopes and solutions, similar to religions, which arouse the collective emotion and mind of the society. Furthermore, the state of believing is made possible through the creation of system of signs by the media (advertisement) as stated by Williamson (1978, p. 12) obviously it (advertising) has a function, which is to sell things to us; it has another function, which I believe in many ways replace that traditionally fulfilled by art or religion.

In this era of globalization of information and technology, media possesses an undoubtedly significant role in shaping the society into one that is driven by consumerism through their floods of advertisements, which consequently leads to the offering of certain lifestyle visually (Chaney, 2011: 11). Moreover, media (advertisement) delivers its message of certain lifestyle in the form of the imagery of subjects as stated by Althusser (2008, p. 48) that all ideologies possess the same function to define itself by fabricating concrete individuals as subjects. The process of fabricating individuals into subjects is done through the process of interpretation. This process, has been termed by Althusser (2008, p. 48) as profoundly unconscious process, allows the advertisement media to create certain imagery of their advertised products in which the society unconsciously perceives and treats it as something that is (apparently) deep and thus drive its consciousness into those that believe that using certain products is something that naturally occur or in other words, do not have any influence on outside party.

Baudrillard (1968, p. 252) states that at the moment, we consume product as it is, we simultaneously consume it; this implies that we perceive through advertisements, which is not merely selling the product by exposing its practical usefulness to the society but far beyond. It also sells the product by exposing the social usefulness and creating certain system of ideas within the society; in other words, by constructing certain intended reality of the product it sells. This is in line with Kathy Myers (2012, p. 85) who states that advertisement is not merely creating the brand and informing the practical usefulness of the product being advertised, but the product itself must occur as something human or as something natural.

Considering its significant role in humans' daily live, advertising activity mainly uses the means of language to convey its ideas to the society. The significance of language is highly emphasized by Saussure (1967, p. 33) who states that language is the most important sign among all other sign found in humans daily live. In support of the preceding

statement, Claire Kramsch (1998, p. 3) also states that language is able to express, create, and symbolize reality: how words are able to convey facts, ideas or events, reflect actions, shape one's perspective of the world and belief, and, eventually, mold reality. Furthermore, language's ability to create certain perception of the world or to create reality leads to the use of language as the main means of advertising activities as stated by Berger and Luckman (1966: 26) that advertisement media in its very essence is a result of reality constructing activities in which language serves as the main instrument. Language is the main element and the main instrument to construct reality. Thus, this leads to a conclusion that advertisement media uses language to construct its favorable.

In all language phenomena, metaphor is used in advertisement media to deliberately fabricate consumerism. The use of metaphor in the advertisement does not directly persuade the society to buy the product being advertised, but provide certain concept that indirectly persuades the society to buy the advertised product. For example, in television commercial advertisement, the advertiser do not use terms that directly and obviously persuade the audience to buy the object being advertised, instead the advertiser provide certain metaphorical expressions, which persuade to buy the object. Thus, this paper attempts to reveal the use of metaphor in the television advertisement of commercial products, which constructs the notion of consumerism.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Metaphor

In term of semiotics, metaphor is a way of conceptualizing or relating a sign (topic) to another entity through the use of analogy (differentiations or equations). Metaphor works by employing two signs, i.e., the first serves as the source or domain (topic) and the second serves as the target (vehicle), which give birth to a new meaning (grounds).

A 'topic' in metaphor is the writer/speaker that creates the expression, not the literal meaning of the expression itself while the term 'vehicle' is the metaphorical expression. Then, 'grounds' is the relation between the literal meaning and the metaphorical meaning possessed by the expression. Through the observation of 'grounds', one is able to identify the meaning intended to deliver and what 'prototype' is intended to divert to 'topic' in relation to the literal meaning or the 'vehicle' or the metaphor (Danesi, 2010, p. 59).

The construction of metaphorical meaning is based on the verbal signs that already existed in the society, which took form as social or cultural value, and transformed into a sign that serves as the target in order to construct new meaning. Thus, metaphor is a semiotic process of making new meaning as stated by Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 3) that metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but also in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of the way we think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature, thus, given birth to the notion of conceptual metaphor.

In Lakoff and Johnson's conceptual metaphor (1980, p. 3), there are two conceptual domains namely, source domain and target domain. Source domain deals with one's recognition of certain abstract concepts in target domain, which is usually found in humans' everyday lives. Commonly, source domain possess a more concrete concept than target domain since it serves as the base of understanding what is meant in the target domain, which is usually abstract. Organizing the relations among objects, metaphor is able to construct certain understanding towards certain object using other objects as means of understanding. Thus, in other words, source domain serves as the main tool for human to be able to comprehend what is meant by the abstract thing conceived in the target domain.

Further, Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 5) also state that the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another. According to the preceding statement, it is obvious that one is able to comprehend one thing via the understanding of another (preceding) concept already known or comprehended. Moreover, the statement also implies that metaphor is not merely a word or figure of speech in literary works, it goes beyond that. Humans' process of thinking and perception of the world is mostly metaphorical. Furthermore, the two figures above also state that metaphor is generally, yet unconsciously, used in humans' every day activities, not merely in term of language use, but also in term of thinking and doing. Thus, one is able to reveal the other's thought just by observing the way metaphor is used.

Thus, drawing conclusion from the previous explanations, in term of semiotic, metaphor is constructed by two related signs serving as referent. The first sign is coined as 'topic' of the metaphor and the second sign is coined as 'vehicle' of the metaphor or the facility in which metaphorical expression occurred. The relationship between the two signs creates a sign or new meaning (target), which is based on a fusion between two. Consequently, metaphor, a set of complex signs can be concluded in the following figure.

Sign 1 + Sign 2 = Metaphor

The first and the second signs are constructed by relating the signifier and sign separately. Then, the relation results in the occurrence of new meaning; thus, myth is constructed by metaphorical process.

Consumerism

The term 'consume' can be defined as a process of objectification, or a process of externalization or internalization through certain objects, which serve as the media of such process (Yasraf, 2010, p. 96). In other words, it is a process in which humans' efforts of understanding and conceptualizing the reality and themselves is ruled by the use of certain

objects as the media. The process constructs certain value through the use of certain objects, gives recognition of the role of certain objects being used as media, and internalizes the value constructed through it.

Consequently, the definition of consumerism above illuminates the motives behind continuous struggle of consumerism. Somehow, the objects of consumptions have transformed into something that is integral of one's true self. In other words, one's true self or the concept of self-completeness is highly depended on the purchased objects, which becomes an integral part of one's self and symbolizes one's self-completeness.

Furthermore, semiotics offers a perspective in defining the term 'consume'. It views 'consume' as a process of exercising or deconstructing signs conceived within the objects. Thus, a simultaneous process of consuming object and internally deconstructing its conceived signs occurred exactly at the same moment.

Objects of consumption, such as television commercial advertisement, tend to put to work and indicate social relations existed within the society. It points out and determines one's true self and certain social symbols. Moreover, objects of consumption are also able to construct social differentiations and manifest on various levels of signs. Thus, the fact has been revealed that consumerism constructed by advertisement media eventually constructs certain meaning of differentiations, which serves as a tool for humans' self-actualization in order to achieve completeness through the consuming activity.

III. METHOD

This research used descriptive qualitative method. Bogdan and Biklen (Via Moleong, 2004, p. 248) state that qualitative method is the effort of data analysis which employs participating to the data, organizing the data, classifying the data, synthesizing the data, identifying the pattern of the data, revealing the most important thing of the data, and deciding what to tell to the others regarding the data.

The purposes of descriptive qualitative research were making systematic, factual, and accurate description about the object under analysis and drawing the result of the analysis in a narrative form based on relevant theories. The data of the research were jargon, tagline, and narrative texts of television commercial advertisements.

The instrument of the research used in collecting the data was a video recorder. The form of data of the research was video recording collected from television commercial advertisement. The process of recording was conducted at 19.00-21.00 since it was recognized as the time when most people watch television (prime time). During the prime time, the researcher recorded the commercial advertisement and continuously changed the television channel using remote control in order to find another advertisement. Thus, the object of the research was motorcycle advertisements, i.e., Honda Vario, Honda BeAt, Suzuki Nex, and Yamaha Jupiter MX.

IV. RESULTS

Metaphor works by relating two signs, one as a source or topic and other one as vehicle or facility to construct a new meaning or grounds. Metaphor is a semiotic process to make certain sign (sign meaning). Metaphor, which conceptualizes human as objects of consumption is found in the advertisement of Suzuki Nex, Suzuki Satria, and Honda Vario)

Suzuki Nex with tagline 'Suzuki Nex, You are Nex, yang lain End'

Suzuki Nex advertisement depicted the story of friendship in a certain group of youngsters. The story begins when a girl who is a member of the group worries because her fellow group members are yet to arrive at the place they agreed to practice dancing. Then, a boy in the group suggests contacting their fellow via text; anyone that gets the text is supposed to forward it to the other. Consequently, they agreed to ride Suzuki Nex to the practice and get in touch at some point while on their way to the place. During the course, Suzuki Nex is displayed as a motorcycle that is agile, nimble and fuel-efficient by showing the fuel indicator with no change before, during, and after the trip. As soon as they arrive at the place, then they start to dance.

Advertisement text:

Narrator: Are you ready for Nex?

Figure 1: *Gimana nih kok nggak pada dateng?* (Where is everybody?)

Theme song: *Dengan kuterasa hampa* (I was so hollow)

Figure 2: *Gue ada ide* (I have an idea)

Narrator: *Ini cerita tentang persahabatan* (This is a tale of friendship)

Figure 3: *Kayaknya mereka butuh bantuan kita deh* (I think they need our help)

Narrator: *Kesetiakawanan* (Solodarity)

Theme song: *Nex. Nex. Hanya dirimu selalu, Nex..Nex..* (Nex. Nex. No one but you, Nex, Nex..)

Narrator: Suzuki Nex

Figure 4: You are Nex

Figure 1: *Yang lain* end (the other, end)

Theme song: Nex, Nex, Nex….

The tagline of Suzuki Nex is *You are Nex, yang lain end* which consisted of two parts, the first one is 'You are Nex', and the other one 'Yang lain end'. In the metaphorical expression of *You are Nex*, there are two inter-related referents in

form of pronouns, 'You' and 'Nex'. The first referent or topic is the word 'You' while the second referent or the vehicle is the word 'Nex', and thus combined and create a metaphorical meaning of *You are Nex*.
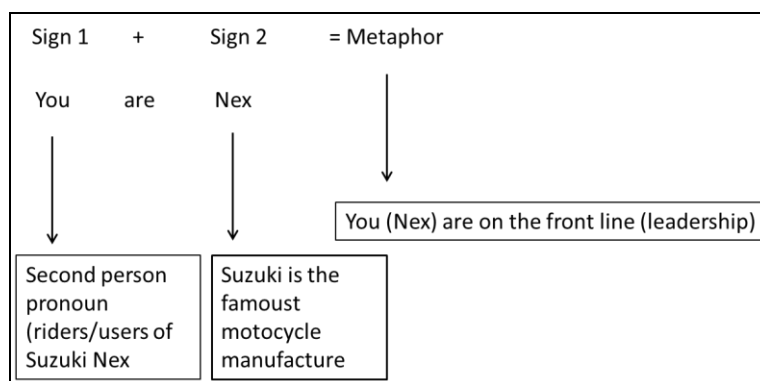
Structure of Metaphor of Suzuki Nex

Figure 1.

The verbal sign of 'You' is a pronoun and greeting the audience. The verbal sign of 'Nex' is derived from the word 'next' which means coming immediately afterwards and the brand of the motorcycle being advertised. In term of metaphor, the word 'you' refers to those being greeted and persuaded to ride Suzuki Nex, or the audience who watch the advertisement, while the word 'Nex' refers to the brand of the motorcycle which possesses the symbolic meaning of self-identity and distinctive characteristics of Nex motorcycle, speed and leadership. The relation between these two signs creates new meaning that 'you' are the first to ride Nex, 'you' are the leader, the foremost among the other motorcycle manufactures. The concept of leadership defines the identity and distinctive characteristic of Suzuki Nex.

Moreover, the tagline of Suzuki Nex also points out the polarization of *front* versus *back*. The phrase *You are Nex* is the *front* concept (being the foremost) and the phrase *yang lain end* is the *back* concept (being the least). This polarization or concept of metaphorical orientation of *front* versus *back* also has a broad meaning of 'becoming leader': Suzuki Nex is the leader and most prominent automatic motorcycle among all.

Honda Vario with the tagline 'I am Vario'

The advertisement of Honda Vario motorcycle introduces the newest product in the era of automatic motorcycle namely Vario 125. The advertisement, which features the well-known singer Agnes Monica, illustrates Honda Vario 125 as the newest technologically and the most prominent automatic motorcycle through its advantages, best design, best performance and the most fuel-efficient motorcycle. It also asserts that Honda Vario 125 is the future automatic motorcycle through the tagline *I am Vario, right for the future*.

Advertisement text
Memasuki era baru skuter terbaru terbaik (Entering the new era of automatic motorcycle)
Dengan The All New Vario 125, saatnya kamu rasakan (With The All New Vario 125, it is the time to know)
Desain terbaik, Performa terbaik, dan paling irit (Best design, best performance, and the most fuel-efficient)
I am Vario 125, right the future
Honda One Heart

The advertisement of Honda Vario, *I am Vario*, also shows the symbolism metaphor of identity and differentiation, which is conceptualized into the concept of leader (the best). The tagline of Honda Vario consists of two signs as the referents, the pronoun 'I' which serves as the manifestation of Agnes Monica's self-actualization towards certain object (Honda Vario motorcycle). The term 'Vario' itself refers to the advertised brand and conceives the best quality of automatic motorcycle as represented by the expression, "Memasuki era baru skuter terbaru terbaik. Dengan The All New Honda Vario 125, saatnya kamu rasakan desain terbaik, performa terbaik, dan paling irit." The first sign or the topic is the personal pronoun of "I" while the second sign or the vehicle is the term 'Vario'. The relation between two inter-related signs constructs a new meaning that, since Vario is the best automatic motorcycle and the personal pronoun 'I' is regarded as the self-actualization of modern humans, only the best of human beings ride Honda Vario 125.
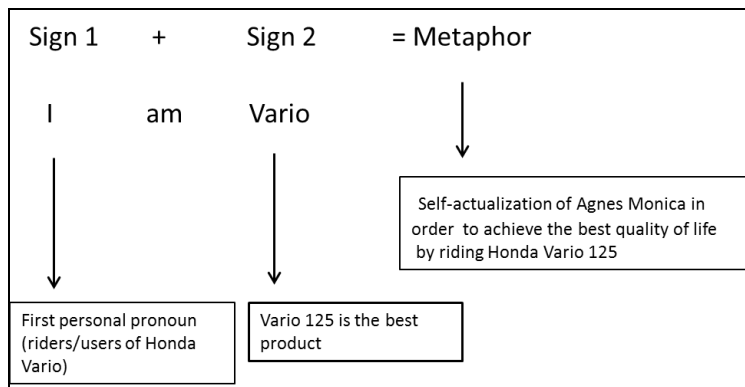
```
Sign 1     +      Sign 2      = Metaphor

  I        am      Vario              │
                                      ▼
                          ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                          │ Self-actualization of Agnes Monica in │
                          │ order to achieve the best quality of life │
                          │ by riding Honda Vario 125     │
                          └─────────────────────────────┘
  │                 │
  ▼                 ▼
┌──────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐
│ First personal pronoun │  │ Vario 125 is the best │
│ (riders/users of Honda │  │ product          │
│ Vario)           │  │                  │
└──────────────────┘  └──────────────────┘
```

Figure 2.

The taglines applied by Suzuki Nex and Honda Vario are both general metaphorical concepts, patterned by the notion of 'humans are objects of consumptions (objects)'. There is also another metaphorical concept, which is regarded as more common, the notion of 'humans are animals' frequently used as means to explain certain concepts of humans in term of animals. Then, it shares the same concept as the metaphorical taglines to describe humans in term of commercial objects. Yet, it does not means that humans are literally objects or animals, it implies that the commercial objects has been given the qualities of hopes, wants, and tastes commonly wanted by humans in their daily lives.
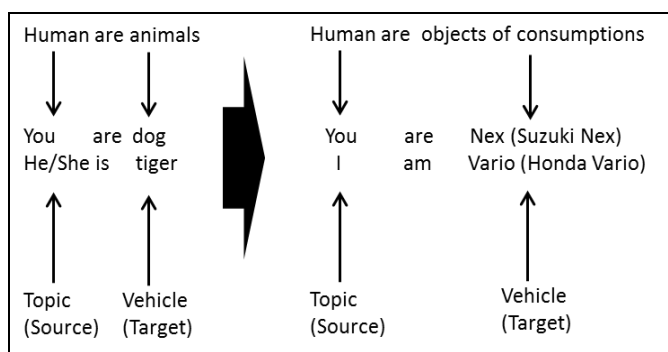
```
Human are animals              Human are objects of consumptions
   │        │                      │              │
   ▼        ▼                      ▼              ▼
You    are dog        ◄████►    You      are     Nex (Suzuki Nex)
He/She is  tiger                 I        am      Vario (Honda Vario)
   ▲        ▲                      ▲              ▲
   │        │                      │              │
Topic    Vehicle                Topic          Vehicle
(Source) (Target)               (Source)       (Target)
```

Figure 3.

Honda BeAt with the tagline 'Let's get the BeAt'

The advertisement of Honda BeAt automatic motorcycle begins with a youngster singing with a band. Simultaneously, an automatic motorcycle is introduced in the scene and visually introducing the BeAt. Then, a girl dances and introduces the motorcycle, which is known as Honda BeAt. Consequently, a text appears saying the features of Honda BeAt, "Compact, Cool Fusion, Fun, Stylish", and ended with the tagline of BeAt 'Let's get the BeAt.'

Advertisement text
Let's get the BeAt
Jiwaku adalah musik, (Music is my soul)
Musik warnai hidupku (Music colors my life)
So let's get the Beat
Cintaku adalah musik (Music is my love)
Musik adalah hidupku (Music is my life)
So let's get the Beat
Let's get the Beat
Cintaku adalah musik (Music is my love)
Musik adalah hidupku (Music is my life)
Let's get the Beat
Cintaku adalah musik (Music is my love)
Musik warnai hidupku (Music Colors my life)
Honda Beat
Idola Skuter Terbaru (The new idol of automatic motorcycle)
Let's Get the Beat

Then, the metaphor of the advertisement is found in the verbal sign of 'BeAt'. The verbal sign consists of two referents, source and target. The source domain is 'beat' as it is, and the target domain is 'BeAt' as a brand of motorcycle.

The first referent is derived from the English term of 'beat', which means music (beats of music). In the KBBI (Indonesia dictionary), music is explained as something relaxing, entertaining and joyful. The second referent is the

term 'BeAt' which an abbreviation of 'Be Automatic' and as the brand of the automatic motorcycle being advertised. Thus, the concept conceived by the term 'beat' is being transferred to the brand of 'BeAt' and, consequently, results in the metaphorical concept of 'Honda BeAt is music' which resembles the traits of music such as relaxing, entertaining and joyful.

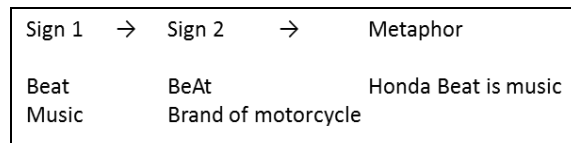| Sign 1	→	Sign 2	→	Metaphor
Beat		BeAt		Honda Beat is music
Music		Brand of motorcycle		

Figure 4.

Thus, the tagline of Honda BeAt implies a metaphorical concept (BeAt is music) that explains (or conceptualize) humans using plural personal pronoun; its scope includes the one that spoke and those spoken at (us). Then, the use of pronoun 'us' persuades the audience, or costumer in a more precise term, to ride the Honda BeAt automatic motorcycle. Thus, the structure of metaphor of the advertisement is shown as follows:

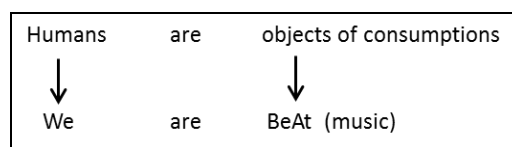| Humans	are	objects of consumptions
↓		↓
We	are	BeAt (music)

Figure 5.

Another metaphor, which applies the same pattern of humans are objects of consumption also found in the advertisement of Suzuki Satria with the tagline, 'Satria, bikin lo beda'.

In the tagline, the metaphorical process is formed with two signs. The first sign or the source domain is the word 'Satria' which means brave men in Indonesian, and the second sign or the target domain is also the term 'Satria' which, in this term, means the brand of the motorcycle being advertised. Then, the relation between these two signs gives birth to a new meaning that Suzuki Satria is a motorcycle that possesses the character of brave men. Thus, the derivation of target domain forms a metaphorical concept that humans are Satria (brave).

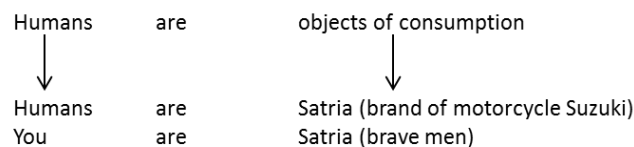| Humans	are	objects of consumption
↓		↓
Humans	are	Satria (brand of motorcycle Suzuki)
You	are	Satria (brave men)

Figure 6.

The metaphorical concept of Suzuki Satria's advertisement is represented in its tagline, 'Satria, bikin lo beda'. The metaphorical concept and the tagline explain how humans (costumers) may acquire the quality of a brave man by riding the Suzuki Satria.

Yamaha Jupiter MX with the tagline 'Jupiter MX, yang lain makin ketinggalan'

The advertisement of Jupiter MX begins with a group of cyborg entering the scene in purpose to find a motorcycle with high-end technology. They eventually find the thing they are looking for, Yamaha Jupiter MX, and do some checks to reveal the features of Yamaha Jupiter MX. The checks they do over Yamaha Jupiter MX alerts them of the advancement of the features of Yamaha Jupiter MX and eventually intend to destroy it because they feel threatened by its advancement. Suddenly, the scene shows Komeng (an Indonesian actor and comedian) rides Yamaha Jupiter MX to get fried rice for his friends. The cyborgs then immediately try to chase Komeng by shooting their weapon at him. Yet, Komeng rides the Yamaha Jupiter MX swiftly and results in the cyborgs' incapability to chase him. Then, Komeng manages to buy the rice and brings it to his friends. The advertisement is then concluded with Komeng introducing the Yamaha Jupiter MX and the jargon of Yamaha, 'Semakin di depan'.

Advertisement text
Cyborg 1: *Cari Teknologi canggih itu!* (Find the technology!)
Cyborg 2: *Ini Teknologi Yamaha super canggih* (This is the super high-end Yamaha's technology)
Cyborg 1 : *Bahaya menghantam kita. Hancurkan!* (Destroy it!)
Komeng : *Ada barongsai* (What, there are barongsai)
Cyborg 1: *Bodoh …. Tangkap dia* (Fool! Get him!)
Figure 1: *Nasi goreng nih* (Aaah fried rice)
Figure 2: *Lama amat Meng* (You took so long, Meng)
Komeng: *Ada barongsai ama kembang api. Ayo makan!* (Sorry, I met barongsai and fireworks. Let's eat!)
Komeng:Teknologi Yamaha, yang lain semakin jauh ketinggalan. (Yamaha's technology makes the others left behind, over and over)

The metaphorical concept of leader is also found in the advertisement of Yamaha Jupiter MX which is represented by its tagline, 'Jupiter MX, yang lain makin jauh ketinggalan'.

The metaphorical concept of the advertisement lies in the word 'Jupiter' which refers to an ancient Roman god with the same name, and consequently refers to the brand of the motorcycle. In Roman mythology, Jupiter is the center of the gods or the leader of the gods, which means that Jupiter possesses the quality of leadership within itself. Then, the quality of leadership possessed by Jupiter is assigned to the brand Jupiter MX, which results in the metaphorical concept of Jupiter MX being the leader of motorcycle in its league. The metaphorical concept of leadership represented through Jupiter MX's swift move is unbeatable when compared to other motorcycles. Thus, it implies that the metaphor of the leadership is the unbeatable swift move of Jupiter MX, which also means that it possesses more advance technology, compared to others motorcycles. The structure of metaphor of Jupiter MX advertisement is shown as follows:
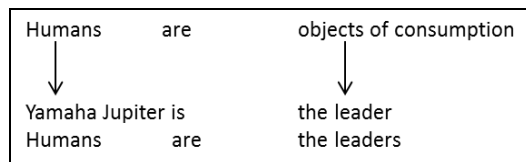
```
Humans        are         objects of consumption
     |                          |
     ↓                          ↓
Yamaha Jupiter is             the leader
Humans        are            the leaders
```

Figure 7.

The conceptual metaphor of Jupiter MX as the leader is transferred to humans using Yahama Jupiter MX. Then, to make a comparison that Yamaha Jupiter MX is better than the others, Yamaha uses the tagline 'Yang lain makin jauh ketinggalan' in which the name of the brand, Yamaha Jupiter MX, already conceives the concept of leadership similar to the Roman god Jupiter.

V. CONCLUSION

The metaphorical expressions, found in the advertisement, refer to the social value of leadership. The metaphor of consumerism emphasizing on the existence of individual in the social field is achieved through the use of certain commercial products. Consequently, the metaphor of consumerism implies a system of object that humans find their existence and their very self via the use of commercial objects, or, in other words, humans actualize themselves and find their very self highly dependable on the commercial objects attached to them. Moreover, the metaphor of consumerism also emphasizes on the value of leadership, which ideologically refers to two concepts: consumer as the leader that uses best product and manufacture as the leader on manufactured products.

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A Comparative Study of Nostalgia in the Poetry of Abdel Muti Hijazi and Nima Yushij

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Abstract—Nostalgia is one of the known subjects in psychology which is in direct relation with memory and recollection. Nostalgia is a longing for good old days and a comparison between past and present. That is why longing for and remembering the past would cause sorrow and grief. What causes sorrow in human beings is their separation from their ideal place, their social, political and cultural situation and in general their undesirable current conditions in life. It can be said that this unconscious behavior is a common feeling among the human beings. The nostalgia is one of the most significant subjects in modern Persian and Arabic poetry. Nima Yushij and Abdel Muti Hijazi are two of those poets that repeatedly utilized the theme of longing for blissful days of the past and remembering them in their poems. Their situation in life, keen intellect and sentiment and their familiarity with many poets and scholars are the motivation that aroused this strong feeling of nostalgia. This study accordingly to study the sources for the theme of sorrow and longing for the past in the poetry of these two we known poets.

Index Terms—nostalgia, poem, Yushij, Abdel Muti Hijazi, comparative literature

I. INTRODUCTION

The word nostalgia is the combination of the Greek words "Nostos" meaning a return home and "Algos" meaning pain. Oxford dictionary of English defines nostalgia as a form of heartache caused by a long term separation from home. So in this compound two words of pain and return are of utmost importance. In short nostalgia can be defined as a bitter sweet inner feeling toward things, people or places in the past. This word was first coined and used by one Johannes Hofer, a Swiss doctor, to describe the mental state of two of his patients. One of them was a student from Bern that came to Basel and the other a servant, both of them were cured after returning home to their families. From psychopathological view point nostalgia is a dream of the glorious past, a past that no longer exist and can't be rebuilt. According to Sharifian (2008) when people face hardship in their life or when they get old they seek ways to run away from their problems or wish for the return of their glorious past. But in literature nostalgia normally happens in the unconscious of the author or poet and so becomes a trademark

Nostalgia, memorandum, monuments or woe can be defined in short as a bitter sweet inner feeling toward things, people and places in the past. Another definition for nostalgia is a wistful longing for home. Oxford dictionary of English defined nostalgia as home-sickness. In the literature of the romantic period in France, in the works of Hugo, Balzac and Baudelaire nostalgia takes various meaning. In the works of Hugo it means the burning pain of exile, in the works of Baudelaire it is longing for strange lands, things lost and finally in the works of Sartre it means longing or yearning for nothingness. The cause for nostalgia can be listed as such: losing a family member or a beloved that makes you cry or sing an elegy (that brings a feeling of homesickness itself), exile or imprisonment, yearning for past that causes complaint about present, because the poet had a happy life in the past, emigration, remembering memories of childhood and youth and so on, problems of old age and thought of death, also other psychological and mental factors. Yushij and Abdel Muti Hijazi as two well-known poets of modern Persian ad Arabic literature dedicated parts of their poems to nostalgia because of their social and persona conditions in life. Here the goal of this study is to show how nostalgia is pictured in the poems of these two poet.

Yushij and Hijazi never lost hope even in the bleakest and hardest of social situations and they followed the same path in their poetical life even in the face of all those scorns insults. Hamidian (2004) states that the poetry of Yushij that his reaction to present situations it is one of these two: one is a dynamic spirit and hope for a change, in a place that people's conformity is in the horizon or an immediate future and the other one is a grave notions although an open minded one away from complete hopelessness, with an ever pondering on the reasons behind current situations or ways to get out of it, right in the heart of social oppression.

Because this study is based on theories in French comparative literature, first the conditions of research based on these theories must apply. There are two principles in the French theories for conducting a comparative study between two works or literary movement: A) there must be a linguistic differences between the two works or movements. Those two works or movement, Azimi (2003) observes, should be able to effect or affect each other and there should be a

historical relation between them. In this article the examples in the works of these two poets have been compared concerning personal memories under the title of nostalgia of homesickness" including feeling of homesickness, utopian literature and childhood and death.

Romantic Movement and Nostalgia

One of the key subjects in Romantic Movement that highly expresses nostalgia is scape and the world tour. Frustration with the current situation and time and a desire to get away, a call to a historical or geographical journey, a real tour or one in the realm of imagination are some of characteristics of Romantic works (Seyed Hosseini, 1987). In these historical journeys the author's imagination soar toward divine and glorious days of middle ages and renaissance that based on Friedrich Schlegel, as put, "was the era of heroes and love and fairytale that created the Romanticism" (Lowy& Sayre, 2001, p.132). In addition to imaginary journeys a romantic writer goes on real journeys as well and reflects on his memories of the journey through his work. In their journeys romantic writers hope for a glorious place in the end. The goal of a romantic writer is to find the ultimate beauty. This nostalgia for that "Paradise Lost" often includes a search for something long lost. Based on the young Lokag the Golden Age of Romanticism is not just belonged to the past, it is a goal and everyman's responsibility is to reach this goal. Another form of nostalgia in the Romantic Movement is the issue of fall from heaven and eternal spirit. In this case the poet feels that he is far away from his true self and lives in a strange land. Schlegel the famous German poet of Romantic Movement describes this feeling as "the soul under the willow tree crying in exile. The soul the house of spirituality, lives alone, away from his ideal place and his motherland in this world. In pre-Islamic era in Iran Manicheans, according to Dastgheyb (1994), believe that our soul is a tiny light trapped inside the darkness of our body, a reed faraway from its origin that should go back to its roots.

Comparative study of the subject

Being familiar with theories in new psychology has a great effect on the literary criticism to such an extent that today there exist a psychological criticism. In this line of criticism a literary work can be analyzed from psychoanalytical view point in order to find new meaning and new understanding in a text. One aspect of this school of criticism is to look at a literary work from a nostalgic view point. Nostalgia in its general meaning can be a feeling of heartache or sorrow that claws at the soul, a sorrow that all human beings carry with themselves. For many years this feeling reflected in Persian poetry. Sorrow is tied historically to the poetry or at least to Persian poetry a connection as long as the history and poetry itself. There are scarcely any poet that didn't use nostalgia and its many aspects in their poems. It seems that what creates a poem and a lyric is sorrow and pain. In literature nostalgia is divided into personal and social nostalgia (Shamloo, 1996). Personal nostalgia can be caused by factors such as losing a family member or a loved one, imprisonment and exile, immigration, memories of childhood and youth, problems of old age and thinking about spiritual or psychological subjects. Based on what has been presented in this study examples of personal nostalgia in the works of Yushij and Abdel Muti Hijazi is going to be presented.

II. METHODOLOGY

In this study "The Survey of Type of Works and Its Provisions" is used as ground for the psychological criticism of the works of Aminpour without psychoanalyzing the poet himself or looking for old pattern in his poetry. This study tries to explore and analyze the poet's "lifelong attachments" which manifested through different types of nostalgia and also shows the development of all kinds of nostalgia through his life. In literature nostalgia is a remembrance of sweet and forgotten past, remembrance of childhood and youth, simple rustic life and so on. The word nostalgia came from psychopathology and research conducted on this subject is the responsibility of psychological criticism, a branch of literary criticism. There are several ways that psychology can mix with art and literature, through the study of the process of creativity and creation of a work of art, through the survey of the genres and their provisions, through discussing artists and their life and personality and in the end through the study of the relationship between the reader and the work of art (Aminpour, 2005, p.137).

Questions and Hypothesis

1. What are the reasons for nostalgic tendencies in the works of Yushij and Hijazi?
2. What are the clearest signs of nostalgia in the works of these two poets?
3. What are the similarities and contrasts in the nostalgic or memorable components of their work?

The theory of this study is based on this assumption that the nostalgic element in the works of Yushij and Yusuf Hijazi are completely similar and there is minor contrast between them.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Nostalgia and a return to childhood

One of the forms of personal nostalgia is remembering the memories of childhood and youth. Maybe it is not far from the truth to say each and every one of us feels a kind of sorrow when remembering our childhood and this fact that those days are long since passed. Yushij also, in some of his poems, remembers those simple and innocent times of purity with the same feeling of sorrow nostalgia. Those days that as he himself said in his book "Poems and Childhood" are the most poetic days of one's life and so are closer to the poet's heart.

Alas, days of childhood past
No sorrow felt my heart ever
Simple mind, simple perception, less sorrow
Singing happily with other children
Happy days those days, happy days indeed
Ever remembered shall be those happy days
Those days are lost, gone those days
How we are going to be ever present? (Yushij, 1996, p.32).
Then the poet remembers those days that he played in the meadow with the lambs:
Here is where it all begins
Playing with the lambs
Looking at the clouds, flowers and hills
Listening to the bell sound of the herd
One with the whispers of the brook (ibid.)
For Yushij the woods and nature are the home because it is where he finds his childhood:
This here is my home
Belongs to my storytelling heart
This cursed heart of mine
Cost me my motherland
Here is the mark of my childhood (ibid.)
The opposition of the country life and urban life which is the opposition of natural, mythical and childish life versus the office life and industry and war inspires the poet and the artist to create a dream world. This is the dream that seems real to a child. Here, the poet, talking to his inner child, doesn't see this as a dream any more. This is not an unreachable dream any more.

Abdel Muti Hijazi also remembers his childhood and his village. His memories of his friends are evident through his poems:
Oh friends!
From my excessive fear of the road's end;
And from my fear of the night's arrival
"Farewell"
Painful it is to bid farewell and good night!
All words of bidding farewell is bitter
Death is bitter
And all things robs humans from the humans!
City streets are wide
They still in noon have all heat
That they absorbed in the noon.
Woe on the person who has not visited anyone except the sun;
Except buildings and its rail;
Except window displays and glasses.
Oh from the night of sky
From its off day;
It is empty from visiting.
Woe on somebody who does not love;
And all seasons his heart is winter.
Or later describes his memories of his nights out with his friends and their time together, remembering it all with a sigh:
Oh friends who are alive under solid walls;
Oh the star that remains sleepless at night;
I dread from the end of path,
I hope that it does not reach end;
And becomes narrow and threadlike;
And [this path] leave us sweet and pretty footprints
When there is no end for it
Like the horizon of countries at dawn;
Horizon in kind and warm countries
Crimson and tender dawn that embraces the houses [in the countires];
And trees in these villages are floating like the travelers' panniers.
I wish I were there
And move in its deep silence

Its diluted and foggy light is the Island of life;

The heat of its field is flowing on water and does not bore its flow and current (p.69)

Each human being remembers his childhood differently. This difference is more obvious in the poetry of those poets with a sensitive nature. Childhood poetry in either case is affected by the bitter sweet memories of the poet's childhood. Childhood's memory with all its ups and downs has some similarities in the poetry of both the poets, talking about their dispossession, loneliness and suffering during childhood which has a more realistic and often dark hue. Talking about a child brings out those bitter memories of childhood. Although this word in the poem of Nazik Al-Malaika has a more optimistic and romantic atmosphere despite the poet's reputation as being a pessimist.

Yearning for a mythical and historical past

One of the concepts that captures the mind of a poet with religious belief is the creation and Adam's exile from heaven. Persian poets often talked about this topic in their poems remembering it with a feeling of sorrow and heartache. Qeysar Aminpour also talks about this topic with the same feeling in two of his collections. Yushij (1996) uses the mythical factor to create a new world in order to show the pains and problems of the society in another light. That is why he uses the belief and collective unconscious of the ancient times to talk about new subjects. He uses different mythical background both nature myths and ancient also myths about animals and supernatural creatures.

In the poem *The Phoenix*, Yushij (1996) uses ancient myths. Phoenix in Roman language is a bird of various color that live a very long life. At the end of his life the bird gathers around a pile of firewood and sits on top singing a song so compelling that intoxicates even the bird himself and so he claps his wing together until the sparks coming from his wings set the pile afire that would burn the bird. Out of the ashes there would come an egg. The bird has no mate and it has been said that music is discovered out of his singing. Yushij looks at himself from this viewpoint. He sees himself as one that should carry a burden and finally burns in its fire so his offspring can be resurrected from the ashes and grow. He uses the phoenix as the symbol of resurrection:

Heavy wind blows the bird is burnt

The ashes has gathered up and discerned

That his hatchling will rise from the ashes   (Yushij, 1996, p.174)

In Yushij poem animals are used as a kind of makeshift myth, created by his mind as the symbol of various beliefs in the society. Tree frog that predicts the rain, turtle that is the symbol of laziness, passivity and dullness, bittern, the bird of sorrow, the became the poet's companion and can be the symbol of sympathetic people: "Yushij complains about his own loneliness and about not being understood by others. He means that no one pays attention to the one who shouts on the wall of this ruins" (Azimi, 2003, p.31). Yushij and this bird are one and the same. His attention to birds as mythical symbols comes from his fondness of birds which are plentiful in his region. He uses them as the symbol of social and intellectual difficulties.

Yushij is fully aware of the necessity of symbolism when talking about social subjects or hardships in the society and so he uses cultural belief and collective unconscious. He uses ancient myths, nature myths, myths about animals and supernatural creatures to talk about his notions. In addition to using classical myths he also creates new myths and symbols himself using natural phenomena which come directly from his own creative mind. He is known as the leader of new poetry (free verse). Because he grow up in the country and is very close to rustic life and nature he uses natural elements in his poetry, creating a new meaning in his poems. He also gave reality to surreal elements through his poems. He starts his life in the country and felt really close to natural elements, rivulets, blossom, birds, herds and shepherds and through personification formed an emotional bond with them.

There is a strong bond between mythology and the collective nostalgia. Some believe that mythology comes from mankind's pre-historic dreams. Most important parallel for us however is this, the race in pre-historic times makes its wishes into structures of fantasy. Which as myth reach over into the historical ages in the same way the individual in his pre-historic period makes structure of fantasy out of his wishes which persist as dreams in the historical period. So is the myth a retained fragment from the infantile psychic life of the race and the dream is the myth of the individual (Abraham, 1998). Examples of this collective nostalgia in Hijazi's poetry are his yearning for being open-eyed, for the era of consciousness, for fighting oppression and for demanding freedom in Egypt, Hijazi used *wind symbol* in this ode to portray the wretched condition of his country where colonizers didn't leave anything but destruction behind.

How these secluded beauties

That scattered on paths [they became common],

The police and culprits do not regard as permissible;

I have become ill and unable to answer these refugees' sweet and warm calls;

This is that unfertilizing wind;

During night will strike on my window;

Wild wings of rain will scream on me

And wind will resume its lament (Hijazi, 1997, p. 10).

Primitivism and having a nostalgic feeling toward past are undeniable characteristics of our society and culture. One can easily see the effect of this feeling in different historical periods. Literature as an artistic and cultural aspect of the society can perfectly reflect the belief and ideology of a nation. Although Terry Eagleton believes that:

Literature, then, one might say, does not stand in some reflective, symmetrical, one-to one relation with its object. The object is deformed, refracted, dissolved—reproduced less in the sense that a mirror reproduces its object than, perhaps, in the way that a dramatic performance reproduces the dramatic text (Eagleton, 2004, 80)

But one cannot deny the direct relation between literature and society. In Hijazi's poetry also recurrence is the characteristic of the wind with its various representations in modern Arabic poetry. For Abdel Muti Hijazi the wind is the symbol of destruction, the way it blows and ravages plantation and frail houses.

Homesickness

The cases of homesickness can be divided into two groups: the first group can be called personal homesickness which includes people who are away from their home for any reason, this kind is being reflected in the poetry of Qeysar. The poet who is away from his home and country remembers them with heartache and sorrow. Yushij'other nostalgic poem is *In Memory of My Motherland* the poet here nostalgically adesses the mount Farakesh which is near Yush, the poet's home town. The poet talks to the mount Farakesh about the pain and problems of living in the city feeling heartache and sorrow away from his home. Azimi (2003) observes that this might be the same pain and sorrow that he talks about so often "the core of my poetry is sorrow" (p.794).

Oh thou Farakesh it's been two years
That away I am from your pleasant sight
Mine is not my heart, flies away to you
So much that I long to see you
I, a captive, in these city rooms
Like a bird in a cage
A thief I am, as it seems
Deserving such prison (Yushji, 1996, p. 108)
And again in the poem "surrendered":
Odd I became and surrendered
Like a twig on the waves
My leaves all fallen
In the midst of the vortex
Leaving me just odd (p. 111).
In the end the poet complains about homesickness and wishes to be in his own motherland:
My eyes looking everywhere, my thoughts on home
Even the sea talks about my sorrow…
Until the day I pass you by again
Wish I was in my motherland, oh I wish I was in my motherland (p.159).

Hijazi (1997) through comparing the people who live in the city with those who live in the country reaches this conclusion that simplicity is the characteristic of rustic life "people in metropolitans are numbers" (p.12) in this case like using the train of *The Little Prince*'s thoughts he considers the people in the country as being simple and having the honesty of children while the people of the city are like *Grownups*. Hijazi uses the lemon metaphor as a mask for the poet and talks about returning to the nature and spirited life also about running away from the burdensome life of the city that prevent us from fulfilling our dreams in spite of the fast pace of life:

The lemon basket left the village early in the morning,
Until that time, it was not cursed.
It was green and humid with dews;
[And used to] float in the shadow currents;
In its siesta, it was the bride of birds.
Oh who did bestow on him beauty and tenderness?
Which hands did came to pick that [lemon] in the morning?
And who did carry him in the twilight,
And take here to busy streets?
Where steps do not stop, oh cars!
The cars which move with gas.
Miserable is one who does not smell you!
And the sun will dry your moisture.
(Hijazi, 1997, p.250).

In the beginning of the ode it seems that the poet is talking to the lemon which is ripe on the tree until it's been picked by the hand of a cruel man and been taken to the city against its will. In the city the lemon suffers hardship, bitter fate and abjection, sitting in front of the shop without a customer under the burning sun that scorches its freshness until it shrivels. It is the assumed meaning of the poem while the poet is in fact the lemon, force migrated to the city against his own will, to earn money for his material needs, so he sympathizes with the bitter fate of the lemon and reaches to this conclusion that the life in the city is different that the life in the country which is close to his heart. There is human relation, purity and sheer happiness in the country life that there is no trace of it in the city.

Nostalgia of Death

Each culture and civilization has certain beliefs about death which through history has engaged the mind of the human beings. Mankind have talked about death for ages in different forms and expressed their different viewpoints. Here, the viewpoint and feeling of poets can be interesting because they talk about their surroundings through their emotions. The obligation of the modern poetry is to reflect the concerns of humanity and in the matter of life and death it reflects the human intellect and literary achievements. Sometimes in the poetry of Yushij the subject of death becomes extremely sad, filling the poet with heavy grief. Looking closely at his elegies shows this point perfectly. The poem called *My Father* is one such poem that supports this bitter attitude toward death:

Covered up and lightly he is gone
So to wear me out by his grief (p. 351)
Or condemning the death that is the result of human's criminal acts:
Children, women
Men, those who were home
My friends, my fellows, all murdered right at this moment (p. 773)

Yushij (1996) tries to portray life in a society that humans suffer to liberate themselves and others from manacles and chains. He as a warrior goes to arena shouting. Somewhere in the poem *The Phoenix* the representation of the life giving power of death, a story told and retold times and again, brings the message of sacrifice and rebirth. Along with this image a revolution happens and heroes, giving their life, define death as a wakeup call, a power that opens the eye and let the life continues:

The city is wide awake
The city is vigilant
Blinking, he has to go
And his eyes
Has to pass over the world (p. 694).

Yushij has grew up in a religious atmosphere and Islam in general is against living in abjection that is why Yushij prefers a bloody death instead of a life time of abjection because Such death creates a movement. Thoughts like this keep coming to Yushij' mind along with a feeling of sorrow and nostalgia.

Abdel Muti Hijazi in the ode called *Bagdad and Death* talks about death, despair and disappointment and how the shadow of death is spread all over the city. Here Bagdad is the representation of the memories of past in the life of the poet:

Oh Baghdad!
Your murdered child is under sands
And waiting for you to write doomsday history with your axe!
Death is not to be buried under ground;
And life is not to walk on it (p.700).

In the following lines of the same ode the poet talks about the child of Bagdad in despair. That can't close his eyes even for a second and cries about his wounds. That is how the poet with a soul full of agony and suffering talks about his pure emotions and feelings.

Utopian Nostalgia

Utopia is a lifelong dream of scholars and philosophers. Sometimes philosophers like Plato talk about characteristics of utopia and sometimes poets and artists like Saadi talk about its traits. In any case it seems that longing for utopia always weighted on the mind of the artists and philosophers the same. Yushij's long poem *Manelli* is also the story of a fisherman called Manelli that one night like other nights goes to the sea for fishing but a little later as a great storm rises right of the middle of the waves comes a mermaid. She asks him to go with her to the depth of the sea. The fisherman refuses at first but after a long argument and much persuasion loses his heart and intoxicated falls to the arms of the mermaid going to the depth of the sea with her. After spending a night with her he gets back to the shore in the morning. Upon his return he finds everything different. He can't find his home and roam about in confusion. Not knowing where to go his mind keep coming back to the sea where his heart desires. Yushij himself talks about the poem,

But basically the story has some differences with other versions in world literature. I am not the first to talk about mermaids… I just tried to give her flesh and blood in my own imagination. I made this story about 1945 more or less. About two or three years ago before one of my friend translates Urashima. The thing that I used most was the theme or the concept of the story. I thought about my own obligation in this matter. This in fact is my answer to my friend's Urashima on a conceptual level (Yushij, 1996, 350).

Manelli in fact is Yushij himself, Roxana the narrator is the poet as well. Manelli talks about his own difficulties with the mermaid:

And for such worthless bread
I wasted away all of my life
There is none more needy than me
In a world that one should live on his own blood money
…the floods of sweat wasted away my brow

My labors shriveled me bald
Death knocks me to the wall every day (Yushij, 1996, p.359).

Yushij's description of the sea –utopia– is very beautiful. He tells it all through the mermaid but in fact these are his own thoughts and words. The mermaid promises him a life of happiness and comfort under the sea:

True, for everything good on earth
There are thing better under the sea
…and for every flower there are corals
I can do it all you'll see
All that passes on your mind
There are beauties all but spirit
Dizzy from dancing
Birds singing all the time
From the comfort of their pale beak
From their long and narrow pecker
Comes a song, a lyric
Such orphic flowers
Changing color at every laugh
That if you but once smell their scent
You will be intoxicated for life
Oh if you just know how lucky you are
More than the others
Are lucky those
Who live under the sea (Yushij, 1996, pp. 368).

That utopia which Yushij creates in the Manelli, is it the same surreal world, the same paradise lost that symbolists try to create and induce on our minds. The same hidden world beyond the reality that only the poet, using his psychic power bestowed upon him, can tell us about. Maybe this is the same way that enables Yushij to meet the mermaid –the spirit of the see and the utopia– the being that not everybody is able to see as the mermaid herself tell us:

Not all the people you poor man
Are able to see me as you did
Or be with me this easily as you did (p. 357).

Yushij, so far away from such despairs, reaches the utopia, those glorious cities –based on symbolists' viewpoint– in the arms of the mermaid. He with his description tries to create and presents a new world beyond reality. A place to be liberated from pain and bitterness and failure of this world, to reach the lifelong dream of mankind. That utopia that Yushij and Shamloo created in their poetry is very similar to the surreal world created by symbolist poets in 19th century French through using the tangible and symbolic elements in their poetry. That's why it is so close to symbolism that tries to create a utopia beyond the reality. Other examples of Yushij's nostalgic poems that uses the theme of homesickness includes the collections *Oh You Yeoman*, *My Delight,* and *Daybreak*.

The utopian literature in fact is distinguished from other genres by its idealism. Sometimes it is deliberately unattainable and unreal and sometimes it shows an ideal state that can be presented as a cultural standard. These two types of idealism in utopian literature leads to the creation of two types of utopian worlds: a world that shows an inconceivable utopia –a Neverland – (dystopia) or a supreme world that is in fact attainable (utopia). Believing in such imaginary world that all humanity dreams seems possible is the reason behind the creation of many works with such theme since the ancient times. The collection of these works is called utopian literature. The creation of such place in our world of imagination –a place that exist (in our mind) and doesn't exist (in reality) at the same time– in any concept, has risen out of our ideal and imagination. That is why there is no division between literary genre in this subcategory and any text in any area of philosophy, literature, religion and such, written about or with the theme of utopia, is categorized under utopian literature. Abdel Muti Hijazi in many of his odes talks about his own concerns with utopia and tells it though his own sweet poems. One of the most clear of them all is the ode, *The journey Began* which talks about the memory of Abdel Naser who was the symbol of freedom and generosity. Hijazi talks about how he fought the oppression and tyranny of the colonizers and in the midst of it all he relates him to the Hegira of Prophet Mohammad and presents Abdel Naser as the only salvation for the Arab nation to be free from the oppression and injustice, to finally attain justice and their long ignored rights.

It's been said before that the basis of decline in human values lies in the opposition between tradition and modernity. Humanity is been forgotten in the midst of an era of rumble, metal and rapid pace of life. In Romanticism we can see a return to the past, a revival of tradition and old values, a criticism of and a rebellion against the capitalism and the modern industrial world. Hijazi also talks about a city full of happiness and bliss that is been destroyed by abjection and fowl modernity.

IV. CONCLUSION

Nostalgia is a modern psychological phenomenon reflecting differently through the poetry of modern poets. Longing for past yearning for a past long gone are characteristics of the poetry of Yushij and Abdel Muti Hijazi. Poets who clearly show both lyrical Romanticism and social Romanticism though their poetry. Yearning for the past (nostalgia) is one of the widely used theme in the Persian and Arabic modern poetry so nostalgia has an important place in both Romantic and social-political poetry of both poets. City in the poetry of those poets who migrated or exiled is the symbol of alienation, chaos and confusion. In comparison the nature is the symbol of motherland and peace. Abdel Muti Hijazi, as a poet, values these symbols in his poems. For him the country is the symbol of intimacy, sympathy, emotional stability, friend and family. He migrated from rustic life and suddenly finds himself facing the cruelty of the city. The city that is the symbol of loneliness, alienation, decay, heartlessness, indifference and instability. In another poem Hijazi is at war with the city and can't ignore its vices, but finds himself getting used to living in the city and became one of them. Now the city seems interesting and attractive in his eyes and at the end looks like the symbol of motherland and even Arabic nation and their alliance. A desire for the past that can be equal to yearning is a natural common feeling that happens to all of us unconsciously. Remembering the past entice us to write and compose. That is why nostalgia is related to memories. These pieces often have a fervid and regretful taste. For Yushij home is where he was born. Every time he is tired of living in the city or barely endures it, he remembers life in his village, the woods and mountains with a feeling of sorrow. Naturalism in the free verse Persian poetry starts with Yushij and his keen interest in visual and tangible aspects of life. Yushij tried to portray a just image of the natural and social atmosphere of his own time through his poetry of free verse. The main theme of his poems is remembering childhood memories, elegy on homesickness and seeking a utopia.

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Deconstruction of Method-postmethod Dialectics in English Language Teaching

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Abstract—After a widespread dissatisfaction with the prescriptive nature of language teaching methods and approaches, the notion of postmethod emerged with an aim to providing possible solutions to the problems that both language teachers and learners face while using methods. But the transition from a long established method-based pedagogy to an emerging postmethod pedagogy could not altogether meet the expectations rather gave birth to new confusions and challenges. Therefore, this article describes the concept of method briefly and then outlines the shift from method to postmethod. This paper brings new insights into method-postmethod dichotomy particularly by discussing the areas where the relationship between them becomes dialectical on some occasions. It also addresses the limitations of postmethod by identifying the factors where postmethod pedagogy gets entangled in a newer type of method though it emerged with the promise to come out of the stranglehold of method. Finally, it shows how postmethod redefines the traditional roles of teachers where they not only act as practitioners but also as theorizers, evaluators, observers, facilitators, innovators, and planners.

Index Terms—ELT, method, postmethod pedagogy, dialectics

I. INTRODUCTION

There have always been attempts to bring about qualitative changes in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) through the introduction and adoption of new teaching approaches and methods. At the same time, these attempts also aim at the relentless search for the best method which can be made 'generalizable' and 'applicable across various contexts' (Mahdavi-zafarghandi, n. d.), the result of which a long list of methods have so far been in practice. But effective English language teaching does not depend only on the use of a method correctly by merely applying its prescribed principles and techniques (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) but also mostly on bridging the gap between what is theorized and what is usually reflected in the classroom. Kumaravadivelu (2006, p.163) rightly mentions that methods do not always provide different pathways to language learning and teaching since there is considerable overlap in theory and practice on many occasions. So, a completely new method is not always a variation of an existing method rather is presented with a new taxonomy or, with "the fresh paint of a new terminology that camouflages their fundamental similarity" (Rivers, 1991, p. 283).

Since each new method develops on the failures of the previous method and declares the demise of the old ones, educationalists have almost stopped searching for the so-called best method, instead they now put emphasis on the harmonious application of learning principles of methods and actual practices in the classroom. Instead of method, they now prefer the term 'pedagogy' to be used and methods are viewed and criticized as unproductive and misguided (Stern, 1985, p. 251) and 'a label without substance' (Clarke, 1983, p.109) and have "little theoretical validity and even less practical utility" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 170).

Amid the deep discontent with the concept of method, postmethod pedagogy emerged as the most optimal way of teaching English with an aim to freeing teaching from the method-based stranglehold. Nunan (2003) refers to method as "a set of guidelines that describes how the language should be taught" (p. 5), and with some 'prescriptive edicts' attached to it while postmethod is based on some classroom-constructed procedures derived from the teachers' prior experiential knowledge and/or certain strategies (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p.29) and is more a 'documentation and systematization' of the classroom practices designed according to the needs analysis of the learners (Nunan, 2004, p.177). Thus postmethod pedagogy requires us to reconsider the relationship between theorizers and practitioners of methods with rendering special emphasis on keeping teachers' sense of plausibility active so that teachers can go beyond the nomothetic tradition of mechanical practices in the classroom.

With the inception of postmethod pedagogy in English Language teaching and learning, methods are said to have moved to a complete inaction- the state that many others term as dead. The move 'beyond methods' (Richards, 1990, p. 35) has also sparked a new debate whether methods still retain any appeal in English language teaching. In this regard, David Block (2001, p.72) can rightly be mentioned who argues that method certainly retains a great deal of vitality at *emic* level (that is at the grassroots or to the public at large) though method may has been discredited at an *etic* level

(that is in theory and in the thinking of scholars). To me, the move from method to postmethod gives birth to a lot of dialectical situations where postmethod makes frequent references to method. Although postmethod pedagogy seems to have freed us of the constraints of the concept of method thus providing new options to language teaching and teachers, the postmethod condition at the same time has brought with it its own constraints in our thinking.

Over the last few decades, we have witnessed the rise and subsequent fall of a series of methods and approaches which forced ELT researchers and practitioners to reach the conclusion that no single method or approach would bring about success in teaching a foreign language since some learners appeared to be successful regardless of methods or techniques of teaching. Moreover, many scholars harshly criticized the concept of method for its all-purpose-fit nature and cautioned the language-teaching practitioners against the uncritical acceptance of these untested methods. As a result the search for the best method came to a halt and ELT entered into a new era of moving "beyond methods" (Richards, 1990, p.35) to the "postmethod condition" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p.27) thus bringing new insights into ELT. To me, postmethod rather than an alternative to method, is a further updated manifestation in the search for the best method. Postmethod pedagogy does not mean the end of methods rather it involves an understanding of the limitations of the concept of method and a desire to go beyond those limitations (Bell, 2007). Although postmethod has academically put an end to method discussions and the search for the good method (Allwright, 1991; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Prabhu, 1990), it is still a legitimate notion and very much alive to many teachers since it is a basis for building our own teaching (Bell, 2007). In the light of these, this paper discusses the concept of method and postmethod in brief and shows how method after its apparent demise still lurks inside postmethod pedagogy. This paper also endeavors to shed light on the dialectical relationship between method and postmethod pedagogy and its various manifestations.

II. Definition of Method

The concept of method has received much attention in the history of English language teaching. While deconstructing the concept of method, Bell (2003) defines method (with a lowercase m) as "a grab bag of classroom practices" and Method (with an uppercase M) as "a fixed set of classroom practices that serve as a prescription and therefore do not allow variation" (P. 326). He also defines method as an all-context-fit set of procedures which is actually "the oversimplified assumption of what language teachers do in the classroom" (Brown, 2000, p. 170). Richards and Rodgers (2001) consider methods "as an umbrella term comprising approach, design, and procedure" (Bell, 2003, P. 327). According to them, "a method is theoretically related to an approach, is organizationally determined by a design, and is practically realized in procedure" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 20).
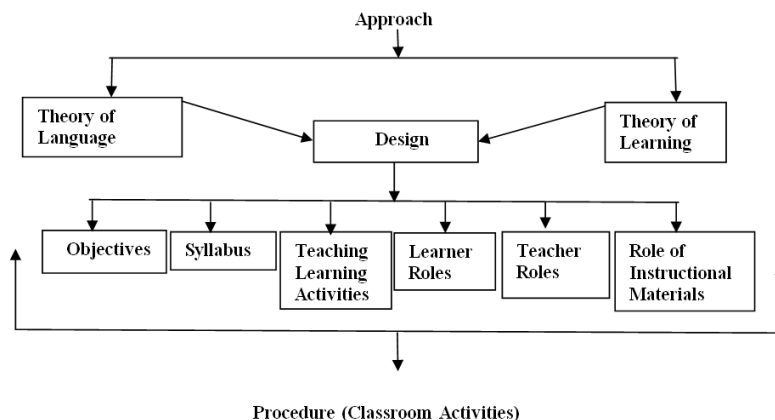

Diagram-1: Criteria for describing a method (based on Richards and Rodgers, 2001)

What they (Richards & Rodgers) call 'method' is more comfortably referred to as 'methodology' by Brown (2000) in order to avoid confusion. According to Anthony (1963), method implied an overall plan for systematic presentation of language, based upon the approach and implemented through techniques consistent with the method as well as the approach. Prabhu (1990), on the other hand, uses the term 'method' to refer "both to a set of activities to be carried out in the classroom and to the theory, belief, or plausible concept that informs those activities" (p.162). Kumaravadivelu (1994) defines method as "a single set of theoretical principles derived from feeder disciplines and a single set of classroom procedures directed at classroom teachers" (p.29). Pennycook (1989) argued that methods actually serve the dominant power structures in society, leading to "a de-skilling of the role of teachers, and greater institutional control over classroom practice" (p. 610).

III. Shift to Postmethod

The concept of postmethod, a fairly new phenomenon in ELT, emerged as the most optimal way of teaching English with a view to freeing teachers from the method-based restrictions. The term 'postmethod' was first coined by Pennycook in 1989 and was later studied by many other scholars like N.S. Prabhu, R.L. Allwright, H. H. Stern, etc. But

B. Kumaravadivelu (2006) uses postmethod condition in a much broader sense where he asks for redefining our perspectives on language teaching and teacher education. He argues that postmethod condition "drives us to streamline our teacher education by refiguring the reified relationship between theory and practice" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p.170). Kumaravadivelu (1994) further maintains that "if the conventional concept of method entitles theorizers to construct knowledge-oriented theories of pedagogy, the postmethod condition empowers practitioners to construct classroom-oriented theories of practice. If the concept of method authorizes theorizers to centralize pedagogic decision making, the postmethod condition enables practitioners to generate location-specific, classroom-oriented innovative practices" (p. 29).The postmethod condition is a practice-driven phenomenon which always criticizes the prescriptive nature of teaching and challenges the traditional role of teachers as a mere channel of received knowledge. It also calls for empowering teachers/ practitioners by minimizing the traditional dichotomous relationship between theorizers and practitioners so that they can "theorize what they practice and practice what they theorize" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p.545). By refiguring the relationship between theorizers and practitioners, postmethod condition always seeks an alternative to method than any potential alternative method, encourages teachers' autonomy and believes in 'principled pragmatism'. Crandall (2000) describes this shift from method to postmethod as "a shift from transmission, product-oriented theories to constructivist, process-oriented theories of learning, teaching, and teacher learning" (pp. 34-35). It shifts teaching from knowledge-oriented pedagogic theories to classroom-oriented theories of practice.

One of the most striking features within the scope of postmethod pedagogy stands out as it suggests a closer inspection of local occurrences, conditions and needs thus making teachers to be reflective in teaching. In other words, both postmethod pedagogy and reflective teaching are inextricable, intertwined and interdependent since both entertain the freedom of teachers in overcoming the constraints and limitations imposed by method. Such teachers are reflective in the sense that they observe their teaching, evaluate the results, identify problems, find solutions, and try new techniques. They are not stuck to following any single method. If they are not reflective in teaching, they "will be likely to teach as they were taught and, thus, ineffective teaching strategies will be replicated" (Braun & Crumpler, 2004, p. 61).

Postmethod condition offers three possible frameworks to language teachers who want to follow a postmethod approach in their classrooms: Stern's (1992) Three-dimensional framework, Allwright's (2000) Exploratory Practice framework, and Kumaravadivelu's (1994) Ten Macrostrategic framework. Stern's Multi-dimensional framework is both theory neutral and method neutral where he always advocates for transcending the concept of method through an integrated curricular agenda. Allwright's Exploratory Practice (EP) always puts emphasis on ensuring teachers' understanding of the quality of classroom life rather than on developing ever 'improved' teaching methods. To him, "the central concern is a wish to offer a practical way of bringing the research perspective properly into the classroom, without adding significantly and unacceptably to teachers' workloads, so as to contribute both professional development and to theory-building within and across the profession" (Allwright, 1993, p. 131). Kumaravadivelu's (1994) Ten Macrostrategic framework shaped by three parameters of particularity, practicality, and possibility constitutes the conceptual foundation for the postmethod which is said to be both theory neutral and method neutral. But "the boundaries of the three parameters are unclear and the characteristic features of these parameters overlap. They shape and are shaped by one another" (Chen, 2014, P.18).

A. Postmethod Pedagogy and Its Indicators

The indicators of postmethod pedagogy consist of the teacher, the teacher educator and the learner. From the postmethod perspective, learners are active and enjoy autonomy through which they develop a capacity to learn using appropriate strategies and at the same time to monitor their learning process and maximize the learning potential. It also liberates from the stranglehold of methods thus empowering learners to be critical thinkers. Postmethod pedagogy also recognizes teachers' previous and current knowledge, and their potentials to teach and act autonomously, and encourages to develop a reflective approach to their own teaching by analyzing and evaluating the teaching acts, and also by initiating changes in his classroom, if necessary. "What postmethod pedagogy assumes is that the teacher will eventually construct his own theory of practice" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, P. 180). They need to become self-directed individuals who will have clear understanding of the contextual factors. A study conducted among 18 Australian ESL teachers by Breen et al. (2001) shows that there is an interconnection between classroom practices, teacher beliefs and pedagogic principles, and their constant impact on decision making and ongoing thinking process.
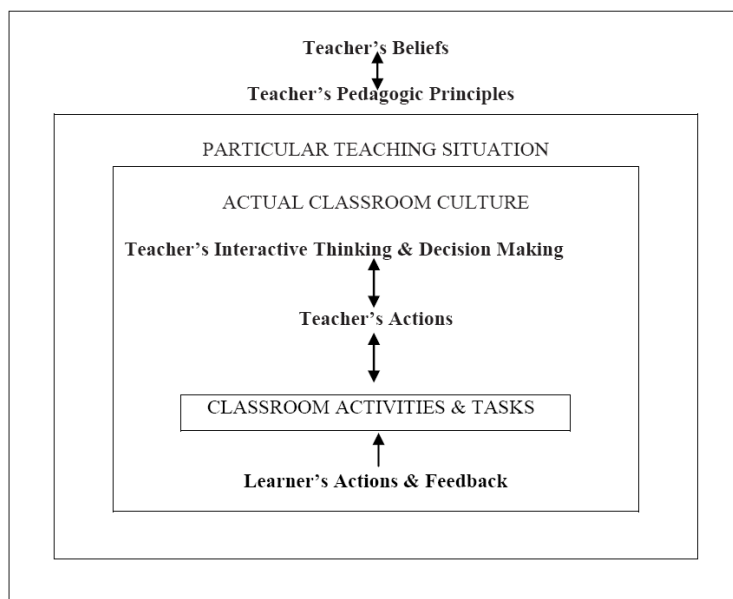
Diagram- 2: Teacher conceptualizations and classroom practices (Breen et al., 2001, p. 473).

According to them, "teachers' beliefs comprise a set of guiding principles" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 179) which "mediate between the experientially informed teacher beliefs and the teacher's ongoing decision making and actions with a particular class of learners in a particular teaching situation" (p. 180). These pedagogic principles are indeed "reflexive in both shaping what the teacher does whilst being responsive to what the teacher observes about the learners' behavior and their achievements in class" (Breen et al., 2001, p. 473). In postmethod pedagogy, teachers gradually develop some kind of personal knowledge that helps them construct their own theory of practice. The task of the postmethod teacher educators is to create conditions for prospective teachers to acquire necessary authority and autonomy that will enable them to reflect on and shape their own pedagogic experiences, and in certain cases transform such experience into practice" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 182). In postmethod pedagogy, the relationship between teachers and teacher educators should be dialogic so that teachers can freely and fearlessly express their voice and exert their independent identity.

B. Sense of Plausibility in Postmethod Condition

Prabhu (1990) uses this phrase 'sense of plausibility' to refer to a subjective awareness of the context where individual teachers fashion an approach and tailor classes keeping in mind that particular context. Postmethod teachers never stick to a single set of procedures, rather they exploit and adapt their approach in accordance with local, contextual factors. The sense of plausibility basically results from a number of contributing factors including a teacher's teaching experience, his earlier learning experience as a student, and exposure to a number of methods while training as a teacher etc. Teaching can produce the best possible results only when teachers are fully involved in teaching. And this involvement becomes functional when a teacher's sense of plausibility is engaged in the teaching operation. The main thing is not "whether it implies a good or bad method but, more basically, whether the sense of plausibility is active, alive, or operational enough to create a sense of involvement for both the teacher and the student" (Prabhu, 1990, p. 173). But this sense of plausibility is greatly hampered when teaching becomes over-routinized due to the mechanical adherence to method and as a result, teaching becomes frozen, ossified, or inaccessibly submerged, leaving only a schedule of routines. According to Prabhu, the enemy of good teaching is not "a bad method, but overroutinisation".

IV. DIALECTICS BETWEEN METHOD AND POSTMETHOD

Theoretically, postmethod marks the end of method era and disregards everything connected with method. But does post method really bring an end to method? There are some occasions when postmethod goes back with frequent reference to method thus making the dialectical relationship between method and postmethod more obscure and therefore needs further attention. Although postmethod has provided new options to ELT professionals and practitioners and brought dynamic dimensions in classroom practices thus freeing teaching from many of the constraints of the concept of method, it has brought with it its own constraints.

But in practice, postmethod does not altogether ignore the knowledge of existing methods and approaches since "experience with different approaches and methods, however, can provide teachers with an initial practical knowledge base in teaching and can also be used to explore and develop teachers' own beliefs, principles and practices" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 252). Though postmethod pedagogy widely criticizes method for its totalizing tendency and one-size-fits-all notion, some of its positive and beneficial aspects can never be obscured. Even in the narrow sense, "methods can be seen as vehicles for innovation and challenge to the status quo" (Bell, 2003, p. 332) and they offer

unique insights, however piecemeal and limited they may be. As vehicles for change, post method pedagogy also advocates innovation and brings challenges to the current practices of the prevailing language teaching system that go parallel with some of the traits of methods.

But Prabhu (1990), one of the proponents of postmethod pedagogy, highlights both the positive and negative effects of methods. He has described "the negative effect as 'overroutinization' (Prabhu, 1990, P. 173), and the positive effect in terms of 'real' (P. 174) teaching. 'Real' teaching requires a sense of involvement on part of the teacher, what Prabhu calls 'a teacher's sense of plausibility" (Bell, 2003, p. 333).Though to a limited extent, methods also have the "power to influence- to invoke, activate, interact with, alter in some way, and generally keep alive- different teachers' differing senses of plausibility, thus helping to promote and enlarge the occurrence of 'real' teaching" (Prabhu, 1990, p. 175). Confusion arises when method is discarded on the ground that it is merely an act of overroutinization. But method does not merely act upon some routine activities, it also embodies real teaching where a sense of involvement is required what in post method, is termed as 'sense of plausibility'. So this sense of involvement is not a new phenomenon what post-methodologists claim to be, rather it had a place in method itself. In successful pedagogy, the most crucial thing is not the method but the teacher's passion for whatever method is adopted and the way that passion is transmitted to the learners (Block, 2001). This passion is also quiet relevant in postmethod pedagogy without which the active involvement of teachers is simply impossible. So the absolute departure from the stranglehold of method is virtually impossible. Rather, post method has extracted the good from method and devised "the tools to deconstruct their totalizing tendencies and so counter the tendency toward overroutinization" (Bell, 2003, p. 333). According to Richards and Rodgers' (2001) organizing framework, postmethod techniques and principles can better be realized within the frame of the design features (method)—teaching and learning activities, teacher/learner roles, and the role of the instructional materials. What is so interesting about this frame of design features (method) is that it contains within it the tools- learner autonomy, context sensitivity, teacher/student reflection- the sheer outcomes of postmethod pedagogy.

A. Dialectics between Contexts and Methods

The factors behind the confusing relationship between postmethod and method are neither easy to identify nor simple to assess. It becomes more acute when the notion of method is over simplified just by ignoring the complexities of the classroom. Method is intended to be blindly followed without paying any attention to contexts other than method. But in classroom teaching, there have been a lot of dependencies between contextual factors and instructional methods and these factors tend to vary in different ways in different taxonomies. Postmethod pedagogy always upholds the supremacy of contexts in language teaching and demands teaching style to be shaped in accordance with the needs of that particular context. On the contrary, methods are unidirectional and do not change whatever the context needs even if they are not compatible with the students' learning expectations. So, we should not simplify and stereotype our teaching by using some preconceived ways rather we need to clearly identify the contextual factors in the classroom. We can thus refer to varying contexts like formal environment (classroom learning), for instance, "as against learning through social exposure, or to the formal school system, as against private language instruction, or to relative formality in teacher-learner relations, as against informal relations, or even to teacher-fronted activities, as against group work among learners" (Prabhu, 1990, pp. 163-64). But there are other variables like preferred learning styles, socio-cultural influences, or personality difference, where the distinctions among them are often unclear and overlapping. Furthermore, even when some contextual factors are clearly identifiable, using instructional methods is far from clear. In classroom, students tend to employ certain natural learning strategies which do not match the teaching methods that teachers employ though learners likely to learn more by following their own strategies. But teachers consider these natural tendencies adopted by students less conducive to learning since they constitute a deviation from their preconceived, traditional and stereotyped teaching methods.

So, contextual factors should be given a central role to play in pedagogy without merely being adhered to a single method. Moreover we also need to project and determine which variations of contextual factors really matter in teaching methodology since there are "indefinite variation on many dimensions, thus making it impossible to justify any instructional method for any single group of learners" (Prabhu, 1990, p. 164). And post-methodologists mostly uphold this very point- no adherence to any single method. Thus we can assume that decisions regarding using methods in language teaching will either be rendered unnecessary or play only a small part. Though methods seem to play a small part, proponents of the postmethod pedagogy cannot completely rule out the part method usually plays even within the post method pedagogy itself. Here, Richards (1985) can rightly be mentioned who argues that "the important issues are not which method to adopt but how to develop procedures and instructional activities that will enable program objectives to be attained" (p. 42). Instructional procedures are, in effect, "a kind of discovery procedure for methods. That method is best, it seems to say, which results from a careful implementation of the procedure, the soundness of the method being guaranteed by the soundness of the procedure leading to it" (Prabhu, 1990, p. 165). And the instructional procedures are most directly derivable from the contextual specification of needs, wants, and objectives being supplied to learners. So post method does not altogether reject method rather reinforces the place of contexts in teaching that methods have ignored for long.

B. Eclecticism and Principled Pragmatism

These variations in contextual factors in language teaching ultimately minimize the possibility of adopting a single method and open up the possibility of an amalgamation of different methods what the post methodologists term as eclecticism. Eclecticism suggests liberation from a monolithic matrix, a refusal to be doctrinaire, and an espousal of plurality. Actually, in method, teachers have the fewer choices available regarding instructional procedure in accommodating these multiple contextual factors whereas eclecticism incorporates language instruction, learning needs, target needs, learners' wants, teachers' preferences, and learning styles into a mere assemblage of a completely new type of content and procedure.

Eclecticism was introduced with a good intention to promote "the careful, principled combination of sound ideas from sound sources into a harmonious whole that yields the best results" (Hammerly, 1991, p. 18). Besides having such good intentions, eclectic pedagogy carries some drawbacks with it since the implementation of eclecticism in the classroom is not as smooth as it is described in theory. Most of the time, eclecticism cannot maintain the standard of principled synthesis of sound ideas in the classroom and as a result, it often turns into an "unsystematic, unprincipled, and uncritical pedagogy" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 30). Teachers with no or very little professional preparation wish to be eclectic in a principled way which is practically impossible. Moreover, eclectic approach does not provide any concrete framework for teachers on which they can construct their own pedagogy. What they usually do is to randomly combine some techniques from various methods into a scrambled one and label it eclectic. Stern (1992) can rightly be quoted here who mentions that the "weakness of the eclectic position is that it offers no criteria according to which we can determine which is the best theory, nor does it provide any principles by which to include or exclude features which form part of existing theories or practices" (p. 11). Thus teachers in an eclectic approach go for introducing the most conducive classroom procedures of language learning from the already available methods in one specific situation. It takes all the good parts from different methods and assembles to make a new one. In that case, Bell's (2007) claim seems to be justifiable who says that methods still pervade teachers' practices. In the name of eclecticism, teachers are taking recourse to a set of methods in a blended form instead of a single method. Therefore, postmethod pedagogy in this point again fails to clarify its position and obscures its long standing stance- the complete shift from method.

Principled pragmatism emerged in postmethod pedagogy when eclecticism fails to overcome the constraints of the conventional concept of method. Mellow (2002) uses "the term *principled eclecticism* to describe a desirable, coherent, pluralistic approach to language teaching" (p. 1). Principled pragmatism always upholds the pragmatics of pedagogy where "the relationship between theory and practice, ideas and their actualization, can only be realized within the domain of application, that is, through the immediate activity of teaching" (Widdowson, 1990, p. 30). Principled pragmatism thus looks at classroom learning as an activity "shaped and managed by teachers as a result of informed teaching and critical appraisal" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 31). Informed teaching and critical appraisal actually include an understanding of the learners' needs, linguistic strengths and weaknesses, as well as an in-depth knowledge of the possible variations in the learners' socio-economic and cultural milieu. So, principled eclecticism eventually challenges the historical conception of method as a list of cure-all prescriptions since one method can no longer be applicable to all classroom contexts. Thus, it puts emphasis on the need to transcend the rigid notion of method though this emphasis does not altogether guarantee the complete denial of method. Rather principled pragmatism emphasizes the judicious use of the eclectic blending of useful parts of different methods according to the demand of the contexts.

So, it has been clear that post method pedagogy does not deny theory (method) because it is the only instrument through which we can make sense of complex phenomena and can reach understanding in language pedagogy. Understanding of any language gets expedited when the underlying set of ideas or principles of that language fully corresponds to making a conceptual model or theory. "If the theories of language teaching (that is to say, methods) that we have at present fail to account sufficiently for the diversity in teaching contexts, we ought to try to develop a more general or comprehensive (and probably more abstract) theory to account for more of the diversity, not reject the notion of a single system of ideas and seek to be guided instead by diversity itself. Pointing to a bewildering variety of contextual factors as a means of denying the possibility of a single theory can only be a contribution to bewilderment, not to understanding"(Prabhu, 1990, p. 165).

C. Obsession with Methods and Postmethods

Both methodologists and post methodologists seem to be obsessed with what they advocate for. Stern (1985) refers to the search for the ultimate method as a 'century-old obsession' (p. 251) while Kumaravadivelu (2001) considers method as having "a magical hold on us" (p. 557). Here, theorizers seem to be more obsessed than practitioners, and the obsession has become stronger even after the so-called demise of methods. Methodologists are more concerned with methods and ask practitioners to slavishly follow whatever method they have been trained in while post-methodologists show much interest in practitioners and their intellectual autonomy and discernment. But practically, both methodologists and post methodologists tend to underestimate teacher autonomy. Just as advocates of methods often think that teachers who devise their own way of teaching fail to teach systematically while post methodologists fear that teachers will slavishly follow whatever method they have been instructed to follow. Here the very conspicuous thing is that "the pessimism of both sets of theorists underestimates the intellectual autonomy and discernment of the practitioner" (Bell, 2007, p. 142). So, both methodologists and post methodologists are to some extent obsessed and stuck to their own theories (methods).

V. Freedom in Postmethod Pedagogy

Postmethod theoretically frees teachers from method. But does it really free them from the stranglehold of method? In postmethod pedagogy, when teachers are to choose their own way of teaching, they cannot run the risk of choosing whatever they want since they need to keep in mind some principles and procedures necessary for conducting an effective lesson. Teachers cannot act upon their whimsicalities since their past experiences as teachers, postmethod pedagogy frameworks and their knowledge of the conventional methods function as catalysts in constructing their own methods. Their roles thus become multi-dimensional not merely being as practitioners but also as evaluators, observers, critical thinkers and theorizers. In postmethod condition, if teachers exercise much freedom in developing their own context-bound methodologies in 'my-own-method' style, they might adopt some sort of a 'hybrid' method. In other words, "the apparent freedom of choice that the postmethod condition seems to offer ELT practitioners, often results in the adoption of a jumbled concoction of techniques, which might actually represent a screen concealing teachers' limitations both to implement eclectic, principled practices that contribute to the effectiveness of the language learning process" (Soto, M. A., 2014, p. 40).

VI. Limitations of Postmethod Pedagogy

The emergence of postmethod pedagogy in ELT carries with it lots of limitations and challenges, especially when it comes to applicability. However, implementation of postmethod pedagogy is simply impossible without building an appropriate teacher education infrastructure as well as acknowledging the limits and problems teachers confront in their actual classroom lives (Akbari, 2008). Two other major sources of barriers- pedagogical and ideological- mentioned by Kumaravadivelu (2006) also need to be addressed if we want postmethod to be accepted as the dominant L2 teacher education framework. "The pedagogical barrier relates to the content and character of L2 teacher education" which mainly deals with the mere transfer of "a set of pre-determined, pre-selected, and pre-sequenced body of knowledge from the teacher educator to the prospective teacher" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 216), and "the *ideological barrier* refers to the politics of representation and what counts as valid knowledge. Through a process of marginalization and self- marginalization, teachers' practical knowledge does not find the space and the scope to be regarded as visible, and consequently, fails to become part of the accepted knowledge of the discourse community" (Akbari, 2008, P.645).

The big problem is that, in postmethod pedagogy, teachers' responsibilities are much broader and other than their academic duties, they are also assigned with "extra roles of social reformer and cultural critic" thus taking "language teaching beyond the realms of possibility and practice" (Akbari, 2008, P. 645). Besides tight administrative frameworks, teachers must take into account textbooks and tests and facilities as well. "Even if teachers do not openly subscribe to a method, the textbooks they use provide them with a working plan that defines how languages are taught and learned" (Akbari, 2008, P. 645) with no extra space to act freely in a seemingly postmethod era. In many circumstances, most teachers are viewed as "servants of the system" (Shohamy, 2004, p. 106) who prepare students for a specific exam or test by just "implementing the testing policies of central agencies with no power and authority to resist" (p. 101). Furthermore, the institutes and administrative organizations also pose potential threats to a postmethod teacher. Therefore, what Kumaravadivelu depicts about an ideal classroom environment is actually far from reality. Most of the teachers have high workloads but they are very poorly paid. Due to "the financial and occupational constraints they work within" (Akbari, 2008, p. 645), some teachers cannot devote adequate time and energy to be reflective upon their own teaching to overcome the language classroom problems in an era when there is not any method anymore. Though the postmethod pedagogy encourages teachers' autonomy and freedom of will in language classrooms, the set up acts the opposite. And teachers' lack of competence and confidence does not allow them to be bold enough to exercise freedom. It is also certain that very few postmethod teachers have the time, resources, or the willingness to shoulder responsibilities. As Akbari (2008) rightly points out "the assumption of postmethod proponents is that all teachers by default are qualified or willing to conduct a postmethod class with all its social, cognitive, political, and cultural requirements. That assumption, however, is questionable because many teachers lack the required knowledge or skill to teach in the postmethod fashion" (Akbari, 2008, p. 648).

VII. Conclusion

Though postmethod emerged with the intention to be an alternative to method, not an alternative method, some deviations in their dialectical relations have really obscured that intention. As a fairly new phenomenon in English language teaching, postmethod looks at language teaching and learning from a new perspective by recognizing the potentials of practitioners to the fullest. In the above analysis, it has been clear that though postmethods have announced the academic end of the method era, methods are not altogether dead in reality, nor will they ever be. In fact, postmethod pedagogy does not "imply the end of methods but rather an understanding of the limitations of the notion of method as it is narrowly defined and a desire to transcend those limitations" (Bell, 2007, p. 143) by empowering educators towards developing a standardized system of language teaching. Efforts in developing a standard method of teaching were very much apparent during the method era but they were sporadic and ultimately resulted in failures. But postmethod pedagogy has tried to string together these diverse, piecemeal efforts in a harmonious way so that it can overcome the limitations of method. But the confusion arises when postmethod pedagogy advocates for   an eclectic

blend of different teaching ways thus reconstructing a different type of method in the name of deconstructing the totalizing tendency of method from the perspective of local contexts. Situation becomes really dichotomous when postmethod declares a complete departure from method in one hand and at the same time makes frequent references to method, on the other.

To me, the problem is not with the method rather with its prescriptive nature. Here Arikan's (2006) view is worth mentioning who opines that, in the postmethod condition, the focus should not centre on discussing methodological issues in a sporadic way, but on the ways how teachers can implement those issues in classroom practices or how they can go beyond the prevailing methods. I think that teachers should be exposed to all methods so that they themselves can choose from the existing methods or even construct what principles they will use in their teaching. By looking at both method and postmethod, I have tried to show how method still retains a place in postmethod and how postmethod makes a newer type of method in the name of eclecticism and principled pragmatism. If these confusions are clarified, "the postmethod condition can potentially reshape the character and content of L2 teaching, teacher education, and classroom research. It can empower teachers with the knowledge, skill, attitude, and autonomy necessary to devise for themselves a systematic, coherent, and relevant alternative to method" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, pp. 43-44) than ever.

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Study of the Effect of Dynamic Assessment and Graphic Organizers on EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—**Reading skill is one of the four skills which is very important to gain knowledge and very essential for academic life. The main focus of instructing this skill is on comprehension (Schunder, 1992). Among different factors important in comprehending expository text; the text structure, known as organizational pattern and related pictures plays a key role (Armbruster, Anderson, & Ostertag, 1987). The aim of this study was to examine the effects of two reading comprehension strategies, i.e., Dynamic Assessment (DA) and Graphic Organizers (GO) on EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. Forty five elementary students were randomly assigned to two experimental groups (A, B) and one control group (C). Students in group A received Dynamic Assessment (DA) and those in group B received Graphic Organizing instruction (GO). Students in control group C were instructed traditionally. After 10 sessions, they were post-tested. The statistical tool of the Kruskal-Wallis Test was run to determine if there was significant difference. The results of the study showed that both experimental groups acted better than the control group on the reading comprehension. It should also be noted that because of relative superiority of DA group over TI, it is more logical to prioritize DA as a better choice. Nonetheless, GO group was placed somewhere in the middle among these three groups.**

Index Terms—**dynamic assessment, graphic organizers, reading comprehension, EFL learners**

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is one of the four skills in language learning that has great role in learner's future academic life and career success, in which comprehension must take place. As children get older, they are faced with reading and responding to content area material presented in classes such as science and social studies, which are expository in nature and qualitatively different from narrative texts. Students often experience difficulty with the transition from "learning to read" to "reading to learn" and this point is one of the main issues that not only EFL students but also most of the first language readers face. Unfortunately, this problem originated in learners because they do not know how to read meaningfully; in fact they are not equipped with different kinds of strategies in order to deal with this problem, and they are accustomed to the traditional method in which the instructor introduces the text and asked them to read and answer the questions with his/her help, which was mainly with no comprehension. So, being able to comprehend and respond to expository texts is critical for most students. L2 learning specialists claim there are different reasons for this shortage: one of them is the lack of expository materials in the early grade classroom; in addition to that, expository texts may be more difficult to comprehend than narrative texts. Expository passages often present readers with unfamiliar concepts, new vocabulary, and complex relationships between ideas (Griffin & Tulbert, 1995), with a greater density of information per sentence. Finally, the structural designs underlying expository texts differ from the simple story structures of narrative texts (Cain, Oakhill, & Bryant, 2004; Meyer & Ray, 2011). Thus, students who are accustomed to narrative texts are suddenly confronted with both unfamiliar content and unfamiliar organizational patterns when they enter the later grades.

The main objective of this study is to examine the effect of using two reading comprehension strategies i.e., dynamic assessment and graphic organizers on the students' reading comprehension. It was mostly justified by some theoretical facts, which are behind these two strategies and lend support them, such as schema theory which emphasize that learning should take place in an organizational patterns and will happen when the newly learned materials are integrated to one's existing cognitive framework of knowledge (Winn and Snider,1996), so it is important to make distinction between rote learning and meaningful learning which leads to comprehension. Dual Coding Theory is second theoretical base for them in which the interconnection of two verbal and visual systems of the memory facilitate the interpretation of the text and also make it easier to retain and retrieve (Clark & Paivio, 1991). The last one is Cognitive Load Theory: this strategy claims that they have the abilities to decrease the cognitive aspects resulting in the condition that working memory is capable to get more learning material (Adcock, 2000).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Origions of Dynamic Assessment (DA)

Lidz and Elliott (2000) claim that dynamic assessment focuses on approach which understands individual differences and their implications for instruction. Dynamic assessment procedures focus the process itself rather than the products of learning (Lidz & Gindis, 2003).

DA has emerged from the work of Vygotsky in the Soviet Union and Feuerstein in Israel. Vygotsk's approach is a way to measure the zone of proximal development (ZPD) of a child and his or her ability to benefit from the help of a more experienced other. The more that a child can profit from meditation, the greater the ZPD is. The expressed goal of DA is modifying learners' performance during the assessment itself. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) discuss in the following way:

The present study is motivated by the need to shed some light on one of the main issues in TEFL, namely developing students' reading skill by taking some obstacles away, by which most of them encounter in the classrooms. One of these problems derived from the existence of unknown and unusual words that are in reading text. The second problem refers to the not existence of awareness about the organization of the text". Pertaining to these issues, the study was set up to investigate the effect of three reading comprehension strategies namely, Graphic Organizers (GO), L1 Marginal Glossing (MG) and traditional instruction on reading comprehension achievement of the EFL learners. Throughout the ten sessions of the study, the researcher gathered data to measure the effectiveness of these techniques in improving students' reading comprehension ability. The study was guided by two research questions and related hypotheses.

1. Dynamic Assessment vs. Statistic Assessment

Bachman (1990) believes that since, the assessment is an index of the individual true ability, testers should be careful about language proficiency. But in a NDA the abilities will be affected due to the assessment means and the testing context McNamara (2004).

As Vygotsky (1998) states it the results of conventional assessment models look like an empty medical diagnosis in which a doctor's "job is merely restating the patients" known problem in a scientific term (p. 205).

Vygotsky (1998) believes that this kind of diagnosis is unacceptable and must be changed with a kind of "True Diagnosis" something that includes "an explanation, prediction and scientific basis for practical description" (p.205). DA tries to do that therefore the conventional and traditional terms applied in NDA procedures such as generalizability do not apply in DA. (as cited in Malmeer & Zoghi, 2014)

2 Mediation in Dynamic Assessment

Mediated assistance is a very specific form of feedback which is provided in DA, and this is the heart of the assessment process. The mediation can be presented in two formats: sandwich or cake. The sandwich format typically consists of three stages: pre-test →mediation (instruction) →post-test. That is, first, test-takers are asked to complete pre-test activities; second, they are given instruction (planned in advance or adjusted to test-takers' needs taking into account their performance during the initial test), and finally, they move on to a series of post-tests. This DA format is labeled as "sandwich" because instruction usually occurs between pre-test and post-test stages throughout the test administration. In sandwich format, instruction may be given in individual or group settings to promote test takers' development. Within the layer-cake format, assessment comprises intervention (or feedback) from the examiner during the test administration itself. In this DA format, the examinees carry out testing activities that are given item by item. If they cannot answer an item correctly, they are provided with instruction in the form of pre-fabricated hints (Hessamy & Ghaderi, 2014).

The cake format lends itself to individual administration in that the examinee is provided with instruction during the assessment process itself. The examinee's ability to learn is measured during the process of learning and feedback is given until the examinees succeed in doing the task or giving it up (Hessamy & Ghaderi, 2014).

B. Graphic Organizers (GO)

Different learning strategies seem to provide readers different ways to successfully understand the text (Anderson and Pearson,1984; Grabe, 1999; Grabe & Stoler, 2001), among these different strategies, graphic organizer is the one that is supported by many researchers as an effective one, in promoting comprehension (Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; Conley,2008; Ellis & Howard, 2005; Grabe & Jiang, 2007; Graves, Juel & Graves, 2006; Jiang, 2012; Ozturk, 2012; Vacca & Vacca, 1999).

Graphic organizers are set of visual devices that portray information in different ways. They use such items as lines, circles, and boxes to form images, which show the usual ways in which information is typically organized: hierarchic, cause and effect, compare / contrast, and cyclic or linear sequences. They serve as visual cues to facilitate communication or understanding of information by showing how essential information about a topic is organized (Ellis & Howard, 2005).

GOs can be effective if:

► The complexity and difficulty of the GO shape is developmentally suitable for intended students' background knowledge and experience with GO.

► Students' zone of proximal development matches the level of scaffold assistance associated with using the GO.

► The complexity and density of the information to be communicated on the GO is appropriate in relation to students' background knowledge of the information or closely related topics.

► Given students' scripting ability, the size of the space for which information is to be noted by students on the GO is sufficient.

► Students' reading and scripting skills are sufficiently developed so that they can independently read what they noted on the GO at a later time (Ellis & Howard, 2005).

According to Ellis and Howard (2005) GOs work best when instruction is informed, explicit, intentional, and scaffold.

1. Effects of Graphic Organizer in Learning

To summarize the issue, GOs are a bundle of learning strategies which include translating words expressed in linear form into visual structures. When written and hard concepts are expressed graphically, the students can use other structures for understanding the course concepts. GOs also increase students' ability to learn to reject the arguments. While GOs are some established cognitive tools to promote learning, they also help students with differing learning styles in their attempt to master legal analysis. So, the role of learning styles in the law school classroom is emphasized. Meanwhile, GOs may help students learn analysis because they visualize relationships, steps or chronology through showing the spatial relationship between the ideas (McElroy & Coughlin, 2009).

It should also be mentioned that GOs may have a positive effect on reading comprehension (I.A.R.E., 2003). It's believed that the reading comprehension skills of students in elementary and secondary schools improve with the introduction of GOs. The National Reading Panel (2000) in the United States studied the research literature on reading comprehension and expressed that GOs are one of the seven most effective teaching strategies for reading comprehension. It was also proven that the teachers who include GOs in their instructional practice can improve their students' academic performance (as cited in I.A.R.E., 2003). Other results from three different studies showed that "GOs are a helpful method for improving student retention and recall of information for both elementary and junior high students with learning disabilities, as well as upper elementary students" (as cited in Zaini, Mokhtar, & Nawawi, 2010, p. 18).

2. Graphic Organizer in Reading Comprehension

A simple investigation of the recent literature of reading showed that students should have a number of reading strategies at their disposal. Many researchers claimed that reading strategies are helping tools which contribute to reading abilities. Also, in overall reading comprehension abilities, awareness of text organization is a key factor (Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002).

One of the most important ways to recognize discourse structuring in texts is through the use of graphic organizer (GOs) – visual representation of information in the text. Prior to 1969, advance organizers had been introduced as prose passages. Baron (1969) modified them into tree diagrams for vocabulary acquisition. He termed this diagram as "the structured overview". A structured overview is a "diagrammic representation of the basic vocabulary of a unit so as to show relationships among the concepts represented by those words" (Earle, 1969, p.4).

Graphic organizer is defined as spatial arrangements and wording that organizes key conceptual relationships graphically (Bean and etal, 1986). These GOs represent information as a semantic web or as an outline of main ideas in a text. These semantic webs highlight discourse structure of the texts. In other words, sketching a semantic map or graphic organizer is exactly the same as getting an x- ray in that it shows the deeper skeletal parts vividly. Fishbone diagram, cause and effect, pie chart, semantic feature analysis, cloud, continuum scale, comparison and contrast matrix are clarified as some different types of graphic organizers (as cited in Rostami Sarabi, 2012).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Purpose and Research Questions of the Study

The present makes an effort to shed some light on one of the main issues in TEFL, namely developing students' reading skill by taking some obstacles away, by which most of them encounter in classrooms. One of these problems derived from the "existence of unknown and unusual words in reading text". The second one refers to the "lack of awareness about the organization of the text".(Larijani, and etal, 2015) Pertaining to these issues, the study was set up to investigate the effect of thee reading comprehension strategies namely, Dynamic Assessment (DA), Graphic Organizers (GO), and traditional instruction on reading comprehension achievement of the EFL learners. Throughout the ten sessions of the study, the researcher gathered data to measure the effectiveness of these techniques in improving students' reading comprehension ability. The study had two research questions and related hypotheses:

RQ1: Does the type of reading strategy used (dynamic assessment vs. graphic organizers) differentially influence students' reading comprehension?

RQ2: Which strategy has the most effect on students' reading comprehension?

Moreover, the following hypotheses were developed accordingly:

RH_1: The type of reading strategy used (dynamic assessment vs. graphic organizers) can differentially influence students' reading comprehension.

RH2: It is thought that dynamic assessment will have the most influence on students' reading comprehension.

B. Participants

To accomplish the task, 90 students participated in this study. The participants included female and male students studying at Payame Noor University of Ardabil. In order to establish the homogeneity of the subjects in terms of

language proficiency, Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was given to the subjects and based on their performance on this test 45 students in elementary level were selected to take part in the main phase of the research. These students were divided into three equal groups: Dynamic Assessment (DA), Graphic Organizers (GO) and Traditional Instruction (TI). Each group comprised of 15 students.

C. Instrumentation

The materials used in this study included a packet consisting of a standardized proficiency test, i.e. Oxford Placement Test (OPT) devised by Edwards (2009), reading passages for treatment sessions and a reading comprehension test which served both as pretest and posttest.

D. Procedure

The study composed of 10 sessions. It was an experimental study incorporating one dependent and one independent variable. The dependent variable was the reading comprehension ability of students and the independent variable was strategy type, which had 3 levels, namely, DA, GO and TI.

IV. DISCUSSION

In order to determine proficiency level of 90 participants, Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered (Table 1). Consequently, the number of homogenous elementary level students who were selected to take part in the next stage were 45.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTIC FOR SCORES ON THE PROFICIENCY TEST

N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
90	19	5.94	7	42

Once the outliers were excluded, the supposedly homogeneous participants (n=45) were assigned to three equal groups.

In the second session, the researcher administered the pretest to examine the three groups in terms of reading comprehension. Since most of the texts in the students' books were not in sequential frame, some sequential texts were prepared by the researcher from other sources (course books and some texts were retrieved from the internet). The researcher chose ten texts from the books and internet as *unseen* and 10 texts from their course books, namely *seen* texts. To compare their readability and make sure that the sequential texts suited their level, readability was calculated, using Flesh Reading Ease in Microsoft Word. 2007, and then a t – test was run among two groups texts.

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics for these passages and Table 3 depicts the result of t-test, which reveals no statistically significant difference in the mean scores of two groups of texts (t(18) = 0.601, p= 0.56). Therefore, the researcher decided to choose these texts to be used in pretests and posttests and during treatment sessions.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE TEXT READABILITY STATISTIC

Group	N of texts	Mean	SD
Seen	10	87	3.6
Unseen	10	86.25	7.9

TABLE 3.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST TO COMPARE READABILITY OF THE TEXTS

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means	
	F	Sig	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	5.82	0.027	0.601	18	0.556
Equal variances not assumed			0.601	12.561	0.559

After administering OPT, the researcher administered the pretest in order to examine the groups in terms of their reading comprehension of texts with sequential frame. Table 4 demonstrates the descriptive statistics for pretest scores.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SCORES ON PRETEST

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Group A	15	10.3	2.46	7	15
Group B	15	10.7	1.92	8	14
Group C	15	10.3	1.92	9	12

As understood from Table 4, the mean scores of three participating groups are almost close to each other and, accordingly, groups can be regarded as homogenous in terms of reading proficiency. Figure 1 graphically shows the result.
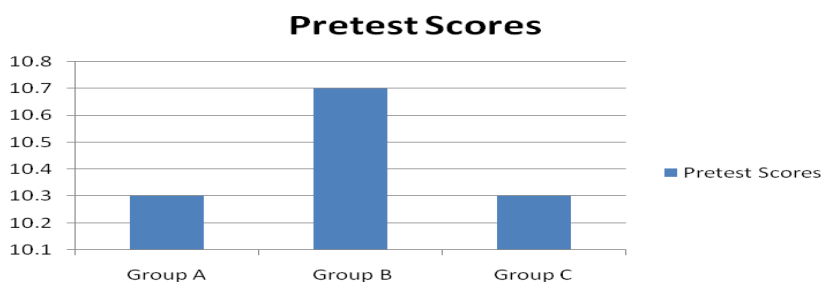
Pretest Scores

Figure 1 Performance of three participating groups on pretest

An ANOVA was necessary to see if there was any significant difference between the groups in terms of their reading ability. First, a normality test was run to make sure the scores were normally distributed. As shown in Table 5, the difference did not reach significance level (sig. = 0.20), hence the scores were of normal distribution.

TABLE 5.
NORMALITY CHECK FOR THE SCORES ON PRETEST TEST

Kolmogorov - Smirnov		
Statistic	Df	Sig.
108	39	0.200

Since the data were normally distributed, an ANOVA was run. Table 6 depicts the result. As it can be seen, there was no significant difference among the mean scores on pretest for the three groups. (p = 0.80).

TABLE 6.
ONE-WAY ANOVA ON PRETEST SCORES

	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F	Sig.
Between groups	1.59	2	.795	.213	.809
Within groups	134.15	36	3.72		
Total	135.74	38			

In the following session, in group A, in dynamic assessment phase, the mediator provided individualized mediation and assistance, including prompts, hints, suggestions, explanation, etc. in a justifiable and meaningful way, where necessary.

The mediator was cautious about the problematic areas from pretest phase and additional problems that the learner revealed through interactions in this phase. Through DA, the mediator tried to help the learner optimally with the help of mediation. The mediator interrupted at various points to ask questions, offer suggestions, and provide help when necessary; sometimes he interrupted to provide a correction, to question something that was said, or to make general comments.

The mediator also encouraged students to ask him for help in case of need. When a student used incorrect forms in answering questions, the researcher provided a series of graduated prompts, arranged from implicit to explicit, to help the student reformulate the form correctly.

In group B (GO), the participants were given instruction on how to use GOs. As Chiang (2005) states there were three stages in constructing a new learning strategy, with *Modeling* as the first stage; at this stage, the teacher first showed the students how a strategy is employed and why it is worth learning. After reading the passage, the instructor drew a graphic organizer special for sequential text on the board showing how to write stage by stage the relevant information in order to have organized and visual knowledge about the passage. In the second stage - *guided practice*- students were asked to share suggestions for what to add to each section and explain why. Then the instructor asked them to organize the text in groups under the guidance and supervision of the teacher. In the end, they were asked to apply GO strategy individually (*independent application*). This cycle continued in the 6 coming sessions. At the end of each session, the students were going to answer related multiple choice tests.

The instruction in group C was conducted by another teacher and basically followed traditional principles. The teacher in this group read the text loudly and students repeated each sentence after the instructor. The passage was then translated into (first language) and the students started to answer the following reading comprehension questions.

In the last session four reading comprehension passages with 20 related questions (12 multiple-choice and 8 true/false) were presented as posttest. Descriptive statistics for groups' performances on the posttest are presented in table 7.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR SCORES ON POSTTEST

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Group A	15	16.23	2.00	13	19
Group B	15	14.15	2.26	11	18
Group C	15	12.92	1.32	11	15

Repeatedly, in order to select the appropriate statistical analysis, test of Normality was run. The results, as shown in Table 8, indicated that the Normality was violated (sig. = 0.001).

TABLE 8.
NORMALITY CHECK FOR THE SCORES ON POSTTEST

Kolmogorov – Smirnov		
Statistic	Df	Sig.
168	39	.00

Since the distribution was not normal, the Kruskal-Wallis Tests, which is the non–parametric alternative to one-way between groups analysis of variance, was chosen to compare the scores for three groups. The results of this test, presented in Table 9, revealed a statistically significant difference between three groups in terms of their performance on posttest (sig. =0.00).

TABLE 9.
THE KRUSKAL – WALLIS TESTS FOR THE SCORES ON POSTTEST

Chi-Square	13.08
Df	2
Asymp.Sig	0.001

Although a statistically significant result for Kruskal Wallis Test was obtained, it was not clear which groups were statistically and significantly differing from the other one. To find out this, the researcher did some follow-up Mann - Whitney U tests between the pairs of groups. In this phase, the use of Bonferroni correction to the alpha value was necessary in order to control for Type 1 errors. To do this correction, the alpha level of .05 was divided by the number of comparisons that was intended to be used. The revised alpha level as criterion for determining significance was 0.05/3 =.016. Table 10 shows the results of the comparisons.

TABLE 10.
MANN-WHITNEY U AS A POST – HOC COMPARISON AMONG GROUPS

Groups		Z	Asymp.Sig	Effect Size
DA	GO	-2.280	.02	0.0876
DA	TI	-3.050	.00	0.1173
GO	TI	-1.408	.16	0.0541

The result of this comparison showed that the difference between DA and GO (Z= -2.28, p = 0.02) was not significant. The difference between DA and TI, however, reached significance (Z= -3.050, P= 0.00) although, the effect size was small (0.11). The difference between GO and TI was not significant (Z=-1.408, P= 0.16).

V. CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to measure the effect of using three reading comprehension strategies of GO, DA and TI on EFL students' reading comprehension ability. As results showed, students who used DA outperformed those who received GO and TI.

On the other hand, through the use of dynamic assessment procedures with standardized test instruments, more insight into the reading profile of the student can be achieved. Thus, this can be advantageous to the assessor, because the results of dynamic assessment in reading can provide information for instructional programming. Most importantly, it is the student who can profit most from dynamic assessment than Graphic Organizers. Because their reading abilities can be more accurately assessed which can, in turn, lead to higher level of reading performance. Similarly, the researcher can affirm that the paradigm of dynamic assessment is useful in the domain of EFL learning but not in the field of general cognitive performance.

The noteworthy thing to say is that, as Schundler (1992). claims, education should be concerned not just with theories of instruction, but with learning to learn, developing skills and strategies to continue to learn, with making learning experiences meaningful and relevant to the individual, with developing and growing as a whole person.

Finally and to summarize the issue, DA intervention in the form of mediation was shown to have a significant role in the diagnostic perspective of students' problem areas. The procedure section provides a lot of examples showing that in many cases that the students were not able to display their second language during the independent performance but they could overcome the problem after receiving implicit or explicit assistance provided by researchers or rather the mediators. (Nazari, & Mansouri, 2014)

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Exploring Changes in Teachers' Instructional Practice through Self-evaluation as a Meditational Activity: A Case Study

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Abstract—This study investigated an Indonesian English language teacher's instructional practice and the extent to which the practice capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation. The study was framed using Vygotsky's sociocultural theories. A case study, which drew on multiple data sources including interviews, classroom observations, and documentation, was employed. A range of artefacts including lesson video recording, student feedback, and collegial dialogue are used to self-evaluate teacher's instructional practice. The qualitative analysis suggested that self-evaluation involving teacher's self-reflection on teaching in Indonesian university contexts had significant potential for mediating changes in instructional practice. The findings also revealed that teacher self-evaluation led to heightened self-reflection through which teachers understood themselves and their instructional practice more deeply in terms of their strengths and areas for development. This suggests that teacher self-evaluation contributes to professional learning by empowering teachers to transform their practice. Given that teacher self-evaluation is still a relatively new phenomenon in the Indonesian educational context; the positive outcomes reported in this study are promising. Hence, it is reasonable to recommend that educational leaders in Indonesia provide opportunities for teachers to formally self-evaluate. The necessary provisions must therefore be in place and will ideally include formal training or workshops on how to perform a self-evaluation, the allocation of time to carry out the process, and ongoing support to address teachers' needs and concerns about the process in terms of consistency and timeliness.

Index Terms—instructional practice, self-evaluation, meditational activity, sociocultural theory, English language teacher, case study

I. INTRODUCTION

Teacher evaluation is an issue in a range of international contexts and is linked to growing global concerns with quality and accountability in education. Evaluations of teacher professionalism (English teachers included), course structure and delivery, and teacher performance occur in universities in Indonesia by way of summative processes. They include student questionnaires completed at the end of each semester. Unfortunately, there are limitations inherent to this evaluation method including misunderstandings on the part of students when answering questions, the subjectiveness of the responses, and a feeling of reluctance by some students to provide accurate and honest feedback for fear of recrimination.

Moreover, teachers receive the questionnaire results – usually towards the end of the semester – in Likert Scale form without sufficient or specific descriptions or information about what teaching actions should be maintained or improved upon during the term. Many teachers therefore do not use the questionnaire results as resource to guide teaching improvement and personal development. Moreover, student feedback alone has insufficient detail to help teachers improve and, in any event, this evaluation method is only used by the institution for the purposes of a performance review (Wesner, 2007). As a result, a great number of English teachers in Indonesia are dissatisfied with this summative evaluation method (Limantoro, 2003). For most teachers, evaluations conducted by department heads do not help them to improve their teaching practice as they are generally brief, lack specific suggestions for improvement, and lack the provision of resources needed to improve (Airasian & Gullickson, 1997). Furthermore, there is limited discussion at teachers' meetings about classroom practices and teaching performance (Bjork, 2005). As a consequence, teachers have to rely on their own initiative if they wish to improve their teaching expertise and to engage in professional development.

From a sociocultural theoretical perspectives, "human cognition is understood as originating in and fundamentally shaped by engagement in social activities" (Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p. 2). Teachers acting as individuals in sociocultural contexts learn how to improve their teaching skills by participating in particular professional development activities. Teacher self-evaluation is one such activity that helps English teachers in Indonesia to undertake self-learning in order to develop their teaching practice. Teacher self-evaluation is a process whereby teachers gather data on their own teaching effectiveness. The data is then analysed in order to reflect on what changes may be required to facilitate improvement (Taylor, 1994). Teacher self-evaluation is therefore a form of self-reflection and improvement which

becomes one of essential indicators of teacher quality. Teacher self-reflection and improvement have been one of major focuses of the education reforms in Indonesia (Chang et al., 2014, p. 44). Throughout teacher self-evaluation processes, teachers are not only the object of classroom observation; they are also active participants collecting information on their own teaching practices. Teachers are central to the self-evaluation process as they are responsible for determining the appropriate timing and form of the evaluation, as well as for organising, examining and interpreting the data to facilitate improved effectiveness.

Within Vygotskian sociocultural theory, *mediation* is a central concept (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) explaining how humans utilise cultural tools in order to undertake activities. The self-evaluation process requires teachers to use particular mediational tools for self-reflection including journals or diaries, self-reporting inventories or checklists, and audio or video recordings of a lesson (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Teacher self-evaluation tools proposed by Airasian and Gullickson (1997) include teacher self-reflection questions, media recording and analysis, student feedback tools, teacher portfolios, student performance data, external or peer observations, journaling, and collegial dialogue involving sharing experience and joint problem solving. Teachers are thus encouraged to use tools applicable to their teaching context in accordance with their affordances and constraints.

Given teacher self-evaluation has only recently been introduced into the Indonesian educational context, this study comprises a case study involving one English language teacher, Maya (a pseudonym). The teacher was invited to video record her teaching and learning processes, obtain student feedback on her teaching, and participate in collegial dialogues as a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What is the nature of Maya's instructional practice?

2. To what extent is Maya' instructional practice capable of change as a result of engagement in mediated self-evaluation?

II. METHODOLOGY

This study comprises a case study design that is exploratory and descriptive in nature to arrive at basic information (Merriam, 2009). A single case in this study is explored and understood in depth to learn about its "self centring, complexity, and situational uniqueness" (Stake, 2006, pp. 6-7).

A. The Participant

Maya, a 32-year-old female, is an English teacher who has been teaching English for more than ten years. Her professional experiences range from teaching pronunciation, speaking, and listening at university level, to being a private teacher for elementary and junior high school students while an undergraduate student at a well-known public university in Malang. During the semester in which this research was undertaken, Maya was pursuing a Master's degree at the same university.

B. Data Collection

In this study, different instrument types were used for data collection to facilitate the acquisition of reliable data to best answer to the research questions and to increase the quality of the study. The instruments chosen for data collection in this study were interviews, direct field observations/lesson video recordings, and documentation. The data collection process is illustrated in Chart 1 below.
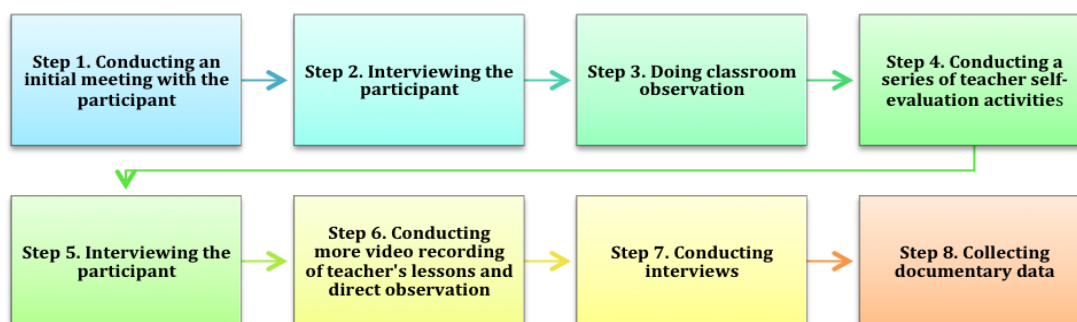
Chart 1: Overview of data collection process

The initial step in the first data collection phase involved conducting a meeting with the participant. The second step involved conducting the first semi-structured interview with the participant. This interview had a biographical focus and aimed to gather background information on the participant's historical life experiences (including her educational background and teaching experiences), and activities to improve her professional practice. The third step in the data collection process was the first observation of participant's lesson. The observations focused on the teacher's instructional practices including the way she taught, talked to or interacted with the students, as well as the way in which she managed the class prior to their engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities.

Participant then engaged a series of teacher self-evaluation activities as the fourth step in the data collection process. The activities included assisting the participant to videotape her teaching practices on two separate occasions; administering student feedback questionnaire to students immediately following the lesson; inviting the participant to individually explore the content of the video recorded lesson and student feedback forms; and inviting the participant to take part in collegial dialogues.

The fifth step was to conduct the second interview of participant following her participation in the teacher self-evaluation activities. She then was invited again to video record her teaching practices during a lesson so that she could later reflect upon her practices in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities. The researcher also observed the lessons and observation notes were recorded.

The eighth step in the process was to conduct unstructured interviews with the case study teacher. The final interview was conducted to primarily to obtain comments, ideas, and feedback from the participant regarding the teacher self-evaluation activities and her thoughts about making changes in their teaching practices. Furthermore, unstructured interview was conducted with the study teacher, which included questionings about the observed lesson, or other matters to emerge from analyse of the video recorded lessons.

The analysis of data in this study was conducted according to an eight-step process: (1) transcribing and translating all interviews; (2) referring to research questions; (3) identifying evidence addressing the research question; (4) referring to theoretical frameworks; (5) drawing tentative conclusions; (6) confirming tentative conclusions from other evidence; and (7) repeating step 2 to 6.

III. Results

The findings of this study comprise four discussions: (1) Maya's background; 2) Maya's initial instructional practice; 3) productive disruptions resulting from teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity; and 4) changes in Maya's instructional practice.

Maya's Background

After teaching for several years, Maya realised that she enjoyed working as a teacher because it provides her with the opportunity for on-going learning. She asserted:

Initially, I did not want to be a teacher, but then I changed my mind. I know now that by teaching I receive many things. Teaching is a learning process for me. Before teaching, I have to learn and prepare first so that I will be ready to teach. Being teacher also requires me to dig more knowledge.

Maya's ways to improve her professionalism are by reading English books, watching English movies, sharing ideas and practices with her colleagues informally to develop new teaching methods, and joining an academic workshop at least once per semester. She points out that joining the academic workshops assists her to acquire new information about interesting class activities to apply in her English class to help the students to enjoy the class. Maya mentioned that her friends who are novice English teachers sometimes join her class to observe her teaching practices in order to learn how to teach more effectively. As such, Maya is considered to be an experience teacher by her friends.

Teacher self-evaluation was something new to Maya. By participating in this study, Maya has video recorded her lessons for the first time, asked for student feedback on her teaching, and participated in collegial dialogues. Previously, the only evaluation of her teaching she had undertaken was to share her thoughts and concerns informally with her colleagues. Maya said, "I sometimes talked with my friend informally. They suggested me to use certain methods or materials because those worked for them". As such, Maya already recognised the value of sharing her ideas about teaching with her colleagues in order to develop different teaching methods to implement in her lessons.

Maya's initial instructional practice

Maya's instructional practice was considered in relation to her dialogue and actions as a teacher as well as her statements during the interviews. Two aspects of Maya's instructional practice which (consciously or unconsciously) shaped her teaching actions were: (1) dominance and (2) formality and distance.

Maya dominated the class

The findings showed that Maya had the tendency to be dominant in her class. This included having a control over the students' learning, high levels of teacher talking during her class, and nominating which students answer her questions. Maya's lesson was monologic rather than interactive in that she spoke much more than the students during the lessons. In one class meeting, Maya spoke for the majority of the time during one lesson, telling the students what to do, explaining the topic, and discussing and guiding the activities. She did not require a high level of student participation during lessons and the students did not have the opportunity to interact with each other during the teaching and learning process. She also did not provide the students with an opportunity to ask questions, for example after she finished explaining how to engage with the lesson materials. Students passively received the information/knowledge from her and only spoke up if Maya ask them to do so.

Maya often asked the students to participate in the class activity by nominating which students were to answer the questions, as demonstrated in the following excerpt taken from a recording of one of her lessons:

[*Before continuing her discussion to a new topic, Maya asks some warm up questions to the students*]

MAYA: Okay now I will ask you some questions before we move on to listening 1. You said that you have good friends right? Are your friends different from you? I mean in the characteristics. Let's say your friends are … what is it

… funny, and then easy going and then … what is it … like jokes and you maybe are quite serious so you and your friends are different. Okay. <u>What about you?</u> [*Looking to a student*]

BUDI: Different

MAYA: Different [*repeating Budi's answer*]. Tell us what make you different.

BUDI: My friend is so quiet person, but I'm talkative.

MAYA: Okay. <u>What about you?</u> (*looking to a student*)

INDAH: I'm serious, loyal, but my friend is not serious, funny, and easy going.

MAYA: Okay. You're serious and loyal and your friend is not serious.

As in the above excerpt, Maya limited the opportunities for the student to participate or answer voluntarily in the class by nominating students to answer her questions. Her instruction; *what about you?* was an indication of her intention to control student participation in the class. In addition, in reference to classroom discourse, the above excerpt showed Maya demonstrated the minimum interaction pattern by implementing the initiation-response-follow-up (IRF) pattern proposed by Sinclair and Brazil (1982). Most of the time, Maya initiated a question, the students responded, and Maya then provided feedback on the response. An example taken from the above excerpt was:

Initiation: What about you?

Response: My friend is funny and easy going, but I'm serious person.

Feedback: Okay. Your friend is funny and you're a serious person

The example indicated that Maya dominated the interaction because the type of feedback she provided to the students was repetitive, and she did not provide the third turn to facilitate further opportunities for interaction. This interaction pattern minimised the students' productive thought and further participation in classroom activities.

Maya acted formally and made distance with her students

The findings also showed that Maya tended to be formal and made distance with her students in her teaching practice. This manifested through the discouraging comments she often made to the students, her tendency to not refer to the students by name when interacting with them, and by the fact she seldom complimented the students. The following excerpt is an example of Maya's instructional practice that reveals her tendency to be formal through the way she acts and talks to the students in the listening class. In particular, it demonstrates how Maya makes discouraging comment to the students:

[*After Maya plays the conversation, discusses and explains the answers with the students, she then asks some referential questions relating to topic of discussion by pointing to certain students to answer. The topic for the lesson is "good friend"*].

MAYA: Still talking about good friends. What do you usually do when you have free time with your friends? [*pointing to Siska*]

SISKA: Talking about our future

MAYA: You talk about future [*repeating Siska's answer*]. So you have chat. Okay. Is it really activity you do?

SISKA: Yes.

MAYA: Okay. You never go out somewhere?

SISKA: No.

MAYA: Never. What about *you*? [*pointing to Sita*] <u>You</u> please. Yes, <u>you</u> sitting in the middle.

SITA: [*Remains silent*]

MAYA: Do you have good friends?

SITA: [*Remains silent*]

MAYA: Do you have good friends? [*raising her voice*] Do you have good friends? Yes or no?

SITA: Yes.

MAYA: Yes. What do you usually do with your friends?

SITA: [*Smiling and remaining silent*].

MAYA: <u>I need your answer not your smile</u> [*again*, *raising her voice*]. Okay. Mas, please [*pointing to Ahmad*]. Do you have good friends?

AHMAD: Yes. Sometimes I'm talking about our lesson in the library and in the canteen and sometimes just kidding.

The above excerpt presents some clear actions that reveal Maya's tendency to be formal. Maya again made a discouraging comment by saying; "I need your answer not your smile" to Sita when she did not answer her question. It appears to be the case that the student was finding it difficult to express her idea in English, especially when the entire class was waiting for her answer. She therefore just smiled and did not answer Maya's question. However, Maya did not tolerate this response and made a discouraging comment. Maya seems not aware of the impact her verbal language may have on the students' motivation. Such comments are likely to have a detrimental effect on the responding student in particular but also on all of the students in general, further limiting their involvement in class activities. The above excerpt also shows that Maya rarely mentioned the student's names while interacting with them. She referred to the students as "you" or sometimes pointed them with her finger if she wanted a student to answer. This implies that Maya was either not familiar with the students' names or did not feel the use of names was important.

Productive disruptions resulting from teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity

As mentioned before, the research participant was supported to utilise three teacher self-evaluation instruments:

lesson video recording, student feedback, and collegial dialogue. When asked her opinion about the use of video recording to evaluate teaching practices, Maya said, "it was great. It was like a mirror to see myself, to see my teaching". Hence, the video recording of Maya's lessons provide a platform for her to see herself and her teaching practices from a new perspective.

When Maya was asked about the use of student feedback, Maya asserted, "on one side I'm happy, but on the other side I'm not. I'm happy because I got some good comments from my students, but then I could not get more information about what I should improve". That is, the students did not provide sufficient information to Maya regarding her teaching limitations as the students provided mostly favourable comments on her teaching. This may have been because the students were satisfied with Maya's teaching practices or more likely, because they did not have enough courage to say something negative about her teaching for fear of reprisal. The students might be afraid if they provide negative feedback on Maya's teaching, they could not get good grade in their subject. However, student feedback still contributed valuable insights into Maya's teaching practices.

Maya also felt that collegial dialogue helped her to improve, as suggested in the comment, "participating in collegial dialogues makes me a better teacher. I can improve my teaching methods and techniques by sharing with my colleagues, especially if we teach the same subjects". In other words, Maya recognized the affordances of each mediational tool she has used as a means to identify the aspects that promote or hinder the development of her professional practice.

Specifically, a series of teacher self-evaluation activities provide Maya with some productive disruptions. These productive disruptions challenged or disrupted her usual thoughts about her teaching practice, as well as, about herself as a teacher. The productive disruptions were: (1) how Maya saw herself as a person; and (2) how Maya saw her teaching. The first productive disruption is related to professional identity which is defined as a "personal thing that indicates how one identifies with being a teacher and how one feels as a teacher" (Mayer, 1999, p. 7). Video recording Maya's lesson functioned as a powerful mediational artefact for Maya to learn about herself and to assist her to realise that she was not a warm and friendly teacher to the students, but rather that she was critical and judgmental. She admitted, "after viewing my lesson video recordings, I feel a kind of shock. I admit that I'm less friendly and sometimes judgmental to my students". Maya became more aware fully of her tendency to be formal/distant. After reflecting on her practice, Maya gained new insights into her professional identity, a key aspect of which was her tendency to be formal/distant.

The next productive disruption Maya experienced as a result of her engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities relates to the new perspectives she develops in relation to her teaching. Firstly, Maya realised that she presented a monotonous teaching style in her listening class. Maya already felt that her teaching lacked in variety and interest. After watching the video recording of her teaching practices, considering her responses to the teacher self-reflection questions, and reading the student feedback on her teaching, Maya had concrete data that her teaching was indeed monotonous. She remarked, "some students said that my class was boring. When I viewed my teaching in the video, I agreed with them".

Secondly, Maya realised that she seldom gave compliments to the students. The video recording and student feedback used as mediating artefacts during the teacher self-evaluation activity provided Maya with an opportunity to 'know' her teaching style. This revealed to her that she was too serious during lessons and that she needed to establish a better relationship with the students by praising them more often and by referring to them by their names. Maya pointed out, "I saw myself in the taped-performance and I found my weakness. I couldn't see myself praising my students".

Thirdly, the range of teacher self-evaluation instruments used by Maya to evaluate her teaching allowed her to realise that she needed to change the way she interacted with the students. She declared, "I need to improve my classroom interaction. I tended to ask to some active students and ignore the ones who were passive".

Changes in Maya's instructional practice

A. *Change in Her Class Dominance Practice*

The productive disruption in Maya's teaching practice and her identity as a teacher as a result of mediated self-evaluation encouraged her to imagine her future identity as an English teacher. A comparison of Maya's teaching practices in the video recording of her lesson before the self-evaluation activity with her teaching practices in the video recording after the self-evaluation shows a significant difference in Maya's identity and expression as teacher. Maya transformed into a more 'democratic" teacher. She does not try to exercise too much control over the students' learning, she reduces the amount of time she spends talking during lessons by inviting the students to be more active participants in classroom discussions, and she provides more opportunities for the students to ask and answer questions voluntarily.

Maya's change in her class dominance practice was greatly influenced by her engagement in collegial dialogues. The collegial dialogues provide Maya with opportunities to hear from other teachers how she might address the limitations in her teaching practices. By sharing her thoughts about the monotonous nature of her teaching with her colleagues, they were able to provide suggestions on how to use a greater variety of teaching materials during her listening classes. Maya's awareness of her teaching limitations and her inability to resolve her issues alone encouraged to make use of collegial dialogue as a mediating tool in order to facilitate her development.

Maya decided to use more interesting teaching materials than simple pre-recorded cassettes. In addition to the use of the textbook, *Listen Carefully*, Maya also selected various videos from YouTube and the British Council for use. Some were authentic listening materials and others were adapted for listening classroom. The students now had their own

computer with headsets to watch the videos. Maya's teaching was reorganised to make it more varied including the introduction of the following practices: brainstorming activities emerging from referential questions provided to the students related to the discussion topic; introducing and discussing difficult vocabulary items in the video as pre-activities; playing the video and discussing the content; and answering questions related to the video as a post-activity. The brainstorming activity helped Maya to generate greater student interaction and to provide students with more opportunities to express their ideas in English. This is evidenced in the excerpt below taken from a recording of Maya's lesson:

[*The topic for listening class will be "Going Abroad". Maya asks some referential questions before she comes to the discussion topic*]

MAYA: Do you have a plan to go abroad?
SANTI: Yes to German.
MAYA: Germany? Why Germany?
SANTI: Because I want to meet national team football.
MAYA: Football national team.
SANTI: Yes, football national team and I want to visit all cities.
MAYA: Okay, so you want to visit all cities in Germany. So you love Germany?
SANTI: Yes ma'am.
MAYA: Okay, how about others? [*Chorifa raises her hand*] Yes, Chorifa, where do you want to go?
CHORIFA: Singapore.
MAYA: Why?
CHORIFA: I want to visit Universal Studio.
MAYA: Only that place?
CHORIFA: I also want to visit Sentosa Island and Singapore Zoo.

As the above excerpt illustrates, Maya invited the students to express their ideas in English by asking a referential question, that is a question that has no specific answer and is used to encourage genuine communication. Furthermore, an analysis of the classroom discourse shows that rather than making evaluative comments, Maya provides an interactive type of feedback to expand or modify the students' response. This is apparent when she replies to the students: "Germany? Why Germany?", "Why" and "Only that place?" In other words, Maya does demonstrate the minimum IRF interaction, but uses the third turn to invite further opportunities for the students to practice the target language. This is because the IRF pattern promotes further interaction more effectively if the teacher employs the third turn to facilitate further opportunities for interaction rather than using evaluative feedback (Walsh, 2002). In addition, in the above excerpt when Maya asks, "how about others?" she does not nominate which students answer her question. Instead, she lets the students answer voluntarily. This implies that Maya has become more "democratic" and less "dominant" as a teacher.

Data from the video recording of Maya's lessons conducted after she engaged in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities also demonstrates that she does not try to exercise too much control over the students' learning. She not only employs more interesting teaching activities, she also listens to what the students want in the class activities. Moreover, she then asks students for their opinion about the teaching material she has provided.

The video data also shows that Maya reduces the amount of time she spends talking by inviting the students to be more active in the classroom discussion. She prefers to address the questions to entire class, as shown in the excerpt below:

MAYA: How can the man get to the office?
STUDENTS: On foot!!! [*entire class is answering all together, loudly and enthusiastically*]
MAYA: Okay, on foot. How long does it take?
STUDENTS: 20 minutes!!! [*again, entire class is answering all together, loudly and enthusiastically*]
MAYA: Yes 20 minutes. And what time he needs to go from the hotel?
STUDENTS: 9.30.
MAYA: Okay, 9:30. Great!

As evidenced in the above excerpt, Maya discusses some questions related to the conversation she previously played to the students and they answer her questions eagerly. This eagerness suggests that the atmosphere in Maya's classroom is more relaxed and that the students now want to actively participate in the classroom discussion. In addition, Maya provides more opportunities to the students to ask questions following her explanation and discussion of the topic. "That's all from video, do you have questions?" is an example of how she invites the students to participate.

Maya utilises the whiteboard to explain the learning material to the students more often following the move to the multimedia laboratory. This technique helps the students to understand her explanations. Overall, the atmosphere of her class is more relaxed and enjoyable and as a result many students are active in the teaching and learning process. They are enthusiastic to answer Maya's questions. Maya commented., "I changed my teaching strategy after engaging in teacher self-evaluation activity to have better teaching so that my students can understand what I explain and get what they want and I want in that teaching". In other words, teacher self-evaluation functioned as a mediational activity to direct Maya's thinking to implement more interesting and engaging teaching and learning practices. Vygotsky argued

that culturally constructed and organised means mediate human consciousness (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 60).

B. Changes in Maya's Formality/Distance Practice

Data from the video recording of Maya's lessons – conducted after she participated in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities – her interview responses, and researcher observation notes suggest that Maya has transformed herself into a friendlier teacher who has a more positive relationship with the students. In this sense, Maya's engagement in a series of teacher self-evaluation activities helped her to change her formality/distance practice and transform her identity as a teacher and her teaching practice. Maya no longer makes discouraging comments to the students, she refers to them by their names, and she often compliments to the students on their work.

When Maya asks a student to answer a question and the student remains silent, rather than making a discouraging comment, Maya is more willing to provide the student with more time to provide an answer as illustrated in the excerpt below:

[*After listening to a recorded conversation, Maya asks some questions related to the content*]
MAYA: What excuse do they decide to use? [*A student, Putri, seems want to answer*] What is it? <u>Putri</u>?
PUTRI: Hmm … repeat please.
MAYA: Do you want me to repeat it? Okay then [*replaying the conversation in the video*].
MAYA: Yes, Putri? [*waiting for an answer*]
PUTRI: [*Keeping silent for some time*].
MAYA: Or others can help?
ALL STUDENTS: [*keeping silent for quite long time*].
MAYA: What excuses do they decide to use finally? [*a student, Edo, wants to answer*] Yes <u>Edo</u>?
EDO: Ehm … prior engagement.
MAYA: Prior engagement? <u>Excellent</u>, that's the excuse they finally use.

As in the above excerpt, Maya displays greater patience towards the students when seeking a response. When she directed a question to Putri, who asked Maya to replay the conversation, Maya acknowledged Putri's request by replaying the conversation. After providing Putri with adequate time to answer her question, and when an answer was still not forthcoming, Maya then directed her question to another other student. This teaching action demonstrates how Maya has become more patient, sensitive, and responsive to the students. The above excerpt also reveals that Maya is familiar with the students' names (e.g. Putri and Edo). Although Maya still predominantly responds to a correct answer from the students with the expression, "okay", she also includes other forms of praise towards students who are able to answer her questions correctly. One such example is her use of the expression, "excellent", "very good" and "well done".

Another change in Maya's teaching behaviour is her use of the students' names when interacted with them. For example, she refers to the students by name (e.g., Wihelmina, Rohmat and Florence) when she asks them to answer her questions. Maya shows she is familiar with the students' names and starts to use this knowledge to facilitate a higher quality level of interaction with them (rather than use the expression, "You"). Using the students' names during the interactive process demonstrates to the students that Maya recognises them as individuals and this enables Maya to establish a stronger teacher-student relationship. As a result, there is an increase in the level of student participation in the class activity.

Further evidence that demonstrates how Maya has changed her formality/distance practice is her intention to occasionally include joke-telling into her teaching practice. An example of this is provided in the excerpt below:

[*The discussion topic of the lesson is personal profile and Maya is asking relatively personal questions to the students including Edo whose hair is coloured red*]
MAYA: Mention your name and your phone number.
EDO: Edo, I'm Edo and my number is 4857558846226
MAYA: Okay. Where are you from?
EDO: Samarinda
MAYA: Oh from Samarinda. <u>I thought you're from America because your hair is red</u> [*students laugh*].

In the Indonesian context, it is uncommon to see a person with coloured hair as most Indonesians have dark hair. When Maya said, "I thought you're from America because your hair is red" in response to the student's answer, she once again displays her sense of humour to the class and this invites the students to laugh.

IV. Discussions

Overall, the findings illustrate that after engaging in teacher self-evaluation as a mediational activity, Maya's teaching practice is no longer driven by formality/distance practice. Maya has transformed into a friendlier teacher who establishes a better relationship with the students. Maya agreed: "I now have a more intense interaction with my students. I always try to be their friend so that they will feel comfortable to interact with me". When asked about how teacher self-evaluation helped her, Maya asserted:

What I can learn from the teacher self-evaluation activity is that I can see myself when I was teaching. I then have a kind of reflection like I should do this should do that, trying to be better. I'm trying to be better, especially to give

compliments to my students though it's not easy because I always forget to do that.

The above statements imply that the process of self-evaluation has helped Maya to reflect on her teaching practices to identify what aspects need to improve. As stated previously, teacher self-evaluation 'disrupts' Maya's identity as a teacher as well as her perspective of her teaching practice. These productive disruptions lead Maya to reflect upon her teaching which in turn leads her to understand that her identity limits her fit in her field and that a new identity needs to be developed. This is in line with Beauchamp and Thomas' (2009) claim that reflection on practice should be considered "as a key means by which teachers can become more in tune with their sense of self and with a deep understanding of how this self fits into a larger context which involve others; in other words, reflection is a factor in the shaping of identity" (p. 182). As a result, Maya now has the motivation to transform her identity and to identify a new 'possible self' in the sense of the "individual's ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming" (Stake, 2006, p. 954). She said, "engaging in self-evaluation activity made me realize that I was sometimes too judgmental to my students and unfriendly so that they seemed afraid of me. Actually, I don't want to be that kind of teacher. I want to be a friendlier teacher". This statement indicated that productive disruptions that emerged from the process of self-evaluation informed Maya that she was unfriendly and judgmental to the students. This 'actual self' encouraged her to make efforts to become a friendlier teacher, an 'ideal self' by changing her pedagogic disposition to formality/distance. In other words, the discrepancy between Maya's 'ideal self' and her 'actual self' provides a motivational push to change (Higgins, 1987).

In other words, Maya learned important things about herself and her teaching practice through their engagement in self-evaluation as a mediational activity. Self-evaluation is important as it enhances the likelihood of teachers' reflection by providing additional perspectives on themselves and on their teaching. As a result, Maya became more aware of the limitations of her practices.

Conducting self-evaluation enabled Maya to see herself differently. She did not realise that she was unfriendly towards and judgmental of the students. Additionally, teacher self-evaluation has helped Maya to recognise her teaching limitations. She became aware the need to praise the students more regularly, create a livelier classroom atmosphere, improve her classroom management skills, and establish a better relationship with the students. In sum, to become a more effective teacher, Maya needs to change her dominance and formality/distance practice.

In addition, Maya took the opportunity to learn from other teachers through collegial dialogues. Maya, in particular, shared her thoughts with her colleagues about monotonous nature of her teaching as a result of her dominance practice. From them, Maya then learned how to use new teaching techniques and a greater variety of teaching materials during her listening classes.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The findings demonstrated that the case study teacher was positive about her involvement in the series of teacher self-evaluation activities and she reported significant professional growth through her engagement in the self-evaluation activities. Additionally, the use of various mediational tools such as lesson video recordings, student feedback, and collegial dialogues to self-evaluate practice increased the teacher's understanding of her teaching. As a result, the teacher was able to effectively identify areas for improvement. This implies that the quality/nature of a mediation tool is important as it may make a significant contribution to the teacher's capacity to gain insights into the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching practices. The teacher, in turn, became more aware of the teaching actions in need of improvement, although these teachers individually experienced changes and improvement at varied levels. Hence, teacher self-evaluation is a powerful, productive, and promising method to support teacher professional development.

The findings also showed that self-evaluation mediated reflective practices which led to teaching improvement. Additionally, self-evaluation demonstrated the potential to generate the type of information required by teachers to perceive themselves differently and, in turn, these describe their possible-selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986). As a result of self-evaluation, teachers were therefore able to identify whether or not their professional identity suited the context in which they operated. In this study, Maya altered her teaching identity: one from dominance to being more accommodating of the students' needs, and the others from being distant with the students to taking on a friendlier approach. Hence, the teacher self -evaluation activities provided the teachers with productive disruption in their understanding of their professional identity and teaching practices and, as a consequence, this created opportunities for the exploration of new and progressive teacher professional identities.

The findings also indicated that teacher self-evaluation provides teachers a voice and control over their own practice. They themselves explore their teaching to identify the possible issues that need be addressed so that "they devote greater energy to it than if someone else has chosen the issue" (Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p. 31). Additionally, they have the autonomy to manage their evaluation of their teaching in ways that are suitable with their abilities and interests. This ownership of performance thus encourages teachers' awareness that they are responsible for and in control of the teaching and learning in their classroom.

Finally, this study has revealed that teacher self-evaluation leads to self-reflection through which teachers understand themselves better in terms of their strengths and areas for development. This reflection challenges teachers' normal thinking and perspective of themselves and their practice. This suggests that teacher self-evaluation contributes to professional learning by empowering teachers to transform their practice. Hence, it is necessary for both Indonesian

universities and teachers to work together to successfully promote self-evaluation activity. Indonesian universities need to provide time, facilities and resources, and support for their teachers to engage in self-evaluation activity. Indonesian teachers are expected to have commitment to conduct self-evaluation to ensure the quality of their teaching, which in turn improve students' learning experiences.

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Slave-master Relationship and Post-colonial Translation and Teaching

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Abstract—**Two hundred years after Hegel, his Master-Slave Dialectic theory is still one of the most controversial philosophical theories. Some believe that such a relationship does no longer exist, nor is it acceptable in the face of abolishment of slavery in the world. In this study, it has been tried to form an understanding of the Hegelian Master-Slave Dialectic and bring into light the presence of the Master-Slave relationship in our modern day world. As Crossley (1996) points out, the power relation in Hegelian dialectic philosophy is ever-present in a more subtle manner in the Post-colonial era; one which utilizes an intersubjective relationship, sustaining the other as a subject of action rather than attempting to negate them (p. 147). To establish this kind of power relation, the west has been employing language, literature and translation in a much more effective way than military might to assert her control and dominance, and move the wheels of colonization and an asymmetrical power relation forward.**

Index Terms—**Master-Slave Dialectic, Post-Colonialism, asymmetrical power relation, Orientalism, translation, teaching**

I. INTRODUCTION

Throughout the history of mankind, there has always been an individual or a group of individuals who has/have deemed himself/themselves to be superior and better than the others. This sense of superiority has either been originated from their inherited social stature, wealth or knowledge and race. Such feeling of superiority has created an ongoing battle for recognition and freedom from the bounds of classification and slave/master relationship. Even though at times a slave has been able to be free of such bounds but this breakage has not been absolute. The prime example of this could be the story of Spartacus who was a gladiator in Roman time. Spartacus lived in an era in which a gladiator (slave) could only gain freedom by defeating the other gladiators in a fight to death. It was then that he could gain recognition as a citizen or a free man. However, this newly found freedom never placed the victorious gladiator in the same rank as those who claimed superiority over the others. The freed gladiator was still a subordinate to his previous master.

Though the external form of the traditional slave/master relationship has changed in the post-colonial era, nevertheless it still exists in a metamorphosed shape and form. Two important question may strike one here, being in what shape and form has the slave/master relationship by Hegel manifested itself in the post-colonial era and what tools has it been employing?

In this paper we will try to take a look at the slave/master dialectic relationship as argued by Hegel and use a dangerous trend in Western style of translation and language teaching which has been dominant in the post-colonial era and persist in the present day world. Before getting to the crux of the matter, a few terms should be demystified.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Recognition, Consciousness & Desire for Recognition

Recognition is one of the key terms in Hegelian philosophy. It is not automatically granted, according to Crossley (1996), to an individual. The desire for recognition is expressed in the first instance in a "fight to the death". Hegel's explanation of this fight is obscure. It involves three central claims. Firstly, in order to be human and to be recognized as such, one must place and be seen to place one's human desire above all animal desires, particularly the animal desire for self-preservation. Secondly, this implies that one must risk one's life for one's humanity. Thirdly, this is expressed in a contest in which each risks his or her life and this is a fight to death. One proves one's self in the fight to the death (Crossly, 1996, pp. 17, 18).

B. Confrontation, Domination, Submission

In Hegel's discussion of slave-master dialectic, what happens is that when two self-consciousnesses confront one another, each thinks about the other in terms of the self. The two self-consciousnesses are like mirrors of one another. Each mirror reflects the other; but it also reflects the other reflecting itself; it reflects the other reflecting itself reflecting the other. This creates two possible ending to this dilemma. One possible ending to this fight, in Hegel's view, involves one contestant killing the other (Crossley, 1996, p. 18). The problem is that if one self-consciousness kills the other, the dead self-consciousness can't do anything at all, so it can't do anything for the other. In order to be for another, self-consciousness has to be somewhat for self (emphasis ours). If the one kills the other, it thereby destroys its own freedom, since there's nobody there to recognize its triumphant victory. You can't rule corpses: a dead servant does not obey anybody and so is free. Simply killing the other in the life-or-death combat is an "abstract negation"; it is "not the negation coming from consciousness, which supersedes in such a way as to preserve and maintain what is superseded, and consequently survives its own supersession." It's like playing a game of chicken: both contestants know that one of them has to surrender or they'll both die. The pressure on each to surrender increases (Steinhart, 1998, pp. 1-4).

C. The Symmetry of Equality

Steinhart (1998) points out that not surrendering is like not existing, because if nobody ever acknowledged your existence, you wouldn't exist as a person. You'd just be a personless body. Hegel puts it like this: "Self-consciousness exists in and for itself when … it so exists for another; that is, it exists only in being acknowledged." Suppose nobody else ever talked to you or interacted with you, refused to eat with you, never touch anything you've touched, never handed you anything, how would you feel. It would be like being there and not really being there at all, it is the cruelest form of not existing but breathing. Shunning is far crueler and more effective as a threat than jail or even a beating, and it is a practice which has been around since the ancient times. Put two self-consciousnesses face-to-face and it's like putting two mirrors face-to-face: each reflects itself in the other; each sees itself in the other. At first the encounter between the two self-consciousness is perfectly symmetrical: the self-consciousnesses are so far exactly identical, so they can't distinguish themselves from one another. Am I you? Are you me? So far, there's nothing to differentiate us. We're totally alike. So we're not different persons; the symmetry destroys our personal identities. This is torture: each wants to be its own person, and so wants to end the symmetry by establishing an asymmetric relation. Each wants to dominate the other ("supersede this otherness of itself"). The tension builds (Steinhart, 1998, pp. 1-4).

D. Master and Slave

According to Crossly (1996), in Hegel's discussion of master-slave dialectic a fable is introduced. In this fable, two consciousnesses engage in a fight to the death, the aim of each being to achieve self-consciousness. One capitulates and thereby becomes the slave for the other, but this denies both recognition and neither becomes self-conscious. When this happens, neither the slave gets recognized, because he is the slave, and nor does the master, because the slave is not worthy of recognizing him. As he puts it, history of mankind is littered with such fights to death, some of which have resulted in the death, whilst others, as in the fable, have resulted in slavery or some equivalent form of violent domination or exclusion. He goes on to use the legacy of European colonialism, of the Soviet gulags or of the Nazi concentration camps as examples of manifestation of the violent outcome of master-slave dialectic (Crossley, 1996, pp. 146, 147).

E. Literature, Master-slave Dialectic, Post-colonialism, Submission

One may think that with the abolishment of slavery in the 20th century, such a dialectic master-slave relationship does not exist in our world, but we beg to differ. Literature is an important means at the masters' (westerners') disposal. Using literature and translation of the literary works of the east, the westerners have tried to gain dominance over the minds of the Easterners, thus keeping the more dangerous form of the master-slave relationship going. Few literary works of the east, even the masterpieces, find recognition and gain global acceptance unless they conform to the western's values for their standards of success, for the west sees the east and anything associated with it as exotic yet inferior, even its literary works (Hamadi, 2014, pp. 41, 43). Edward Said calls this Orientalism. According to Said (1977), Orientalism is the discourse of the west about the East, a huge body of text-literary, topographical, anthropological, historical and sociological-that has been accumulating since the renaissance (Said, 1977, pp. 2-5). He is concerned with showing how this discourse plays out, at once self-validating, constructing certain stereotypes which become accepted as self-evident fact, and also in conscious or unconscious collusion with political and economic Imperialism (Master-slave dialectic relationship). He believes that Orientalism is a Western style for dominating, restructuring and having authority over the orient - through reception of easterners' literary works, for example (Lodge, 1988, p. 271). Orientalism impressively combines political passion with wide-ranging scholarship. In other words, Orientalism is master-slave dialectic incognito.

F. Translation, Master-slave Dialectic, Post-colonialism, Submission

Literature is not the only means at the disposal of the modern day colonizers to create power imbalance and subjugate the colonized. To establish such an asymmetrical power relation, as Munday (2009) puts it, translation and translators also play a crucial role (p.196). Moreover, throughout the history, translation has been employed as a mighty tool for colonization and depriving the colonized from having a voice of their own. In this form of colonization, one of the

cultures plays the role of the superior culture and gains control over the subservient culture, the culture of the colonized. In such a situation, translation shifts the scale of power in favor of the colonizer (Bassnett & Bush, 2006, pp. 4, 329).

Spivak (1993/2004) also points out to the issue of power and colonization. She argues that, in order to exert power and colonize others, those in power use language and. "The linking of colonization and translation is accompanied by the argument that translation has played an active role in the colonization process and dissemination of an ideologically motivated image of colonized people" translation (Spivak, 1993/2004, p. 379; in Munday, 2008, p. 132). The imposing effect of ideology on translation of various literary and religious texts can be seen throughout the history. For example, in the early fifteen century the protestant reformation of Northern Europe, which was to lead to a huge schism within Christianity, began to challenge Latin through the translation of the Bible into vernacular language. In such circumstances, the translation of any book which deviated from the churches interpretation faced the risk of being considered heretical. This consideration led to such interpretation being censured or banned. In worst case scenarios, even the near act of translation could be deemed to be a threat to the established order; for example, the 1551 index of the Spanish inquisition prohibited the publication of the Bible in any vernacular language. Furthermore, what became of those who committed such acts is even more horrifying. In other words, those who undertook the act of translating the Bible into vernacular language suffered horrifying consequences and were punished severely by the church. The most well-known examples are the English theologian-translator William Tyndale (1490-1536) and the French humanist Etienne Dolet (1509-1546). Tyndale, as Munday (2008) reports, was an able linguist believed to have mastered 10 languages including Hebrew. His amazing English Bible was used to produce the Geneva Bible (1560) and King James Version (1611). King Hennery VIII ordered confiscation of any copies of Tyndale's English Bible and banned them. Then Tyndale was abducted, tried for heresy and executed in the Netherland in 1536. Etienne Dolet's sad predicament is a more prime example of ideology vs. translation. Dolet was condemned by the theological faculty of Sorbonne in 1545. He was apparently condemned for adding the phrase rein du tout (nothing at all) in a passage about what existed after the death. The passage was translation of one of Plato's dialogues (original emphasis). For these three words he was charged with blasphemy. They accused him of not believing in life after death (immortality). For such a translation error he was burned at the stake. As these two examples show, ideology of the people in power plays a great role in acceptability and credibility of any piece of translation, especially translation of the religious texts. Considering these two examples, Bassnett and Trivedy's statements about the role of translation in producing ideological images from various concepts being a shameful act, gains credibility (Munday, 2008, pp. 23, 132).

In the same vein, Lefevere (1992) places the emphasis mainly on the factors which are concrete rather than abstract. These factors, according to him, dominate and control the process by which literary works are received, find acceptance or rejected. In other words, he focuses on issues like ideology, power and manipulation (Lefevere, 1992, pp. 2-35). He believes that people in power are the ones who decide how a piece of literary text should be rewritten and how it should be consumed by the general public. In other words, those in power play the role of the commissioner in Vermeer's Skopos Theory (Behnam, et al., 2014, pp. 714, 715). The masters decide what the slaves should read and how it should be read. The motivations of the masters/commissioners, according to Lefevere (1992), in such rewriting can be ideological or poetological. He believes that if the motive behind the rewriting is ideological, it conforms to or rebels against the dominant ideology. When the case is in position of the ideology of the masters or the colonizers, rewriting conforms to the dominant ideology being the ideology of the masters/commissioners. However, if the dominant culture is the culture of the slaves or the colonized, the rewriting of the literary text rebels against that ideology.

Edward Fitzgerald's translation of Rubayait Omar Khayyam (Persian Poet, astronomer and mathematician) is a clear role of ideology in translation. The footprint of ideology and power relations in his translation is very clear as Fitzgerald believed that Persian language is inferior to English language and felt that he should take certain liberties in the translation in order to improve on the original version of the Khayyam's Rubayait (Munday, 2008, pp. 125, 126). That is why some of the scholars such as Niranjana, Spivak, and Cheyfitz believed that during the past eras translation has been used as an effective tool in the hands of colonialists for depriving the colonized from having a voice of their own. They believe that in the colonial model one of the cultures has always been deemed superior to the other: in this relationship the superior one being the culture of the colonizer and the inferior one being the culture of the colonized (Bassnett, 1980, p. 4). Another prime example of the role of translation in postcolonial era is shown by Niranjana (1992). She argues that "the British colonial project in India was strengthened by translations inscribed with the colonizers' image of the colonized, an ethnic or racial stereotype that rationalized domination. After the introduction of English education in India, Indians came to study orientalist translations of Indian-language texts, and many acceded both to the cultural authority of those translations and to their discriminatory images of Indian cultures" (Venuti, 2000, p. 337). Moreover, a strongly ethnocentric translation practice could be used as vessel for delivering dominance. Cheyfitz (1991) also argues that such an ethnocentric translation has paved the way for the West to exercise imperialism and colonialism over the New World; Venuti (1995) calls this "domesticating translation" (Venuti, 2000, p. 329; Shuttleworth and Cowie, 1997, pp. 43, 44). In other words, domestication takes place by the translator to minimize the influence of the source text on the target text and make the target text more natural and culturally more understandable and closer to the target language readers' cultural values, norms and expectations. The goal of such undertaking is ideologically tainted. The translator, by adopting domesticating strategy, tries to downplay the influence of the foreign culture and language making it more acceptable to its target audience and placing an emphasis on the superiority of the target language and

culture (Yang, 2010, pp. 77, 78).   However, the role of translation could be reversed. It may also be used as a tool of resistance to colonial and neo-colonial powers (Baker & Saldanha, 2009, p. 202).

G. Language Teaching, Master-slave Dialectic, Post-colonialism, Submission

   This power relation and language, in general, as a tool in the hands of the colonizers is not limited and does not stop with literature and translation. Spivak (1993/2000) asserts that "if you are interested in talking about the other, and in making a claim to be the other, it is crucial to learn other languages (Spivak, 1993/2000, p. 190; as cited in Hatim and Munday, 2004, pp.317, 338). It is also, according to the scholars who oppose methods in English teaching, evident in the methodologies offered in second language and foreign language teaching. Kumaravadivelu (2006) identifies four interrelated dimensions to method as a means of marginality namely, linguistic, cultural, scholastic and economic. These four dimensions of method as a means of marginality tend to extend and expand the agenda for sustaining "an ideological dependence." Another parameter which Kumaravadivelu introduces is the parameter of possibility. He gives the credit for this parameter coming into light to the Brazilian philosopher, Paulo Freire. He and his followers, Giroux and Simon, believed that any pedagogy is closely related to dominance and power. Furthermore, its goal is to establish and maintain social inequalities. They place emphasis on the vitality and importance of acknowledging teachers' and students' individual identity. Moreover, they point out that these teachers and students should question the status quo which holds them subjugated and oppressed (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 174).

   Looking at language teaching from this perspective makes it possible to look at the methods in teaching English as a tool for subjugation and oppression. That's why in the post-method era educators have mostly done away with the methods and replaced it with the concept of learner's autonomy and glocalization. Glocalization is, in essence, the result of learner's autonomy and resistance to globalization and the use of Standard English as a tool in the hands of Imperialism. It takes into account the experiences of the learners which they bring into a pedagogic setting. It also incorporates the teacher's personal and professional experiences, too. Ganagarajah (1999) reported on how Tamil students of English in the civil war –torn Sri Lanka offered resistance to western representations of English language and culture and how they, motivated by their own culture and historical backgrounds, appropriated the language and used it in their own terms according to their own aspirations, needs, and values. He reported how the students, through marginal comments and graphics, actually refrained, reinterpreted and rewrote the content of their ESL textbooks written and produced by Anglo Saxon authors (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p.174, 175).

   Communicative Language teaching is a perfect example of the standardized methods of teaching which has faced difficulties in its implementation in various countries. Chick (1996) argued whether "our choice of communicative language teaching as a goal was possibly a sort of naïve ethnocentrisms promoted by the thought that what is good for Europe or the USA had to be good for KwaZulu" Pakir (1999) suggested that communicative language teaching with its professional practices based on Anglo-Saxon assumptions has to be modified taking into account what she called "glocal" linguistic and cultural considerations. Tickoo (1996) narrated how even locally initiated, pedagogic innovations have failed because the merely tinkered with the method-based framework inherited from abroad. (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, pp.171, 172).

   Another great example of the resistance shown by the people whose mother tongues is not English is provided by Xing Fang (2011). He points out that the initial spread of English language started with American and British colonialism and migration of English-speaking individuals to other parts of the world during the eighteen and the nineteen centuries. Moreover, the spread of English became much more widespread as the result of English language becoming the Lingua Franca. This brought about the phenomenon of marginalization of the indigenous languages. Scholars such as Philipson (1992) doesn't see this event as an accidental happening. He argues that "the global spread of English is a matter of deliberate policy on the part of core English-speaking countries to maintain dominance over periphery countries, in many cases, developing countries. Also, he introduces the term linguistic imperialism and considers it as a type of cultural imperialism by claiming that the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages". As indigenized Englishes in Outer Circle countries are gradually claiming their legitimate status, it is only appropriate and needed for the Chinese people to launch a revolution of English use in order to offset the negative effects that the powerful global language is inflicting upon local indigenous languages (emphasis ours) (Fang, 2011, p.377, 378). As the result of the resistance of the speakers of English as a second language to losing their identity and culture and having it replaced with the core-English speaking countries' culture, varieties of English have been developing around the globe. Singapore and Hindi English are two prime examples of such varieties in which the people who speak them change the Standard English and make it fit their own identities, cultures, norms and needs.

III. METHODOLOGY

   There was no data and interventions in this research to make it a quantitative or even a semi-quantitative research. Thus, only qualitative methods were used in the course of this research. Library research and an extensive review of the literature were used to support the points the researchers were trying to make.

IV. RESULT, DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

Hegelian master-slave dialectic has been the Mecca of the philosophers who deal with the sociocultural and intersubjective aspects of the mankind's social behavior. Individuals' interrelations with one another, self-perceptions and many other issues can be explained using this theory. Some believe that such a relationship does not exist in today's world, and Hegelian dialectic master-slave relationship isn't present nowadays, but we are of firm belief that, though the external form of the traditional slave/master relationship has changed in the post-colonial era, nevertheless it still exists in a metamorphosed shape and form. The masters have been using literature, translation and teaching methodologies to establish their own superiority over their slaves in a much more dangerous way than before. Slavery of the minds has been their new motive. Orientalism, as Said (1988) argues, is a perfect example of such efforts. This new form employs language, in general, and literature, translation and teaching methods, in particular, as mighty tools for colonizing. Being aware of the subtle and deceitful ways of the modern colonizers-masters, will enable us to take certain measures to neutralize their subjugation efforts and slavery of the minds of the colonized, third world countries' people.

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The Impact of MOOCs on College English Reform in Mainland China

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Abstract—**Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) are internationally accepted as a popular online learning, its introduction into Mainland China provides an opportunity for College English education reform, which is on progress since 2007. This article attempts to draw a picture of College English teaching reform under the influence of MOOCs by adopting documentary research method through analyzing all the essays about College English teaching under the wave of MOOCs in CNKI (China National Knowledge Infrastructure) according to their research contents. The data collected shows that theoretically College English teaching could be reformed by taking the form of MOOCs in the courses of English for general purposes (EGP), English for general education (EGE), and English for specific purposes (ESP). It seems that during the reform teaching models and student-teacher relationship are altered by the MOOCs environment. Additionally, College English courses on several MOOCs platforms are analyzed, they further prove the practical College English courses done on MOOCs platforms. This paper seems to throw light on a general overview of College English teaching in Mainland China for English teachers and researchers and propose further improvement for college English teaching reform.**

Index Terms—**MOOCs, College English reform, teaching content, teaching model, student-teacher relationship**

I. INTRODUCTION

College English, one of the obligatory courses in Chinese universities, has been undergoing reforms ever since the beginning of 21 century. In 2007, Chinese Ministry of Education (MOE) notified College English Curriculum Requirements (CECR), in which it is indicative that 'All universities should adopt modern technology, especially computer and classroom based teaching model in their College English teaching models to supplement the teacher-centered single-type teaching model. These new teaching models should build on modern information technology, particularly network technology to ensure College English learning free from time and place restrictions, which develop into those classes facilitate students' autonomous and individualized learning.' (2007, p.18) Ever since then, all of the Chinese universities have adopted the blended teaching and learning model based on network and classroom instruction, which shows that College English has succeeded in reforming its teaching model. Lately, a new means of online learning MOOCs started budding in 2008, and expanded worldwide in 2012. The year 2012 was marked as 'the year of MOOC' by New York Times, MOOC appeared as a new means of online learning provides opportunity for all the users online with no 'boundaries of learning institutions' (Kop et al., 2011a; De Witt et al., 2014; Norman et al., 2014). Within the past four years, MOOCs have developed into massive open education resources. During this international open education resources movement, a great number of top universities and organizations participated in, for example, the three most notable MOOC platforms Coursera, edX, Udacity (Alraimi et al., 2015) and Khan Academy in United States, FutureLearn in the United Kingdom, unX in Spain.

Meanwhile, the concept of MOOC was brought into Mainland China, a great number of MOOCs platforms have been built up. For instance, xuetangx.com, as the first MOOC in Mainland China, was sponsored by Tsinghua University and collaborated with Zhejing University and Nanjing University, now grow into one of the most popular MOOCs in Mainland China. Other similar platforms are CNMOOC, University Open Online Courses (UOOC) and WEMMOOC. This paper tries to present an overview of the status of college English teaching under the wave of MOOC in Mainland China by teasing all the essays recently published in CNKI according to their research contents and research methods.

II. COLLEGE ENGLISH EDUCATION UNDER MOOCS

A. Data Collection

In this article, the data used for analyzing is collected by browsing for 大学英语慕课 (the Chinese corresponding translation for College English MOOCs) in CNKI. There are 162 papers published before the data was collected in October, 2016. After reading through each paper, nearly 129 papers are closely related with College English under the wave of MOOCs in Mainland China. The following paper tries to analyze the research content in those published papers,

the present status of College English education under MOOCs will be further discussed. From Figure.1, it can be seen that the number of papers about College English under the wave of MOOCs started to appear in 2013, and increased in 2014 and 2015, grew abruptly in 2016 before October when the data was collected, which shows that the increasing group of English teachers and researchers who give their attention to the development and changes of College English with the great impact of MOOCs.
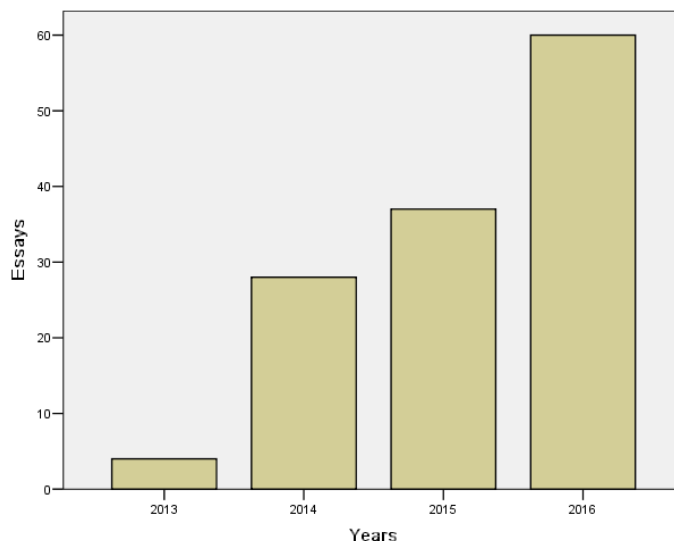

Figure 1. The number of papers in publication year

B. The Topic Issues in Researches

When reading through the 129 papers about College English under the influence of MOOCs, they could be generally classified into qualitative researches and quantitative researches based on the research method taken in the papers. Some popular topic issues stand revealed on College English education in those papers are its prospects and challenges brought by MOOCs, redesign of its content, teaching model and changes to teachers' roles in College English teaching.

(1). Prospects and challenges brought by MOOCs on College English

When MOOCs first brought into China, the impact of international MOOCs was expected by some researchers in Mainland China, such as, Ma & Hu (2014) stated that there would be challenges and opportunities for College English, and proposed the reconstruction of College English Curriculum by using the concept of MOOCs. Xiong (2016) claimed that, on one hand, MOOCs resources have enriched teaching materials and lowered the production costs of College English course, on the other hand, MOOCs has brought about changes to the approaches of College English classroom teaching so as to satisfy individual difference on the part of the students. In this way, MOOCs challenges the traditional approaches of College English teaching and learning, during which the relations between teachers and students can be changed. So for both of them MOOCs are innovative concept and technology, only when they get fully involved in can MOOCs be fully utilized. Xie (2015) and Zhang (2015) expressed similar understanding of the changes brought by MOOCs, which have altered the input-dominated classroom teaching model, renewed the content of traditional paper textbooks and changed the asymmetrical teacher-student relationship.

(2). Teaching content

Hutchison & Waters (1987) stated that teaching English as a foreign language could be divided into EGP (English for General Purposes) and ESP (English for Specific Purposes). The latter was further classified into EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EOP (English for Occupational Purpose). There is heated discussion about the reconstruction of College English content in Mainland China, one group of researchers represented by Professor Jigang Cai (2013), who advocated that College English should be taught as EAP, while another group stressed that College English should go as EGP and EGE (English for General Education). Up to now, it reached an agreement that College English should consist of EGP and follow-up courses which is composed of ESP and EGE (Wang, 2013). EGP stresses basic English knowledge to improve students' language skills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation abilities. While ESP teaching is the combination of English with specific field, such as Business English, Financial English and Accounting English.

Ma & Hu (2014) claimed that one of the opportunities MOOCs brought to College English is to reconstruct its teaching content according to students' study needs. For those students in top universities as good English learners, they should be given courses as Academic English as one obligatory course to help them transfer to international MOOCs, bilingual courses, and intercultural communication as one selected course. For those students in average universities, on one hand, their English skills should be improved through General English courses, on the other hand, their abilities of using English for academic purpose and intercultural communication should be cultivated according to their own needs.

For the application of MOOCs in College English, Chen (2016) claimed that only limited aspects could combine MOOCs with foreign language learning at the elementary period, mainly in writing. It is further stated that the advantages of MOOCs could be better exploited only in the advanced learning period, in which learners' thought sparks by communicating with each other and their thinking ability and creativity could be fostered, particularly written translation ability.

A. EGP

Among 129 papers collected, there are 14 papers discuss the development of students' language skills i.e. listening, speaking, writing and translation. Han (2016) reported the construction of MOOCS about English listening practice through inputting news and reports selected from VOA, BBC and CNN. This MOOCs is arranged with objective, study, quiz, learning with companions and exchange learning experience five parts of contents, which emphasizes autonomous learning with clear learning objective, monitoring the learning process by following students' study and quizzes and learning from their peers. Zhang (2015) studied the design and practice of MOOCs for spoken English teaching and learning with the case of "English 900 in MOOCs", including its background and significance, objectives and concepts, development procedures, technological requirements, target learner, teachers, course structure, linguistic input and output, time distribution, etc. The study is expected to enrich MOOCs paradigms for spoken foreign language，and promote the development of MOOCs for foreign language teaching and learning. Sun (2016) explored the strategies to promote the College English translation teaching by analyzing the subjective and objective factors influence College English translation teaching in MOOCs era. It is suggested that students' translation skills could be improved mainly through cultivating translation skills in reading teaching and learning as well as practical translation training. Wang (2016) analyzed the deficiencies of traditional College English translation teaching and proposed the construction of the courses of college English translation in the era of MOOCs.

B. ESP

Zhao & Wang (2016) claimed that the widespread of MOOCs provide rich material for ESP teaching. Similarly, Liu (2016) stated that MOOCs bring great number of good-qualified teaching material which promises ESP teaching and learning. Dong & Li (2014) proposed practical strategies of reforming the present Medical English teaching with help of MOOCs after analyzing deficiencies of the traditional medical English classroom instruction. Wang et. al (2015) conducted qualitative as well as quantitative research by carrying out a practical teaching experiment with the idea of "on-line MOOC courses + CBI(Content-based Instruction) + ESP "(MCE), which proves the validity of this MCE teaching model on the improvement of learners' learning motivation, learning strategies, and English proficiency. Similar research was done by Ren & Guan (2016) through making use of MOOCs platform courses and practical ESP learning, results showed that students' motivation and interest of learning English have been activated, their learning proficiency especially listening and vocabulary understanding has been improved significantly.

(3) Teaching model: Flipped classroom, Micro-course or Mini-course

A. Micro-course

The term micro-lecture or mini-lecture, first proposed by David Penrose, emerged as short videos for online and mobile learning. With the popularity of micro-lecture in Mainland China micro-lecture is defined as a less than ten minutes video concentrating on one topic in teaching objectives. Its potential of becoming a successful practice in large campus courses was cultivated in Mainland China. Yan (2014) explained the features of English grammar points, reading and writing strategies, translation skills, listening and oral performance and analyzed the teaching strategies implied in College English micro-lecture by combining with three slices of teaching design. Sun (2016) discussed micro-lecture design about translation in National College English Test Band 4. Those micro-lectures could not only save the teachers and students' time to discuss theoretical points in class but also help students learn about the translation skills at their spare time.

B. Blended learning

Different from the traditional face-to-face classroom, blended learning is a relatively new term which commonly means that blended learning environment combine face-to-face instruction with technology-meditated instruction (Graham, 2005; Graham et al., 2003). With the popularity of MOOCs online courses, blended learning model is introduced into College English teaching. For the blended learning in College English teaching, there are two kinds of blendings exist, one is the combination of traditional face-to-face instruction with computer-mediated instruction, the other is flipped classroom with computer-mediated instruction.

a. Traditional face-to-face instruction

Zhou (2016) introduced the model of blended instruction that it complements the weaknesses of MOOCs with traditional face-to-face instruction. The characteristics of its application into College English teaching is explored in terms of seven aspects, i.e. students, teaching objectives, teaching content, teaching methods, teaching environment, feedback and teachers. Sun & Wei (2016) discussed the blended teaching model driven by MOOCs and Corpus and analyzed its application in College English, the survey showed that the two together can make full use of information technology and college English blended teaching and its potential. Chen & Wang (2016) illustrated the strategies of blended teaching model by taking an example from College English, and suggested that college English teachers should increase their knowledge and awareness of team cooperation in the course design.

b. Flipped classroom

Wang (2015) discussed the feasibility of MOOCs and flipped classroom in College English teaching by analyzing the characteristics of Chinese college students and teachers. Hu & Wu (2014) reported a College English teaching experiment on flipped classroom instruction based on self-developed College English MOOCs. It first analyzed the typical features of MOOCs and ways of incorporation into College English curriculum design and introduced the practical development of College English MOOCs and flipped classroom instruction. Quantitative and qualitative data collected from students showed that this MOOC-based flipped classroom instructional model is not only suitable for College English teaching, but also highly recognized by the students. Zhang & Sun (2015) elaborated the significance and feasibility of implementing MOOC-based flipped classroom teaching model and suggested that construction of this teaching model can be done through four stages of frontal analysis, on-line activity design, classroom activity design and diverse assessment design. An eight-week tentative teaching experiments was conducted to find out its potential effects and possible problems. Bai (2016) conducted an empirical study on the multi-interactive teaching mode of College English, the results indicated that students' interests in English study and academic records have increased by multi-interactive teaching mode of micro-course online, MOOCs, social software and APP, etc..

(4). The changes to College English teachers

Jing et.al (2014) discussed the strategies young university teachers could take to face the fact of MOOCs' coming, and encouraged College English teachers to take part in MOOCs, pay more attention on the construction of experimental and practical platform and change the role of themselves during education. Li (2015) discussed teachers' teaching competence in the flipped classroom, it is required that teachers should play a key role to supervise, instruct and promote students' learning for the purpose of making full use of online resources before class. In the flipped classroom teachers are expected to participate much more in the learning process than they do in the traditional class. Teachers should not only focus on developing students' autonomous learning, but also design activities aim to develop their higher level of cognitive skills such as applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating. Chen (2016) explained the change of teacher-student relations from the following: teachers' teaching are no longer the only source of knowledge for students, they could get access to the same knowledge from autonomous online learning. This forces teachers to change their ideas, correct their understanding of the teacher authority, understand students and students' learning situation and make full use of teacher's leading role. There are three papers discuss College English teachers from the perspective of the ecology. Zhang & Li (2016) re-positioned College English teachers' ecological niches from the perspective of the ecology and pointed out that they should meet the MOOCs' challenges from the following three aspect: changes of educational teaching ideas, changes of teachers' roles, the incorporation of traditional classroom and MOOCs. Hu (2016) discussed the issue of teachers' development with the emergence of MOOCs from the perspective of educational ecology. It explored College English teachers' impact on the whole educational ecosystem and the rules that govern their interaction in order to establish a balanced scientific educational ecosystem with multilateral participation. Ma (2015) discussed trend and position changes of College English teachers, particularly their relations with students, colleagues, textbooks, teaching methods and themselves. Facing MOOCs, it proposed the conception of College English teachers niche expansion so as to promote foreign language teaching compatible with dynamic and benign development of the ecological system.

III. COLLEGE ENGLISH COURSES ON MOOCS PLATFORMS

It seems that College English teaching has been greatly affected by the international wave of MOOCs from the previous review of papers published. Especially, the construction of College English content was heatedly discussed in the collected essays. All of the College English MOOCs made in Mainland China to show the practical College English Education at present.

TABLE I.
MOOCs' CONTENTS IN DIFFERENT MOOCs PLATFORMS IN MAINLAND CHINA

MOOCs Platform	EGP			ESP	EGE		Vocabulary
	Speaking & Listening	Reading & Writing	Translation		Culture	Literature	
xuetangx.com	8	5		3	3		
CNMOOC		1			1C		
UOOC	1	3			3+1C		1
WEMOOC	1		1				
iCourse	6	4		3	2C	2	
Total	30			6	12		1

Note: C represents Chinese culture

From the Table.I, it can be seen that for some of the MOOCs platforms, such as xuetangx.com, there are nineteen courses about College English, among them thirteen courses are about EGP, speaking, listening, reading and writing, three cultural courses are part of EGE, and there are three ESP courses. For all of the five main MOOCs platforms in Mainland China, there are thirty-one courses delivering on language skills as EGP, although vocabulary is not one of the language skills it deals with basics, it is classified into EGP part. There are twelve courses about culture and

literature belong to EGE, it is nice to see four courses introduce Chinese culture. Six courses are delivered as ESP. It can be seen obviously that more importance still has been attached to EGP courses.

IV. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study is to develop a systematic analysis of College English teaching reform under the impact of MOOCs by considering the articles published on CNKI. The data shows that College English reform in Mainland China has been affected by MOOCs on redesign of its teaching content, innovation of teaching model, College English teachers' professional requirements and their relationship with students. To be more precise, the content of College English is classified according to their course purpose, such as EGP courses, language skills of listening, speaking, writing and translation are mostly covered content in MOOCs. The College English teaching combines MOOCs online and flipped classroom teaching. This newly emerged way of teaching encourage College English teachers improve their own qualifications to meet the requirements. All of the previous descriptions are described in the papers collected, but in fact College English has not carried out MOOCs online teaching combined with flipped classroom or blended teaching. The problem lies that theoretically it seems the advanced technology could certainly improve College English teaching, but just a small part of universities try the new way of teaching, which is shown clearly in the MOOCs platforms about College English. Hopefully, there will be more practical College English MOOCs courses online and increasing number of qualitative study of College English MOOCs in CNKI.

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Teacher's Perception of Using ESA Elements in Boosting Speaking Ability of EFL Learners: A Task-based Approach

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Abstract—There has always been tremendous studies regarding teachers' perception of using a definite approach in boosting speaking ability of EFL learners; however, fewer studies have stressed the essentiality of student engagement through Harmer's ESA elements involved in enhancing speaking performance of EFL learners. The aim of the present study is to put an effort into investigating teachers' perception of teaching-learning techniques through the utilization of three engage, study and activates (ESA) elements involved in teaching of tasks in mastering Iranian intermediate EFL learners' speaking skills. Based on this notion, a number of 10 EFL experienced teachers were enrolled in conduction of the study. In order to analyze teachers' apprehension of ESA elements, a questionnaire which contained a five- point 37 Likert-type close-ended items was utilized. The results of the teachers' questionnaire revealed that most of the teachers hold a positive perception of implementing ESA elements in their classroom settings as an instructional approach in boosting speaking ability of EFL learners. In conclusion, findings of the study approve implementation of ESA in classroom setting. It is expected that the implications of the study may significantly contribute to the work of EFL teachers, EFL learners, syllabus designers, supervisors, material producers, textbook writers and researchers.

Index Terms—ESA elements, teachers' perception, speaking ability

I. INTRODUCTION

As a matter of fact, mastering speaking ability has always been of a great concern to most EFL learners taking part in international English language tests. Subsequently, implementing the best course of action which significantly boosts EFL learner's oral abilities has also been a controversial issue for TEFL teachers.

Regarding speaking and its importance, Ur, P (1991) considers speaking as the most essential skill. He notes that among the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, speaking gains significant importance. He also maintains that those who grasp knowledge of a language are said to be the 'speakers' of that language, as though speaking contains all other types of knowledge and to a larger extent most EFL learners tend to learn speaking. Rivers (1981) argues that the use of speaking in L2 situations is twice as much as other skill like reading and writing in daily communications (Cited in Torky, 2006). Correspondingly, Richards and Renandya (2002) consent on the fact that most EFL learners take English courses so as to expatiate their proficiency in oral abilities. Harmer (2007) clearly stresses on the communicative dimention and language use in L2 settings. He also encapsulates that adequate input and learner engagement in tasks and topics would significantly affect learner's oral abilities. Additionally, he claims that if learners activate their cognitive abilities and consider their minds and hearts, they will understand and learn substantial materials considerably.

In accordance with the abovementioned statements, it seems essential to say that speaking is the means through which learners can communicate with others specifically for the purpose of achieving certain goals, putting their ideas across or expressing their emotions, feelings, viewpoints and so on. Likewise, however, there is a consensus that speaking is the most frequently used skill in most settings.

Prince (2004 as cited in Timothy T. Diemer and et al) holds that student engagement is closely associated with positive learning outcomes. Likewise, Kinzi (2010 as cited in Timothy T. Diemer and et al) describes the association between student engagement and academic success as follow:

A substantial body of research indicates that once students commence studying at a college or university a key factor as to whether they will put considerable amount of effort and strive to partake in educationally meaningful activities is essentially dependent upon the extent to which they are engaged in academically well-structured environments. Quite simply, to make certain how many students graduate and make the most of their undergraduate and postgraduate education, universities need to first assure the learning environment offer prolific and educationally purposeful opportunities and subsequently concentrate squarely on promoting student engagement.

Although there have been tremendous studies on the essentiality of teaching and enhancing speaking ability of EFL learners, the problems and inadequacies are not alleviated yet. Correspondingly, most of the works on teaching speaking through tasks proved to have their own weaknesses, merits and demerits. And most of these weaknesses can be attributed to their ignorance of learner engagement, learner interest and learner activation. Correspondingly, considering the abovementioned barriers which may hinder learners attempt to enhance their speaking ability, this study put an effort into filling the gap in the field of language teaching and learning. Therefore, the present study is significant owing to the grounds that it tries to remove the shortcomings of former studies by investigating teachers' apprehension of implementing Harmer's ESA (Engagement, Study, and Activate) elements utilizing a Task-based syllabus in boosting speaking ability of EFL learners.

This study also aims to assess and identify teachers' perception of utilizing this approach on improving speaking ability of EFL learners. Therefore, it tries to explore teachers' understanding and knowledge regarding the relevance of using ESA approach for better language teaching and learning. To do this, the present study attempts to give some suggestions for teachers to stimulate student's speaking performance and overcome the difficulties they have to encounter with in teaching speaking English for Iranian EFL learners.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Speaking Nature's Language

Bygate (1987) maintains that speaking in a second language (L2) involves the improvement of a specific kind of communicative skill. Additionally, he states that since oral language involves production circumstances, it contradicts from written language in its ordinary grammatical, lexical and discourse patterns. The differences between these two are discussed on the discussion of the nature of speaking. Moreover, some of the processing skills required in speaking vary from those involved in reading and writing. Additionally, on the discussion of the nature of spoken language, Nunan (1989) distinguishes spoken language from written language. He summarizes the differences as follow:

Spoken language	**written language**
Context dependent	context independent
Dialogic in nature	monologic in nature
Records the world as happens	records the world as things
(P.26).	

He also differentiates between two basic language functions, i.e. the transactional and the interactional talk. The former is produced in order to get things done. And the latter is produced for social purposes. According to Nunan (1989, P.32) successful oral communication involves:

1. the ability to articulate phonological features of the language comprehensibly
2. command of stress, rhythm, intonation patterns
3. an acceptable degree of fluency
4. transactional and interpersonal skills
5. skills in negotiating meaning
6. skills in taking long and short turns

Additionally, he holds that teachers can apply both the bottom-up and the top-down approaches to teaching speaking in their classes. He defines the bottom-up approach to teaching speaking as follow: The students commence with the smallest units of language, i.e. individual sounds, and continue with the mastery of words and sentences to discourse. The top-down view, on the other hand, advocates that the students commence with the larger chunks of language, which are embraced in authentic contexts, and use their knowledge of the contexts to understand and use the smaller language elements accurately.

B. Classroom Interaction and Student Engagement

For EFL learners, experiencing real communicative situations in which they can assert themselves get their message crossed or expressing their opinions with regard to fluency and accuracy is crucially important. Hence, applying an educational strategy which can enhance their learning plays an important role in their learning process. Having this in mind, it should go without saying that the concept of classroom interaction which emphasizes teacher-learner, learner-learner interaction, negotiation of meaning and feedback worth considering. Supporting the abovementioned claims, Hughes (1994) believes that one of the major objectives of teaching spoken language to EFL learners is to master their ability in interacting successfully in the target language which involves both comprehension and production. (Cited in Silva, 2012)

In their pioneering study of teacher-learner interaction, Sinclair and Brazil (1982) claimed that learners 'have only very restricted opportunities to participate in the language of the classroom'. In similar vein, Nunan (1987) concluded that 'there is increasing proof that, in communicative classroom settings, interactions may, in particular, not be very communicative after all' (p.144).The growing evidence Nunan adduces includes studies that characterize teacher-learner interaction as being almost entirely teacher-led and dominated, and as consisting largely of IRF (initiate-response-follow up) sequences, of which the initiating element is almost always a display question (as opposed to a referential one). Elsewhere, Sinclair and coulthard (1975 as cited in Ur, P. 1991) believe that the most decent kind of

classroom interaction is generally known as 'IRF' – Initiation- Response- Feedback: in this type of interaction the teacher launches an exchange, typically in the form of a question, and one of the learners answers, the sequence goes on.

A positive gloss of this extract would highlight the scaffolding of instruction that the teacher provides through her questions, and the way in which learners are actively involved in achieving an instructional goal. (Thornbury, S 1996a, as cited in Trappes-Lomax and Gibson Ferguson 2002).

Student engagement is a new and ongoing field of study and the finding are very challenging. Shulman (2002) stress the essentiality of student engagement and say "learning begins with student engagement" (p.37).

In any learning situation, especially in classroom setting, any achievement without considering student engagement would lead to incomplete conclusions or results.

The research literature elaborates upon Newmann and Colleagues (1999) (as cited in Aardema, Thomas P, 2013) definition by dividing student engagement into three levels: behavioral engagement, emotional engagement and cognitive engagement.

The focus of behavioral engagement is mainly on the tenet of participation and involvement of learners in social as well as academic activities essential for achieving positive outcomes. Emotional engagement refers to the learner's reaction toward the teacher, classmate and the academic course. Learners participating in class show positive and sometimes negative attitude or reaction. These emotions include: boredom, happiness, interest, anxiety, stress, etc. Cognitive engagement is the amount of time, effort, willingness, thoughtfulness and strategies exerted or employed by learners necessary for comprehension of complex ideas in carrying out tasks.

C. ESA Approach as an Instructional TEFL Methodology

Over the last decade, ELT teachers have made use of PPP model of Presentation, Practice and production as their desired model of teaching. This model of teaching proved to be effective; however, it proved to have many disadvantageous. One of the salient cons of implementing this model is that it falls short in communicative classes. This is due to the fact that it does not work well when learners are asked to produce complex language problems at the discourse level. Another short coming of this model can be attributed to the amount of teacher talking time which is disproportionately high compared to that of the learner talking time. This is mainly in the presentation phase of the PPP model. Another demerit of this model arises from its principles is its overemphasis on accuracy over fluency when the focus is on language use rather than usage. Finally, the said model does not allow for recap, that is, movement within different stages. Now, it can convincingly be argued that ESA approach can be preferred.

In response to the shortcomings directed toward PPP model, Harmer proposed a more effective and practical alternative model of teaching. Harmer (2007) different trilogy of teaching elements which he calls as a principled eclecticism is referred as ESA: Engage Study, and Activate.

• E stands for Engage. The principal aim of engagement phase requires teachers to arouse learner's curiosity, involvement, attention, emotion and interests. In this phase, teachers can make use of games, interesting anecdotes, storytelling, recordings, picture descriptions etc. According to the said propositions Harmers (2007) state that "unless students are emotionally engaged with what is going on, their learning will be less effective" (p.66).

• S which stands for Study bases its main principal on language usage. The tasks at this phase center around forms of the language and the information about the construction of how it is formed. This phase entails focus on learner-led grammar discovery, eliciting grammar from learners rather than teacher-led presentations. The activities of this phase grow out of communicative tasks where learners focus on forms is drawn from the teacher-led discussions or through their own noticing activities. Activities of this type range from relative clauses, specific intonation patterns to collocation of a particular word or the way a lexical phrase is made or used. Harmer believes that successful language learning is heavily grounded on a sensible integration of subconscious acquisition of language.

• Finally, A which stands for Activate is the stage at which learners are engaged in more communicative and meaning-focused tasks. These tasks require learners to use the language communicatively and as free as the can. Fluency is more emphasized and learners focus is on the free use of the language rather than accuracy.

D. Task

Ur, P (1991) defines task as essentially goal-oriented activity which requires the group or pair, to regain the goal which is normally expressed by an observable result. These include a drawing, a rearrangement of jumbled items, a spoken summary and brief notes or lists. This result should be achieved by interaction among participants; therefore the instruction involved in teaching tasks should 'reach a consensus' or 'find out every one's opinion' In performing these types of activities, he believes that task -centered activities invokes more talk, more even participation, more motivation and enjoyment.

E. Task Components, Task Types, Task Variables and Features

When deciding to use or design any kind of task in the classroom, the first thing that comes to the mind is which components of the task are better to be used or chosen in order to get better outcomes. Or which type of the task most suits to the classroom setting. As an example, deciding which type of task is beneficial for communication. Also, there are some task variables that display the characteristics of a good task. Ellis (2000) in his book 'Task-based research and language pedagogy' composes that instructional information about consequential task variables procured through

research can aid teachers in determining what tasks to practice and what time (as cited in Ellis 2005). As a whole, implications derived from task components, task types and task variables provide useful insights for teachers and language trainers to make the process of language teaching and learning effective (Edwards and Willis 2005).

Candlin (1987) endorses that input, roles, setting, actions, monitoring, outcomes and feedback are the constituent of a task. He defines input as the data presented for learners to work on. Roles define the association between participants in a task. Setting refers to the classroom and out-of-class arrangements included in the task. Actions are the strategies and sub-tasks that the learners perform. Monitoring refers to the observation of the progressive task. Outcomes refer to the objectives of the task, and feedback refers to the assessment of the task.

According to Shavelson and Stern (1981) in designing a task, the following elements should be taken into consideration:

• Content – the theme, topic and subject matter to be instructed
• Materials – the concrete things or materials that students are able to observe/manipulate
• Activities – the things the students and teacher will be performing during the instruction
• Goals – the teachers' overall objective for the task
• Students – their capabilities, requirements and enthusiasms are essential
• Social community – the whole class and its perception of 'groupness'.
(P. 478).

Nunan (1999) states that there are four components in defining a language learning task: the goals, the input, the activities taken from the input and eventually the roles of the teacher and learners.

Goals: Nunan refers to goals as the vague general intentions behind any given learning task. Goals yield a point of proximity between the task and the broader curriculum. For example goals may answer some communicative questions like 'Why did you get learners involved in the communicative task?' the possible answers to this question might be"

'I wanted to boost their speaking ability.'
'I wanted to encourage them to get engaged in the negotiation of information.'
'I wanted them to master their interactional skills'

Input: He refers to input as the data that form the point of departure for the task. Inputs can be taken from a wide range of sources. For instance, Hover (1986) derives the input for communicative tasks from different sources. These are newspaper extracts, picture stories, business cards, family trees, recipe, weather forecast, note to a friend, curriculum vitae, etc.

Activities: refer to the actual work that learners carry out with the input which shapes the withdrawal of the learning task. Clark and Silberstein (1977) maintain that the activities performed in the classroom setting must be the same as the real world as closely as possible. Correspondingly, thanks to the fact that language is a means to communication, methods and materials must also focus on the message, not the medium. Consequently, findings of research into the study of tasks may provide teachers with intuitions that enable them to make language teaching more beneficial.

Argumentatively, it can be put forward that tasks types can be recognized in a number of ways. For example, Nunan (1989) offers two inclusive categories: real-world tasks like using telephone and pedagogic tasks like problem solving. These can be further be subcategorized into other classifications, by means of language function like giving instructions, apologizing, making suggestions, or by means of cognitive processes or knowledge hierarchies such as listing, ordering and sorting, problem solving, being creative. Correspondingly, others may categorize tasks by topic, by the language skills needed for completion, or by whether the result is closed or open which is sometimes called divergent and convergent tasks (Long, 1989). Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) take as their starting point the kind of interaction that takes place during task completion, e.g. one-way or two-way information flow, leading to five kinds: jigsaw tasks, information gaps, problem-solving, decision-making and opinion exchange. Making a distinction among different task types seems paramount, as it allows researchers to explore which types most considerably enhance learning (as cited in Edwards, C &. Willis, J. 2005, p.19).

In addition to task types, task variables also provide useful insight into better understanding of the process of task-based language teaching. Edwards, C and Willis, J (2005) provide some examples of tasks variables. These include task characteristics such as whether the task is structured by providing some courses of induction into managing the interaction, therefore aiding task completion, cognitive difficulty and familiarity of the task involving the amount of antecedent rehearsal of the task-type or recapitulation of the same or similar tasks. The criteria under which tasks are carried out can also be regulated. Interlocutor familiarity with the time arrangement, performance preconditions such as public or private, and whether the interlocutor is a native or non-native speaker are all instances of task variables (p.20).

Most of the tasks used in classrooms are prescribed by official course syllable or course books and allow little opportunities for teachers to provide learners with new type of activities. Most of these tasks introduced by course books or official course syllables lack the features of being interesting, novel, having real life characteristics, etc.

Dornyei, Z (2001, Pp. 76-77) lists some ideas about the most motivating features of task content. He believes that a task must be\have:

• Challenging. That is to say, most they must challenge learners by performing some computer games; crossword or puzzles which activates learners sense of completion, problem solving and discovery abilities.

• Have interesting content: tasks which connect the topic with learners' real life experiences or the things learners already find interesting.

• Novel: the tasks which have some novelty would bring variety and also would eliminate the factor of being monotonous.

• Fantasy: tasks which arouse leaners imagination or fantasy will engage learners. For example, by making make-believe story, pretend plays or act out.

• Personal: learners inherently like the topics or tasks which they relate the content to their own lives.

• Competition: The opportunity to challenge can add arousal and excitement to learning tasks, irrespective of whether the challenge is for reward (e.g. a packet of candies) or simply for the satisfaction of winning.

• Humor: `Humor is many things and one of them is interesting'

III. METHODOLOGY

Date Collection Instruments

The research instruments used in this study included questionnaires for teachers and teacher observation.

Teacher's Questionnaire

The questionnaire was adapted from Karavas-Doukas (1996) and Kim (1999) cited in Beyen (2008) composed a five-point 37 Likert-type close-ended items. The information which was embodied in the questionnaire aimed to find out the teachers understanding and perception of teaching speaking through application of ESA approach on tasks. The questionnaire for teachers encompassed the primary principles of ESA approach (i.e. aspects of conceptual perspective, students learning perspective, perspective on instructional activities, the role of the teacher and the role and contribution of students).

The questionnaire included a total of 37 items. In section one 21 items, which were designed to identify teachers' understandings of ESA concepts and their views on ESA classroom implementation, were given numerical scores (e.g. „Strongly Agree" =5; „Agree" = 4; „Undecided" =3; „Disagree" =2 and „Strongly Disagree" =1). Similarly, in section two items (22-37) which were set out to identify teachers" frequency of practice of the communicative language teaching principles with the statements on five-point Likert scales ranging from 5 specifying "always", 4 specifying "usually",3 specifying "sometimes", 2 specifying " rarely" and 1 specifying "never".

Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

Before the commencement of the existent data collection process, the questionnaire was put forward essentially to meet the aims of the study, and the items were adapted from Karavas-Doukas (1996) and Kim (1999) cited in Beyen (2008). The adapted questionnaire was given to two TEFL instructors in Chabahar Maritime University to evaluate the items analytically in terms of content validity, face validity, comprehensibility of the items and if they fit to measure the objectives of the study. Consequently, in order to check the internal consistency of the questionnaire results, a pilot study on teachers' questionnaire was conducted using 10 MA students of teaching with more than 4 to 5 years of teaching experience. The pilot study on teachers' questionnaire was conducted in another school all chosen from Tehran language school with more than 5 years of experience in teaching since the MA students were involved in the actual study. The participants involved in the pilot study were not included in the sample during the administration of the final form of the questionnaire.

The reliability of the test instrument was tested by Cronbach alpha method. The calculated Cronbach alpha of the test instruments were 0.82 and 0.85 for the perception and practice items. Thus, the instruments were found to be reliable to collect data for the main study.

Classroom Observation

The classroom observation was carried out in order to see whether teachers and students practiced the principles of ESA approach (besides what they responded to questionnaires) in EFL classroom while the actual class lesson was going on. In order to meet the objectives of the observation, a speaking observation was developed and employed. This instrument was submitted to the panel of jury to determine its validity and appropriateness of the skills needed to be applied in the classroom setting. The observation was made based on checklists which focused on classroom instructional activities or techniques employed by teachers, the role teachers and learners played and instructional materials used in the teaching learning process. Based on the objectives of the study, which was to ensure whether teachers approved the application of ESA approach on task in teaching speaking or not, this observation checklist was provided. The main aim of this checklist is to familiarize the teachers with the principles of Harmers ESA approach in order to get ready to answer the questions asked about their perception of using this approach. Therefore, it should be mentioned that the questionnaires the 10 teachers were given after the treatment in the experimental group were based on this observation checklist provided in advance. In this process 10 different M.A teaching candidates with nearly 4 or 5 years of experiences were asked to fill out the observation checklist. At the end of the treatment, the same teachers were asked to answer to the questionnaires asking about their perception of using this approach.

IV. PROCEDURES

Conduction of the present study was an attempt to see whether teachers approve of using this type of instruction and the procedures used in collecting the data involve a number of steps taken by the researcher himself:

Since the questionnaires were based on the method being used in class and in order for the teachers to answer the questionnaire, First of all, it was important to get the teachers acquainted with the method being used in the classroom. Therefore, it was necessary to ask the teachers to participate in the classes and fill out the observation checklist. Hence, an observation checklist which was based on the tenets of the method being used was prepared in advance. Then, at the end of the term when the teachers had already based their perceptions according to the observation checklist, a questionnaire was given to teachers to analyze their perception of using the ESA approach in class. Teachers' perception questionnaire is carried out with the intention of arriving at possible conclusions which can lead to some beneficial recommendations regarding the best course of action in teaching methodology. The teachers' perception questionnaire contains six sections examining different perspectives. These include: conceptual perspective, students' learning perspective, perspective on instructional activities, perspective on teachers' role, perspective on learners' role and classroom practice. Therefore, the data analysis is approached separately in each section of the questionnaire. The data collected from the questionnaires were analyzed using a SPSS software. In this process, the results were shown by the mean, frequency and percentages each teacher answered to each question asked. Finally, the total mean scores of the teachers' responses were given as to the concluding remark of the study.

V. RESULTS

Findings of the Study

The data collection regarding each section of the questionnaire is demonstrated and analyzed using frequency, mean differences and percentage.

TABLE 1.
CONCEPTUAL PERSPECTIVES

No	Items	5		4		3		2		1		Mean
		F	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	F	%	
1.	Good EFL instruction is virtually synonymous with ESA approach.	-	-	5	50	4	40	1	10	-	-	3.40
2.	An ESA approach is the most progressive instructional approach in the field of EFL.	1	10	5	50	3	30	1	10	-	-	3.60
3.	The ESA approach gives equal attention to all language skills rather than attention only to productive skills.	-	-	2	20	3	30	5	50	-	-	2.70
4.	ESA help learners to take responsibility of their learning process more than teacher centered approaches.	1	10	4	40	5	50	-	-	-	-	3.60
5.	The ESA approach to language teaching encourages responsibility and self-discipline and allows each student to develop his/her full potential.	-	-	4	40	4	40	2	20	-	-	3.20
Total mean												3.3

Table1 shows the teachers' conceptual perspective and attitude regarding the use of ESA approach on tasks in mastering EFL learners speaking proficiency. According to the item1, findings of the conceptual perspective denote that approximately half of the teachers agreed that good EFL instruction is virtually synonymous with ESA approach. Likewise, nearly half of the teachers agreed that an ESA approach is the most progressive instructional approach in the field of EFL. However, teachers on item 3 reported their agreement on productive skills and over fifty percent of them claimed that ESA approach is less given attention to all other language skills.

In general, according to the total mean of the teachers' conceptual perspective which equal 3.3, it can clearly be said that about over half of the teachers have a very high opinion of the ESA approach.

TABLE 2.
STUDENTS' LEARNING PERSPECTIVES

No	Items	5		4		3		2		1		Mean
		f	%	f	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
6.	Students" involvement is best promoted in ESA EFL classroom.	7	70	3	30	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.70
7.	Students" social development is best promoted in ESA EFL classroom.	3	30	6	60	1	10	-	-	-	-	4.20
8.	Students are more willing to take risk in ESA EFL classes than teacher fronted (lockstep) classes.	5	50	3	30	2	20	-	-	-	-	4.30
9.	The ESA approach to language teaching produces fluent learners.	4	40	4	40	2	20	-	-	-	-	4.20
Total mean												4.35

As can be seen from the above table, clearly a great percentage of teachers (70%) strongly agreed on the tenets of ESA student involvement. Similarly, the other 30 percent also voted in favor of the student engagement in ESA

approach. Therefore, it can be assured that this type of instruction is the best method of engaging learners in class discussion. Most notably, in item 7, over 60 percent of respondents agreed that Students" social development is best promoted in ESA EFL classroom. In the same manner, most of the teachers (80%) claimed that students are more risk-takers in ESA classes. According to item 9, it should also be stated that ESA approach produces fluent learners. Eighty percent of the teachers reflected their agreement in this favor.

Generally speaking, it can be certainly argued that students' active learning is best promoted in ESA approach. The total mean of 4.35 indicated the high positive role of this type of instruction in teaching productive skills.

TABLE 3.
PERSPECTIVE ON INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES

No	Items	5		4		3		2		1		Mean
		F	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	F	%	
10.	In EFL programs, content learning is best accomplished with an ESA approach.	3	30	5	50	2	20	-	-	-	-	4.10
11.	English speaking proficiency is more easily achieved in an ESA class.	4	40	4	40	2	20	-	-	-	-	4.20
12.	Learning skills are best developed in an ESA EFL classroom.	2	20	4	40	4	40	-	-	-	-	3.80
13.	In ESA, group work activities are essential in providing opportunities for co-operative relationships to emerge and in promoting genuine interaction among students.	4	40	4	40	2	20	-	-	-	-	4.20
14.	In ESA, group work activities take too long to organize and waste a lot of valuable teaching time.	2	20	5	50	2	20	-	-	1	10	3.70
15.	Students do their best when taught as a whole class by their teacher.	2	20	5	50	3	30	-	-	-	-	3.90
Total mean								-	-	-	-	3.98

Taking a quick look at the above table, it will be made clear that item 10 shows great a high percentage of teachers with a mean value of 4.20 agree on the terms of content learning and ESA approach. Similarly, with the mean of 4.20 the teachers also hold that speaking proficiency is best achieved in ESA approach. About 40 percent of the teachers agreed that learning skills are best developed in ESA classroom and likewise 40 percent of them were also undecided and the other 20 percent strongly affirmed that ESA classroom can develop learners learning skills. Regarding group work activities, about 80% of the respondents strongly affirmed that group work activities objectives are best achieved through ESA approach.

In general, the mean score of 3.98 is true measure that most EFL teachers hold a positive outlook of the principles of ESA approach instructional perspectives. As it could be seen ESA takes quite a large number of instructional principles into consideration and promote active learning through student engagement, focus on language forms and receiving feedback as to how many students have learned the materials being taught.

TABLE 4.
PERSPECTIVE ON TEACHER'S ROLE

No	Items	5		4		3		2		1		Mean
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	
16.	Teachers play a facilitator role in ESA class.	6	60	4	40	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.60
17.	The role of the teacher in the language classroom is to impart (demonstrate) knowledge through activities such as explanation, writing and giving examples.	8	80	2	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.40
18.	The teacher should act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group	4	40	4	40	2	20	-	-	-	-	4.20
19.	The teacher must supplement the textbook with other materials and tasks so as to develop the student's communicative skill.	5	50	4	40	1	10	-	-	-	-	4.40
Total mean												4.40

With regard to table4, teachers with the mean of 4.60 confirmed the role of teachers in ESA as facilitator. Focusing on item17, most of the teachers (80%) confirmed that the role of the teacher in the language classroom is to demonstrate knowledge through activities such as explanation; writing and giving examples. In the same manner, regarding item 18, the mean value of 4.40 affirms the teachers' role as an independent participant. At last, in item 19, teachers with the mean value of 4.40 voted in favor that the teacher must supplement the textbook with other materials and tasks so as to develop the student's communicative skill.

As the concluding remark of this section, it suffice to state that even though a small proportion of the teachers (30%) were undecided and had misperception of teachers' role in ESA classes, more than 50% of them (with mean value of 4.40) certified that they have a high positive apprehension of the role of teachers in ESA classes.

TABLE 5.
PERSPECTIVE ON LEARNERS' ROLE

No	Items	5		4		3		2		1		Mean
		F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	
20.	Students can suggest what the content of the lesson should be or what activities are useful for him or her in language classroom.	5	50	3	30	2	20					4.30
21.	Learners should interact primarily with each other rather than with the teacher in EFL classroom.	4	40	3	30	3	30					4.10
Total mean												4.20

This section of teachers' perception of ESA approach pays attention to perspective of learners' role. Item 20 of the above table indicates that half of the teachers (50%) strongly agree on the fact that students can decide on selecting the content of the activities. Taking this principle into consideration, it is made clear that determining the content of the activities, tasks or topics is largely dependent upon students need and interest. Focusing on item 21, 4 and 3 of the teachers strongly agreed and agreed on learners' interaction with their peers rather than with the teacher, though 30% of them were undecided about learner interaction role.

In conclusion, in ESA approach learners role should not be taken for granted. Since learners play a major role in active learning, their contribution to class discussion, task completion and engagement is a must. Hence wise, attracting leaners attention requires a great deal of energy by the side of the teachers. Therefore, in ESA approach there must be a comprehensive lesson plan specially planned and designed to engage students in class activities and discussions. Additionally, it can be put forward that these activities, class discussion, topic and content of the lesson should be approached according to learners need and interest.

TABLE 6.
PERSPECTIVE ON ESA TEACHER'S CLASSROOM PRACTICE

No	Items	5		4		3		2		1		Mean
		f	%	f	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	
22.	ESA teachers" should explain new grammatical terminologies or forms and patterns (rules) and let the learners be engaged in doing exercises.	3	30	4	40	2	20	1	10	-	-	3.90
23.	ESA teachers" should explain new words and phrases and let the learners do the exercises in the textbook.	4	40	4	40	1	10	1	10	-		4.10
24.	Use teacher led - classroom discussion.	5	50	4	40	1	10		-	-	-	4.40
25.	Give students explanation of rules with model sentences to illustrate them.	3	30	3	30	3	30	1	10	-	-	3.80
26.	Involve students in questioning and answering activities.	8	80	2	20	-	-		-	-	-	4.80
27.	Involve learners in role play, simulation or any kind of drama.	7	70	3	30	-	-		-	-	-	4.70
28.	Involve learners in problem- solving activities.	9	90	1	10	-	-		-	-	-	4.90
29.	Involve learners in activities as identifying similarities and differences of pictures in group.	8	80	2	20	-	-		-	-	-	4.80
30.	Use different kinds of language games e.g. word dominoes.	1	10	3	30	3	30	3	30	-	-	3.20
31.	Make the learners exchange letters, write reports, Advertisements etc. cooperatively.	2	20	3	30	3	30	2	20	-	-	3.20
32.	Use audiovisual materials to support your lesson.	3	30	2	20	4	40	1	10	-	-	3.70
33.	Use pair work in which two students work on a given task.	9	90	1	10	-	-		-	-	-	4.90
34.	Use group work in which more than two students work on a given task.	9	90	1	10	-	-		-	-	-	4.90
35.	Help learners correct their error in their pair and group discussion.	6	60	3	30	1	10		-	-	-	4.50
36.	Let learners do assignments at home and give feedback on other days for the whole class.	4	40	3	30	3	30		-	-	-	4.10
37.	Correct learners" error in controlled practice activities like question and answer.	3	30	2	20	3	30	2	20	-	-	3.60
Total Mean												4.21

This section of the questionnaire focuses on teachers' perspective on classroom practice. Item 22 of this table shows that 30% of the teachers believe that ESA teachers' should always explain new grammatical terminologies or forms and patterns (rules) and let the learners be engaged in doing exercises. About 40 %, 20% and 10% percent of the respondents said often, sometimes and rarely respectively. Findings of item 22 imply that most of the teachers employ traditional teaching of grammar in their classes.

Similarly in item 23, significant proportions of the teachers frequently explain new words and phrases and let the learners do the exercises in the textbook. And about10% of them rarely employs doing it. Based on the mean value of the responses (4.10), it can be concluded that nearly a great proportion of teachers employ non-communicative way of teaching vocabulary.

The data analysis for item 24, show that teachers always (50%) and often (40%) employ teacher- led classroom debates. On the other hand, only 10 percent of the respondents consented that they sometimes use teacher-led discussions. Focusing on item 25, 30% of teachers 'always', 'often' and 'sometimes' use rules with model sentences to illustrate the lesson. Noticeably, regarding item 26 about student involvement, it is made clear that teachers give a predominant attention to student engagement. 80% and 20% of teachers asserted that they always and often employ questioning and answering activities.

Data analysis concerning item 27, 28 and 29 about involving learners in activities like role plays, simulations, problem-solving and picture description activities involve teachers frequent attention to student involvement by the use of different activities. The mean value of 4.70, 4.90 and 4.90 is strong evidence regarding this claim.

As to item 30 about language games, 30% of teachers asserted that they often, sometimes and rarely use language games in their classes. And only 10% claimed always using language games like dominoes. This might probably imply that language games take too much time and waste most of the class time.

The mean value 3.20 of item 31 denotes that teachers sometimes prefer to make the learners exchange letters, write reports, advertisements etc. cooperatively. Item 32 of this section about using audiovisual materials to support the lesson indicates that 40% of the teachers sometimes use audiovisuals to support their lesson. However, 30%, 30% and 10% claimed that they always, sometimes and rarely use using audiovisual materials to support their lesson. The mean value of 3.70 indicates that most teachers sometimes prefer to use picture and sound materials and most of the time they stick to textbook and their lesson plan.

Pair work and group work activities are the indispensable part of any teaching methodology, since they provide effective feedback as to how much learners have understood the materials taught. Likewise, ESA approach pays a great deal of attention to pair and group work activities. Consequently, most of the teachers with a mean value of 4.90 testify using it.

Most of the teachers (60%) mentioned that they always help learners correct their mistakes in pairs or group work activities. 30% and 10% asserted they use often and sometimes help learners correct their mistakes in pairs or group work activities respectively (item 35).

Considering item 36, the mean value of 4.10 signify the fact that over 50% of the teachers let students do assignments at home and give feedback on other days for the whole class. And finally teachers' responses on classroom practice regarding item 37 indicate that only 30 percent show their frequent preference in correcting learners' error in controlled practice activities like question and answer. Respectively, 20%, 30% and 20% of the teachers claim practicing this activity often, sometimes and rarely.

To sum up, the findings of the teachers' responses to classroom practice convey the fact that most teachers prefer ESA approach in teaching activities. However, an average proportion of them prefer traditional way of teaching grammar. They also tend to favor involving students in task activity types. As it could be seen, regarding the three elements of Engagement, Study and activate, teachers choose different styles of teaching these elements.

Ultimately, as the concluding remark of the whole sections, it can arguably be asserted that teachers hold a positive perception of ESA elements in mastering speaking ability of EFL learners. The total mean value of 4.07 is a strong proof to the abovementioned claim.

VI. DISCUSSIONS

Making recourse to the research question posed earlier, the study sought to explore EFL teachers' perceptions of ESA approach. Accordingly, teachers were asked to observe the experimental class which the treatment was being applied. In this process, they were required to fill in an observation checklist. Then, after the instruction at the end of the course, they were given a questionnaire based on the observation checklist to see their perception of using this method. After data collection, the data were analyzed by using a descriptive method. The mean and frequency of the answers were utilized to differentiate their perception. The questionnaire was analyzed in seven sections. The findings of each section of the questionnaire brought about different perspectives of the teachers' understanding of an ESA use of tasks. Considerably, it was made clear that teachers, regardless of their teaching experiences, convey a significant amount of practical understanding about the key concepts of ESA approach involved in teaching of tasks in promoting EFL learners speaking ability.

In probing the teachers' perception of task-based language teaching the study whose results parallel the findings of this study, Víctor Pavón Vázquez Marta Prieto MolinaFco and Javier Ávila López (2014) investigated the perceptions that teachers and students have of the use of task-based learning as an instrument to favor participation and interaction in CLIL. The results of this study support the optimism for the adoption of task-based learning. They found out that task-based learning contributes to the creation of a cooperative and relaxed learning atmosphere, since students enjoy working with and learning new things in class.

They also found out that teachers make use of appropriate techniques and strategies to promote the use of the foreign language, whether individually or in groups. Teachers' own perception of their work is an important factor in the success of CLIL, as teachers are responsible for providing adequate support by scaffolding students' negotiation of meaning.

VII. Conclusions

The principal purpose of the study was to put attempts into investigating teachers' perception toward the application of ESA elements in mastering speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. Hence wise, in order to analyze the data descriptive survey method was employed. To meet this objective, questionnaire and classroom observation were utilized as instruments of data collection. The obtained data were analyzed by employing statistical tools such as frequency, percentage and mean using SPSS software. The total mean value of 4.07 is strong evidence that the said null hypothesis was rejected all. However, teachers had different perspectives toward the application of the practical principles of ESA. Consequently, it can rightly be asserted that teachers do have a positive perception of toward the application of ESA elements in promoting EFL learners speaking abilities.

Considerably, it is hoped that findings of the present study would make a specifically significant contribution to the better current situation in teaching and learning speaking English intermediate EFL learners and to the ongoing process of renovation for teaching English. Additionally, it is also expected to find its place in educational syllabus of the English department. Similarly, teachers are recommended to incorporate the instructional procedures deployed in the study.

The present research, although limited in scope, is specifically carried out to develop teachers' apprehension of employing ESA technique involved in teaching of tasks in promoting EFL learners speaking proficiency. On that account, the findings of the study would offer considerable amount of courses of action and implications sine qua non for EFL teachers, EFL learners, syllabus designers, supervisors, material producers, textbook writers and researchers.

Acknowledgments

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Establishing Learner Autonomy in China's Universities through Achievement Presentation

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Abstract—**Learner's role in learning a foreign language has been paid more and more attention in the recent years and learner autonomy is widely recognized as an educational goal. How to integrate teaching with developing learner autonomy has become a hot topic in the educational reform. However, few researches have been made in China's specific class context. The extension learning achievement presentation (ELAP) activity conducted in two of China's universities is such an exploratory practice. Based on the theory of learner autonomy and the characteristics of university students, the ELAP is designed to make an integration of students' learning both in and out class so as to promote the simultaneous development of autonomous learning and language use abilities. The combination of classroom teaching with students' out class learning enables the foreign language learning to become a process of learner autonomy development. In the process of sharing each other's achievements, the students deepen their understanding of the knowledge learned and widen their horizon. The result of quantitative and qualitative data analysis reveals that the ELAP has greatly stimulated the students' enthusiasm in learning. They have undertaken reflective learning, made a better understanding of their learning methods and process, and raised their autonomous learning awareness and ability. And the teachers' orientation in helping shift the students' learning concept and methods has been proved to be the major affecting factor to success or failure of the ELAP and the cultivation of students' autonomous learning ability.**

Index Terms—**learner autonomy, achievement presentation, learning concept, teacher orientation**

I. INTRODUCTION

Ever since H. Holec (1981) initiated the term "learner autonomy", the concept has long been a hot research topic and generally recognized as an educational goal (e.g. Dam, 1995; Dickinson, 1995; Little, 1991, 2002; Benson, 2001; He, 2003; Lamb & Reinders, 2007). In the field of second and foreign language teaching and learning, learner autonomy has also been a buzz word, especially when concerning lifelong learning skills. Helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become one of the even more prominent themes of language teaching (Benson, 2001, p1). Language teaching is considered by many people as language learning, which has brought about a shift of center from teacher to learner, and more focus on the production of autonomous individuals who are capable of training themselves to meet changing economic needs and circumstances (Benson, 2000, p 111).

In China, English as a foreign language has been made a compulsory subject for about 90% of the middle school students since 1978 and for .almost all the non-English majors in colleges and universities. With many educational deficiencies found, reform was launched nationwide in the last decade of the 20th century, and the cultivation of learner autonomy has been established as one of the ultimate goals in English education ever since. However, how to promote learner autonomy in China's existing educational environment remains a challenge. Although the teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL) is in reform, it seems to fall far from meeting the needs of China's rapid development and learners' long-term demands. There have been widespread and sharp criticism of China's foreign language education such as "dumb English", "input more and yield less", "high marks and low ability". Students are used to following teachers' instructions in learning, seldom considering what they should do. Constant cries for learning reform and creativity come from experts and scholars (e.g. Liu, 2004). Cultivating students' ability to learn becomes more urgent with the development of information age and globalization. The development of learner autonomy, or learners' ability to take control over their own learning (Holec, 1981) is a way in which we may make links with learners at a more individualized level, and to connect classroom learning with out-class learning activities. It is significant in theory, pedagogy and methodology in Chinese learning context since learner autonomy is traditionally regarded in the western world as culturally biased and not fit for the eastern culture like China's.

This research, through the use of both quantitative and qualitative data at the different stages of students, is among the limited longitudinal studies in this field in China, covering two years and a half, not including the years of pilot study, As part of the teaching project numbered JZ0805, it is conducted with a framework of teacher's course orientation, students' out-class project-based extension learning, and achievement presentation in class followed by discussion and evaluation, attempting to explore a path to fostering students' autonomous learning ability and language

proficiency simultaneously according to the TEFL in the Chinese context.

II. Related Theoretical Basis for the Research

It is extremely important for teachers to know something about the development of learner autonomy and the principal factors concerned since autonomy is recognized as multidimensional and takes different forms according to the person, the setting, and multiple contextual and micro-contextual factors.

A. Learning Process

In general, the complex learning process was not adequately described until the idea of education has moved from man as "product of society" to man as "producer of society" (Janne, 1977 cited in Holec, 1981, p1). Cognitive psychologists suggest that leaning is more effective if the learner integrates knowledge within a personal framework. Constructivists claim that knowledge is built by the learner, not given by the teacher and learning is a process in which learners construct their understanding on the basis of their personal experiences. They recognize that "if learning is a matter of the construction of knowledge, effective learners must be cognitively capable of performing actions that enable them to take control of their learning (Benson, 2005, p40), which is a very important contribution to the theory of autonomy in language learning. Humanistic psychologists stress affective aspects of learning and recognize the importance of providing learners with a learning environment, which has made a great influence on both the theory and practice of learner autonomy. All these researches have led to new definitions of both the learner's and the teacher's roles — the learner as an active participant in the learning, and the teacher as a facilitator and mediator helping learners to find ways of moving into their next level of understanding (Fruerstein, 1981; Vygotsky, 1962, cited in William & Burden, 2006, p 67-68). A model proposed by van Esch and St. John (2003) states that learning process consists of 4 stages. The first stage engagement is a condition showing a learner's willingness and ability to learn. The second one exposure means a learner's contact with new knowledge and experience when his learning environments extend to domains beyond his previous knowledge or experience. The third one integration is a stage of cognitive digestion of new experiences and perceptions, and construction of new knowledge and conceptual systems on the basis of their prior knowledge and strategies. This is a process leading to a new synthesis of knowledge, deeper understanding and better performance. The fourth stage transference is the learner's free application of knowledge and skills to a wider range and/or varied areas of activities for different purposes in changing learning environments. All the four stages are interdependent with each other and learning takes place only when one passes through all these stages.

B. Definitions of Learner Autonomy and Its Promotion

Autonomy is commonly considered by its advocates as a precondition for effective learning. An autonomous learner is not only a successful language learner, but also a responsible and critical member of his communities. Nunan (1997) points out that some degree of autonomy is essential if a learner is to become effective language user, and autonomy can be fostered regardless of a learner's personality. Researchers who have tried to give definitions to learner autonomy (e.g. Dam, 1994; Wenden, 1991) all are consistent with Holec's (1981) view. As the initiator of the concept autonomy, Holec (1981) puts emphasis on the learner's reality, responsibility, motivation, self-evaluation, etc.. He has proposed one of the most widely adopted definitions in the literature, saying that autonomy is "the ability to take charge of one's own learning". An autonomous learner holds the responsibility for all decisions concerning aspects of learning, general or specific, such as objectives, contents and progressions, methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc.), evaluating what has been acquired (Holec, 1981, p3). This interpretation provides the theoretical foundations for understanding and fostering autonomous behavior. Actually the wording "properly speaking" has already included the so-called social dimension that Dam (1994) has added and Little's similar definition such as "flexibly, taking account of the special requirements of particular circumstances". since if one can speak properly, he must at least have mastered the basic social communication strategies and techniques.

Agreement has been reached on the necessity of helping learners realize their responsibility for their own learning and the need to develop their skills required to achieve autonomy. Autonomy may be developed on condition of available opportunities to exercise control over learning. A more student-centered class atmosphere might more easily lead to learner autonomy and help students participate in the social processes of classroom learning actively, to interpret what is new in terms of what has been acquired, and know how to learn and use the knowledge learned in any learning situation at any stage of life. Dickinson and Carver (1980) propose that students themselves need to make preparation to become autonomous language learners and users in three aspects: methodology, psychology, and practice, with ten widely adopted basic techniques for promoting learner autonomy such as self-monitoring, self-correction, group work, extensive reading and listening. Nunan (1997) suggests five with similar levels of learner-centered tasks to help the learners achieve autonomy: awareness, involvement, intervention, creation and transcendence, with implications for the changing roles of learners and teachers in classroom. Awareness refers to students' sensitivity of learning tasks and types of strategies. Involvement indicates that students can be involved more in selection of both tasks and methods. Intervention refers to the teacher's role of facilitator in learning and task negotiator. Creation suggests free decision making in students' tasks. Transcendence is a stage when students control most aspects of their learning and work with

authentic materials beyond the classroom. The teacher's role changes gradually and flexibly, from a provider of information, stimulator and promoter of students' learning and thinking, to a guide, motivator for students to think creatively, and realistically and to an adviser or monitor. We considered Nunan's sequential model when designing the ELAP, hoping to encourage greater autonomy in our students, which implies better language learning.

The brief review suggests some underlining assumptions that although the concept originated abroad, learner autonomy is a desirable goal to pursue in China's English education since autonomy may be developed through interaction and reflection on proper conditions, and that the ELAP will certainly have an important influence on the development of our students' autonomous learning awareness and ability.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This is a descriptive study. As has been mentioned above, this research is the microscopic aspect of the macroscopic project JZ0805. Different dimensions of learner autonomy are included, such as motivation, strategy use in out-class English learning and classroom performances followed by perceptions and effect feedback of teachers and students. The ELAP is conducted to better understand how a series of pedagogical activities may affect the development of students' autonomous learning awareness, ability and their English proficiency.

A. Design of the Research

With an aim to develop learner autonomy, the teachers have designed the ELAP in which students bring their out-class extension learning achievements to class, deliver presentations and share with their classmates in the first 40 minutes of each scheduled 1.5-hour class. The presentations are planned themselves, based on their in-class learning. Following the presentation, the speaker asks 3 to 5 questions to see how well he has made himself understood. Then the teacher and the other students provide feedback and/or ask questions on any aspect of the presentation. Further feedback may be given after class, face to face or through QQ, emails and other means. The students themselves form groups of 3 to 8, with an elected group leader respectively. Presentation may be delivered together or individually. They may invite any one to help make judgment of the feasibility and value of their topic or draft in preparation. The students should prepare their presentation on the basis of in-class teaching content to make the ELAP more tightly integrated into the overall teaching curriculum.

The overall research is exploratory in nature since the purpose is to summarize and develop a framework of language learner autonomy in which autonomy development and growth of target language proficiency are not only mutually supporting but fully integrated with each other. Considering the young students' characteristics of seeking to do others down, the presentations are graded and marked. And this is an action research, problem-solving in nature since it is conducted to help the puzzled students, who are products of the examination-oriented education, learn how to learn and prepare for lifelong learning.

B. Methodology of the Research

Both qualitative data and quantitative data are collected from all the classes that the research teachers teach. As has been said above, this research is part of the project. The ELAP is therefore carried out all along and data collection through questionnaires, learning diaries and reports goes with it. The research covers a period from October 2008 to May 2011, during which the junior English majors entered their senior years of university while the senior English majors graduated.

Questionnaires and interviews are designed to have a general knowledge of the students' autonomous learning, motivation and strategy use, while learning reports after the general and course learning orientations are done by all the students based on their learning journals or diaries. Since all the students have finished their learning reports written in accordance with the basic requirements covering belief of English learning, motivation, use of strategies and so on, the data collected can reflect the students' learning condition.

Qualitative data collected from each class are categorized, counted and juxtaposed for further examination. Data collected from the learning reports of all the students and interviews with 10 students from each class are analyzed qualitatively to provide evidence for the development of learner autonomy. Other data resources such as teachers' observation notes of the general classroom atmosphere and students perceptions of the teaching and the ELAP are referred to. All the interviews with the teachers and students are noted down and analyzed qualitatively to identify themes concerning their beliefs and actual practice.

IV. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE ELAP IN CLASS

The ELAP is conducted in all classes that the research teachers teach for two reasons. One is that the teachers in the team all have realized the significance of establishing learner autonomy, and the other is that the prior surveys of the freshmen as the products of examination-oriented education reveal that they are badly in need of orientation in autonomous learning, The teachers are almost sure that changes will take place. The microscopic orientation and implementation of the ELAP are carried out with the macroscopic and special orientation in the project.

A. Teacher's Orientation of Course Learning

Orientation of course learning is carried out to give the students a general idea of the basic teaching and learning methods and techniques to help the students realize the urgent demand of learning concept shifts, from teacher-centered to learner-centered, from examination-oriented to quality-oriented, etc.. The students are encouraged to familiarize themselves with the development of economic globalization and its challenge to China's higher education and to have a clear understanding of the 21st century concept-----learning how to learn. And some definitions of learner autonomy are introduced to enable the students to have the awareness of autonomous learning and prepare the ground for them to learn their courses as an autonomous learner does.

B. Teacher's Orientation in the Process of Course Teaching

Changes need the understanding and commitment of all those affected in the implementation of the project. But it is a practical impossibility to involve everybody in every task. Teachers' assessed skills like previous teaching, knowledge and attitude towards innovation are all important affecting elements in the orientation of learner autonomy, among which attitude is always the key and decision-making power for orientation and student-centered class activities It is essential for the teacher to develop a model of the project from start to finish to orient the students to carry out extension learning outside class. General requirements and directions to conduct ELAP are proposed for students to refer to and commit their energy and certain terms like extension learning are defined to enable them to plan their out class extension learning in advance according to the schedule and content of the course teaching. In teaching, the teacher invites the students to take part in problem-solving activities whenever possible, and encourage them to find more interpretations for a language phenomenon or a person's behavior based on the context, cultural background knowledge to orient them to find paths to the goal themselves.

C. Presentation in Comprehensive English Class for Junior English Majors

Presentations delivered by the junior English majors in Comprehensive English class mainly cover 8 aspects relating to the class teaching content, from some interesting phonetic metaphors to the most celebrated festivals, holidays and to the social and historical events, influential figures. Some students have made comparisons of English and Chinese customs and important writers, etc.. All the students have delivered their presentations using PPT. They are so well-prepared that presentation scripts are seldom used though it is right in hand.

During the presentation, the teacher is an enthusiastic participant, keeping natural and encouraging eye contact with the presenter, taking notes while listening. When a speaker finishes his presentation, she leads discussions and seeks feedback. After the students' evaluation, the teacher gives positive comments on the presentation and orients the class to find something to learn from. Warm applause is given to every presenter, an atmosphere of mutual support and cooperation is created. After making general suggestions for improvement on the 4 or 5 planned presentations, the teacher begins her scheduled students-centered teaching, orienting students to observe, analyze, and solve problems themselves. One of the main roles of the teacher at this level is as a motivator for students to think creatively and realistically in classroom teaching orientation.

D. Presentation in Advanced English Class for Senior English Majors

Senior English majors concerned in this study have made presentations relating to the content of Advanced English in 9 major aspects, covering social culture in which a specific work was produced, the national, even the international situation of the time, attitudes towards love, work, money, friendship, marriage, etc., critical analysis of American law system, democracy and others. Both PPT and blackboard writing are used in the presentation of the senior English majors. They have done as good a job as the junior English majors. Moreover, they select a student as linkman to host the presentations of the 4 or 5 students each time. The student in charge speaks to make the presentations of the 4 or 5 students an organic whole.

E. Presentation in English Listening and Speaking Class for Junior English Majors

The junior English majors deliver their presentation in English Listening and Speaking class with a heavy emphasis on the application of basic linguistic and cultural knowledge, and listening strategies and techniques that the teacher has introduced in class. English recordings and authentic materials such as scripts of English film and TV series are used for their analysis of problem-solving process in listening. They have realized the problems in learning and began to do something on purpose, which is shown in their presentation. Topics chosen for the ELAP cover 7 basic areas, from phonetic knowledge such as liaison, elision, weak forms, tones that may affect speaking and listening comprehension, prediction techniques used to guess the general idea of a passage, ending or result, the shift of attitude through topic, words, etc., to cultural differences of English and Chinese that may affect listening comprehension and oral communication.

F. Students' Perceptions of the ELAP and Feedback

The process of presentation and feedback provide evidence about the ELAP as a whole, in which the students' reflections on out-lass extension learning process in their reports provide insight into the way that emotional factors may influence foreign language learning. According to the data, all the students' autonomous attitudes are positive. In the aspect of motivation to learn English as a foreign language, 100% of the students say firmly in their reports, journals

and interviews that with the teacher's orientation, they have been making effort in the learning process and trying to find out how to make progress on the basis of their own reality. Self-confidence as a learner and speaker could be seen in all reports. They feel more confident than before since they have found that they do have the ability to do the presentation well. Willingness to take responsibility for their progress in learning is easily seen and the awareness of teacher independence is revealed. They are eager to demonstrate their own ability to learn. They have managed to make use of the general learning strategies introduced by the teachers in class orientation and those they have learned in extension learning, from the Internet, library, even relatives or friends abroad. The most frequently used strategies mentioned in 100% of the reports are memory strategies, cognition strategies such as practicing, reading to gather presentation ideas, meta-cognitive strategies like planning their learning; having clear goals, social strategies such as asking others for suggestion, cooperating with others and learning something in the course of helping others. Changes have taken place in the students' autonomous skills and attitudes in the process of ELAP, and insight has been gained concerning the teacher's role and the use of social strategies in the development of learner autonomy in the students.

The students' perceptions of the ELAP and feedback are mainly revealed in their reports, which generally include how they carry out their extension learning and prepare their presentation, what they notice during the preparation and performance stages, their self-evaluation of the performance and the whole process of ELAP. Questionnaires and interviews are also sources for feedback. To a greater or lesser extent, 100% of the students reflect on their English learning activities inside and outside the classroom. The teachers read all the reports carefully and classify the difficulties that the students have meet, note down the general means that they adopt to solve problems. All the students say that they have tried their best in ELAP and benefited a lot. They have improved their English in trying to realize autonomous learning. Besides good performance in certain examinations and nationwide and provincial English contests mentioned by 30% of the students, 100% of the students have expressed their stronger desire for more communication with native English speakers and have tried to create opportunities themselves.

V. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The ELAP results are better than what has been assumed. 100% of the students have expressed positive attitudes. Besides the variety of knowledge, they mention in their reports that they have been learning how to plan their ELAP, to cooperate with others and learn from others, and that ELAP has enabled them to realize with great joy that they do have the capacity to conduct autonomous learning. They all say that they have been learning to listen to news from VOA, BBC and other media using strategies and techniques learned in class and benefited a lot. They have realized that many phonetic problems in listening are caused by their inaccurate pronunciation and intonation and inadequate background knowledge and that they will do more work to improve their basic knowledge and comprehensive skills. Over 95% of them think that they have developed awareness of attempting to obtain both accuracy and fluency in ELAP since well-organized informative materials presented by fluent speakers with good pronunciation and intonation always attract more attention, win a bigger round of applause and have better evaluation, And 100% of them say that .in order to do better ELAP, they have tried to make full use of the learning resources available, invite others to help with their rehearsals for improvement.

In evaluation, about 100% of the students mainly acknowledge the achievements of the others' presentation and only touch the weakness slightly since they think that everybody has tried his/her best and has something to be learned from. However, they express the shades of meanings in the use of words and phrases such as wonderful, excellent, marvelous, extraordinary, very good, good, ok, etc.. Although they all say that they would appreciate feedback on ELAP, it seems that they prefer after-class exchange of opinions in terms of weakness and shortcomings, partly because of time limit and partly for face-saving factor. Only about 40% of the students give both positive and negative feedback to others' ELAP, and the rest only provide the positive.

The teachers are greatly encouraged. They get some enlightenment about both the difficulties and problems that the students have mentioned and what they are interested in, which may guarantee a more definite objective in specific teaching and orientation. Moreover, changes have taken place in the students' learning concept and methods. They are highly motivated, no longer puzzled by the shifts of environments, although there are still challenges of interdisciplinary knowledge accumulation, all kinds of examinations and so on.

The results reveal that belief in learning through production activities does have played an important role in ELAP. ELAP gives students opportunities to use language as the whole process is one of the common student-centered experiential learning techniques (Brown, 2001: 224). Experiential learning can foster the students' willingness and ability to create personal learning contexts, which is essential to the development of learner autonomy (Littlewood, 1996). Therefore, getting students to learn through activities like ELAP helps developing learner autonomy.

It is also demonstrates that students can only be truly motivated if they really want to achieve something themselves. They will always be eager to look out for opportunities to develop skills in using learning strategies, plan their study and reflect immediately after all the ELAPs. Peer feedback given right afterwards orally or in written form through email, etc. seems to be more encouraging than marks. The warm applause after every presentation is a great spiritual support and an atmosphere of cooperation has been created, which in turn has boosted the morale. Since creativity is advocated from the very beginning of ELAP, all the students have managed to display something attractive or instructive. And they all say in their reports that they do have improved their English comprehensively as they have

always been trying to learn creatively.

VI. CONCLUSION

To verify the assumption that the students' autonomous learning ability may be developed, this study, as a microscopic aspect of learner autonomy orientation project, is conducted to explore the impact of ELAP on the development of learner autonomy. As a result, 100% of the students concerned give positive evaluation, in the process of which they have realized both the development of English language proficiency and autonomous learning. The study demonstrates that the concept of learner autonomy does fit for eastern culture as well as it does for the west culture if the students are given appropriate orientation. And the teacher does play an instrumental role in helping the learners how to learn (Ellis and Sinclair, 1987, p167). However, for limitations of space, the authors' academic knowledge and others, detailed description of the ELAP is not provided here. And moreover, great perseverance shown in the face of difficulties is, and will always be an important guarantee for the success of establishing learner autonomy on both the teachers' and the students' sides since some protracted and potential effect for lifelong learning needs further examination.

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The Effect of Cognitive and Metacognitive Writing Strategies on Content of the Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Writing

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Abstract—**Writing strategies instruction have become one of the most talked-about topics in the field of language teaching and learning when scholars found that SL/FL writing is believed to be a problem for learners. Cognitive and metacognitive strategies, as two writing strategies, have been widely researched over the past few decades. Among the substantial body of research investigating the effect of cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies, little attention has been given to the effect of cognitive and metacognitive strategies on content of the learners' writing. This experimental investigation is conducted to explore how the cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies can affect the content of the Iranian intermediate learners' writing. For this purpose, 75 intermediate learners were recruited to participate in this study. They were randomly assigned to three groups to form two experimental groups and one control group. Each of the cognitive and metacognitive groups was instructed by one of the cognitive and metacognitive strategies. The findings provide evidence that the intervention favor the experimental groups' learners to create a better content for their writing. The results of this study also indicate that there was significant relationship between cognitive and metacognitive groups. In other words, the metacognitive group outperformed the cognitive one in content of the writing. The implication of this study is to indicate which of the cognitive and metacognitive strategies are most likely to be instructed to students.**

Index Terms—**metacognitive strategy, cognitive strategy, intermediate learners, EFL learners, content, English writing**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the recent decades, writing strategies has been one of the major interesting research subjects (De Silva, 2015; Rahimi & Karbalaei, 2016). Flower and Hayes (1981) state, as a most complicated process writing involves a number of metacognitive and cognitive activities such as brainstorming, planning, drafting, and So on. Particular attention was given to cognitive aspects of writing, as Flower and Hayes (1981) have attempted to understand the thought processes underlying the compositions of students (cited in Negari, 2011). According to Omaggio Hadley (1993) Writing requires composing, which implies the ability either to tell or retell pieces of information in the form of narratives or description, or to transform information into new texts, as in expository or argumentative writing. Then, it considered as a continuum of activities that range from the more mechanical or formal aspects of writing down on the one end to the more complex act of composing on the other end. (cited in Negari, 2011)

It is almost certain that training learners how to use language learning strategies help them to be a successful learner. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) told that effective L2/FL learners use learning strategies consciously. Then, students need to utilize the suitable strategies to be a professional writer because a positive correlation can be observed between writing competence and strategy use (Chien, 2012).

As technical writing is considered to be a problem for EFL learners (Harris, Graham, Mason, & Friedlander, 2008), writing strategies need to be discussed and instructed in writing classrooms to help learners improve their writing performance. For this purpose, the main aim of the current is to examine the effectiveness of cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies on the content of EFLintermediate learners' writing.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Nowadays, being an Effective writer is very important in L2 education. So, writing instruction has become increasingly important in L2 classrooms. For contact and interact with each other, languages and cultures become even more essential. As a result, the ability to speak and write is crucial for educational and personal reasons. Additionally,

writing is very important in L2 classrooms (Weigle, 2002). So, it is an important part of the communicative language teaching where language is seen as a system of communication rather than an object to be studied. In other words, writing is not used to reinforce repetitions of grammar and vocabulary in modern L2 classrooms but rather it is an important enterprise in and of itself (Weigle, 2002).

Hyland (2003) cited learning how to write is very difficult for both L2 learners and native speakers of English. It means that, to be native speaker of English does not mean that this person knows how to write effectively. Therefore, knowing how to write effectively requires a lot of continuous and specialized instruction for both native speakers and L2 learners of English. Hyland (2003) noted that both learning and teaching of the writing skill is important. In other words, teaching writing plays a very significant role in the field of L2 teaching.

In academic writing composing, analyzing and organizing ideas is sophisticated. Cognitive and metacognitive problems in students 'writing is an issue that they naturally face with. Sturm and Rankin-Erickson (2002) argued that one of advanced academic work in educational settings is composing, and applying various cognitive strategies are parts of the students' difficulties in writing.Sturm and Rankin-Erickson (2002) further stated that strategy instruction is a teaching approach that help students to develop strategies for all process of the writing by dividing the writing tasks and making the sub processes and skills much more explicit.

Graham & Harris (1996) cite, many teachers tried to influence the course of this development in a relatively straightforward and direct fashion. They might model and explicitly teach the types of strategies used by more successful writers, or might predict routines where writing processes such as planning and revising were expected and strengthened (as cited in Negari, 2011). This view toward explicit teaching of learning strategies has marked a continued investigation into learning processes and support for the communicative philosophy of teaching learners how to learn, and thus become independent and autonomous learners through the use of learning strategies (Wenden, 1991 cited in Negari, 2011). Brown (2000) indicated to the effectiveness of learning strategies in a variety of contexts. Brown mentioned that "…we probe its implications for your teaching methodology in the classroom, specifically, how your language classroom techniques can encourage, build, and sustain effective language-learning strategies in your students" (p.130).

Mayer (2003) identified three due processesfor meaningful learning. These are: attendance, organization, and integration. Learners must pay attention to the relevant and important content, organize the content structurally, and integrate the content into their existing cognitive structure. Strategy teaching can therefore be summarized as teaching learners how to learn, with a view to become independent and autonomous learners. (Mayer, 2003). In the past many believed that learning ability of any person was a function of his intelligence and aptitude, but recently, the role of other non-intrinsic factors were bolded in the process of learning. It is necessary here to clarify exactly what is meant by cognitive and metacognitive strategies as two important learning strategies.Cognitive strategies is defined by Weinstein and Hume (1998) as the behaviors, thoughts, or actions used by the learner in the process of learning to organize and store knowledge and skills, and to apply them easily in the future.Metacognition is our knowledge about our own cognitive processes and how to optimally use them to achieve learning objectives (Biehler& Snowman, 1993). Metacognitive strategies are used for selecting suitable methods intelligently, supervising on their efficacy, correcting of errors, and if required, changing strategies and replacing them with new ones (Good &Brophy, 1995 as cited in Maleki, 2005).

Up to now, a number of studies have found that use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies improve learning process (Miller & Mercer, 1993; Biehler &Snowman, 1993; Weinstein and Hume, 1998).

Wei. Chen and Adawu (2014) in a study explored how strategy-based instruction (SBI), assisted by multimedia software, can be incorporated to teach beginning-level ESL learners metacognitive writing strategies. Two beginning-level adult learners participated in a 10-session SBI on planning and organizing strategies. The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) was implemented with the aid of graphic organizer software. It was found that technology-supported SBI has brought multiple benefits for the learners. Comparison of the writings before and after SBI indicated that there is noticeable improvement in learners' ability to generate ideas and organize them properly.

Teng (2016) in a study examined the effectiveness of cooperative training strategies in enhancing students' metacognitive skills and therefore their English writing. Towards this, two distinct settings for cooperative training, different in terms of embedded metacognitive instructions, were explored. Results indicated that the cooperative learning condition with embedded metacognitive instructions condition yielded the highest mean scores in writing and regulation of cognition, followed by the cooperative learning condition and the control group.

Panahandeh and Esfandiar (2014) investigated the effects of planning and monitoring skills as metacognitive strategies on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' argumentative writing accuracy. Sixty university students participated in the study. They were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups. The experimental group received metacognitive strategies-based writing instruction whereas the control group received only the routine writing instruction.The results showed that there was a positive effect in the experimental group's writing performance. The findings have implications for pedagogy as well as for research.

Rahimi and Karbalaei (2016) in a study investigated the role of metacognitive strategies training on developing writing skill among Iranian EFL learners. Fifty students participated in the present study. A panel of readers and raters evaluated students` writing proficiency, their acquisition, and use of rhetorical modes in their writing products.

Students' perceptions on writing were measured by a post-treatment questionnaire. The study did not show any significant differences between the mean scores of students` writing narrative and expository textsin Reading/ Writing Inter- face or Writing Process treatments as assessed in holistic evaluations.

Paris (2003) in his study examined the application of cognitive strategy instruction in teaching writing. A writing test was given at the beginning and end of this study to evaluate writing skill development. Self-regulated strategy instruction in writing was implemented in the classroom. Six basic stages of instruction were used to introduce writing strategies. Mnemonics were used to facilitate retention of components of the final writing project. Students were taught to maintain and generalize the use of strategies. Pre-test and post-test writing samples were scored holistically using written descriptors which ranged from 1-Inadequate Command of written language to 6-Superior Command of written language. Results of this study indicated an increase of 1 in the mean scores from the pre-test (2.5) to the post-test (3.55).

More recently, NematTabrizi and Rajaee (2016) attempted to show how cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies can affect the total scores of elementary level learners' writing. They have studied 75 students which were divided into onecontrol group and two experimental groups. Each of the experimental groups was instructed by one of the cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies. The results of this study indicate that both cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies help elementary learners to improve their writing. Furthermore, the results pointed to the metacognitive group superiority over the cognitive one.

Although some research has been carried out on the cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies, there is very little scientific understanding of the effect of cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies on the content of the learners' writing. This was the motivation behind the present study.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

In line with general objectives, the following research questions specifically guide this study:

Q1: Do metacognitive writing strategies have any significant effect on content of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing?

Q2: Do cognitive writing strategies have any significant effect on content of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing?

Q3: Do cognitive writing strategies have more effect than metacognitive writing strategies on content of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing?

Based on the research questions, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H01: Metacognitive writing strategies do not have any significant effect on content of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing.

H02: Cognitive writing strategies do not have any significant effect on content of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing.

H03: Cognitive writing strategies have more effect than metacognitive writing strategies on content ofIranian intermediate EFLlearners' writing.

IV. METHOD

A. PARTICIPANTS

To run this study, 75 EFL learners were recruited to participate from two private language institutes in Golestan, Iran. The students were Persian native speakers. They varied in age from 13 to 17 years. The participants of the study were also randomly selected and divided into three groups. There were 25 students in each of the experimental groups (i.e. cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies) and there were 25 participants in the control group.

B. INSTRUMENTS

1. Nelson test

Nelson English Language Test (Coe & Fowler, 1976) was conducted to assure that the participants were all at the intermediate level of proficiency. The applied test contained 50 items. The test is set for a 30 (60%) pass mark.

2. Pre and Post-test Instruments

The pretest and posttest of writing was employed from Family and Friends 6 (Thumpson and Simmon, 2009). The content validity of the writing tasks were checked by two expertsbefore it was administered to the students. The pretest and the posttest of writing had exactly the same format but different content for reason of eliminating the retention effect that the pretest may have on the subjects' performance on the posttest. The time devoted to learners to write the text was 30 minutes. Additionally, in order to check the reliability of the writing scale, the internal consistency reliability of writing was checked by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficient and it was found that the reliability of writing pre-test was 0.85 and post-test was 0.80.

3. Writing Scoring Criteria

Jacob's ESL composition profile (Jacobs, Zingraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel&Hughey, 1981) has been employed to evaluate the content of writing. The response scales range from excellent to poor. The validity of scale is widely acknowledged

through a considerable number of composition researchers and raters. All the writing sheets were marked by two teachersand if the raters' given scores were different, the mean of the two scores werecalculated.

C. PROCEDURE

In the first phase of the study, a standard version of Nelson test was administered to total population of 170 students to make sure that the students were all at the same level of English language proficiency. The researchers couldrandomly select 75 participants from among a total number of 110 learners whose scores fell one standard deviation (1SD) above and below the mean.

Thereafter, the writing composition pretest was administered to all subjects one week prior to the treatment to ensure their homogeneity prior the beginning of the study. Following this, the treatment period started and lasted for 8 sessions. The control group learners were provided with the same course content, although they received almost no specific training on the strategies of writing. Therefore, learners in all classes experienced the same condition and the only focused difference was the cognitive (i.e. revising, text generating, and resourcing) and metacognitive (i.e. self-initiation, planning, and monitoring and evaluation) strategies instruction in experimental groups.

Then, the post-test of writing was administered to all subjects in control and experimental groups to assess the amount of change on the content of the learners' writing from the pre-test to the post-test for each group separately. Finally, the results and findings were reported.

V. RESULT

A. INTER-RATER RELIABILITY

Inter-rater correlation coefficient was calculated for pretest and posttest of all three groups because "rating on writing test in academic context varies considerably" (Hamp-Lyons, 2003, p. 174). The results, as indicated in Table 1, revealed a high positive correlation between the rating of raters in both pre- and posttests, so there is no significant difference between the scores of the two teachers:

TABLE 1.
INTER-RATER CORRELATION OF RATERS

		N	Correlation
Pair 1	A.pre.C & B.pre.C	25	.96
Pair 2	A.pos.C & B.pos.C	25	.94
Pair 3	A.pre.M & B.pre.M	25	.97
Pair 4	A.pos.M & B.pos.M	25	.98
Pair 5	A.pre.Cog & B.pre.Cog	25	.95
Pair 6	A.pos.Cog & B.pos.Cog	25	.96

Note. A = Rater A; B = Rater B; M = Metacognitive group; Cog = Cognitive group; C = Control group

B. PRETEST OF WRITING

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics obtained from both experimental groups and control group in pre-test of writing. As can be seen from the table, the cognitive group reported significantly more mean (M = 20.4, SD = 2.76) than the other two groups. This was followed by the metacognitive (M = 20.08, SD = 2.51) and control (M = 19.92, SD = 2.54) groups.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, PRETEST OF WRITING BY GROUPS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
control	25	19.92	2.548	.510	18.87	20.97	16	25
metacognitive	25	20.08	2.515	.503	19.04	21.12	16	25
cognitive	25	20.40	2.769	.554	19.26	21.54	16	25
Total	75	20.13	2.585	.299	19.54	20.73	16	25

As shown in table 3, no significant difference at the P > .05 level was seen in scores of the pretest writing for the three groups: F (2, 72) = .219, P = .8. Therefore, it can be concluded that they enjoyed the same level of writing ability prior to the main study.

TABLE 3.
ONE WAY ANOVA ON PRE-TEST BY GROUPS

Sum of Squares		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.987	2	1.493	.219	.804
Within Groups	491.680	72	6.829		
Total	494.667	74			

C. POST TEST OF WRITING

A one-way ANOVA was used to analyze the three groups' means on writing and to assess how different sorts of strategies can affect the content of the learners' writing. It is apparent from table 4 that the metacognitive strategy group (M = 26.84, SD =1.17) had the highest mean on the post-test of writing. This was followed by the cognitive strategy group (M = 25.04, SD = 1.36) and control group (M = 21.44, SD = 2.41).

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; POSTTEST OF WRITING BY GROUPS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
control	25	21.44	2.417	.483	20.44	22.44	17	26
metacognitive	25	26.84	1.179	.236	26.35	27.33	24	29
cognitive	25	25.04	1.369	.274	24.48	25.60	22	27
Total	75	24.44	2.839	.328	23.79	25.09	17	29

Table 5 provides that there was a statistically significant difference at the P < .05 level in post test writing scores for the three groups: F (2, 72) = .6.22, P = .0.

TABLE 5.
ONE-WAY ANOVA; POST-TEST OF WRITING BY GROUPS

Sum of Squares		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	378.000	2	189.000	6.228E1	.000
Within Groups	218.480	72	3.034		
Total	596.480	74			

Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test, as demonstrated in table 6, indicated that all the values are less than .05. There is a statistically significant difference between the metacognitive group and cognitive group (P = .001< .05). Furthermore, a significant difference was found between the metacognitive and control groups' scores (P = .0< .05). Additionally, a significant difference was observed between the cognitive and control groups' scores.

TABLE 6.
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS

(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
control	metacognitive	-5.400*	.493	.000	-6.58	-4.22
	cognitive	-3.600*	.493	.000	-4.78	-2.42
metacognitive	control	5.400*	.493	.000	4.22	6.58
	cognitive	1.800*	.493	.001	.62	2.98
cognitive	control	3.600*	.493	.000	2.42	4.78
	metacognitive	-1.800*	.493	.001	-2.98	-.62

Together these results report that the first two hypotheses are rejected because both metacognitive and cognitive strategies bring about profound effect on the content of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing. Furthermore, the third hypothesis is also rejected because metacognitive strategy exerts more remarkable effects on the content of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Regarding the first and second research questions and comparing the learners' posttest and pretest scores in experimental groups and control group, the researchers found that the content of the experimental groups' writing have further progressed after writing strategies instruction over the semester. The results support the idea of De Silva (2015) and Ong and Zhang (2013) who concluded that writing strategy instruction contribute toward enhancing the quality of the learners' writing. Both cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies help learners to go one step further in their writing and have better perception of the content of their writing. To shed light on this issue, Mayer (1998) found that both cognitive and metacognitive strategies improve quality of the learners' writing performance because as Bloom (2008) stated, right writing strategies help writers to become more autonomous and help them to perceive, assess, and improve their learning and writing better.

Finally, the third research question seeks to find out which of the cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies help elementary EFL learners to create a better content for their writings. The comparison of the post-test scores of the experimental groups revealed that there was significant difference between the performances of the two groups, holding that there was no significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the pretest. That is,

metacognitive writing strategies led to a higher level of writing content, although the two techniques were equally effective in improving the Iranian EFL learners' writing performance. Zimmerman and Schunt (2011) found that metacognitive strategies help learners to reach desirable goals and have better control over their behavior and their learning which is in good agreement with the results of the present study. The present finding also support Gombert (1993) study which concluded that the metacognitive strategies promote the communicative competence of the learners' writing.

Consistent with findings by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), we found that metacognitive group learners' higher level of thinking, planning, monitoring, and evaluating are among the key factors influencing the effectiveness of the metacognitive writing strategies. By the same token, Schraw (2009) reported that metacognitive strategies instruction aid learners to enhance theirability to monitor and judge their own performance. In addition to the stated reasons for the metacognitive group superiority, self regulation can also be considered as the other significant factor. Self regulation as one of the advantages of metacognitive strategies instruction contribute greatly toward transferring skills, knowledge, and strategies across contexts and situations (Azevedo & witherspoon, 2009; Veenman, Van Hout-Wlters, &Afflerbach, 2006).

Therefore, learners in different age groups and contexts take advantage of metacognitive strategy to develop their writing performance (Nguyen &Gu, 2013). This can be confirmed in Abdollahzadeh (2010), NematTabrizi and Rajaee (2016), panahandeh and Esfandiar (2014), and Teng (2016) investigations which explored learners in different age groups and contexts.

In summary, therefore, the present study has revealed that both cognitive and metacognitive strategies can be valuable and improve the content quality of Iranian intermediate learners' writing. Furthermore, the results of this investigation also show that metacognitive group outperformed the cognitive one.

The study has gone some way towards enhancing our understanding of the effect of cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies instruction on content of intermediate learners' writing. The analysis of cognitive and metacognitive strategies instruction undertaken here, also, has extended our knowledge of writing strategy instruction.

The findings of this investigation complement those of earlier studies. The findings of this research provide insights for learners in demonstrating the importance of employing writing strategies to write better and improve the quality content of their writing. The practical implication of this study is the contribution to materials and syllabus design to indicate which of cognitive and metacognitive strategies are most likely to be instructed to students.

Further studies, which take these variables into account, will need to be undertaken. 1) Further research could be conducted to determine the effectiveness of cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies on content of the ESL learners' writing. 2) Further studies regarding the role of cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies on organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics of EFL/ESL learners' writing would also be worthwhile. 3) More research is required to determine the efficacy of cognitive and metacognitive writing strategies on content of the advanced learners' writing.

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Research on the Image Culture — A Narrative Study on Jennifer Egan's *The Keep*[*]

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Abstract—**Renovating the Gothic tradition by applying a male voice to narrate the story and by leaving it an open ending in *The Keep*, Jennifer Egan revitalizes the Gothic fiction and at the same time makes it her own. The metafictional narrative in the story is noticed by the interruptions of another character's voice into the ongoing narrative of the main story. However, Egan's tactics, do not achieve at the expense of character and story; all the characters in this fiction are imprisoned either physically or mentally. In The Keep, Egan takes a bird's eye view of the image culture, it also concerns more about our connectedness with technology and how that connection changes the way that who we are to ourselves and who we are to each other. So often we are dealing with something ephemeral and virtual instead of actual beings, our measure of what they mean to communication is very different as well.**

Index Terms—**The Keep, Gothic narrative, metafictional narrative, image culture**

I. INTRODUCTION

Jennifer Egan (1963-), winner of the 2011 Pulitzer Prize, is a contemporary American fiction writer with popular appeal and a novelist noted for the elegance of her style. Egan is the author of *The Invisible Circus* (1995); *Emerald City and Other Stories* (1997); *Look at Me*, a finalist for the National Book Award in fiction in 2001; and *A Visit From the Goon Squad* (2010), the 2010 National Book Critics Circle Award for Fiction and the 2011 Pulitzer Prize for Fiction. Upon its publication in 2006, Egan's fiction *The Keep* had received deservedly praises for its "bold imagination, fully realized characters, enchanting pace, genuine surprises, perfectly pitched and memorable dialogue, uncommonly successful blend of humor and horror, and artistically metafictional Gothic narrative". (Olson, 2011, p.328) *The New York Times* praises that Egan is such a refreshingly unclassifiable novelist that she deploys most of the skills developed by metafiction writers of the 1960s and refines by more recent authors like William T. Vollmann and David Foster Wallace (Bell, 2006).

Inspired by a trip she took to the castle of Godfrey de Bouillon, a leader of the First Crusade in Belgium, Egan creates *The Keep*, a spooky Gothic-inspired castle fiction built from multiple levels of storytelling and fictionality. Initially she thought she might set the story of the book in the medieval period as most Gothic writers did, but as a writer full of creativity and innovation, Egan wanted something cheesier than that. So she eventually puts the Gothic genre in the modern world of telecommunication and tries to explore the question of "how reality as a concept might have changed — or needs to change — in light of all the new states of being and new experiences that communications technology has created."(Reilly, 2009, p.443)

As a contemporary Gothic fiction, the settings of the story alternate between a castle in Eastern Europe and a U.S. prison, the complex plot is manipulated mainly by two long-estranged cousins who reunite at a medieval castle somewhere in Europe twenty years after a childhood mischief that caused devastating consequences drove them apart. Danny now is a 36-year-old New York hipster who wears brown lipstick and whose body can detect Wi-Fi availability. Because he does not have a real job and is desperate for money, he accepts his wealthy cousin invitation to come to Eastern Europe and help the latter to fix up the castle, a castle that Howard dreams of turning into a unique luxury Luddite hotel which cuts off from the rest of the world and let people be tourists of their own imaginations. After arrived at the castle, Danny soon finds that it is a mysterious and horrific place. There are secret passages and bizarre habitants, an old lady who appears young and beautiful from distance, who claims to be the Baroness von Ausblinker, the owner of the castle. Danny tries to escape and return to his familiar high-tech New York world but he fails again and again. The location of the keep is so indeterminate that even the characters do not know exactly where they are. No matter what he does, no matter how hard he tries, Danny could not find the way out of the castle. Fate seems to be directing him back to the castle and bring him back to Howard. Both Danny and Howard end up trapped deep in the castle by the mysterious baroness and they two together search a way to escape and survive.

This fiction within a fiction is told by Ray, a murderer in a prison's creative-writing program, who is writing the story of Danny mainly to win the attention of his writing teacher, Holly. Despite the fact that she has no writing degree or

teaching experience, instead, she has some dark experiences, including a drug addiction, her killing of her tiny baby and the warning that child service will take her other children away, Holly is deeply attracted by Ray and also tries to help him to escape from the prison. In the last chapter, Ray disappears mysteriously and Holly takes a trip to a castle in Europe which is almost the exact one that Danny has stayed.

Just like the intricate network of caves beneath the castle, stories in *The Keep* move in and out of each other, connecting and moving off into new directions. In the end, it turns into a contemporary attracting book filled with mystery and suspense, setting against a deeper portrait of moral conflict and an examination of how the past haunts people and how the modern image of telecommunication affects people in different ways. *The Keep* incorporates a layered metafictional narrative, the story in it is narrated from a male character's voice and there is an open ending with some mysteries remain unsolved. In *The Keep*, all characters are imprisoned physically or mentally. It is a fiction of ideas, a meditation on how our contemporary vices have tainted our ability to think freely and creatively, and the illusions that modern life thrusts upon us.

II.   GOTHIC NARRATIVE IN *THE KEEP*

"Gothic" originally refers to the (pseudo)-medieval buildings in which many of these stories take place. Gothic fiction, a genre that combines fiction, horror and Romanticism, is originally attributed to English author Horace Walpole, with his 1764 fiction *The Castle of Otranto*, subtitled "A Gothic Story", which contains almost all the elements that constitute the genre. Under the influence of Horace Walpole's successful Gothic story, Gothic fiction had much success later in the late 18th century and early 19th century as witnessed by Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein* (1818) and the works of Edgar Allan Poe. The works of Anne Rice, some works of Stephen King show the sense of Gothic. Daphne du Maurier's *Rebecca* (1938) and *Jamaica Inn* (1936) also display Gothic tendencies. Thomas M. Disch's novel *The Priest* (1994), with the subtitle *A Gothic Romance*, partly modeled on Matthew Lewis' *The Monk* (1796), is also a Gothic fiction. An enormous, decrepit heap somewhere in Eastern Europe is both the physical setting and the metaphorical heart of Egan's *The Keep*. With its underground passageways, silted-up pool and ancient torture chambers, the castle is an emblem of the shadowy place in which past and present mingle, and modern technology meets the ancient way of life. In this book, Egan successfully and movingly works the theme of "renovation" on several aspects simultaneously. Like most Gothic fictions, *The Keep* positions its characters in antiquated and decaying places, one location is a mysterious castle which is either "in Austria, Germany, or the Czech Republic", (Egan, 2006, p.4) a place we never do find out; the other location an American prison. Though it literally has a castle full of Gothic elements, including the ghost, the baroness, the deep tunnel and skeleton, it is actually the whole design of Howard's "new" castle and Egan's neo-Gothic romance, it is an invitation for our imaginations to create.

In creating a male protagonist and leaving the story with an open ending, Egan defies the tradition while at the same time using it. The protagonist in the fiction is a modern man Danny, who has been a "front man" for various night clubs and restaurants in downtown Manhattan, which is quite different from the traditional Gothic stories whose protagonists are generally insane women. The male protagonist Danny knows almost everyone and everything in his hotspot universe, and being connected and "in the know" is so essential to his existence. Cyberspace creature that he is, he has lugged a satellite dish all the way from New York to the isolated castle. His skin tingles in the presence of wireless Internet access, but at the castle some other forces make Danny's skin lose this ability. When questioned about her choosing a male protagonist, Egan replies that she "loved the idea because it reverses the classic Gothic setup, which is basically: helpless female, trapped…" (Vida, 2006, p.81)

Different from the frequent female narratives in the traditional Gothic stories, Egan has fun with the idea of narrative voice in *The Keep* as well. In the fiction, Danny's story is told by Ray, who is an inmate taking a prison writing class. Ray does not have much education nor can he write good articles, he is not an experienced storyteller. For example, he does not know how to use metaphors and similes to elevate his prose; he does not use quotation marks around dialogue, neither does he care so much. A dramatic form of dialogue seems much more natural to him, it is a struggle for him just to say what he is trying to say, he just wants to get the job done and to get attention from his writing teacher Holly. But the characters' emotions told by Ray are so real, the author's insights so moving, that the reader will be happy and willing to follow him. For the voice she chooses in the fiction, Egan states that it is the biggest challenge while writing the book. Egan explains that she has written her previous fiction *Look at Me* thinking that it has to be very beautiful, while writing *The Keep*, she challenges her own assumption and states that she finds "Ray's inexperience very appealing. I felt freed from the need to make it pretty. There should be strength, but does it need to be beautiful? … I found that very freeing." (Johnson, 2007, p.18) The important reason that Egan, as a novelist, chooses Ray's voice is that his voice is totally different from hers and also Ray lacks experience in the fiction writing. Such a voice is a new way to break out of certain conventions that she is tired of.

Different from many of the traditional Gothic fictions which conclude with a satisfying ending and with the dissolvement of the conflicts, in *The Keep,* however, Egan leaves us with an open ending and some mysteries still remain unsolved in the end. For instance, Egan does not tell us the destination of Ray, the inmate who writes the story of Danny, neither have we found any reference about him, whether he is dead or he successfully escapes from the prison and get his freedom. Do Danny and Howard really die by jumping in the pool of the castle? Besides, where does the baroness vanish to? Just as the open ending of John Fowles' *The French Lieutenant's Woman*, the indefinite and

unsolved mystery of the ending leaves much room for the reader to wonder and to find out the truth of the mysteries. We do not know the answer, neither does the author herself. The author, however, wisely provides us not with what we want, but with what we need. Like Howard in the fiction, Egan intimates that readers need a hallucination now and again, what she suggests is probably for readers to make their own ending, which is the highest respect an artist can pay to his/her readers. When questioned about the baroness's disappearance, Egan replies:

I don't have a definitive answer…. Maybe she leaves behind an ashy trail like she did in the bed she and Danny shared…or perhaps she's handing out towels by the swimming pool! In fact, I rather like that idea. But to my mind, I guess, the sort of seeps into the atmosphere and becomes part of the air, the soil, the walls and floors, just as her hundreds of relatives did before her. (Olson, 2011, p.340)

Egan's answer accords with her idea that nothing is definitely real and everything is open in the contemporary image culture. She puts forward the question: "Well, was it real or not?" (Reilly, 2009, p.443) She invites readers to respond as well, "We're talking about a novel: of course, it's not real."(Reilly, 2009, p.443)

Besides employing a male protagonist, narrating from an inmate's voice and leaving us an open ending, *The Keep* keeps using the old Gothic tropes to a new purpose: to affect a transformation tale. Most of the characters in the fiction have some trauma, and they recast it, relive it, and refashion in their response, hoping to get it "right" the second time either in their actions or in their writing. The ruined castle in *The Keep* is under renovation. On the one hand, Howard, an entrepreneur as well as the new owner of the castle, plans to turn it into a hotel, but he has mixed feelings about erasing the castle's past. "I'll probably leave some of it like this," (Egan, 2006, p.39) he says, standing in a room without a ceiling. "It's evocative. It's…history." (Egan, 2006, p.39) Danny, on the other hand, holds different attitude toward the castle. According to him, the way of renovating the old castle is not only asserting our ownership of the past but also probing into the question of how we should honor the past without letting it rule us.

III.   METAFICTIONAL NARRATIVE IN *THE KEEP*

"All fiction is … implicitly metafictional."(Waugh, 1984, p.148) As Patricia Waugh claims, metafiction refers to the literary device describing fictional writing that self-consciously and systematically draws attention to its status as an artifact. It normally poses questions about the relationship between fiction and reality frequently by using irony and self-reflection. Metafiction can be compared to presentational theatre, which does not let the audience forget that they are viewing a play; it also makes the reader to be clear that he or she is reading a fictional work. Unlike the conventional texts, the storytelling in the metafictional text is no longer the most important part of a fiction. In metafictional text, the reader's reading process is frequently interrupted by the writer's voice, which aims at reminding the reader that what he/she is reading is not real. Therefore, the reader should not only concentrate on the development of the story, but also pay attention to the process of how the writer creates the story. When the reader plunges into the complex plots, he/she is suddenly roused by the writer who intends to inform the reader that he/she is reading a fiction instead of reality. At times the reader can find some traces of the event or characters existing in the real world or the reader need to walk into the text to decide where the text would go. Furthermore, the reader may sometimes confuse on the question of whether the fiction he/she is reading is the reality or the world he/she lives in is just fiction.

Essential to the Gothic mode in Egan's *The Keep* is the device of the story within a story, that is, the metafiction of fiction writing. Danny's story is being told by an "I" who jumps into the narrative on page 17, telling us: "Danny didn't know why he'd come all this way to Howard's castle. Why did I take a writing class?" (Egan, 2006, p.17) Reading on, we discover that the narrator is Ray, a murder convict in a high-security American prison. Cut off from the rest of the world, Ray imagines a character like himself cut off from everything that has held his life together. Ray takes Holly's writing workshop as a means of escape from his seemingly deranged cell mate. In his first story, he commits an aggressive act by writing about a prisoner who rapes his writing teacher:

I started the class with a bad attitude. For the second meeting I wrote a story about a guy who fucks his writing teacher in a broom closet until the door flies open and all the brooms and mops and buckets come crashing out and their bare asses are shining in the light and they both get busted. It got a lot of laughs while I was reading it, but when I stopped reading the room went quiet. (Egan, 2006, p.17)

Hearing the story in the class, Holly is undoubtedly offended, nervous and scared, but she maintains calm enough not to explode but explains: "My job is to show you a door you can open…. It leads wherever you want it to go, … That's what I'm here to do." (Egan, 2006, p.19) Further on, she is brave enough to come to Ray and offer him a means of escape through "a door in our heads". Here "a door in our heads" said by Holly refers, of course, to the imagination. Actually, much of this metafictional story in *The Keep* is about the role of imagination in our lives. For Danny, it is much more problematic. Danny's imagination sometimes stems from paranoia. In contrast, for Ray, imagination represents a way to survive. Ray uses his imagination to create the story. Along the way, he develops an attentive readership with his fellow convicts and also wins the heart of his writing teacher Holly. The imagination, just as *The Magus* by John Fowles, whose textual manipulations always seemed much more like real magic than the merely technical strategies of his contemporaries, *The Keep* presents a shimmering and marvelous world whose infinite self-reflection tends to collapse into an all-devouring paranoia, which is what Danny calls "the worm." Quite different from *The Magus*, in *The Keep*, Egan is able to bring her story and characters out on the other side of the paranoid abyss. On this point, Madison Smart Bell points out:

Egan shares [John] Fowles's unusual gift for transporting the reader into a world where magical thinking actually works. In Egan's case it also counts for something real, durable and concrete. The result is a work both prodigiously entertaining and profoundly moving. Ray's motives for inventing this tale are mostly left to the reader's inference; what he and Egan show is that art and the imagination are the most powerful means of healing. (Bell, 2006, p.7)

On the surface, the metafictional narrative of *The Keep* is comic; the story in the story is narrated by an uneducated murder convict. While in a deeper sense, it is a dazzling presentation that makes us believe that it really is a matter of life, imagination, death and salvation. Danny, in an amazing scene toward the end of the fiction, becomes the savior of the group of people who invaded the keep and were trapped there. This group member includes Howard, who relives his childhood trauma deep beneath the castle and breaks down. When trapped in the deep tunnel of the castle, Danny must do something to save the group. He spots a way out, significantly through a trapdoor, and brings everyone involved out of the tunnel and back into the light.

IV.   Imprisoned Characters in *The Keep*

Character, generally speaking, refers to any kind of entity, either individual or collective, introduced in a narrative work. Characters play an important role in the story world. There are two widely accepted kinds of opinions about characters. One argument is originated from Aristotle who believes that characters exist as subsidiary to the action and plot, thus characters do not exist at all as they are only a part of events. Another argument holds that in the process of action, characters can acquire a kind of distance from the events in which they exist. This argument considers that characters are imitations of real persons. Henry James, in *The Art of Fiction*, claims that character is the determination of incidents and incidents are just illustration of character. Boris Tomashevsky and Roland Barthes both agree with Henry James on the dominant function of character over action. As the process of creating a character, Shlomith Rimmon-Kenan puts forward her ideas of character in *Narrative Fiction*:

Characters, as one construct within the abstracted story, can be described in terms of a network of characters-traits. These traits, however, may or may not appear as such in the text. How, then, is the construct arrived at? By assembling various character-indicators distributed alone the text-continuum and when necessary, inferring the traits from them. (Rimmon-Kenan, 2005, p.61)

Contrary to the traditional fiction writing, Egan states that her writing defies characterization. In *The Keep*, all characters are imprisoned in one way or another, if not in a physical jail or labyrinth of the keep just as the one inhabited by a few descendants of the castle's founding family who refuses to acknowledge Howard's rights of ownership, then in various mental squirrel cages, of which the world of the addiction is the simplest. Whereas Ray is literally imprisoned, the baroness is symbolically imprisoned in the castle, Danny's imprisonment in the "squirrel cage" takes the form of addiction, not to drugs or alcohol but to the telecommunication that connects him to the other people. Because he is so eager to use the Internet and his cell phone as soon as he arrives at the castle, he goes through a lot of difficulties and dangers to haul his satellite dish along with him and tries to set up there in the keep though probably the satellite dish eventually sinks into a pool filled with rotten water. Danny's desire for connectivity is just as a "mode of being which is scarcely fantastic, but a fair description of the way many of us live now." (Bell, 2006, p.3)

To compensate for the telecommunication addiction of Danny who has been sunken in the "imprisoned" castle, Egan creates Howard, who is against modern telecommunications and is willing to escape to the "imprisoned" castle. What he wants is to turn the castle into a place where he can "let people be tourists of their imaginations." (Egan, 2006, p.45) No computers or cell phones allowed, only imagination can stay there in his ideal castle. As Howard states:

Imagination! It saved my life.

…

My *mission* is to bring some of that back. Let people be tourists of their own imaginations. (Egan, 2006, p.45)

The baroness, another important character, has inhabited the "imprisoned" castle for many years, maybe more than a hundred years. Egan describes her as a very mysterious and shape-shifting figure who seems young and beautiful from distant but actually an old woman. She has soft skin, black eyes and a beautiful long and full mouth which are unusual for an old lady. She claims herself the Baroness von Ausblinker, the owner of the castle including the town. She has been living in the castle for many years, she has been so proud of habiting and owning the castle and she has never been defeated by anyone who attempts to invade the keep. For Danny, the baroness has caught his attention as soon as he arrives at the castle: "Danny caught something moving in a window of the keep — not the top part but one lower down. He tipped the telescope a hair and waited. There it was again, a curtain moving, with long blond hair. Just a flash and she was gone." (Egan, 2006, p.25)

Attracted by the beautiful figure from distance, Danny decides to get into the heart of the castle after his failed escape instead of returning to the place where Howard and other colleagues stay. When he gets close to her, he thinks she is gorgeous the way any blonde beauty is if you look at her from far. Closer in, he realizes she is not a girl, "she was a woman, which didn't mean someone Danny's own age (those were girls) — it meant someone who looked the way his friends' moms used to look when he was a kid (in other words, his own age). "(Egan, 2006, p.79) When he gets inside the keep and sits in front of the baroness, Danny realizes that she is older than what he has thought, "Some of what he'd taken to be her features turned out to be makeup arranged in the shapes her features should have had and maybe did have once, a long time ago, when she was one of those ages he'd thought from outside." (Egan, 2006, p.80) Puzzled and

confused, Danny stays with the baroness to learn more about the history of the castle and the family of the baroness. Deeply attracted or maybe coaxed by the mysterious figure of the keep, he drinks wine and even makes love with the baroness on the roof of the keep. The scenery in the keep with the baroness that evening seems amazingly as a wonderful hallucination, which makes Danny feel delighted and intoxicated. But in Ray's story, when Danny woke up next morning, he could not remember what happened the night before and where he is. He feels so ashamed that he is naked in a bed of an old room: "The room looked abandoned, piles of old broken stuff around, cobwebs, like an attic no one had been inside for fifty years. He was in a bed, between sheets that were maybe the softest sheets he'd ever felt ... He was naked. And his clothes were nowhere in sight." (Egan, 2006, p.102)

In this respect, *The Keep* not only reveals that all the characters are imprisoned in the castle or in their own imaginations, it again adheres to the Gothic genre which the operating question is: "Is it real or not?" Has modernity, and particularly technology changed the way we define "real" in a society where so much experience is virtual nowadays? We may be contacted with a fascinating new friend via the Internet, but is this really a friend or a wicked person masking as a friend? Stories such as this appear too often that we doubt the validity of Egan's concerns or that in *The Keep* she has written a fiction of ideas. For Egan, the fiction "is in essence a meditation on how our contemporary vices have sullied our ability to think freely and creatively — and the illusions modern life thrusts upon us." (Firger, 40) Every age has its illusions: ours may be, as Egan so thoughtfully explores, centered upon modern technology and its ability to forge connections. But are these connections real? Egan answers the question as her main concern in *The Keep*: "After all, an extraordinary amount of our daily experience and human contact is virtual, with its attendant ambiguities and uncertainties." (Johnson, 2007, p.18)

V. CONCLUSION

The Keep is a brave departure from the traditional fiction writing. It inherits many elements of Gothic fiction, adding something new at the same time. In this book, Egan moved beyond craft writing a first grade Gothic thriller and became an architect. She made the remarkable transition from a good novelist to an "unclassifiable novelist," executing what seemed to be a literary experiment and accomplishment. *The Keep* reflects Egan's deep interest in the pleasure of narrative as well as the exploration on the issue of image culture. It is in essence a meditation on how the highly developed technology has sullied our ability to think freely and creatively and the illusions modern life and virtual images thrust upon us. Egan starts with the genre of Gothic fiction writing, but ends up being really interested in the way in which modern telecommunications mimic the supernatural experience and the imprisonment of the modern human beings. In *The Keep*, Egan explores the issues in and around images culture from a bird's eye view perspective, which brings us to pause and ponder on the issues alongside with her. In such a society, "who cares what you have done? The important thing is what you look like you have done." (Johnson, 2007, p.20)

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The Effect of Blended Learning on EFL Learners' Reading Proficiency

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Abstract—**The present study aimed at determining the effect of blended learning on the reading proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. A quasi-experimental design was adopted to reach this goal. Sixty intermediate-level Iranian EFL learners were randomly assigned to two groups. The control group received conventional classroom instruction in General English, whereas the experimental group received classroom instruction in General English including blended instruction in the reading skill. The blended learning material was developed by the researcher. Both groups were tested for their reading skills before and after the treatment using the reading section of the Preliminary English Test (PET) and their scores were compared through an independent *t* test. The SPSS software was utilized in order to analyze the data. The results indicated that blended learning has a statistically significant positive effect on the reading proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. Blended learning can be adopted in the English language classes, in order to facilitate the learning process especially that of the reading skill.**

Index Terms—**blended learning, reading proficiency, English as a foreign language**

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading materials have been considered as one of the primary sources of acquiring comprehensible input and therefore reading has always been a significant aspect of language learning (Chastain, 1988). Since the 1980s, a number of advances have been made in research on reading, both in first and second language contexts. Unlike previous findings which viewed reading as a passive skill, recent findings showed that reading should be considered as an active process. In fact, readers are engaged in high mental activities. Krashen (1988) believes that readers recreate the message while reading. According to Rumelhart (1977), the reader, the text, and the interaction between the reader and the text are involved in reading. In this interactive process of reading, meaningfulness plays a very important role in better comprehension of the text. Since the 1960s, most cognitive psychologists have focused on the role of meaningful learning and the organization of background knowledge.

Unfortunately many second or foreign language learners do not know how to handle the process of reading and therefore they have problems in comprehending the texts, and this causes lack of interest in reading and thus creates quite a problem for the system of education. As mentioned earlier, the reading skill is of utmost importance and it is an important source of comprehensible input in language learning. Therefore it is the role of the language teachers and educational planners to devise appropriate tasks to improve this skill among language learners inside and outside of the language learning classroom.

In the Iranian system of education, traditional methods such as Grammar Translation Method have been used for a long time. The major focus of this method is on the reading skill, as well as grammar and vocabulary. Although reading is one of the essential academic skills strongly required later in the students' academic life, and it is focused upon in language education at school, the students face problems while reading at university level. Perhaps the adoption of traditional methods in reading instruction could be the source of this problem.

According to Thorne (2003), blended learning is the most logical and natural evolution of our learning agenda. It suggests an elegant solution to the challenges of tailoring learning and development to the needs of individuals. It represents an opportunity to integrate the innovative and technological advances offered by online learning with the interaction and participation offered in the best of traditional learning" (p. 2). He adds that, "blended learning represents a very real step towards doing it differently and providing schools, colleges and corporate organizations with a real opportunity to make progress either in ways of working, the environment, or in giving individuals freedom to be themselves" (p. 20).

Since reading proficiency is one of the important tools for acquiring foreign language input, the application of blended learning in this skill would be of great help to Iranian students. Unfortunately, old methods of teaching reading are still applied in our educational system and many Iranian teachers are not completely aware of this fairly new trend in language teaching. Despite the load of research carried out on this issue, few studies have been done on the application of different task types of reading proficiency on Iranian EFL learners.

Regarding the problems mentioned above, and the novelty of blended learning in the Iranian system of education, it is worthwhile putting the new concept to test in terms of its effectiveness for improving the reading proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. Therefore, the purpose of the present study is to investigate the effect of blended learning on the reading proficiency of Iranian EFL learners.

Regarding the high demand on English reading in the academic world, it is necessary for Iranian EFL learners to improve their reading skills and thus have better comprehension of English texts. If learners become familiar with appropriate reading techniques, they will become more motivated to read more and this leads to a tendency to more exposure to input in the foreign language. According to Krashen (1988), one of the many ways of learning a language is by being exposed to sufficient input, and reading is considered as one of the receptive skills and a good source of acquiring input.

This research study aims at investigating the following research question:

Q: Does blended learning have a statistically significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' reading proficiency?

The hypothetical answer, i.e., null hypothesis to the above question is:

H0. Blended learning does not have any statistically significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' reading proficiency.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Blended Learning

Defining hybrid or blended education is a more complex task than one might imagine. Different scholars have widely differing opinions on the issue. One definition provided by McGee and Reis (2012) considers hybrid courses as those that "involve instructor and learners working together in mixed delivery modes, typically face-to-face and technology mediated, to accomplish learning outcomes that are pedagogically supported through assignments, activities, and assessments as appropriate for a given mode and which bridge course environments in a manner meaningful to the learner" (p. 9). This indicates that in blended learning, online technology is not only a supplement but a core part of the program. That does not mean a teacher can simply start a chat room or upload lecture videos and say he is leading a hybrid classroom.

Osguthorpe and Graham (2003) define blended learning in three main themes, i.e., combining instructional modalities, combining instructional methods and combining online and face to face instructions. The first two positions debate the influences of media versus method on learning. According to them, both of these positions defined blended learning so broadly that they encompass virtually all learning systems. In other words, it would be hard to find a system that did not involve multiple instructional methods and multiple delivery media. So using these two definitions cannot convey the meaning of blended learning. The third position is the most accurate one and it also emphasizes the central role of computer based technologies in blended learning.

Blended learning is defined simply as a learning environment that combines technology with face-to-face learning. In other words, blended learning means using a variety of delivery methods to best meet the course objectives by combining face-to-face teaching in a traditional classroom including teaching online (Akkoyunlu & Yilmaz Soylo, 2006). According to Bersin (2003),"blended learning is the combination of different training "media" (technologies, activities, and types of events) to create an optimum training program for a specific audience" (p. xv).

Graham (2006) postulates that blended learning happens in one of the different levels below:

Activity level: When an activity includes both face to face and computer mediated elements then blending at the activity level occurs.

Course level: Blending at this level is one of the most common ways to blend. Course level blend involves combining distinct face to face and computer mediated activities. Some blended methods involve students in different but supportive face to face and computer mediated activities which are overlapping by the time passing while other methods divide the time into blocks so that they are sequential but not overlapping.

Program level: At the program level, blending often involves one of these two models. In one model, the learners choose a blend between face to face courses and online courses and the other model is a mix between the two which is arranged by the program.

Institutional level: Some of the institutions are committed to blend face to face and computer mediated instruction. Many organizations besides institutions of higher education are making models of blended learning at an institutional level.

Through the levels mentioned above, Graham (2006) maintains that the learner or the designer/teacher determines the nature of the blend. The learner can often choose the blend at the levels of institutional and program. While the blend at the course and an activity level is prescribed by the designer/teacher.

B. Reading Proficiency

Richards and Schmidt [10] postulated that various types of reading comprehension are often distinguished according to the readers' purposes in reading and the type of reading used. They are commonly referred to as: "literal comprehension which is reading in order to understand, remember, or recall the information explicitly contained in a passage and inferential comprehension that is reading in order to find information which is not explicitly stated in the passage, using the reads experience and intuition, and by inferring" (p. 443).

Rivers (1968) distinguished two activities which are called reading but must not be confused with each other. A student who stands up in class and enunciates the sounds symbolized by the printed or written marks on the script may be considered to be 'reading', but being trained for this is a minor goal. The students must also learn to derive meaning from the text without necessarily vocalizing what is being read. As Rivers stated this is reading for comprehension.

There are three general approaches to teaching reading in the second or foreign language context; the top-down approach, the bottom-up approach and the interactive approach, which will be thoroughly discussed in the following.

"The top-down approach emphasizes readers bringing meaning to text based on their experiential background and interpreting text based on their prior knowledge (whole language)". The term top is referred to "higher order mental concepts such as the knowledge and expectations of the reader," whereas the word bottom points out to the physical text on the page. This model promotes the reader as an active participant in the reading process and shifts the reader from earlier views of second language reading as a passive linguistic decoder to more contemporary views of second language reading as an active predictor (Goodman, 1988, as cited in Abisamra, 2009, p. 1).

Yet, there are criticisms to the model. Some of the problems mentioned by Stanovich (1980) include the fact that for many texts, the reader might have inconsiderable knowledge of the topic and therefore, be unable to generate predictions. Even in case of skilled readers, Stanovich argues that generating predictions may take longer than it would to recognize the words (as cited in Abisamra, 2009).

The bottom up approach holds that "the meaning of any text must be decoded by the reader and that students are reading when they can sound out words on a page". It emphasizes the ability to decode or put into sound what is seen in a text, i.e., it aligns with the phonic approach to teaching first language reading. "It ignores helping emerging readers to recognize what they, as readers, bring to the information on the page. This model starts with the printed stimuli and works its way up to the higher level stages. The sequence of processing proceeds from the incoming data to higher level encodings" (Stanovich, 1980, as cited in Abisamra, 2009. p. 1).

Some of the criticisms of this model assert that it is difficult to account for sentence-context effects and the role of prior knowledge of text topic as facilitating variables in word recognition and comprehension because of lack of feedback (Stanovich, 1980, as cited in Abisamra, 2009). Furthermore, "it underestimates the contribution of the reader who makes predictions and processes information" (Eskey, as cited in Abisamra, 2009, p. 1).

In the following years, theorists came to believe in the combination of the above mentioned models in order to compensate the weaknesses of one with the other. This model recognizes the importance of both the text and the reader in the reading process, and is referred to as the interactive approach to teaching second language reading (Rumelhart, 1977). Reading is the process of information derived from the text plus the reader's information.

The interactive model stresses both what is on the written page and what a reader brings to it using both top-down and bottom-up processing. It views reading as the interaction between the reader and the text.

The over reliance "on either mode of processing to the neglect of the other mode has been found to cause reading difficulties for learners. The interactive models of reading assume that skills at all levels are interactively available to process and interpret the text" (Grabe, 1988, as cited in Abisamra, 2009, p. 1). "In this model, good readers are both good decoders and good interpreters of text, their decoding skills becoming more automatic but no less important as their reading skill develops" (Eskey, 1988, as cited in Abisamra, 2009, p. 1).

C. Review of the Related Studies

Blended learning has been widely studied in its different aspects. In a study by Garcia-Ruiz (2005), the advantages of teaching information management systems with blended learning methods were investigated. They reported that the advantages of Web-based learning combined with traditional learning include all other kinds of technology-based training. Some of these benefits are that the training is usually highly interactive, self-paced, and the rate of the results is increasing.

Shih (2011) used web 2.0 technology, a subdivision of blended learning, to assist college students in learning English writing. The survey results showed that the students were able to improve their vocabulary organization, content, structure, grammar, and spelling. Thus, they recommended using peer assessment for English writing courses and stated that it can be an effective and practical approach, leading students to constantly gain relevant knowledge and skills.

Jia, Chen, Ding and Ruan (2012) modified the open source course management system Moodle to build the individualized vocabulary analysis and assessment functions for English training. Through this blended learning environment, the students' performance in experimental group in the regular and specially vocabulary examinations improved gradually during the school term and was better than that of the control group. One of the implications of this study is that blended learning in English language classes with an individualized vocabulary acquisition and assessment system can make the students' performance improve in vocabulary acquisition and in regular examinations.

In another study, Kazu and Demirkol (2014) investigated the effect of the blended learning environment on high school students' academic achievement. At the end of this study, they concluded that the students who had studied in the blended learning environment were academically more successful than those who studied in a traditional learning environment.

More relevant to the current study, Al-Jarf (2007) studied the effect of blended learning on college readers. Significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups in their reading skills as measured by the posttest, proposing that reading achievement in the experimental group improved due to using online instruction.

This means that the use of online instruction showed to be an effective tool to improve students' reading skills in English.

Iranian researchers have not ignored the topic of blended learning in their research studies. Soltani, Tehrani and Tabatabaei (2012) designed a study in order to determine the effect of blended online and face-to-face instruction on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary achievement. The result of *t* test between pretest and posttest showed a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control group regarding their vocabulary knowledge. The experimental group outperformed the control group.

Ghahari and Ameri-Golestan (2014) conducted a study investigating the impact of blended and classroom teaching methods on Iranian EFL learners' writing performance. The students in the experimental group received traditional methods of teaching writing along with learning through the web. Students in the control group, however, were taught by only the traditional teaching methods of writing and received the instructions, materials, and feedback just through traditional methods. The results of this study showed that using a blended teaching method can make a more desirable condition to improve the EFL learners' writing performance.

The effect of blended learning on reading comprehension was also investigated by Behjat, Yamini and Sadegh Bahjeri (2011). They assigned the participants in the control group to read printed texts outside the class whereas the experimental group participants were asked to visit a weblog after class to find their reading assignments. The researchers reported that reading materials on an e-tool like wikis encouraged reading as they had links and were editable, and learners could access them by just clicking on the underlined term or phrase to enter a new webpage, thus they had access to more reading resources. They concluded that reading encouraged learners' autonomy to read more materials independent of what was presented in the classroom.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

To meet the objectives of this study, 90 male and female intermediate learners of Safir language school, situated in the west of Tehran, were selected. They all had the experience of studying English for a minimum of one and half years in this Language School. First, Preliminary English Test (PET) was administered in order to homogenize the learners, then 60 learners out of 90 who scored between one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected and randomly assigned into two groups of 30 students labeled as experimental and control groups. Although assigning the participants in two groups was done randomly, there was no random sampling for choosing the subjects for participation in this study. The two groups took different teaching methods, that is, for the experimental group, blended learning was utilized while for the control group, a traditional method of teaching reading was used which was also utilized in the mainstream instruction of the language school.

B. Instrumentation

For the purpose of implementing this study, the following instrument was adopted which is described below:

The Preliminary English Test (PET), a language proficiency test designed for people who can use every day written and spoken English in intermediate level, was used in this study. This test is divided into four sections: Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking. All sections were administered to homogenize the participants. As for the pretest and the posttest, only the reading section was administered.

C. Research Design

Considering the fact that the researchers ran a pretest for homogeneity beforehand, also there were two groups, and regarding the fact that sampling was not random but convenient; the design of this study was quasi-experimental. The researchers worked only with intermediate learners who were introduced by the institute and that is why random sampling was not possible. This study included one independent variable and one dependent variable. The dependent variable was reading proficiency and the independent variable was blended learning.

D. Data Collection Procedure

In this study, the participants consisted of 90 EFL learners out of whom 60 learners were chosen and assigned into two groups. Therefore, two classes of 30 learners were randomly selected as the experimental and control groups. Assigning each group as the experimental and control groups was done randomly.

The participants took part in the classes three times a week for ten sessions, each session lasted one hour and forty minutes. Furthermore, reading practices based on the reading activities of the textbook (American English File 3, by Clive Oxenden and Christina Latham-Koenig, first published in 1995 by Oxford University Press) were taught to both groups. The experimental group, however, received additional training in blended learning. The teacher posted a blog online after the lesson including a parallel reading comprehension, testing the learners' comprehension using the following techniques: Answering questions, summarizing, expressing reactions, matching concepts from the text, making predictions, generating questions, finding word roots, and more.

The learners in the experimental group were expected to do the reading tasks online and outside the class. Examples of the online material used in the treatment process are presented in appendix A. The topics for online reading were

matched with the topics presented in the course book and in the reading comprehension exercises also taught to the control group. The learners were encouraged to discuss relevant topics online, or leave comments on the topics for asynchronous interaction through the internet.

At the end of the semester, the reading part of the PET was administered to examine the reading proficiency of both groups.

IV. RESULTS

This study aimed at investigating the effect of blended learning on Iranian EFL learners' reading proficiency. To achieve this goal, the following research question was posed: Does blended learning have a statistically significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' reading proficiency?

The data were analyzed using independent samples and paired-samples *t* test which assumes normality of the data which was met for the present data. As displayed in Table I, the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors were within the ranges of +/-1.96.

TABLE I.
TESTING NORMALITY ASSUMPTION; PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF READING PROFICIENCY BY GROUPS

Group		N	Skewness			Kurtosis		
		Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio
Experimental	Pretest	30	.135	.427	.316	-1.142	.833	-1.37
	Posttest	30	-.233	.427	-.545	-.843	.833	-1.01
Control	Pretest	30	.279	.427	.653	-.445	.833	-.534
	Posttest	30	-.095	.427	-.222	-.339	.833	-.406

The independent samples *t* test has another assumption, which is the homogeneity of the variances of the groups which will be discussed when reporting the main results.

A. Pretest of Reading Proficiency

An independent *t* test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' means on the pretest of reading proficiency in order to prove that they enjoyed the same level of reading proficiency prior to the main study. Based on the results displayed in Table II, it can be concluded that the experimental (M = 15.20, SD = 3.15) and control (M = 15.53, SD = 2.72) groups had almost the same means on the pretest of reading proficiency.

TABLE II.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; PRETEST OF READING PROFICIENCY BY GROUPS

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest	Experimental	30	15.20	3.156	.576
	Control	30	15.53	2.726	.498

The results of the independent *t* test (t (58) = .43, p= .921, r = .058 representing a weak effect size) (Table III) indicated that there was not any significant difference between the two groups' means on the pretest of reading proficiency. Thus it can be claimed that they were at the same level of reading proficiency knowledge prior to the main study.

TABLE III.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T TEST, PRETEST OF READING PROFICIENCY BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t* test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.396	.242	.438	58	.663	.333	.761	-1.191	1.857
Equal variances not assumed			.438	56.799	.663	.333	.761	-1.191	1.858

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = 1.39, p = .242). That is why the first row of Table 4.3, i.e., "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

B. Research Question

Does blended learning have any statistically significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' reading proficiency?

An independent *t* test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' means on the posttest of reading proficiency in order to probe the effect of the blended learning on the improvement of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading proficiency. Based on the results displayed in Table IV, it can be concluded that the experimental group (M = 17.93, SD = 2.79) had a higher mean than the control (M = 16.40, SD = 2.45) on the posttest of reading proficiency.

TABLE IV.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; POSTTEST OF READING PROFICIENCY BY GROUPS

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Posttest	Experimental	30	17.93	2.791	.510
	Control	30	16.40	2.458	.449

The results of the independent *t* test (t (58) = 2.25, p= .028, r = .28 representing an almost moderate effect size) (Table V) indicated that there was a significant difference between the two groups' means on the posttest of reading proficiency. Thus the null-hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE V.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T TEST, POSTTEST OF READING PROFICIENCY BY GROUPS

	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
Equal variances assumed	.418	.520	2.258	58	.028	1.533	.679	.174	2.892
Equal variances not assumed			2.258	57.089	.028	1.533	.679	.174	2.893

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = .41, p = .52). That is why the first row of Table V, i.e., "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

C. KR-21 Reliability Indices

The KR-21 reliability indices for the pretest and posttest of reading proficiency were 0.62 and 0.71 respectively.

TABLE VI.
KR-21 RELIABILITY INDICES

	N	Mean	Variance	KR-21
Pretest	60	15.37	8.575	.62
Posttest	60	17.17	7.395	.71

D. Construct Validity

A factor analysis was run through the varimax rotation to probe the underlying constructs of the pretest and posttest of reading proficiency. The SPSS extracted one factor which accounted for 91.75 % (Table VII) of the total variance.

TABLE VII.
TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.835	91.751	91.751	1.835	91.751	91.751
2	.165	8.249	100.000			

As displayed in Table 4.8, the pretest and posttest of reading proficiency loaded on the only extracted factor. Thus it can be claimed that they measured the same construct; i.e., reading proficiency.

TABLE VIII.
COMPONENT MATRIX

	Component
	1
Posttest	.958
Pretest	.958

V. CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this study was to determine the impact of blended learning on the reading proficiency of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners. The research question inquired whether blended learning has any statistically significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' reading proficiency. After running an independent *t* test (t (58) = 2.25, p= .028, r = .28) it was concluded that there was a significant difference between the two groups' means on the posttest of reading proficiency. This is while the means of the experimental group and the control group were not significantly different in the pretest. Therefore, the null-hypothesis was rejected and it was stated that blended learning has a significantly positive impact on the reading proficiency of Iranian EFL learners.

The findings of this study are in line with the findings of the study conducted by Al-Jarf (2007) and Ghahari and Ameri-Golestan (2014) who observed similar improvement in the reading proficiency of learners exposed to blended learning in comparison with those who studies reading in a traditional classroom setting.

The results of this study can be adopted in the EFL classroom, as well as outside the class. EFL learners can improve their reading proficiency through blended learning as depicted in the present research and learners can also benefit from English language instruction at the place and time of their convenience without being deprived from the help of their teacher and while they are studying in a classroom setting at the same time.

The findings of the study also confirmed the results of the study of Kazu and Demirkol (2014) who reported a significant difference between learners' performance who attended traditional classrooms and those who learned in a blended learning environment, with the latter being more positively influential than the former. Similarly, Dowling, Godfrey and Gyles (2003) reported improved final marks and learning outcomes with blended learning.

In a similar line of research, Cameron (2003), Dziuban, Hartman and Moskal (2004), Dziuban, Hartman, Moskal, Sorg, and Truman (2004) and Dziuban, Hartman, Juge, Moskal, and Sorg (2005) discussed in separate studies that blended learning specifically enhances learner and teacher satisfaction as well as higher learner motivation. It may be the result of this higher level of satisfaction that has made blended learning more successful than traditional face-to-face classes in global research.

During the treatment of the experimental group in the present study, online discussions and interaction were also adopted in order to enhance the quality of the instruction. Accordingly, Garrison and Anderson (2003) shared the view that discourse is especially valuable in education and that asynchronous discussion is a very powerful learning strategy. The online discussions included in the blended learning material could be another factor contributing to the positive results achieved.

Based on the findings of the present study, the following pedagogical implications are discussed, firstly for the learners and secondly the teachers.

Blended learning can be adopted in the English language classes, in order to facilitate the learning process especially that of the reading skill. Learners can benefit from the advantages of blended learning as an accelerator of learning to read in second or foreign language in and outside the classroom. Blended learning, in this sense, can maximize the learning opportunities by happening at the place and time of the learner's choice. This may, in turn, further learner autonomy by giving more responsibility to the learner, thus moving away from traditional teacher-centered classes. Another positive outcome that may emerge as a result of employing blended learning in the English class is promoting motivation and interest in the language learning process on behalf of the learner. Learners can enjoy using technology and learn English and therefore associate the two as a positive, more desirable process.

The concept of blended learning can be introduced to EFL teachers who wish to improve their teaching skills and career and remain up-to-date with new technology and research findings. The positive influence of blended learning and its usage in the ELT field can be presented to teachers in Teacher Training or In-Service courses. As many teachers feel uncomfortable with adopting technology for teaching, the courses need to include methods and ideas supporting blended learning use as well as techniques and sufficient training in using the internet, social networks or different kinds of software to familiarize the teachers with the benefits of adopting a blended method to learning English.

EFL institutions and academic centers focusing on EFL education can also provide lesson plans and policies to incorporate blended learning into their syllabus and create an opportunity for improvement in their teaching regarding reading and perhaps other skills of English. Blended learning can also be presented and practiced at universities, especially for Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language.

APPENDIX. AN EXAMPLE OF ONLINE READING MATERIAL

Example 1: The story of Coca Cola

The Story of Coca Cola
The most famous drink in the world

What is the most recognizable object in the world? Could it be a football? Or a Big-Mac? No, the answer is a Coca-Cola bottle. The famous Coca-Cola bottle is almost 100 years old!

Footballs and big macs are certainly part of life for lots of people; but Coca-Cola is now a permanent part of world culture. People know and drink Coca-Cola all over the world.

It is said that the Coca-Cola bottle is the most recognised object in the world. Hundreds of millions of people can

recognise a Coke bottle by its **shape**, even if they cannot see it! And the famous Coca-Cola **logo** is the most famous logo in the world. **Unlike** any other famous commercial logo, it has not changed in 100 years!

But the story of Coca-Cola is even older than that. It was in 1886 that John Pemberton, a **druggist** in Atlanta, Georgia, invented a new type of **syrup**, using coca leaves, sugar and cola **nuts**, plus a few other secret **ingredients**! Pemberton sold it as a medicine; and with its coca (the **source** of cocaine), it must have made people feel good!

Nevertheless, Pemberton's medicine was not very successful, so he sold his secret **formula** to another druggist, Asa Candler. Candler was interested, because he had another idea; he thought that Pemberton's "medicine" would be much better if it was mixed with **soda**.

Candler was thus the man who really invented the drink Coca-Cola. At first he sold it in

his drugstore; then he began selling the syrup to other drugstores, who used it with their soda fountains. Candler also **advertised** his new drink, and soon people were going to drugstores just to get a drink of Coca-cola.

Before long, other people became interested in the product, including a couple of businessmen who wanted to sell it in bottles. Candler sold them a **licence** to bottle the drink, and very quickly the men became millionnaires. The famous bottle, with its very **distinctive** shape, was designed in 1916.

During the First World War, American soldiers in Europe began asking for Coca-Cola, so the Coca-cola company began to export to Europe. It was so popular with soldiers, that they then had to start bottling the drink in Europe.

Today, Coca-Cola is made in countries all over the world, including Russia and China; it is the world's most popular drink. As for the famous formula, it is probably the world's most valuable secret! The exact ingredients for making Coca-Cola are only known to **a handful of** people. And **as for** the "coca" that was in the original drink, it was **eliminated** in 1903. It was a drug, and too dangerous. Today's Coca-Cola contains caffeine, but not cocaine!

Words:
shape: form - **logo**: logotype, name-image - **unlike** : differently to - **druggist**: pharmacist - **syrup**: concentrated sweet drink - **nuts**: hard round fruits - **ingredient**: element - **source**: origin - **formula**: recipe, instructions for making something - **soda**: bubbling water, fizzy water - **advertise**: publicise - **licence**: permit, authorisation - **distinctive**: memorable, special - **as for:** concerning - **a handful of**: a very small number of - **eliminate**: take out –

Work Sheet:
Using information from the article, complete this résumé in your own words.

Coca Cola was _____ by John Pemberton, a _____ living in Atlanta. The original drink was a _____ , and Pemberton sold it ____ ____ medicine. It was really a _____, being made from coca _____. Pemberton _____ his _____ to Asa Candler, _____ decided to sell it ____ ____ drink, _____ _____ soda. At first he _____ it in his drugstores, then he _____ the _____ to _____ drugstores. After that, he _____ a _____ to some businessmen, and they began to _____ the drink. That was the _____ of the _____ of Coca Cola.

Write a summary of the article in 75 words.

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Corpus-based Study on African English Varieties*

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Abstract—**Corpus-based research is more and more used in linguistics. English varieties are used a lot in daily communications throughout the world. African English varieties are discussed in this paper, including West African English, East African English and South African English. Kenya and Tanzania corpus is the main target corpus while Jamaica corpus is used as a comparative one. The tool used is AntConc 3.2.4.**

Index Terms—**corpus, English varieties, African English, pidgins, creoles**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Standard English

There is an agreeable division among scholars that the whole world is divided into three circles: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle. In the Inner Circle, English is spoken as mother tongue; in the Outer Circle, English is usually spoken as a second language; in the Expanding Circle, English is usually spoken as a foreign language.

Standard English is used in books, newspapers, magazines and nearly everything else that appears in print in the English-speaking world. This type of English is called "standard" because it has undergone standardization, which means that it has been subjected to a process through which it has been selected and stabilized, in a way that other varieties have not.

In the case of certain other languages, "selected" means that an official decision was made at a point for one particular dialect of a language to receive the standardization treatment, as opposed to any of the others. This is not what happened with English.

Standard English acquired its status more gradually and in an organic way. The ancestor of modern Standard English developed around the Royal Court in London, among the aristocracy and ruling elite. Because the elite were concentrated in London, this pre-Standard English was a dialect of a predominantly London-area type. Because it was associated with people who were of mixed geographical origins and who were unusually mobile and well travelled, this court dialect showed signs, from the very early records that we have, of being a mixed dialect. For example, the language of the Proclamation of Henry III shows a blending of Midland and southern features. The form of language which at last emerged over the centuries as the preferred way of writing among the governing classes had features which were not only south-eastern in origin but also in southern area and Midland.

B. Second Language Varieties of English

Kachru (1985) pointed out that the whole world is divided into three circles: The Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle.

English of a distinctively East African type is spoken as a second language in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. These countries belong to the Outer Circle. The English spoken by Africans in Malawi, Zimbabwe, Zambia and South Africa is also of a very similar type.

English is a language which has more non-native speakers than native speakers. The non-native speakers can be divided into two types. First, there are speakers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) who learn English as a tool of international communication.

People in Germany, Japan, or Morocco who have learnt English will normally expect to use it in interaction with people from other countries. Second, there are speakers of English as a Second Language (ESL). These are to be found in the nations where English is used as an official language, or as a language of education, by people who are not native speakers. There are many such countries in the world.

In Africa, there are large communities of native speakers of English in Liberia, South Africa, Zimbabwe and Kenya, but there are even larger communities in these countries of second language speakers. Elsewhere in Africa, English has official status, and is therefore widely used as a second language lingua franca in Ghana, Nigeria, Cameroon, Zambia and Uganda. It is also extremely widely used in education and for governmental purposes in Tanzania and Kenya.

In the Indian Ocean, Asian, and Pacific Ocean areas, English is an official language in Singapore, Hong Kong, the

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Philippines, and somewhere else in American-administered place. It is also very widely used as a second language in Malaysia, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka.

In many of these areas, English has become or is becoming indigenized. This means that the second language varieties of English, as a result of frequent use, have acquired relatively consistent, local norms of usage which are agreed by all speakers.

Gao Yihong, Xu Hongchen (2014) published a paper about the research of the attitude to English varieties during international games. Pan Zhangxian (2002), Hu Xiaoli (2008) and Zou Hang (2015) concluded Chinese English Varieties.

These varieties of English may differ from the English of native speakers elsewhere in the world, mainly as a result of influence from local languages. Thus native speakers of English may sometimes have some difficulty in understanding the non-native varieties. But it is more important for native speakers to understand it. After all, Americans may find it is difficult to understand, but no one would seriously suggest that this is a reason for changing it. There are some West Africans believe that they are speaking Standard English, or at least aim at speaking it.

Obviously, for Africa themselves, the margin for tolerance of differences can be much greater. Equally as important, we believe that native English speakers travelling to areas such as Africa should make the effort to improve their understanding of the non-native variety of English.

There are some well-established second language varieties of English in African English. The focus of the paper is on varieties of Standard English, the kind of English written and spoken by educated English speakers in Africa.

C. English-based Pidgins

Human beings appear to be biologically programmed to learn languages in early ages: children up to the age of 3 or 4 learn their native language rapidly and perfectly, and without any overt guide. Adults, on the other hand, tend to be rather poor language learners and only in rare instances manage to learn foreign languages so well that they can speak them like native speakers.

Whenever someone other than a small child tries to learn another language, the processes which originate from this imperfect learning ability will always occur. In particular, in the speech of such adult language learners, the language will be somewhat simplified and mixed.

Simplification is a complex concept, but it can best be understood as involving regularization and loss of redundancy. Regularization, obviously, means treating irregular forms as if they were regular, such as when an English learner said "I eated" rather than "I ate".

Loss of redundancy often involves the omission of grammatical material which is repeated elsewhere or is not absolutely necessary for conveying the message intended, as when a learner of English says she want rather than she wants. The grammatical category of third-person singular is conveyed only by the pronoun she rather than by the pronoun and the -s ending on the verb.

Mixing is a term which refers to the way in which language learners introduce elements from their own language into the target language. For example, a French-speaking learner of English may have a French accent in their English and may also use some French grammatical constructions and idioms.

Generally, compared to the language of native-speakers, adult learners' language will also be reduced. Because they do not know so much of the language, and because they use it for a restricted range of purposes, they will use fewer words, fewer grammatical constructions and fewer idiomatic devices.

When a language experiences such simplification, mixture and reduction, we can say that it has been subjected to the process of pidginization. When language learning takes place after an extended period pidginization will tend to be slight in a classroom.

Otherwise, if contact with the foreign language is minimal and short-lived, and the language is learned without formal guide, then pidginization may be extreme. In certain special social situations, it can happen that an extremely simplified, reduced and mixed form of language of this type comes to be useful as a means of communication among groups of people who have no native language in common. It may develop into a fixed form with norms that are shared by a large number of speakers which can subsequently be passed on to and learned by others. A language like this is referred to a pidgin. Todd (1984) discussed Pidgins and Creoles.

A development of this type occurred in West Africa, as a result of early colonization, Africanized, reduced form of English, acquired from limited contacts within traders and sailor, became useful as a lingua franca among different groups of the indigenous population. It then developed into the pidgin language that we call West African Pidgin English today. Until now, West African Pidgin English is widely used as a trading language along the coast of Africa from Gambia to Cameroon and Equatorial Guinea.

Compared with Standard English, this language is mixed-there are elements in its pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary which are due to indigenous African languages.

West African Pidgin English is a language with norms and grammatical rules that speakers have to learn in order to speak and understand the language correctly. Other well-known English-based pidgins are found in the South Pacific. Tok Pisin in Papua New Guinea, Bislama in Vanuatu and Solomon Islands Pidgin are closely related, and all are official languages in their respective countries.

D. *English-based Creoles*

Under certain social circumstances, a pidgin language uses as a trading language or lingua franca. Indeed, in some cases it can become the most important or even sole language of a community and be passed on to the next generation of children, later it will be their native language. When a pidgin language takes on a full range of social functions in this way and acquires native speakers, it is known as a creole. Like a pidgin, a creole is still relative to its source language, simplified and mixed. It is no longer reduced. Because the language now has to be used for all the purposes a native speaker needs to use a language for, the reduction that took place during pidginization has to be repaired by a process of expansion.

This expansion process is known technically as creolization. During creolization, vocabulary is developed and expanded, grammatical devices and categories are added to, and the language acquires a wide range of styles. Creole languages are thus perfectly normal languages although their histories are interesting and unusual, and are just as adequate means of communication and expression as any other language.

There are many English-based creoles in the world, and the number is growing: Tok Pisin, Bislama and Solomon Islands Pidgin are all currently going through the creolization process, as is West African Pidgin English, particularly in Nigeria and Cameroon. Presumably a majority of English-based creoles are spoken in the Atlantic Ocean area, which is a result of the slave-trade. As slaves from many different African ethnic groups were assembled on the coast of West Africa and transported to the Americas, they discovered, in their multilingual situation, that English-based pidgin varieties were an important means of communication, and in many parts of the Western Hemisphere, creole languages developed as a result of this need.

For example, an English-based creoles are spoken is Surinam, in South America. Sranan, although historically related to English, is now a separate language.

II. AFRICAN ENGLISH VARIETIES

A. *South African English*

There are about 45 million people in South Africa. The African majority, about 70 percent of the population, speak Bantu languages such as Zulu, Xhosa, Sotho and Tswana. About 20 percent of the population speak Afrikaans, a language of European origin related to Dutch, and a small percentage speak languages of Indian origin. The surviving indigenous languages of the area, the Khoisan languages, are in a stronger position in neighboring Nambia and Botswana than they are in South Africa. Lanham (1967) concluded the pronunciation of South African English.

English has had significant numbers of speakers in South Africa since the 1820s thcolored mixed race and Indian-origin speakers.

English is also widely spoken as a second language. Forms of English which closely resemble South Africa English are also spoken natively in Zimbabwe, as well as by relatively small groups of whites in Namibia, Kenya and Zambia.

In what follows we pay our attention to the English of native speakers in South Africa.

1.1 South African English grammar and usage

There are some grammatical differences between South African English and Standard English.

1. A common use of the response question is it?, invariable for person, tense or auxiliary, which corresponds to the complex forms do they, can't he, shouldn't we, will you, etc. used in other varieties:

He's gone to cinema.-Oh, is it?

2. It is common to delete object noun phrases (NPs) after verbs which must have NPs in other varieties, e.g.:

Have you sent?

Have you got?

Did you put?

In the above sentences, the objects are all omitted.

3. Complement structures of adjective + infinitive occur where other varieties have adjective + of+ participle:

This plastic is capable to withstand heat. =This plastic is capable of withstanding heat.

4. Non-negative no occurs as an introductory particle:

How are you?

No, I'm fine, thanks.

The force of this is often to negate assumptions made in the preceding question or comment. Here "no" is not the usual meaning.

1.2 South African English lexis

There are some vocabularies originating from South African local languages. The better-known borrowings are:

from Zulu:

indaba means "conference"

from Afrikaans:

kraal means "African village"

dorp means " village".

Things are similar in different parts of Africa.

B.   West African English

West African English is spoken by non-native speakers of English in Ghana, Nigeria, Liberia and Cameroon.

2.1 West African English grammar

West African English varies greatly from place to place: some of the forms occur in Nigeria, but not in Ghana or vice versa.

It also varies very much according to the education of the speaker and the form of the situation. Some forms given here are not used in writing. Where the grammar of West African English differs from that of other varieties of English, this is often because of the influence from local languages. This influence is most marked in less educated and informal styles.

Typical West African English grammatical forms include the following:

1. Pluralization of non-count nouns:

I like all my furnitures.

2. Omission of articles:

I am going to office.

3. The use of resumptive pronouns in some colloquial styles of English:

My sister, she's crazy.

or in relative clauses in a non-English manner:

The guests whom I invited them have arrived.

4. Formation of comparative clauses without using the comparative form of the adjective:

It is the youths who are skillful than the adults.

5. Absence of infinitival to after some verbs:

They ordered him do it.

6. No distinction between the reflexive pronoun themselves and the reciprocal pronoun each other:

"The like themselves" means "They like each other".

7. The use of a universal tag question-is it?:

We should go now, is it?

She has gone home, is it?

8. A non-English use of yes and no in answering questions:

Hasn't he come back yet?

Yes= He hasn't come back yet

No= He has come back

9. The use of progressive aspect with have while expressing a temporary state:

I am having a cold.

2.2 West African English lexis

Some differences in vocabulary between West African English and other varieties of English involve extensions or alterations to the semantic or grammatical function of English words. Others reflect usages of equivalent words from local languages, while still others are innovations. The list below gives a few examples by way of illustration. For example:

To bluff also means "to dress fashionably" or "to show off".

Guy means "an outgoing, self-assured young man".

Hot drink means "alcoholic spirits, liquor".

To take in also means "to become pregnant".

The difference may due to several things, including exposure to literary rather than colloquial English and the prestige of the written English.

C.   East African English

East African English is spoken as a second language in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda. The English spoken by Africans in Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe and South Africa is also of a very similar type.

Most of the local languages in most of the areas of eastern and southern Africa are members of the Bantu language family, while these have played an important role in influencing the nature of East African English.

There are many similarities between East African English and West African English. But there are still some differences.

A number of words from indigenous languages are used by East African English speakers even when speaking and writing English. These include the following:

askari means "policeman"

chai means "tea"

kibanda means "black market"

matatu means "taxi bus"

These words are all used in East African English because of the recognition of local people.

III. ANALYSIS OF KENYA AND TANZANIA CORPUS

Detailed research is carried out about Kenya and Tanzania corpus and a lot of discoveries are found out. Jamaica corpus is picked out as a comparative corpus for there are similarities while differences in their cultures. The corpus is ICE (International Corpus of English).

The target corpora are Kenya, Tanzania and Jamaica corpus. The top 20 vocabularies used in the corpus are listed. The vocabularies include nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbials.

It can be seen that in the topic of Kenya, the problem of women and children is concerned. House, money, school and work are also concerned. In the process of speaking, things about like or do not like is discussed a lot. The common verbs say, tell, order, let are also used a lot. About adjectives, the topic of Africa, nation and society are common topics. The adjectives only, good, new and kind such positive words are used a lot. In the usage of adverbial, also, very, even, still and never are used a lot to describe a verb.

FIGURE1 KENYA

	noun	verb	adjective	adverbial
1	name	know	very	also
2	people	said	more	then
3	time	like	only	very
4	Kenya	think	most	just
5	women	see	well	more
6	government	make	same	only
7	children	told	much	even
8	development	order	another	most
9	country	made	good	well
10	language	let	right	over
11	day	tell	new	much
12	man	need	African	still
13	minister	give	national	right
14	education	find	last	really
15	house	look	kind	last
16	school	came	social	never
17	case	point	long	maybe
18	money	mean	different	down
19	work	done	down	without
20	world	put	public	within

It can be seen that in the topic of Tanzania, the problem of women and children are also concerned. Time, education and health are also concerned. Salaam is a special word here, showing their culture. In the process of speaking, things about like or do not like is also discussed a lot. The common verbs say, see, call, tell are also used a lot. Order, support and control are also used a lot. About adjectives, the topic of economics, nation and policy are common topics. The adjectives only, most, same and high such positive words are used a lot. In the usage of adverbial, very, much, without and within are used a lot to describe a verb. Especially, really and actually are often used.

FIGURE2 TANZANIA

	noun	verb	adjective	adverbial
1	people	said	very	very
2	Tanzania	like	only	only
3	government	know	well	well
4	name	say	most	most
5	development	use	national	much
6	country	take	economic	still
7	time	see	African	without
8	women	need	political	right
9	year	come	social	within
10	education	order	much	again
11	case	mean	international	back
12	language	found	same	especially
13	Africa	support	given	really
14	years	control	united	actually
15	areas	done	local	maybe
16	problems	called	high	already
17	children	find	general	down
18	health	told	public	off
19	number	want	last	too
20	salaam	give	foreign	together

It can be seen that in the topic of Jamaica, the problem of students and man are concerned. Time, work and university are also concerned. Laugh is used a lot. In the process of speaking, things about like or do not like is also discussed a lot. The common verbs say, see, go, tell are also used a lot. Think, mention and let are also used a lot. The adjectives unclear,

bold, only and both such words are used a lot. In the usage of adverbial, very, much, well and within are used a lot to describe a verb. Really, never and actually are often used.

FIGURE3 JAMAICA

	noun	verb	adjective	adverbial
1	people	quote	unclear	well
2	time	know	bold	right
3	Jamaica	like	well	more
4	words	Think	right	very
5	work	go	more	really
6	students	say	very	back
7	way	see	only	only
8	year	come	much	even
9	man	want	new	much
10	thing	work	most	down
11	university	mention	many	most
12	years	laughs	long	many
13	mean	make	little	still
14	education	take	last	too
15	school	tell	same	off
16	things	use	another	last
17	government	look	different	never
18	day	let	each	alright
19	fact	point	both	actually
20	water	find	alright	within

Because the numbers of each corpus is different, the numbers are listed in figure4.

FIGURE4

	Kenya	Tanzania	Jamaica
types	28350	25401	32849
tokens	813652	627767	1548596

After checking the numbers, bar chart is used to show the features of the usage. Then another tool log-likelihood ratio calculator is used to analyze the characteristics of the varieties.

Of all the words listed, some special ones are picked out to do further analysis in bar chart.

First, some nouns are picked out and the frequencies are listed in figure5. Because the number of Jamaica corpus is almost the total number of Kenya corpus and Tanzania corpus, the obvious difference can be easily observed in bar chart. And the result can be put into log-likelihood ratio calculator to test.

FIGURE5

	Kenya	Tanzania	Jamaica
women	1088	779	327
children	917	471	527
men	418	167	443
school	556	383	873
education	574	625	876
language	688	522	575
money	591	235	477
health	355	467	184
work	590	441	1136
water	409	290	632
salaam	4	457	0

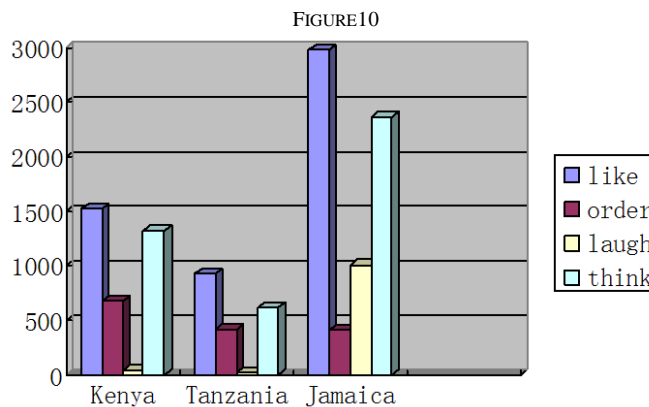FIGURE6

FIGURE7

FIGURE8
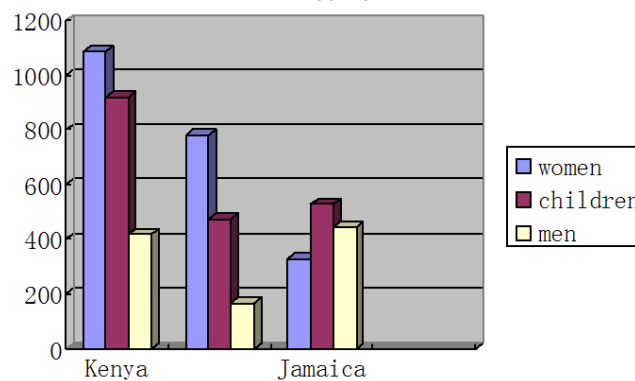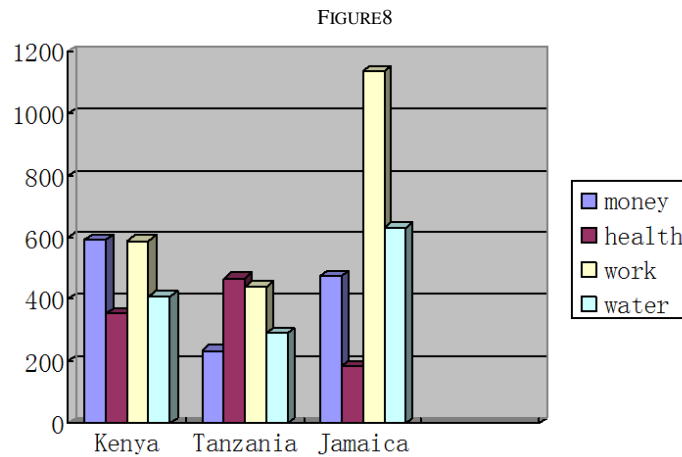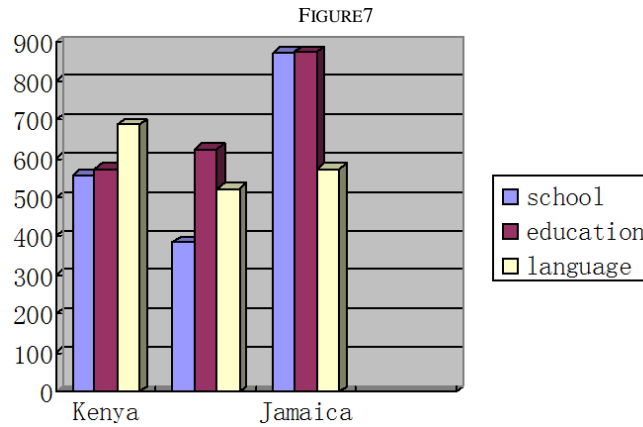
Three bar charts are made to show the usage of nouns. It can be seen that the problem of women and children are cared a lot more in Kenya and Tanzania than in Jamaica. The topics of school and education are similar. Language is cared about in Kenya and Tanzania. The problem of work and water are similarly cared about, while money and health problems are cared about in Africa a lot more than in Jamaica. Especially health problem is cared about in Tanzania. The difference between each topic is substantial. Salaam is a word used in Tanzania to show politeness.

FIGURE9

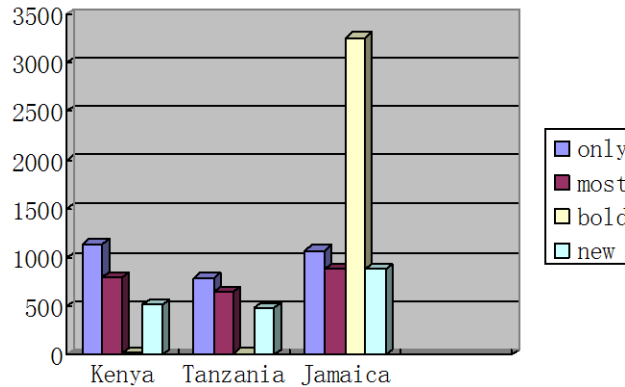|	Kenya	Tanzania	Jamaica
like	1518	924	2985
order	670	413	402
laugh	41	22	1009
think	1321	618	2361

FIGURE10

Some verbs are picked out to make comparisons. Every form of a certain verb is listed and the numbers are summed up in figure9. Obviously, the use of like is similar while the use of order in Kenya and Tanzania English are a lot more than in Jamaica English. The use of think is similar, while the use of laugh in Jamaica is a lot more than in Kenya and Tanzania English. It shows that comparatively people in South Africa are happier than people in Africa.

FIGURE11

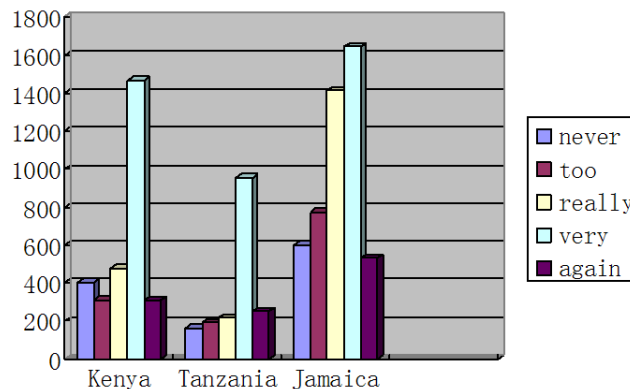|	Kenya	Tanzania	Jamaica
only	1134	785	1070
most	800	641	876
bold	12	7	3260
new	514	485	881

FIGURE12

Some adjectives are picked out to make comparisons. It shows that only and most are used a lot more in Kenya and Tanzania English than in Jamaica English. Bold is quite special that used a lot in Jamaica English while not usually used in Africa. The difference in the usage of new is not substantial.

FIGURE13

	Kenya	Tanzania	Jamaica
never	399	162	597
too	310	190	770
really	475	216	1411
very	1462	956	1642
again	306	249	528

FIGURE14

Some adverbials are picked out to make comparisons. It shows that there are no substantial differences in the usage of "never, too and again". Really is used a lot more in Jamaica English than in Kenya and Tanzania English, while very is used a lot more in Kenya and Tanzania English than in Jamaica English. That shows Africans like to use very to show stress while Jamaica people would like to use really to show it.

According to all the differences of the above, we can conclude that there are some similarities in the usage of words in Kenya and Tanzania English, while they are different from English of other places and sometimes the difference is substantial. So we can draw the conclusion that English varieties are somewhat influenced by their mother tongue and culture. That is consistent to the hypothesis.

IV. CONCLUSION

African English has its different characteristics and different country also has different features in the varieties. That may somewhat depend on the history, culture and daily life of local people.

It is obvious that corpus-based approach also has its limitations. In the future, studies should be carried out not only with corpus-based description but also with sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic data. There is still a wide scope for further research. Grammar, lexicology, phonetics and many other aspects should be paid attention to in further research.

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Assessing and Validating a Writing Strategy Scale for Undergraduate Students

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Abstract—**Little research has been conducted to develop and validate a scale to measure L2 writing strategies. The purpose of this study was to validate a writing strategy questionnaire for English as a Second language (ESL) learners. The validation process involved both qualitative and quantitative methods. First, in the item construction stage, 30 items were constructed through a process that involved both L2 writing experts' comments and undergraduate students' interviews. Then, in the statistical analysis stage, the prepared thirty-item questionnaire was administered to 322 undergraduate students who were non-native speakers of English. The data was analyzed using Principal Component Analysis. The results showed that the writing strategies used by non-native learners of English cluster into five categories: metacognitive, cognitive, metacognitive, affective effort regulation and social strategies. Limitations of the study and directions for future research are indicated.**

Index Terms—**validation – writing strategy scale, ESL learners, L2 writing**

I. INTRODUCTION

Strategies matters for the development of L2 writing. Investigating strategies is a main focus of many studies in the area of L2 writing. There has been a rapidly growing body of research into L2 writing strategies over the past a few decades (Arndt 1987; Chien, 2012; Mu, 2005; Raimes 1985; Sasaki, 2002, 2011; Victori 1999). Although there are many factors other than writing strategies affecting L2 writing development, writing strategies appear to be particularly important because many researchers have reported that writing strategies can distinguish less skilled writers from more skilled ones (Raimes 1985(Raimes, 1985); Sasaki, 2000, 2002, Victori 1999). As writing is normally needed for reports, papers and academic presentations and so on at educational settings such as universities and colleges, the importance of strategies for the development of L2 writing gains increasing attention in such educational settings.

Writing is difficult and challenging because it involves both language knowledge and content knowledge (Bialystok, 1978; Makalela, 2004; Nunan 1989). For students who write in a second language or who are unfamiliar with the content area of writing, writing becomes much more difficult and demands a more focused endeavor (Tedick, 1990). It has been generally accepted that since students write in a language other than their first language, their writing have many issues associated with coherence, cohesion, grammar and word choice. In addition, lack of exposure to L1 writing experiences poses problems for learners in their L2 writing endeavors. Having such awareness is conducive to the development of L2 writing ability as there is a close link between L1and L2 writing ability (Cumming, 1989; Schoonen et al., 2003; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). It is reasonable to assume that L1 writing ability play an important role in the L2 writing development, especially when L1 writing strategies share some communalities with the strategies used in L2 writing activities. As such, for L2 learners, besides having to cope with subject knowledge, they need to develop a good command of language. L2 writing becomes extremely complicated for students who have a poor command of second language. (Beckett et al., 2004). Indeed, as far the complexity of writing is concerned, students need to manage skillful coordination of various linguistic and cognitive resources required in the writing processes (Hayes, 1996; Kellogg, 1996).

In the area of SLA, L2 writing research is rapidly expanding. The growing interest in L2 writing particularly English may result from the importance of writing in academic settings because writing in world-valued languages allows the students and scholars to place their thoughts and research findings in an international outlet. In addition, the dramatic increase in the number of universities using globally used languages as the medium of instruction has given an impetus to further research developments in the area of L2 writing (Petrić & Czárl, 2003).

Despite the rapidly increasing body of research addressing different aspects of L2 writing, little research has focused on L2 writing strategies. Furthermore, although validation of measurements for collecting data is an enormously important and essential phase in a research process, it is often inadequately or briefly reported in SLA research. In this study, a research instrument was created to measure ESL writing strategies of university students. The instrument would allow scholars and researchers from SLA and composition studies to compare findings about writing strategy use in different contexts. Both quantitative data and qualitative data were used to validate the scale of writing strategy use.

In this study, writing strategies referred to the techniques and operations that students employ to write more effectively or to produce better writings. This is in congruence with the definitions of language learning strategies proposed by Oxford (1989, 1990) and Cohen (1998). Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) has been widely used to measure language learning strategies in the L2 research. However, this scale measures strategies used in generic language learning rather than those employed in a specific language domain. Although, there are some specially- designed scales for L2 writing strategies (He 2005, Petrić & Czárl, 2003), these scales have some limitations. For example, He's (2005) L2 writing strategy scale was designed only based on evidence from think aloud interview, and no quantitative data was used to validate the scale. Unlike He (2005), Petrić and Czárl (2003) used both qualitative and qualitative approaches in validating the scale, but one of the limitations of the scale is that it has classified writing strategies into three broad categories rather than more specific classification. Another limitation of the Petrić and Czárl's (2003) scale is that the writing strategies have not been classified based on the type of writing strategy, instead they have been categorized according to the writing processing stages namely pre-writing, during writing and post-writing strategies. In the current study, the categorization of the items is based on an empirical approach that involves principal component analysis. This method is able to cluster the writing strategies by assessing the correlations among them.

II. CONSTRUCTION OF THE SCALE

Writing strategy items were drawn from a writing strategy questionnaire developed by Petrić and Czárl (2003), He's (2005) writing strategy questionnaire, Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, and Pintrich et al.'s (1993) Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). Modifications were made to items in order to specifically focus on ESL writing strategies.

The items were primarily adapted from He's (2005) writing strategy questionnaire which contained 20 items in five subscales: retrieving (memory), compensating, evaluation (monitoring), planning and revising. He (2005) developed and identified 20 different strategies used by learners when writing in L2 by focusing on the data collected through stimulated recalls, think aloud protocols, interviews and the observation of students' activities and behavior during their writing. Indeed, a majority of the items clustered into the metacognitive category asking students about how they plan, monitor and revise their writing. On the whole, 12 items, mostly on metacognitive strategies, were adapted from He's (2005) writing strategy survey. Sample strategies include" *When I write in English I organize my ideas prior to writing*" and "*When I write in English I have my teacher, classmates or other readers in mind as an audience*".

The items were also taken from Petrić and Czárl's (2003) writing questionnaire. This questionnaire consisted of 48 items about L2 writing process divided into three sections corresponding to three stages in writing: pre-writing stage (before starting writing) comprising 8 items, drafting stage (when writing draft) consisting of 14 items and revising stage (post-draft writing) encompassing 16 items. The items assess learners' strategy use in their writing process on a five –point Likert scale with 1 representing *never or almost never true of me* and 5 indicating *always or almost always true of me*. Although, most of the items of the all subscales of the questionnaire are intended to tap into different types of metacognitive strategies such as planning, monitoring, revising and evaluation, the questionnaire includes some items assessing other strategies including social, affective, compensatory and cognitive strategies. *"After revising and editing my essay thoroughly, I ask a friend or my classmate to read and comment on it"* and *"I evaluate and re-evaluate the ideas in my essay"* were derived from Petrić and Czárl's (2003) writing strategy scale.

SILL is one of the most reliable measures for strategy use in the field of second language learning. It contains 50 items classified into six subscales: three in direct and three direct strategies namely affective, social, metacognitive, cognitive, memory and compensation strategies. The SILL items are rated on a five-point Likert scale from1 (Never true of me) to 5 (Always true of me). The reliability of the whole scale of SILL indicated by Cronbach alpha coefficient has been reported to range from .91 to .94 (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). It is a strongly reliable scale and is largely employed in the area of language learning. However, it needs to be adapted when it is intended to be used for measuring a specific language domain.

Grainger (2005) recommended that SILL need to be adapted appropriately to suit specific second and foreign language contexts. Grainger also (2005) stated that only 13 out of 80 items of the original SILL are related to writing, and argued that since SILL is not task based, some items can be interpreted in different ways. In addition to the items drawn from the scales specifically designed for writing, several items were drawn from SILL. Items derived from SILL were mainly concerned with affective strategies and they were modified so that they reflect L2 writing strategies other than strategies employed in other language domains (e.g. **"*I encourage myself to write even when I am afraid of making mistakes*"**).

Effort regulation strategies were adapted from the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) ((Pintrich et al. 1993). The description of the MSLQ survey had been presented above. In this study, 5 items from the MSLQ assessing effort regulation strategies were added to the writing strategy questionnaire in order to evaluate how students' regulate their effort strategies in writing and to what extent they exert regulation on their effort for L2 writing skills. Effort regulation strategies consist of 5 items asking students whether they maintain their effort and concentration when they encounter uninteresting tasks. In this study, effort regulation strategies focus on how L2 learners, maintain their concentration and effort for the development of ESL writing skill, especially when the tasks are dull and uninteresting for them. Examples of effort regulation strategies include *"I often work hard to do well in my writing even if I don't like English writing tasks"* and *"I put in my best effort in completing writing tasks"*.

All the items pertaining to writing strategies were prefaced with the phrase (heading) *When I write in English* and respondents rated their usage of strategies by selecting a choice on a five-point Likert scale from *never or almost never true of me* to *always or almost always true of me*. These items were intended to evaluate ESL writing strategies rather than general language learning strategies. After the strategy items were selected and modified, they were sent to the other experts for final review, comments and critique. The scale was verified by expert researchers with specialization in L2 education with two of them having more than 25 years of experience in second language teaching. They reviewed the items and provided comments and feedback on the scale, regarding its relevance to the writing strategies and its congruence with the tenets of L2 learning. The items were modified based on their feedback and recommendations; some words and phrases were singled out as they were perceived to be ambiguous or difficult for the participants and hence replaced with more appropriate words.

Next, eight students were invited for the cognitive interview in order to know to what extent their interpretation and understanding of the items was in line with writing strategy construct, Furthermore, the cognitive interview was carried out to address the problems associated with the comprehension of the items. These students were asked to explain the meaning of the items and mark the items perceived as problematic, confusing, or unclear. Moreover, the students were prompted to explain the response they chose for the items. Minor modifications such as providing more details and more clarity were also made to the scale after getting feedback from the cognitive interviews.

After cognitive interviews and expert review, the scale was pilot-administered in order to examine its reliability, assess respondents' understanding of the items, evaluate respondents' comprehension of the instructions and prompts, and identify and sort out issues associated with its feasibility. The participants for the pilot study were 48 students studying in the Environmental Health and Biomedical Science program from the Faculty of Medicine at a Malaysian national university. The analysis of the pilot results revealed that the scale had a good reliability Cronbach's α = .91) to permit employing as a writing strategy measure. Overall, the writing strategy scale in this study contained 30 items in different categories as follow: metacognitive strategies (planning, monitoring and revising), cognitive, retrieving (memory), compensation, affective, social and effort regulation. Appendix A shows all of the items and the prompts of the writing strategy scale used in this study. Finally, the scale was tested with 322 undergraduate students to validate the scale. The items were given to students in both Malay and English as there is a need for a bilingual version especially for those students who had low English proficiency level.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Three hundred and twenty eight university students majoring in different fields of study participated in the present study. The participants were all from Malaysia representing three different languages, Malay, Chinese and Tamil. Malay was the first language of the overwhelming majority of the participants (73%). Chinese and Tamil speakers comprise 20% and 9% of the sample respectively. The age of the participants ranged from 19 to 22. The sample of the study was dominated by females and this is representing gender ratio in Malaysian tertiary education as females dominate in Malaysian public universities.

B. Data Analysis

After testing the reliability of the questionnaire, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted to check the construct validity of the scales. PCA is used to detect the latent variables by assessing the correlations among them. It is a multivariate statistical technique which is widely used for identifying dimensionality and extracting underlying latent components. PCA reduces the items and variables to basic or principal components underlying a construct. It provides clear description and better understanding of complex constructs by identifying their components. Furthermore, PCA is one of the most frequently used methods for extracting factors in social sciences and, it is psychometrically clear and sound (Steven, 2009).

In the current study, Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed with 30 writing strategy items on 322 questionnaires to determine (a) the validity of the writing strategy questionnaire, (b) the appropriate number of reliable factors in the data, (c) the characteristics and loading patterns of the factors and (e) and the size of the variance explained by the factors. PCA is computed based on the correlations among variables and the method becomes less reliable when it is administered with small samples. Hence a relatively large sample size is required for PCA. According to guidelines suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) and Comrey and Lee (1992), 322 cases can be

considered as a good sample size for PCA as they class 300 and 500 cases as good and very good sample sizes respectively.

IV. Results and Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to validate a writing strategy scale that can be used for future writing research in the area of second/ foreign language learning. The study used both qualitative and quantitative methods for evaluating the scale. In the first phase, the items were constructed and developed through a process that considered both experts comments and students' interviews, in the second phase, the students' responses to the items were analysed using PCR.

Before conducting PCA, the normality and linearity of the data was checked because the use of PCA is more suitable when the data is normally distributed and items are correlated. The distributions of all the variables were assessed using Kurtosis and Skeweness measures. It was found that all of the items of each scale were within the acceptable range of normality (Skewness of the items ranging from .05 to .44) and all of them had reasonable and acceptable Kurtosis. The items had positive Kurtosis smaller than one (ranging from .01 to .61). Furthermore, a sample size above 200 is considered as a large sample (Field, 2009) and with that sample size, minor amounts of variance associated with Kurtosis and skewness would fade away.

Overall, data was normally distributed. It was also found that the variables were not multicollinar, that is, the variables were not highly (r =.90 or above) correlated. Strong correlation between two variables (r =.90 or above) suggest that the two variables are about the same construct rather than two distinct ones. Since the matrix inversion is not required in PCA, the multicollinarity among the variables was checked before conducting PCA. Investigation of the correlations between the variables revealed no multicolliniarity issue.. The first PCA was run on the five-point likert scale writing strategy scale.

The type of rotation is an important factor in conducting PCA. There are two rotations used in PCA: oblique and orthogonal. Oblique rotation is generally used when there is a correlation exceeding .32 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) among the factors while orthogonal rotation is employed when it is believed that the factors are not correlated. In this study, the orthogonal rotation was used for writing strategy items because most of the factors were not correlated as high as .32. Furthermore, the extracted factors would be used as either independent variables (IVs) or mediators in the analyses, and an increasing orthogonality of IVs was desirable. Among the different types of orthogonal rotations, varimax, the most frequently used type of rotation, was chosen for writing strategies. This technique makes clear patterns of factor loadings, and provides a simple structure in determining each item has a high loading on one factor or low loadings on the other factors.

A principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted on a 30-item writing strategy scale to derive the underlying factors and to assess the internal structure. Prior to carrying out PCA, two statistical techniques, namely Kaiser–Meyes–Oklin (KMO), and Barlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) were used to assess the factorability of the writing strategy data. The KMO value was .89 considerably above the recommended value of sampling adequacy (0.6) and BTS was statistically significant (χ^2 (435) = 3836.09, p < .05), supporting the appropriateness of writing strategy data for exploratory factor analysis. In an initial run, a PCA with varimax rotation was performed. The initial analysis showed seven factors with eigenvalues higher than 1.00 (a commonly used criteria in factor analysis).

The results revealed that 7 factors had an eigenvalue greater than 1.00, with a range from 1.02 to 8.52, while 22 factors fell below Kaiser' criterion eigenvalue of 1.00, with values ranging from .93 to .22. The seven factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 accounted for 60.26% of the total variance extracted by all of the 30 items (see Appendix B). All of the 30 items had a communality value greater than .40 and hence no items were removed. It is worth mentioning that the first five factors represented approximately 53% of the total variance. There are several criteria and parameters employed to determine the appropriate number of factors (components) in factor analysis. The commonly used methods for factor retention are parallel analysis and scree plot. In this study, based on scree plot (See Appendix C), Kaiser' criterion eigenvalue, interpretability of the components, and variance extracted by the factors, it was decided to extract five factors.

In the subsequent analysis, PCA with varimax rotation was performed with fixed five factors. Factor loading values that exceed .32 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) are considered as good loadings in the interpretation of the components. In this study, only factor loading values greater than .45 were chosen for the interpretation of the factors because loading values at <.45 (below .45) yielded confusing items which loaded on two components. That is, for factor loading values at <.45 (below .45), several items had moderate loadings on two components rather that one single strong loading on one component. Any item that had a loading value less than .45 was dropped. Consequently, 4 items (*When I write in English … 1. I have my teacher, classmates or other readers in mind as an audience, 2. I write down my feelings about writing in a language learning diary, 3. I translate my thoughts from my mother tongue into English, and 4. I put in my best effort in completing writing tasks*) were removed.

After the five factor solution, the 30-item writing strategy scale was refined into 26-item scale (see Appendix D). The reliability of the scale after removing the four complex items using Cronbach's alpha was 0.90. The results of PCA revealed that the five factors explained 52.74% of the total variance. Table 1 shows the writing strategy scale items according to the extracted factor (five components). Factor 1 received high loadings from 8 items and accounted for

9.07% of the total variance, all of the items were concerned with metacognitive awareness and metacognition strategies. Therefore factor one was labeled as metacognitive strategies.

Factor two obtained meaningful and high loadings for five items. Four items that loaded on this factor were previously assumed to be indicative of effort regulation strategies. An item that was thought to be indicative of cognitive strategy loaded on factor 2. A close examination of the item *(I write a lot to develop my writing skills)* showed that the communality of the item might reflect the effort strategy. Thus, factor two was referred to as effort regulation strategies of writing. Six items loaded on factor three. All of the six items were closely associated with direct writing strategies. These items mainly concerned the strategies learners use in manipulating the language materials in direct ways such as practicing, synthesizing, and activating knowledge. These items loaded on this factor were related to cognitive strategies, and hence the construct underlying this factor was described as cognitive strategies.

Factor four was composed of four items, all of which were related to help-seeking strategies that learners use for their writing development. The items were designed to assess how students seek help from others in performing a writing task. All of the four items loaded heavily on factor 4. Given the characteristic of the items, factor 4 was labeled as social writing strategies. The fifth factor had a high loading for three items. These items reflected the regulation of motivation and emotional states. The items that loaded on factor five described student writers' strategies for self-encouragement and anxiety-reduction and hence this factor five was termed as affective writing strategies.

The results of the study showed that the writing strategies used by non-native learners of English cluster into five categories which are clearly distinguished from each other. The results from qualitative and quantitative analyses showed that the participants reported employing 26 distinctive writing strategies. This result implies that L2 learners apply different tactics and techniques in order to overcome the challenges and problems they face when they write in a language other than their mother tongue. As displayed in Appendix D, the strategies that the participants reported using in their ESL writing consist of five categories namely, metacognitive, effort regulation, cognitive, social and affective strategies.

Combining qualitative techniques with quantitative data helped to gain a better understanding of the strategies used by ESL university students in their writing endeavors. In this study, the qualitative data collected from SLA experts as well as students' interviews was very instrumental in ensuring the initial validity of the items. The quantitative data collected from a large sample was also needed not only to further assess the validity of the items but also to stymie the threats to the reliability of the scale. During the construction procedure of the items, the student interviews helped to identify the confusing items and to modify the items which interviewees perceive as unclear or ambiguous. However, it is noteworthy to mention that self-report instruments including both interview and questionnaire have some limitations as the validity of the self-report data mainly relies on the participants' honesty. One of the main limitation with self-report data is that individuals tend to give socially acceptable responses, and thus provide desirable answers to show a good picture themselves (Hakkarainen et al., 2001; Rosenfeld et al., 1996).

Another factor that seems to affect the validity of the scale is the context of learning. In this study, the participants reported using a variety of strategies, but their responses may differ depending on the type of writing tasks and the context of learning. It can also be assumed that the strategies which they reported may not be indicative of their actual use of writing strategies under different circumstances. Therefore, a question may be posed as to how useful and valid the results of a writing strategy scale for the writing classroom if participants were to answer differently in different learning contexts. It seems reasonable to assume that respondents in the foreign language context may use writing strategies that are different from those employed by learners in second language learning contexts. As a result, interpretation of the findings may be different because of the students being in different learning contexts.

In this study, stringent techniques such as cognitive interviws, during the item construction phase, were used in order to identify lexical issues and misinterpretation of the item meaning. However there are many uncontrollable factors that may have affected the way the students responded to the questionnaire items. Thus, the validity and reliablity of the scale may have been negatively affected. Some of the factors affecting the validity of the data can be controlled by rewording, using parrallel forms and pilot-testing, wheras some others can not be adequetly controlled. Issues associated with idiosyncratic perspective of the respondents towards the items, and issues concerning responsents' experiences and reasons for selecting a particlular writing strategy can not be fully approached. Culture, attitudes, percieved task difficullty (Petrić and Czárl (2003), the adequate number of the items (Phakiti, 2003), and learning context (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2005) all affect the validity of a questionnaire. although some of these issues seem to be the inherent limitations of scale items, perhaps in future research, more stringent techniques can be employed to develop, field test and validate writing statrgy scale items. Nevertheless, the validation process of writing strategies presents useful informantion about revealing various factors involved in writing strategy use, and also provides valuable insight into the complicated nature of L2 writing. The types and categories of writing strategies found in this study, shed light on how ESL university students do academic writing tasks, regardless of their motivational and cognitive differences.

APPENDIX A. WRITING STRATEGY SCALE

Please tick (√) the option chosen that best describes your writing experience. There are no right' or wrong' writing techniques; all that is required is that you give honest responses that best describe your personal writing experience or strategy use.

(Sila tanda (√) pada skala yang dapat memberikan penjelasan terbaik tentang pengalaman penulisan anda. Tiada jawapan 'betul atau salah' dalam teknik penulisan; anda hanya perlu jujur dalam memilih jawapan yang paling tepat yuntuk menerangkan pengalaman dan strategi penulisan anda.)

Never or Almost Never true of me	Generally Not True of Me	Somewhat True of Me	Generally True of Me	Always or Almost Always True of me
1	2	3	4	5
(Tidak atau hampir tidak)	*(Secara amnya tidak benar tentang saya)*	*(Hampir benar tentang saya)*	*(Secara amnya benar tentang saya)*	*(Selalu atau hampir selalu benar tentang saya)*

When I write in English …
(Apabila saya menulis dalam bahasa Inggeris…)

1. I organize my ideas prior to writing.
(Saya mengatur idea saya sebelum menulis.)

1   2   3   4   5

2. I have my teacher, classmates or other readers in mind as an audience.
(Guru, rakan sekelas saya dan pembaca yang lain berada dalam minda saya sebagai pembaca.)

1   2   3   4   5

3. I revise my writing to make sure that it includes everything I want to discuss in my writing.
(Saya menyemak penulisan saya dan memastikan bahawa saya telah memasukkan setiap perkara yang hendak saya bincangkan.)

1   2   3   4   5

4. I check my spelling.
(Saya menyemak ejaan saya.)

1   2   3   4   5

5. I check my writing to make sure it is grammatically correct.
(Saya menyemak penulisan saya untuk memastikan tiada kesilapan dari segi tatabahasa.)

1   2   3   4   5

6. I evaluate and reevaluate the ideas in my essay.
(Saya menilai berkali-kali idea dalam karangan saya.)

1   2   3   4   5

7. I write a lot to develop my writing skills.
(Saya menulis dengan banyak untuk mengukuhkan kemhiran penulisan saya.)

1   2   3   4   5

8. I monitor and evaluate my progress in writing.
(Saya memantau dan menilai kemahiran penulisan saya.)

1   2   3   4   5

9. I revise and edit an essay two or more times before I hand it in to my teacher.
(Saya menyemak dan membaiki karangan saya lebih daradai dua kali sebelum saya menghantarnya kepada guru saya.)

1   2   3   4   5

10. I use memorized grammatical elements such as singular and plural forms, verb tenses, prefixes and suffixes, etc. in my writing.
(Saya menggunakan unsur tatabahasa yang telah dihafal dalam penulisan saya, umpamanya bentuk tunggal dan jamak, kala kata kerja, imbuhan awalan dan akhiran, dalam sebagainya)

1   2   3   4   5

11. I put newly memorized vocabulary in my sentences.
(Saya menggunakan perkataan yang baharu sahaja saya hafal.)

1   2   3   4   5

12. In order to generate ideas for my writing, I usually engage myself in brainstorming.
(Untuk menjanakan idea bagi penulisan saya, saya biasanya akan melibatkan diri dalam aktiviti sumbang saran.)

1   2   3   4   5

13. I use different words that have the same meaning.
(Saya menggunakan perkataan yang berlainan tetapi mempunyai maksud sama.)

1   2   3   4   5

14. I use my experiences and knowledge in my writing.
(Saya menggunakan pengalaman dan pengetahuan saya dalam penulisan saya.)

1   2   3   4   5

15. I try to use effective linking words to ensure clear and logical relationship between sentences or paragraphs.

(Saya cuba menggunakan kata penghubung yang berkesan untuk memastikan hubung kait yang jelas dan logik antara ayat atau antara perenggan.)

1   2   3   4   5

16. I translate my thoughts from my mother tongue into English.

(Saya menterjemahkan pemikiran saya dari bahasa ibunda saya ke bahasa Inggeris.)

1   2   3   4   5

17. In order to generate ideas for my writing, I usually discuss the writing topic with a friend or classmate.

(Untuk menjanakan idea untuk penulisan saya, biasanya saya akan berbincang dengan kawan atau rakan sekelas saya.)

1   2   3   4   5

18. After revising and editing my essay thoroughly, I ask a friend or my classmate to read and comment on it.

(Selapas menyemak dan membaiki karangan saya sebaik mungkin, saya akan meminta seorang kawan atau rakan sekelas untuk membaca dan memberikan ulasan.)

1   2   3   4   5

19. I try to identify friends or classmates whom I can ask for help in my writing.

(Saya mengenal pasti kawan atau rakan sekelas yang saya boleh memndpatkan bantuan untuk penulisan saya.)

1   2   3   4   5

20. When I have trouble writing my essay, I try to do it with my classmates or friends.

(Apabila saya menghadapi masaalah dalam menulis kasangan saya, saya akan cuba menulis dengan bantuan rakan sekelas atau kawan kawan saya .)

1   2   3   4   5

21. I try to write an essay in class with confidence and ease.

(Saya menulis karangan dengan penuh keyakinan dan tanpa seberang kemusykilan.)

1   2   3   4   5

22. I write down my feelings about writing in a language learning diary.

(Saya menulis isi perasaan saya tentang penulisan dalam diari pembelajaran bahasa saya.)

1   2   3   4   5

23. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of writing.

(Saya menenangkan diri saya abapbila saya rasa takut untuk menulis)

1   2   3   4   5

24. I encourage myself to write even when I am afraid of making mistakes.

(Saya mendorong diri saya untuk menulis walaupun saya berasa takut untuk membuat kesilapan.)

1   2   3   4   5

25. I often work hard to do well in my writing even if I don't like English writing tasks.

(Saya selalunya berkerja keras untuk menulis dengan lebih baik walaupun saya tidak menyukai tugasan menulis dalam bahasa Inggeris.)

1   2   3   4   5

26. Even if the writing activities are difficult, I don't give up but try to engage in them.

(Walaupun aktiviti penulisan sangat susah, saya tetap tidak putus asa tetapi terus mencuba.)

1   2   3   4   5

27. I concentrate as hard as I can when doing a writing task.

(Saya memberikan tumpuan sepenuhnya apabila menyiapkan tugasan penulisan.)

1   2   3   4   5

28. I put in my best effort in completing writing tasks.

(Saya mencuba sedaya upaya untuk menyiapkantugasan penulisan.)

1   2   3   4   5

29. I spend a lot of time and energy on writing good English assignments.

(Saya meluangkan masa dan tenaga yang banyak untuk menyiapkan tugasan penulisan bahasa Inggeris saya)

1   2   3   4   5

30. I go through the following stages in my writing:

(Saya menggunakan tahap berikut untuk penulisan saya)

A) planning.

membuat perancangan

1   2   3   4   5

B) drafting.

mendraf

1   2   3   4   5

C) revising.

menyemak
1   **2**   **3**   **4**   **5**
D) editing.
mengedit
1   **2**   **3**   **4**   **5**

APPENDIX B. PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS WITH 30-ITEM WRITING STRATEGY SCALE

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.071	30.235	30.235	9.071	30.235	30.235	3.622	12.072	12.072
2	2.224	7.414	37.649	2.224	7.414	37.649	2.780	9.265	21.338
3	1.829	6.098	43.747	1.829	6.098	43.747	2.765	9.217	30.555
4	1.535	5.116	48.863	1.535	5.116	48.863	2.454	8.181	38.735
5	1.275	4.249	53.112	1.275	4.249	53.112	2.257	7.524	46.259
6	1.172	3.906	57.017	1.172	3.906	57.017	2.250	7.499	53.758
7	1.040	3.467	60.485	1.040	3.467	60.485	2.018	6.726	60.485
8	.991	3.304	63.788						
9	.868	2.892	66.680						
10	.813	2.709	69.389						
11	.766	2.554	71.943						
12	.728	2.425	74.368						
13	.701	2.338	76.706						
14	.689	2.298	79.004						
15	.594	1.980	80.984						
16	.580	1.932	82.917						
17	.567	1.889	84.806						
18	.511	1.702	86.508						
19	.484	1.614	88.121						
20	.461	1.538	89.659						
21	.425	1.417	91.077						
22	.409	1.365	92.442						
23	.376	1.252	93.693						
24	.367	1.224	94.917						
25	.321	1.069	95.986						
26	.298	.993	96.978						
27	.284	.948	97.926						
28	.248	.827	98.753						
29	.228	.761	99.514						
30	.146	.486	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

APPENDIX C. SCREE PLOT FOR WRITING STRATEGY SCALE
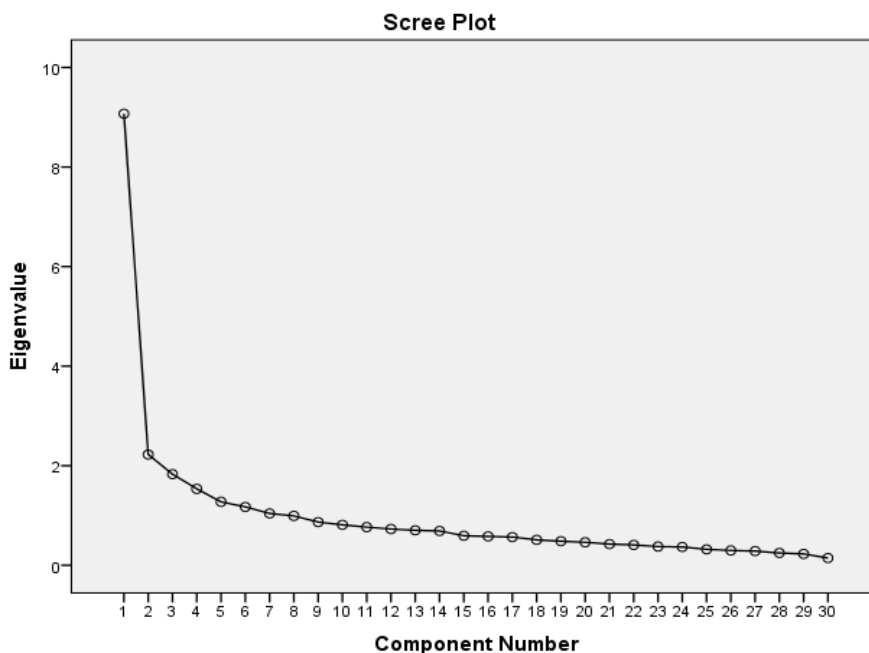
APPENDIX D. WRITING STRATEGY CATEGORIES

Metacognitive

When I write in English ...

1. I organize my ideas prior to writing.

2. I revise my writing to make sure that it includes everything I want to discuss in my writing.

3. I check my spelling.

4. I check my writing to make sure it is grammatically correct.

5. I evaluate and re-evaluate the ideas in my essay.

6. I monitor and evaluate my progress in writing.

7. I revise and edit an essay two or more times before I hand it in to my teacher.

8. I go through the planning, drafting, revising and editing stages in my writing.

Effort regulation

9. I write a lot to develop my writing skills.

10. I often work hard to do well in my writing even if I don't like English writing tasks.

11. Even if the writing activities are difficult, I don't give up but try to engage in them.

12. I concentrate as hard as I can when doing a writing task.

13. I spend a lot of time and energy on writing good English assignments.

Cognitive

14. I use memorized grammatical elements such as singular and plural forms, verb tenses, prefixes and suffixes, etc. in my writing.

15. I put newly memorized vocabulary in my sentences.

16. In order to generate ideas for my writing, I usually engage myself in brainstorming.

17. I use different words that have the same meaning.

18. I use my experiences and knowledge in my writing.

19. I try to use effective linking words to ensure clear and logical relationship between sentences or paragraphs.

Social

20. In order to generate ideas for my writing, I usually discuss the writing topic with a friend or classmate.

21. After revising and editing my essay thoroughly, I ask a friend or my classmate to read and comment on it.

22. I try to identify friends or classmates whom I can ask for help in my writing.

23. When I have trouble writing my essay, I try to do it with my classmates or friends.

Affective

21. I try to write an essay in class with confidence and ease.

23. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of writing.

24. I encourage myself to write even when I am afraid of making mistakes.

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Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

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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.

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- Programme, syllabus, and materials design
- Second and foreign language teaching and learning
- Classroom-centered research
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- 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
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- Language planning
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- Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics
- Discourse analysis
- Stylistics
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- 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/

(Contents Continued from Back Cover)