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Teachers' Declared Intentions to Shift Practice to Incorporate Second Language Acquisition (SLA) Theories

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Abstract—While the number of English Learners (ELs) in the United States is steadily growing in most states, teacher preparation for working with ELs is far from universal. In fact, it is contested terrain as to whether information about topics like Second Language Acquisition (SLA) are helpful generally, and if so, what theories teachers are willing to adopt. The purpose of this study was to learn whether teachers in an SLA theory course would declare intentions to change their notions about SLA and express them as desire to shift practice. We also wondered if there were differences in pre-service versus in-service and international versus domestic students. The results confirmed that the participants were willing to change their initial theories because of participating in a second language acquisition course that presented information about SLA theories at a Completely Different or Somewhat Different level by the end of the course.

Index Terms—second language acquisition theory, teacher change, teacher's theories of teaching, teacher preparation for working with English learners, teacher education programs, international teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

During the 2014-2015 school year, the United States average percentage of English learners (ELs) in a state was 9.4%. In fact, all but 15 states experienced increases in the growth of the EL population between 2004 and 2015. In households where a language other than English is the dominant language, English is only the fifth most common second language (United States Department of Education, National Center for Educational Statistics, 2017). These statistics demonstrate the prevalence of languages other than English among students in classrooms in the United States. When these students go to school, they must learn English *and* subject matter.

To provide both prospective and practicing teachers with pedagogical knowledge to meet the needs of ELs, courses are offered in teacher education or as Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) programs (Horii, 2014; Rahman & Pandian, 2016). Although for most children the title is a misnomer, these courses use the term Second Language Acquisition (SLA). In these courses, language researchers and/or teacher educators provide theoretical explanations of language learners' acquisition of the target language and attempt to explain possible difficulties that ELs may encounter. Multiple theories are often included in the courses, such as Universal Grammar (UG), Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), and cross-language transfer. In ideal cases, SLA research provides theoretical and practical knowledge about how learners acquire additional languages with an emphasis on learning in instructional settings (Haley & Rentz, 2002; Thompson & Erdil-Moody, 2015; Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2000). For example, by introducing theories of the order of acquisition of phonological and grammatical features, teachers are better positioned to evaluate students' progress towards English language development and can plan appropriate instructional input and output activities.

However, it is uncertain whether SLA theories translate to language classroom practice since SLA has only existed as an independent field since the late 1960s (Horii, 2014). Some have argued that SLA is still in its infancy that it is impossible to draw conclusive findings to make practical, pedagogical suggestions (Hatch, 1979; Tarone, Swain, & Fathman, 1976). Others have argued that SLA research findings and theory have not yet provided many useful educational guidelines for teachers (Ellis, 1997, 2010). Thus, theories may have little to no direct impact on practical

language teaching and learning. One substantial piece of what is unknown or not well understood is whether teachers ever actually *intend* to use the information they learn about SLA theory in their teaching.

To that end, the purpose of this study was to learn what teachers intend to do relative to making use of SLA theories in their classroom instruction. The specific research questions were:

(1) To what extent do teachers indicate a willingness to change their initial SLA theories because of participation in a specific SLA course? and;

(2) Which SLA theories presented in an SLA theory course do teachers indicate they are willing to apply in their classrooms because of course participation?

To answer these questions, we studied SLA coursework that incorporated theoretical knowledge and pedagogical applications within a teacher education program aimed at developing culturally responsive and linguistically aware prospective and practicing teachers. For the first question, we used a rubric to measure the extent of the participants' theoretical change. To answer the second question, we used content analysis strategies to identify the initial personal theories which the teachers indicated were relevant to their practice. Subsequently, we recorded the participants' final theories that they considered to be useful for their practice. Our findings for this question result from comparing the initial list to the final one. The findings of this study shed light on how teachers shift their theories about SLA during a semester-long course, but it also identified the theories that they considered to be useful for their teaching at both the beginning and at the end of the course. Finally, this study's findings comment on the argument as to whether teaching current and prospective teachers SLA theories may help them work more effectively with ELs.

Review of the Literature concerning Teacher Use of SLA Theory in Instruction

Coursework for teachers about second language acquisition is becoming more common in teacher preparation and professional development (Lucas, 2011). Such preparation may be warranted because recent studies suggest that teachers persist in beliefs about SLA that are not in keeping with current research on second language acquisition. For example, Vaish (2012) found that many teachers still believed that parents should not use their native tongue at home because it would delay their children's progress in learning English, even though researchers consistently found that such home language use was critical to becoming bilingual and being successful in school.

Ellis (2011) offered some insights on SLA course design for teachers of ELs. Ellis proposed that designers of SLA courses should consider how SLA relates to teaching the language. An applied emphasis is essential to increasing the credibility of the material for classroom teachers. If teachers don't see the connection between the SLA research and their own classroom experience, they won't be enthusiastic about reading the research or attempting to use the recommendations of the research in their teaching. For example, Cook described a research emphasis on morphosyntax as being of very limited classroom utility, and thus, of limited value for classroom purposes.

Course content that highlights applied research should be seen as useful in shaping the beliefs and practices of teachers, there is still evidence that ESL teachers do not wish to incorporate SLA theories in their teaching because they already have theories about SLA that are not actively confronted (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004). Systematic attempts to alter teacher beliefs and enhance the theoretical knowledge base of teachers has had limited success (Ellis, 2010; Peacock, 2001). Even so, there is counter evidence suggesting that teacher education programs can exert a certain amount of positive influence on teachers (Busch, 2010; Erlam, 2008; McDonald, Badger, & White, 2001).

Since teachers enter coursework with personal theories about SLA, it is difficult to anticipate actual application of what has been learned. Accordingly, Peter, Markham, & Frey (2012) examined the attitudes and practices of classroom teachers after finishing 18-credit hours of ESOL endorsement coursework. The researchers used several sources of data available to them. The participating teachers had an average of nine years teaching experience. After completing the program, the results revealed that these inservice teachers had mixed attitudes and questionable resolve regarding changing their teaching practices.

In a case study conducted by Kamiya and Loewen (2014) the researchers investigated the way belief, SLA theory, and identity converge to shape an experienced teacher's response to second language research. The participant read SLA research concerning corrective feedback. It was determined that the participating teacher responded positively to those articles that favored corrective feedback as an effective instructional strategy and that he tended to ignore the results of studies that opposed corrective feedback as a useful instructional strategy. Despite the teacher's oppositional stance, the researchers reported that the teacher acquired more precise labels for his teaching strategies and reflected better on his practice.

Finally, Markham, Rice, and Darban (2016) used discourse analysis to explore pre-service and in-service teachers stated personal theories about SLA and the ways which teachers saw these intersecting with their practice. Besides the differences in experience level, the teachers in this study were also both international and domestic students at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. They found that teachers did indicate that they changed their theories. In addition, international teachers in the study indicated a greater desire to change their practices than domestic experienced teachers.

In looking at these body of previous research on teachers' uptake of SLA theories and the ways in which teachers were willing and able to shift their practices, we realized that we wanted to know more about the magnitude of teachers' stated intentions to adopt SLA theories in their teaching practice. However, it was also important to us to document

what the teachers initially brought with them to the class, and what theories they planned on taking with them when they were finished with the course.

II. METHODS

In this study, we gathered data about what teachers' initial theories about SLA were, along with what aspects of SLA theories they intended to incorporate into their practice. We then quantified this data using a rubric and utilized Chi-Square analysis to determine to what extent teachers indicated an intention to shift. For the second research question, we looked at the frequency of keywords in their initial and post-course theories and used content analysis methods to determine exactly what theories teachers were declaring their intention to abandon and which they were planning to adopt as part of their practice.

A. Participants in This Study

A total of seventy-five graduate and undergraduate students participated in the study. The participants included graduate and undergraduates from international and domestic backgrounds who completed a second language theory course over three semesters. Most of the participants were experienced teachers, but worked with various age groups. They taught at the university, secondary, or elementary levels. A couple of the participants taught pre-school students. The pre-service teachers were mostly undergraduates. Naturally, most of the international students had no experience teaching in the United States. Some graduate students were currently teaching professionally, but others were not inservice teachers at the time of the study. The international students were from a variety of countries, but were mostly from the Middle East, East Asia, and Southeast Asia. The preservice and inservice elementary and secondary teachers were taking the course to fulfill ESOL endorsement requirements, whereas the graduate students were completing master's or doctoral degree requirements. Table 1 provides an overview of the demographic characteristics of the participants. The researchers invited the students to participate in the study at the beginning of each semester and they signed an official consent form acknowledging their willingness to participate in the investigation.

TABLE 1.
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

In-service Experienced American (IEA)	In-service Experienced International (IEI)	Preservice American (PA)	Preservice International (PI)
37	21	15	2
Total = 75			

Further details concerning specific demographic categories were available, but didn't allow for useful generalizations for statistical purposes. For example, grade level teaching assignments, countries of origin, and years of service were available, but the resulting statistical categories were so small as to prohibit further numerically based generalizations.

As demonstrated in Table 1, the demographic information provided resulted in two fairly sizeable groups that can be statistically compared with any degree of confidence: in-service vs. preservice teachers and that of American vs. International students. Clearly, more data are needed over an extended period of time in order to draw worthwhile conclusions about the many variables that differentiate the participants. The researchers intend to continue the data collection effort in the future in order to collect enough data to justify generalizations about the various differentiating characteristics of the participants such as whether they teach preschool, elementary, secondary, or college age students. The secondary teachers also represent various content area specializations. Moreover, the participants represent many different countries and teach in English as Second Language or English as a Foreign Language contexts. Despite these limitations, some thought provoking patterns in the data emerged in the study.

B. Course Description

In this course, prospective and practicing teachers initially articulated their own SLA theories and then were invited to consider the implications for these theories in their current or future classroom practice during the class at regular intervals (about once per week). The students interpreted the SLA theories introduced in the course in accordance with their own initial understanding of L2 learning and teaching, and then were given the opportunity to indicate when and how they might use these theories and concomitant research findings in their work with ELs.

Similar to the Kamiya and Loewen's (2014) investigation, the course from which the data were collected for this investigation presents information supporting various second language acquisition theories and information that argues against those same theoretical positions. It is a graduate level second language theory course that includes a few undergraduates who enroll in the course in the cross-listed format. The graduate students are mostly, but not always, inservice teachers and the differences between the master's level and doctoral level students can be as dramatic as the differences between graduate and undergraduate students. Some of these doctoral students have taught in schools in the United States. Others are international students interested in SLA research. The international students have sometimes taught English or other languages outside of the United States, but not within it. The course consists of 14 lessons that cover topics related to meeting course requirements. Table 2 provides a list of the topics covered in this course. The course design was driven by ongoing developments in the field of second language acquisition and was also necessarily aligned with state-level ESOL endorsement accreditation guidelines. In addition, national accreditation guidelines must

play a role in enabling the program to meet the standards provided by the national accreditation organization. The university handbook also lists the requirements for the number of instructional hours necessary for an acceptable course.

TABLE 2.
WEEKLY LESSON TOPICS

Week	Lesson Topic
1	What is a theory? How do we evaluate it?
2	What is language? First language acquisition
3	Relating first and second language processes to the critical period hypothesis
4	History and research on bilingual education
5	Research on learning versus acquisition
6	Psychological foundations of language learning: Cognitive styles, strategies, and affective factors
7	Psychological foundations of language learning: Information processing—parallel and distributed processing
8	Linguistics and language learning: Universal grammar?
9	Sociolinguistics, pidginization and creoles
10	Contrastive analysis, error analysis, and interlanguage study
11	Communicative competence
12	Applying the previous lessons: The case of computer assisted language learning
13	English for Specific Purposes
14	Future trends/Final exam review

A complication with the format of the course is that both regular classroom sections and online sections of the course were offered. Additionally, some students watched video recordings of the course lectures and discussions in the online format for some course sessions and attended in person for other course sessions. Thus, the students received the course content in three different ways. Though most of the course participants attended the course in person, these variations in attendance add another variable to the course that might have influenced the responses of some of the course participants in unknown ways.

Original research articles are the primary texts for the class. These articles constitute both supportive and non-supportive positions regarding the SLA theories included in the course. These articles conform to quality standards in accordance with Cook's (1999) criteria. For each lesson, students complete the assigned readings and then respond to questions that require them to evaluate the content of the assigned readings with guidelines for the evaluation process. The students are then required to take a position in response to the readings that is supportive or oppositional and then defend their decisions. Students must also attend to the question "What have you learned from this week's readings that might help you become a better teacher?" This is the final question that comes at the end of each lesson. Though participating in this study, this question suggests that teachers must at least consider taking something with them into their practice.

Moreover, students not only evaluate the content of the research articles they read for each lesson, but they also must describe their own personal, working theories of second language acquisition at the beginning and end of each semester. They are required to share information about their working theories of second language acquisition. As they share their informal theories, they draw on their own life experiences in learning a new language, experiences with other language learners in various contexts, and discuss second language acquisition content they have encountered in other courses that has influenced their current thoughts concerning SLA. Additionally, the course participants discuss the ways in which their working theories of SLA have evolved during the course. They also make commitments concerning changes in their teaching based on what they have learned in the course. Students are given multiple opportunities to discuss their knowledge of the course content and how those theories might guide teaching. While it is certainly possible that students in the courses simply told the instructors and researchers what they thought they wanted to hear, statements about planning are an indicator of teachers' intentions for practice (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Krathwohl, 2002).

C. Data Collection

The dataset for this study consists of assignments from 75 students who participated. Students submitted their assignments as e-mail attachments that were then made accessible to the researchers. The students' assignments were then evaluated by the instructor or a graduate assistant and then returned to the students with written comments. After the beginning of the study, the students were not reminded of their participation in the investigation so that their responses would be as untainted as they possibly could be under the circumstances with the intent to avoid the Hawthorne effect (Adair, 1984). The researchers had access to all of the student assignments over 15 weeks in addition to the final exams. As would be expected, some students neglected to turn in an assignment on occasion. All submitted student assignments and their final exams were stored in a password protected electronic folder in a secure storage cloud until after the semester was completed and teacher evaluations and final grades had been issued.

To answer the first question about the extent of the change, we developed a rubric and applied it to the theories. First, we looked at the initial theory articulated by the teacher in Lesson One. Then we looked at the students' final theories at the end of the semester, compared them to the rubric, and gave them a score.

To enhance reliability, we used simple inter-rater reliability procedures. Since students submitted open-ended, written responses and not objectively scored tests, reliability measures such as test-retest or parallel forms of the test, could not be used. The researchers established a procedure to code the data and then we established inter-rater reliability

with a simple procedure (Armstrong, Gosling, Weinman, & Marteau, 1997). A very satisfactory inter-rater reliability of 95 percent was established. After we developed the rubric and applied it to the cases, we performed a Chi Square test (Corder, & Foreman, 2014).

To answer the second research question, we used content analysis techniques, specifically word frequency counts (Stemler, 2001). In counting word frequencies, we desired to learn which ideas were most often mentioned and therefore, of the greatest concern to the students. To conduct this analysis, a researcher extracted all the content words from each initial theory. The researcher tallied content words one time for each participant, but could show up multiple times across the class. For example, if a student wrote that their initial theory was that students would learn with exposure, then the word *exposure* was extracted once for that participant, even if they used the word again later in their explanation of their theory. The intent was to see how many students used the word *exposure* in their theories taken together. While the extraction was being conducted, the researcher was careful to examine context. For example, some students wrote that they did not favor audiolingual methods, while others said they did. The students who wrote they embraced audiolingual methods had that word extracted, while those who expressly said “I do not believe in audiolingual methods,” did not have that word extracted. Content words that only had integrity as entire phrases, such as *bilingual education* were extracted together and counted together in the analysis. The researcher tried to take as few liberties as possible in combining terms or collapsing them with one exception. Many students wrote phrases like “there are so many factors that go into learning a language” or “learning to speak a language is more difficult than I imagined,” and “language learning is so complicated.” These types of phrases were deemed close enough in meaning to be collapsed under the word *complexity*. Then that research extracted all the content words from their final theory. Each dataset was then entered in a Word Frequency counting program. Thus, we could tell which ideas as represented by content words dominated initial theories and which ones were most highly represented at the end of the course.

III. FINDINGS

The results confirm that participants are willing to change their initial theories because of participating in a second language acquisition course that presented information about SLA theory. Collectively speaking, the participants were willing to make changes in their originally stated theories by the end of the course (Table 3). Similarly, both the pre-service and in-service teachers were committed to change with statistically significant preferences for *Completely Different* or *Somewhat Different* theories by the end of the course (see Tables 4 through 7). Continuing the pattern, both domestic and international students self-reported a similar preference for changing their initial theories *Completely* or *Somewhat* by the time of the final course exam.

A. Findings for Research Question 1

The first research question was: To what extent do teachers indicate a willingness to change their personal SLA theories because of participation in a specific SLA course? Table 3 indicates the percentage of students that were rated to have achieved various levels of change. This table combines data from both pre-service and in-service teacher categories.

TABLE 3.
PRE-SERVICE + IN-SERVICE TEACHERS’ REPORTED CHANGE IN SLA THEORY

	<i>Pre-service Teachers + In-service Teachers</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Completely Different	25	35%
Somewhat Different	23	32%
Mostly the same	15	21%
Exactly the same	8	11%
Total	71	100%

Sixty seven percent or 48 participants had a *completely different* or a *somewhat different theory*. Only 23 students, or 32% reported little change in their theory.

Table 4 compares pre-service and in-service teachers’ reported changes to their theories.

TABLE 4
PRE-SERVICE VS. IN-SERVICE TEACHERS’ REPORTED CHANGE IN SLA THEORY

<i>Theory Change</i>	<i>Group</i>			
	<i>Pre-service Teachers</i>		<i>In-service Teachers</i>	
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Completely Different	7	39%	18	34%
Somewhat Different	5	28%	18	34%
Mostly the same	5	28%	10	19%
Exactly the same	1	5%	7	13%
Total	18	100%	53	100%

In this table, we see that although there are more in-service than pre-service teachers, most of the students still reported intentions changes to their theories about what they should do in classrooms with their students from the beginning of the course to the end.

Table 5 highlights results from the Chi Square analysis comparing pre-service and in-service teachers' changed theories and reported intentions to change practice based on theories.

TABLE 5
CHI SQUARE OF PRE-SERVICE VS. IN-SERVICE TEACHERS' REPORTED CHANGE IN SLA THEORY

Theory Change	Group		x ²	p
	Pre-service Teachers (1)	In-service Teachers (2)		
Completely Different	7	18	4.840	.028*
Somewhat Different	5	18	7.348	.007**
Mostly the same	5	10	1.667	.197
Exactly the same	1	7	4.500	.034*

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

The results of the Chi Square comparisons are significant at the p < .05 level for *Completely Different* and *Exactly the Same* categories. They are significant at the p < .01 level for the *Somewhat Different* category.

Table 6 compared the reported changes in theory for international versus domestic students.

TABLE 6
DOMESTIC VS. INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS' REPORTED CHANGE IN SLA THEORY

Theory Change	Group			
	Domestic Students		International Students	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Completely Different	11	22%	15	65%
Somewhat Different	19	39%	4	17%
Mostly the same	13	27%	2	9%
Exactly the same	6	12%	2	9%
Total	49	100%	23	100%

The international students (n=23) had a large percentage (65%) that had a completely different theory from the beginning of the course to the end. In fact, 82% changed their theory overall. For domestic students (n=49), 61% changed theories overall.

The Chi Square analysis results for international versus domestic students appear as Table 7.

TABLE 7
CHI SQUARE OF DOMESTIC VS. INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS' REPORTED CHANGE IN SLA THEORY

Theory Change	Group		x ²	p
	Domestic Students (3)	International Students (4)		
Completely Different	11	15	.615	.433
Somewhat Different	19	4	9.783	.002**
Mostly the same	13	2	8.067	.005**
Exactly the same	6	2	2.000	.157

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

In this analysis, the categories *Somewhat Different* and *Mostly the Same* categories were significant at the p < .05 level. There was not as much significance in this comparison as there was between pre-service and in-service participants.

B. Findings for Research Question 2

In research question 2, we asked: Which SLA theories presented in a specific SLA theory course do teachers indicate they are willing to apply in their classrooms because of course participation? participants' initial and final theories were demonstrably different based on the evidence are presented in Table 8.

TABLE 8
SLA THEORIES STUDENTS ARE WILLING TO APPLY IN THE CLASSROOM
INITIAL THEORY

ORDER	UNFILTERED WORD COUNT	OCCURRENCES	PERCENTAGE
1	PRACTICE	14	19
2	EXPOSURE	14	19
3	MOTIVATION	11	15
4	KINDNESS, CARING	10	13
5	L1 TRANSFER	8	11
6	INPUT	8	11
7	TIME	6	8
8	COMPLEXITY	6	8
9	AGE	6	8
10	FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION	6	8

From this table, it is evident that teachers are initially willing to apply SLA theories of acquisition that revolve around providing practice. They also had theories that centered on motivation, whether they thought that students should motivate themselves or that teachers should do. “Just being kind” to students also ranked high initially, suggesting that the teachers held theories about the affective state of the student and the climate of the class would provide safe space for practicing language that would lead to learning and acquisition.

TABLE 9
REVEALS THE THEORIES THAT THE TEACHERS INDICATED THEY INTENDED TO USE BY THE END OF THE COURSE.

Order		Occurrences	Percentage
1	SIOP	12	16
2	Motivation	10	13
3	L1 transfer	8	11
4	Practice	8	11
5	Communicative competence	8	11
6	Input	8	11
7	Bilingual education	6	8
8	Feedback	6	8
9	Age	6	8
10	Learner variability	5	7

As teachers learned content based instructional principles, they took them up, so much so that ideas about practice slid down their list, but did not fall off (perhaps because practice is a component of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol). Motivation remained important, but “caring and kindness” as strategies for enhancing language acquisition did not appear on the final list. Concerning the results for the second research question, it is evident that the prospective and current teachers are willing to adjust their initial, personal theories of SLA based on the content of the SLA course material and they do incorporate new terms from research associated with those theories.

IV. DISCUSSION

Overall, preservice teachers and practicing teachers were both likely to change their initial personal theories because of course participation. Clearly, the numbers overwhelmingly support this point of emphasis as 67% of preservice teachers and 68% of practicing teachers changed their informal personal theories at a *completely different* or *somewhat different* level because of what they had learned by the end of the course. However, there was a noticeable difference between the domestic and international students regarding changes in their initial and final personal theories. Eighty one percent of the international students changed their personal theories *completely* or *somewhat*, whereas only 61% of domestic students demonstrated similar changes in these categories. From the data, we collected in this study, there are no obvious reasons for this outcome. Perhaps the international students were more open-minded about change because they had left their familiar homelands behind to study TESOL in a very different context in the US. Another possibility is that international students are more likely to rhetorically position themselves in alignment with instructors.

Certainly, one difference between the current study and a previously published study (Author, 2016) is that the percentage of domestic practicing teachers willing to change their personal theories of SLA from their initial position to a different final position was much higher. The reasons for this departure from the results of the earlier study are not entirely understood, but it is certainly plausible that the larger number of student participants by itself was a factor. Further qualitative research could document the actual reasons behind these changes.

The descriptive data presented in Table 9 reveal the SLA theoretical knowledge that students would be willing to apply in the classroom based on their final course exams. For example, no participants mentioned the *SIOP* model (*based on English for Academic Purposes, EAP*) in their initial theories as highlighted in Table 8. However, the most frequently mentioned factor in their final theories was *SIOP*. Moreover, *Practice* lost support as a major factor in their final theories. An even more surprising outcome is that *Exposure*, tied for first place in their initial theories, did not make the list of the top 10 most frequently mentioned factors in their personal theories at the end of the course. Certain factors, such as *L1 Transfer* and *Input* were supported at the same level of intention to shift their practices in their initial and final rankings. In addition, *Bilingual Education*, *Feedback*, and *Learner Variability* received some support among the top 10 factors mentioned in their final theories, but received no mention in their initial theories.

We saw these findings as positive not just because they showed that teachers were willing to declare intentions to shift their practices, but because they were shifting them to more inclusive practices and ones that involved more complex planning and skill. For example, in our view, embracing students’ multilingualism is much more likely to be helpful to ELs than simply being caring and kind, even though we obviously desire that teachers care about students. For example, making use of ELs’ home languages in a manner that facilitates better academic learning increases the probability of successful learning experiences.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Certainly, one of the most important findings of this study is that prospective and practicing teachers in an SLA expressed a willingness to change their initial informal theories and intentions for practice because of what they are taught in such courses. Such findings align with previous studies that share a positive outlook on what teachers can do

when they receive information about research within a higher institution setting (Busch, 2010; Erlam, 2008; McDonald, Badger, & White, 2001). Such findings support the notion that it is not *whether* teachers are taught about SLA theories, but other factors that determine whether this instruction changes their theories and intentions for practice.

Both pre-service and in-service teachers self-reported that they were willing to change their teaching practice in the future. Similarly, both domestic and international students exhibited a similar pattern of willingness to change. These changes were not just changes for change's sake: they were changes that indicated a willingness to understand the complexity providing language support in classrooms, rather than just acknowledging that language acquisition is complex, as they stated initially. Finally, we also acknowledge that teachers enter SLA theory courses with ideas about L1 transfer and motivation (as examples) that are legitimate factors in language acquisition, according to research.

The implications of this study would seem to indicate that teacher education courses designed to build prospective and practicing teachers' knowledge base and skills can, in fact, change theories (as expressed in intentions for practice) about student learning and entice them to commit to making engaging with ELs as children who are capable of success in learning English and subject matter. As previously stated, the degree of actual implementation of these expressed teaching intentions in the SLA setting needs to be much more vigorously investigated. Since we also learned that teachers come into classes with certain personal theories, it might be possible to design SLA courses that leverage these existing ideas and propel them through course content in more strategic ways than this current SLA course could provide. For example, we don't know what the outcomes might have been if we had taught the content in a different order.

We also wondered if there might be clearer pathways for international students to become practicing teachers in the United States, given their willingness to learn and their declared intentions to apply theories. We expected that international students would draw from their own experiences and it would be difficult to convince them to move from those spaces, but instead, they seemed very open to learning about SLA apart from their own previous teaching and learning experiences. Even if these students do not become teachers in K-12 public schools, there is potential that having closer relationships with university graduate programs in TESOL could be a resource to local schools in helping both ELs and non-ELs understand language learning processes.

For future research, it would be helpful to know what teachers do in their classrooms after the course is over. Such if the teachers would consent to being directly observed, future research efforts could perhaps focus on the level of actual implementation of their theoretical preferences in the classroom. This follow-up would be important since previous research (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis (2004) suggests a potential gap between teachers' expressed intentions and actual classroom practice in other teaching contexts. Certainly, new in-service teachers face socialization pressure and multiple other pressures associated with helping their students achieve adequate scores on standardized tests. These pressures might quickly lead novice teachers away from idealistic beliefs and good intentions. Quantitative and qualitative studies that shed light on the experiences of new teachers coming out of TESOL and English as a Foreign Language Education programs and entering the work place are worthy of further investigation.

The actual success of teacher education in TESOL and in other SLA disciplines depends on willing prospective and current teachers who have a real desire to make a positive difference in the lives of the students they teach. All teachers, regardless of their experience level or international/domestic status, must be prepared with both the knowledge and the tools to enable them to achieve success in a teaching setting that is extraordinarily diverse. In the SLA setting, perhaps the most important tool in the repertoire is the ability to adapt to the widely variable needs of second language learners in the continually evolving landscape of second language education.

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“No” — A Case Study in Corrective Feedback in a Secondary Chinese Language Classroom in Australia

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Abstract—Corrective feedback has been studied for decades in classrooms both for children and adults. Among different subjects, language learning, especially second language (L2) learning is one of the significant targets of corrective feedback studies. Compared to English and other European languages, however, Chinese as L2 classroom has get little attention. This paper investigates what types of corrective feedback (CF) a teacher of Chinese working at a secondary school in Melbourne provided to what kinds of errors made by students, and the effectiveness of each CF type. The data was obtained from 2 random lessons and the parts involving CF were transcribed to further analyze. The results suggest that Chinese beginners made more mistakes in pronunciation and vocabulary than in grammar, however, the teacher provided feedback to all of the lexical and grammatical errors, ignoring nearly half of the phonological mistakes. In addition, the overall effectiveness of CF was not satisfactory, especially for elicitations and recasts, which were used the most commonly by the teacher. Some pedagogical implications for Chinese teaching and Chinese teacher training are also provided.

Index Terms—corrective feedback, Chinese as L2, secondary Chinese language classroom

I. INTRODUCTION

Classroom interactions have long been of interest to many L2 education practitioners and researchers (Allwright, 1984; Ellis, 1984; Kern, 1995; Llinaries & Lyster, 2014; Mackey, 2006). Of those researchers, many are interested in teachers' corrective feedback (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). However, only a small number of studies have been conducted in Chinese L2 classrooms (e.g., Fu and Nassaji, 2016; Yang, 2016). In this study, we perform a classroom-based case study from a prescriptive perspective investigating how Chinese teachers provide corrective feedback to L2 students' responses in the classroom. By so doing, we also intend to provide some diagnostic information for teaching Chinese in an Australian secondary school context.

Chinese has been taught in Australian schools for some time. Chinese has been identified as a national priority language by both the Australian government and the public, causing another surge of Chinese learning and therefore Chinese teaching in schools. However, a recent report on Chinese Language Education in Australian Schools (Orton, 2008) has demonstrated alarmingly low participation, achievement and retention rates in secondary school Chinese programs: Only 3% of Year 12 students take Chinese and 94% of Chinese learners quit before Year 10. As indicated by many scholars, problems such as those in curriculum, teacher education, and quality of Chinese classroom teaching in secondary schools deserve further study (Scrimgeour, 2014). Many local researchers have investigated issues from a macro perspective (e.g., Chen & Zhang, 2014; Huang, 2011; Scrimgeour et al., 2013). There is, however, limited research on what is happening within the classroom, an important factor for the development of Chinese teaching and learning as well as the Chinese curriculum.

II. CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

A. Classroom Interactions

Classroom interaction has been long considered important in L2 acquisition, and has attracted a lot of scholarly attention (Allwright, 1984; Ellis, 1984; Kern, 1995; Gardner, 2013; Jenks & Seedhouse, 2015). Early studies focused on teacher talk, as L2 acquisition relies on comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985), and investigated the relationship between interaction and L2 development (Mackey 1995, 1999). More recently, researchers have tried to tackle “how interaction creates opportunities for learning” (Mackey, 2012, p. 8), and paid more attention to the social and cognitive factors that affect learning (Mackey, Abbuhl & Gass, 2012).

Spada & Lightbown (2009) argued that “classroom-based studies are most likely to lead to a better understanding about the kind of interaction that occurs in classrooms where the teacher is the only proficient speaker and interacts

with a large number of learners” (p. 159). A typical complete classroom interaction includes teacher questioning, student responses, negotiation of meaning, and teacher feedback. Five aspects of interaction have been well examined from an L2 acquisition perspective: noticing, comprehensive input, L2 production, negotiation of meaning, and negative or corrective feedback (Gass, 1997; Krashen, 1980, 1982; Swain, 1995, Nassaji, 2016, Lee & Lyster, 2016). CF is considered to be an essential contribution to the classroom interaction because the feedback learners get outside the classroom is rarely corrective (Seliger, 1983), with Gass (1997) contending that explicit CF is most effective.

B. Corrective Feedback

CF has been defined as “responses to learner utterances containing an error” (Ellis, 2006, p. 28). It not only points out the mistakes in learners’ output, but also acts as a scaffold to promote students’ L2 growth (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified six different types of CF in their descriptive study of French immersion classroom interactions. These types were further classified into two categories: reformulations and prompts (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). The reformulation includes recast and explicit correction, as these “supply learners with target reformulations of their non-target output” (p. 152). Elicitation, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, and teacher repetition are classified as prompts, as the correct form is withheld to encourage self-repair.

Based on Lyster and Ranta’s classification, Sheen & Ellis (2011) proposed a similar taxonomy, which not only distinguished the conception of reformulations and prompts, but also labelled each type of corrective feedback as implicit or explicit. In addition to the six CF types Lyster and Ranta proposed, Sheen and Ellis introduced ‘paralinguistic signal’ as a new type, as well as combining explicit correction and metalinguistic explanation into a new type. According to their study, ‘recast’ consists of two different types, conversational recast and didactic recast, the former belonging to the implicit category while the latter is seen as explicit. Repetition and clarification requests are also labelled as implicit, while explicit correction, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation are classified as explicit.

In the majority of descriptive studies, recast is shown to be the most commonly used CF type in different language classes in various countries (e.g., Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen 2001; Lee, 2007; Lyster & Mori 2006; Sheen, 2004; Tsang, 2004; Yang, 2009). In some studies, explicit corrections are found to share a similar proportion of use to recasts (Vicente-Rasoamalala, 2009) or, in some cases, make up nearly half of all CF types found (Simard & Jean 2011). In Kamiya’s study (2016), three English as a second language (ESL) teachers in the USA held the belief that creating a comfortable environment for students was more important than the use of CF. As a result, they refrained from using explicit CF types and favoured recasts as they are implicit and would not humiliate students. However, depending entirely on implicit CF may cause some problems as students may not notice their errors and thus no uptake will occur. Although the uptake or effectiveness of CF was not the focus of Kamiya’s study, it revealed that students did not always attempt to fix their errors, and sometimes teachers did not give the students the opportunity or time to repair.

C. The Effectiveness of CF

Lyster (2004) argued that learners should be encouraged to self-correct by way of prompts, and that recasts may be less effective because learners may perceive them as a way to communicate, rather than providing correct forms. Although prompts are more likely to elicit students’ responses, it may be not helpful when students lack the linguistic knowledge to respond. Ellis (2010) provided a solution, namely the prompt-then-provide approach. This approach requires teachers to use a prompt to promote students’ self-repair, and provide a correction if this fails.

To address the effectiveness of CF in classroom interactions, there are two main streams of research. Some research examines whether teachers’ choice and students’ preferences for CF match, while other studies examine the relationship between different types of CF and learners’ uptake and response. Lyster and Saito (2010) conducted a meta-analysis to investigate the effectiveness of oral CF using 15 classroom-based studies in various language classrooms. The result shows that prompts were more effective than recasts.

Exploring learners’ preference for CF types is of importance to classroom interactions because CF is likely to be ineffective if teachers’ intentions for using CF are inconsistent with learners’ expectations. Yoshida’s study (2008), which investigated seven learners and two teachers from three classes of a second-year level Japanese language course at a university in Australia, found that most learners preferred to have an opportunity to think about the correct forms on their own before teachers’ recasts.

Instead of asking learners to reflect on what form of CF is most useful for them, some studies (Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004, 2006) have used learners’ uptake as the criteria for assessing the effectiveness of CF, which is more objective. These researchers believe that CF is able to facilitate language acquisition if learners can first notice the error, and then repair their mis-production. For example, Sheen’s 2006 study of adult ESL classrooms found that phonological errors received the highest rate of repair, followed by lexical errors, with grammatical errors being repaired the least. Another interesting study by Llinares and Lyster (2014) investigated the frequency of different types of CFs relative to students’ uptake by examining 43 hours of 4th and 5th year classroom interaction in three different settings. In the study, they found that recasts were used the most in all settings, followed by prompts and finally explicit corrections. Recasts elicited the most student repair in content and language integrated learning (CLIL), English classrooms and Japanese Immersion (JI) classrooms, while prompts elicited the most repair moves in French Immersion (FI) classrooms. This study revealed that CF works differently in

different settings with different languages. However, Chinese classrooms in English-speaking countries like Australia have not drawn much scholarly attention yet.

In this study, uptake and learner repair will be used as a measure of the effectiveness of CF, drawing on several previous studies (e.g., Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Ellis et al., 2001; Mackey et al., 2003). Based on Lyster and Ranta, two types of uptake are considered. The first is repair, in which the error is repaired successfully. The other is need-repair, in which the student notices the error, hesitates, makes another error, makes the same error again etc., and their output needs further repair. In this study, the effectiveness of CF is measured by the student's successful self-repair of his/her own mistakes.

D. Classroom Interactions and Feedback in Teaching Chinese as a Second Language

There are less studies on the use of corrective feedback in Chinese language classes than for ESL classrooms.

Lu and Gao (2015) investigated four Chinese learners in a beginning level class, finding that recasts were the most commonly used CF type. In their study, 76.74% of recasts were followed by students' responses, while 87.50% of other types of CF were followed by students' responses. They also found that phonological errors occurred more often than lexical or grammatical errors, and that the rate of successful repair was higher for those errors. The study focused more on recasts than on the other types of CF, and as a result, other forms of CF were not analyzed or discussed in detail.

Fu and Nassaji (2016) studied teacher feedback and learner uptake in an adult Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) classroom. By investigating 10-hours of recorded classroom interaction, they identified 12 types of feedback, six more than Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified. Recast was found to be the most frequently used feedback type, followed by metalinguistic feedback. Four types of feedback received 100% uptake, namely clarification requests, directing questions to other students, re-asks, and using L1 English. Recasting prompted the least repairs from students. This study also found that students' perception of what types of feedback were effective did not match that of the teachers. This study, however, did not distinguish CF from the other forms of feedback such as redirecting the question to other students.

Another study by Yang (2016), which used quantitative and qualitative approaches to investigate Chinese language learners' preference for CF types and the relation to their cultural background, proficiency level and types of error, found that learners generally favoured metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and recasting. Recast was also found to be more useful for correcting phonological errors than lexical or grammatical errors. As well as these findings, the study revealed that proficiency level and cultural background also played a role in CF type preference. Intermediate level students, for example, believed that clarification requests were useful for phonological errors, while beginners did not think so. Learners from Confucian cultural backgrounds favoured explicit correction when it came to pragmatic errors while learners from other cultural background did not. The study used questionnaires and interviews to reveal students' preferences, rather than investigating CF use in authentic classroom interactions. In other words, the types of CF that students favoured were not necessarily what was being used in the classroom, and neither type of feedback prompted satisfying responses from students in authentic interactions.

The study presented in this paper is aimed at filling the gaps in research into the Chinese language teaching context by examining what CF types are used and which are most effective for beginning learners of Chinese by investigating authentic interactions in the classroom. This will also provide some referential data for interactions within Australian Chinese beginner classroom using a teacher's CF as a lens. Specifically, the study will examine:

1. What kind of CF types did the teacher provide for the kinds of mistakes that Chinese beginners made in classroom interactions?
2. Which of the teacher's CF types are most/least effective for Chinese beginners when self-repairing?

III. THE STUDY

A. Research Settings and Participants

The school where the research was conducted was a private boy's school in Melbourne, Australia. There were only two levels of Chinese being taught in the school: Year 7 and Year 8. In order to collect the data, we chose two Year 7 lessons randomly, and both lessons were recorded in full in September, 2014. There were 24 students in the first and 21 in the second recorded group, and all were studying Chinese as an elective.

According to a questionnaire about the students' demographic information, all boys were 12- or 13-year-old non-background speakers except two students who were heritage learners. These two students were born in Australia and had never received education in China. In addition, the two heritage learners spoke English at home, but attended community schools to learn Chinese on weekends. The other students had few opportunities to speak Chinese outside the classroom. The majority of students had learned Chinese at primary school, but their Chinese skills were very limited because the aim of Chinese class at primary schools was to motivate students, not mastering the language. All of the students were beginners in writing and reading Chinese, and, except for the two heritage learners, were at the beginner level in speaking and listening.

One full-time teacher of Chinese from a non-Chinese background and one Chinese-background teaching assistant looked after these two groups. The full-time teacher took charge of the Chinese program, writing lesson plans, preparing the teaching materials, and delivering each lesson. In addition, there were no official Chinese textbooks in

this school, and they used the materials developed by their teacher and different teaching assistants. The teaching assistant was a master’s student studying at a Chinese university and was asked to attend every Chinese class to help students with their questions. This study focuses on the Australian Chinese teacher’s interactions with students, to find out what kinds of corrective feedback this teacher uses and which ones are more effective for Chinese beginners.

B. Data Collection and Analysis

During each 50-minute lesson, the teacher and students interacted for about 30 to 35 minutes. The data used for this study were two randomly selected lessons in Term 4 in 2014 because classroom interactions were limited in the first three terms for these beginners. These classes were recorded and carefully transcribed by a Chinese native speaker.

A three-step data analysis was conducted based on the transcripts of 100 minutes of recording. First, all the mistakes produced by students were identified and classified into phonological, lexical, grammatical and contextual errors (see Example 8 in Results). Second, after each mistake, we carefully examined if and what feedback the teacher provided. All the teacher feedback was classified based on the model provided by Lyster and Ranta (1997). During the analysis, however, we found one type of corrective feedback that did not fit in any of the types identified by Lyster and Ranta, which was labelled *linguistic clues* in this study (see Example 10 and 11 in Results).

Finally, we examined if the student that was the target of CF was able to repair the mistake, which was taken as a sign of uptake of the feedback and showed the effectiveness of the teacher’s feedback. The process of data analysis not only indicates the weaknesses of the CF provided to students, but also facilitates the understanding of the effectiveness of that feedback.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

TABLE I:
FREQUENCY OF TEACHER FEEDBACK AND STUDENTS’ REPAIR

	Phonological			Vocabulary			Grammar			Context			Total		
	Mis	CF	RP	Mis	CF	RP	Mis	CF	RP	Mis	CF	RP	Mis	CF	RP
Recast	13	7	4	3	3	0	1	1	0				17	11	5
Elicitation				8	8	3	1	1	0	1	1	1	10	10	4
Explicit correction				1	1	1	1	1	1				2	2	2
Clarification request										1	1	0	1	1	0
Teacher repetition										1	1	1	1	1	1
Linguistic clue				4	4	2							4	4	2
Total	13	7	4	16	16	6	3	3	1	3	3	2	35	29	14

Table 1 gives an overview of the frequency of the feedback the teacher provided in response to student errors as well as the students’ self-repair after the teacher’s corrective feedback. The total number of feedback instances provided to incorrect answers was 29, and 6 mistakes were ignored: i.e., the teacher only provided corrective feedback in response to 83% of student’s mistakes. After the teacher’s feedback, students only repaired 14 (48%) times. As we can see from the Table 1, these beginner students made vocabulary mistakes most often, followed by phonology and grammar errors. While the teacher provided corrective feedback to all mistakes in vocabulary and grammar, he left almost half of the phonological mistakes without feedback. This means the teacher might not have been aware of, or paid enough attention to, the mistakes in pronunciation. Among all of the corrective strategies, the teacher used recasts and elicitation most, followed by linguistic clues. They only used explicit correction and clarification requests one or twice. In terms of repair, students were only able to self-repair some of their mistakes, with the highest proportion of repair found in contextual mistakes and the lowest in grammatical errors. All of these will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

A. Recast

The teacher used recasts when students produced errors in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. The data showed that the teacher tended to recast students’ phonological errors the most, and more than half the time the students repaired their pronunciation mistakes after teacher’s recasts:

Example 1¹ (Lesson 1):

S1: 我的爸爸四十二<xi1shi1er2>岁。(My dad is 42 years old.)

T: 四十二<si4shi1er2>岁。(42 years old.)

S1: 四十二岁<si4shi1er2>。他喜欢打 golf。(42 years old. He likes playing golf.)

T: 高尔夫球, 高尔夫。(Golf ball, golf.)

S1: 高尔夫球。(Golf ball.)

¹ The Pinyin is provided in triangles, and the translations are given in brackets in all examples.

In this example, student 1 (S1) pronounced the initial “s” and the tone incorrectly, but tried to fix it based on the teacher’s demonstration. The student repeated the Chinese equivalent word “golf” after the teacher told them the pronunciation, which might be because the word is phonologically borrowed from English. The teacher then moved to the next question as the student’s output was satisfactory. However, the student (S2) in Example 2 did not repair the sound after the teacher’s recast:

Example 2 (Lesson 1):

S2: 我的妹妹爱跳舞<dao1wo2>。(My younger sister likes dancing.)

T: 我的妹妹爱跳舞<tiao4wu3>, 跳舞 dance。(My younger sister likes dancing, dancing.)

S2: 我爱板球<ben1kiu2>。(I like cricket.)

T: 我爱板球<ban3qiu2>, 板球, cricket。(I like cricket, cricket.) Good job. How can we say date in Chinese?

This example shows that Student 2 did not pronounce the word ‘dancing’ correctly in Chinese. After the teacher recast the whole sentence, instead of repeating the word “dancing”, the student ignored the teacher’s recast and continued to produce another sentence where he pronounced the word ‘cricket’ incorrectly. This time, the teacher recast the sentence again, repeating the word “cricket”, and then moved to another question without giving Student 2 any chance to fix the error. Interestingly, Example 2 is different from Example 1 in that the teacher only recast the mispronounced part in the first example, but recast the whole sentence in the second example, which resulted in a lack of repair. This may be attributed to the implicitness of the recast in Example 2 when the teacher repeated the whole sentence without directly pointing to the mistake in pronunciation. This is consistent with previous studies that indicated the success of explicit recasting is dependent on context or other factors such as the length and the number of changes (Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada 2001; Sheen 2004, 2006; Ellis and Sheen 2006; Sato 2011). Example 2 is a typical communicative recast, which is so implicit that it fails to attract the student’s attention while in Example 1, the error was made more salient because only one word was recast, and the student was able to notice and repair the mistake.

Recasts turned out to be ineffective in helping to correct the students’ mistakes in the choice of words or grammar:

Example 3 (Lesson 2):

T: How do you say “new car” in Chinese?

S3: 新 (New) car.

T: 新车 (New car). 小狗 (small dog), small dog, how about big dog?

Example 4 (Lesson 1):

S4: 26 日 7 月 2000 年。(26-7-2000. – the date is in the incorrect order in Chinese)

T: 2000 年 7 月 26 日。(26th July, 2000.)

S4: 我的生日。(My birthday.)

Example 3 shows that the student did not know the Chinese word for a car, and just added the English word “car” after the Chinese word “new”. The teacher provided the right word, and then moved to the next question directly without giving any time for the Student 3 to repeat the word. In Example 4, the student confused the date sequence in Chinese with that of English, and he continued his sentence after the teacher’s recast without any correction. In this case, the student might have paid more attention to the meaning conveyed than the teacher’s intention of correcting this mistake. In these two examples, either the teacher did not give any time to allow the student to respond or the student continued without fixing their mistakes. As a result, the effectiveness of the corrective feedback in these two examples is not satisfactory.

B. Elicitation

Elicitation was also used by this teacher, and was mostly used for lexical errors. In the analysis, we found the teacher used elicitation to help students self-repair (Lyster, 2015), mainly by providing partial sentences and allowing the student to complete them (see Example 5 and 6):

Example 5 (Lesson 2):

T: What about new students?

S5: 新的。(New.)

T: 新的——? (New...?)

S5: 新的生, 新的学生。(New stu..., new student.)

In Example 5, S5 did not complete the phrase ‘new student’ in Chinese, and the teacher repeated the Chinese word “new”, pausing to allow the student to finish the word himself. The pause was explicit enough to attract the student’s attention and prompt his self-repair. In this example, the Student tried twice and then produced the correct word.

Example 6 (Lesson 1):

S6: 我昨天不吃饭。(I do not eat yesterday.)

T: 你昨天怎么了? (What did you do yesterday?)

S6: 不吃饭。(Do not eat.)

T: 不对。(Wrong.)

In Example 6, S6 produced the utterance with a grammatical error. The teacher used an elicitation to bring the student's attention to his error. However, the student repeated the error again, after which the teacher rejected the answer directly and asked another student the same question. In this example, although the student responded to the teacher's elicitation, the student failed to correct the error due to his limited knowledge of the language. In this case, even though the teacher did not correct the student's mistake, he intended to ask the same question to another student and prompt a peer recast.

C. Explicit Correction

Not many explicit corrections can be found in the recorded data; the teacher provided explicit corrections to lexical mistakes only twice. One example can be seen in Example 7:

Example 7 (Lesson 1):

T: 你吃早饭了吗? (Did you have breakfast?)

S7: 有。(Have.)

T: You cannot say “有”, you need to use “吃 (eat)”. “吃了 (eaten)” for yes.

S7: 吃了。(Eaten.)

In this example, the teacher used explicit correction after S7 produced an incorrect answer. The teacher pointed out the error in the student's utterance in an explicit manner, saying “you cannot say ‘有’, you need to use ‘吃’”. The student followed this correction by producing the correct utterance. Although the teacher did not favor explicit corrective feedback, students were successful in self-repairing errors after the teacher's explicit corrections each time, because the teacher clearly indicated that what the student had said was incorrect, which is consistent as what previous studies have shown (e.g., Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001).

D. Clarification Requests

Clarification requests is the corrective feedback type that this teacher used least. This might be related to the student's language proficiency level (e.g., Yang, 2016). All these students were beginners and the questions and answer pairs were very simple and straightforward. As a result, misunderstandings or confusion rarely occurred, which might be a reason clarification request were not used much. The only example found in the data is given Example 8:

Example 8 (Lesson 1):

T: 他的家有几口人? (How many people in his family?)

S8: 有五口人。(Has 5 people.)

T: Full answer.

S8: 五…… (5...)

T: 不是, 他的家——? (No, his family...?)

S8: 他的家有五口人。(His family has 5 people.)

In this example, the teacher requested the student to provide the full sentence (3rd line), but the student was confused. So the teacher had to start the sentence himself and then adopted another feedback strategy (i.e., elicitation by pausing) to wait for the student to provide the full sentence, which turned out to be useful. Here, the teacher's request for clarification is neither about phonological, lexical nor grammatical mistakes, but more about his own intension to have the class practice the key sentence structure of the week (i.e., “有”, there be). This error cannot be classified into categories of phonological, lexical nor grammatical mistakes, but is rather an error in contextual comprehension, so it was labelled as a “contextual mistake” in this study.

E. Teacher Repetition

Teacher repetition was used only once in the data. A typical repetition requires the teacher to repeat students' errors which may reinforce the mistakes for the student, which the teacher may wish to avoid. The only example from this study is shown below:

Example 9 (Lesson 1):

T: 你有妹妹吗? 你有妹妹吗? (Do you have younger sisters? Do you have younger sisters?)

S9: 没有妹妹。(Do not have younger sisters.)

T: 没有妹妹? (Do not have younger sisters?) [Other students are laughing.]

S9: Wait, 有。(Wait, have.)

This is another example of a “contextual mistake” in which S9 provided an answer that was not consistent with the fact that he did have a younger sister. However, when the teacher asked him if he had a younger sister, he answered “no”. This might be because he did not comprehend the teacher's question or the word “younger sister” in Chinese when he produced his first answer (line 2). The teacher who knew the student very well was surprised at the student's answer of “no younger sister”, so he repeated what the student said. This repetition, together with other students' laughing, functioned as a trigger for S9 to realize his mistake and correct his answer. In this case, the teacher's repetition of the contextual mistake was sufficient for the student to repair his own comprehension mistake. However, as indicated by other researchers (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Suzuki, 2005), teacher's repetition of mistakes may not

always be as effective as this one. Repeating a student's mistake is not explicit enough to draw students' attention to their error and thus allow them to repair the mistakes. In some scenarios, a teacher's repetition of the mistake without any further corrective feedback may even enforce incorrect forms.

F. L1 Linguistic Clues

This teacher also used L1 linguistic clues to assist the students in producing correct utterances by themselves. Interestingly, English clues were only used with lexical mistakes in the data.

Example 10 (Lesson 2):

T: Can you translate the next sentence?

S10: 起床 (get up) is going to?

T: 起 is arise, 床 is bed.

S10: I get up at 7 in the morning.

Example 11 (Lesson 2):

T: New computer 怎么说? (How do you say new computer?)

S11: (pause)

T: New electric brain.

S11: 新.....(New...)

T: 新电脑。(New computer.)

The CF that the teacher provided in both examples was labelled L1 linguistic clues because they are quite similar to metalinguistic clues in that the teacher tries to provide some extra information, helping students to understand the vocabulary better. However, metalinguistic clues relate to general grammatical rules in a language, which may be too difficult for beginners as these students have not been introduced to enough of the target language. This might be the main reason that the metalinguistic clues found in Lyster and Ranta's study (1997) were not adopted by the teacher in this study. While L1 linguistic clues are very specific, and only relate to the vocabulary under discussion, they are direct, and provided students a scaffold to reconsider the question using their existing semantic knowledge.

In these two examples, we can see that there were no mistakes in the students' responses, but rather a gap – neither student knew how to respond to the teacher's question. The teacher provided the student feedback to help the fill the gap by using L1 linguistic clues. In Example 10, the student produced the correct answer after the teacher gave an L1 linguistic clue. Instead of providing the sentence's English translation directly, the teacher told the student the meaning of each character. With these linguistic clues, the student was able to figure out the meaning of the whole phrase, and produced the correct translation. This kind of linguistic clue was particularly effective when the clues were in the context of translation of Chinese to English as the students know English while their vocabulary in Chinese was limited. In contrast, Example 11 is one case in the data where students could not produce the correct answers despite the teacher's L1 linguistic clues. In this example, S11 forgot how to say "new computer" in Chinese, and the teacher provided a literal translation (line 3) as a clue. However, the Student 11 was only able to say "new" in Chinese.

These two examples show that linguistic clues are explicit enough to elicit students' responses, however, the effectiveness of such clues is dependent on students' language proficiency.

V. CONCLUSION

In this study, we obtained the following results: 1) the Chinese beginners made pronunciation and vocabulary mistakes most often; 2) the teacher provided CF to the students' mistakes in vocabulary, grammar and contextual understanding while ignoring half of the phonological mistakes; 3) Measured by the student's self-repair, explicit correction turned out to most effective CF type, while recasts, elicitations and linguistic clues were the least effective of the six strategies the teacher used. Teacher repetition seems very effective, while clarification requests were least effective. However, given their infrequent use (i.e., only once), we could not draw conclusions about their effectiveness in this study. 4) Following the teacher's CF, students could self-repair their mistakes more effectively when they related to contextual comprehension, which was not the case with grammar and vocabulary errors.

Although great care was taken in designing this study, there are some limitations which should be overcome in future studies in this vein. First, this study only analyzed data from 2 lessons and the analysis might be affected by the teaching focus for that week. Second, only one Chinese teacher from one school was observed, thus making the results ungeneralizable. Finally, although gender differences among students was not considered in this study, classroom interactions in co-educational schools and girl's schools may not be the same as in the boy's school studied.

These results have clear pedagogical implications for Chinese teaching and Chinese teacher training. The explicitness of CF plays an important role in the effectiveness of self-repair. In the study, explicit corrections were found to be the most effective CF among the identified categories. Recasts were not effective in all contexts, especially when it was implemented for a whole sentence, which did not highlight the mistake sufficiently. Prompts, however, were not found to be helpful for the beginners' self-repair because the beginners may not have adequate knowledge of Chinese to repair their error. For example, in the grammar section, we can see the teacher did not explain the student's mistake, but rather simply recast the response or prompted the student to give a new answer. This reveals that the role of teacher's explicit

scaffolding in effective self-repair. Ellis (2010)'s suggestion of a prompt-then-provide approach might be a good solution. This means that teacher training on what CF types are available and when to them is also necessary.

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Sentiment Analysis of Spanish Words of Arabic Origin Related to Islam: A Social Network Analysis

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Abstract—With the arrival of Muslims in 711 till their expulsion in the 1600s, Arabic language was present in Spain for more than eight centuries. Although social networks have become a valuable resource for mining sentiments, there is no previous research investigating the layman’s sentiment towards Spanish words of Arabic etymology related to Islamic terminology. This study aim at analyzing Spanish words of Arabic origin related to Islam. A random sample of 4586 out of 45860 tweets was used to evaluate general sentiment towards some Spanish words of Arabic origin related to Islam. An expert-predefined Spanish lexicon of around 6800 seed adjectives was used to conduct the analysis. Results indicate a generally positive sentiment towards several Spanish words of Arabic etymology related to Islam. By implementing both a qualitative and quantitative methodology to analyze tweets’ sentiments towards Spanish words of Arabic etymology, this research adds breadth and depth to the debate over Arabic linguistic influence on Spanish vocabulary.

Index Terms—Spanish words of Arabic origin, sentiment analysis, Text mining, Twitter

I. INTRODUCTION

In 711 a contingent of Muslims led by Tariq Ibn Ziyad crossed North Africa via Gibraltar to the Iberian peninsula. In a few years, Muslims ruled nearly all Iberia or modern day Spain and Portugal. Muslims stayed in Iberia from 711 till their expulsion in 1600s. Over more than eight centuries, Arabic became the language of culture and administration (Plann, 2009). Some authors argue that the greatest Arabic influence of Arabic on Spanish language is lexical, where around 8% of Spanish vocabulary may be traced to Arabic origin (Quintana & Mora, 2002). This includes probably thousands of modern geographic locations that still hold Arabic toponyms dating back to the Moors. Figure 1 shows only 17 of such toponyms in Spain. In fact, it is quite common to find places that contain the word “Guada-”, meaning “river/valley” in Arabic. Examples include “Guadalajara” or “wadi al-hijarah/valley of stones”, “Guadalquivir” or “wadi al-abyad/white valley” and “Guadalcazar” or “wadi al-qasr/valley of castle.” (Please refer to Appendix for more details).



Figure 1. Major Spanish Toponyms (cities of more than 20,000 inhabitants) of Arabic origin

Social media users represent are estimated to represent around 67 percent of the billion Internet active users (Eirinaki, Pisal & Singh, 2012). Thus, social networks play a major role in shaping public opinion's attitudes in areas as diverse as voting, buying products and stock markets prediction (Bai, 2011; Eirinaki, Pisal & Singh, 2012). Kim and Hovy (2004) define an opinion "as a statement in which the opinion holder makes a specific claim about a topic using a certain sentiment.". Online opinions expressed in social networks have been exploited in mining individuals' sentiments through text filtering and mining (Zhang, Zeng, Li, Wang & Zuo, 2009). Social networks' opinions are generally analyzed through natural language processing (NLP) sentiment analysis techniques. Sentiment analysis is also known as opinion mining, review mining, emotional polarity analysis (EPA), or appraisal extraction (Zagal, Tomuro & Shepitsen, 2012). Sentiment analysis can thus be regarded as a method to extract knowledge in order to find hidden patterns in an unstructured text or opinion expressed on blogs or tweets. In order to measure a sentiment score, the text's sentiment is usually compared to a lexicon/dictionary. This comparison determines the strength of the sentiment.

In fact, social network and online digital data created are expected to reach four zettabytes by the end of 2020 (Paper, Ugray & Johnson, 2014). It should be noted also that knowledge discovered through social networks are extremely useful since huge numbers of opinions expressed regarding certain topics are highly unlikely to be biased. This is probably why "social media applications, such as Facebook and Twitter, are increasingly being used by both large and small companies to gain business benefits" (He & Chen, 2014, p. 92). In a similar vein, Parise (2009, p. 2) argues that "social media tools will have a major impact on knowledge management". However, almost all online communications are *noisy* and as such pose considerable lexical and syntactic problems (Boiy & Moens, 2009; Derks, Fischer & Bos, 2008; Thelwall, Buckley, Paltoglou, Cai & Kappas, 2010; Pederson, 2001; Dave, Lawrence, & Pennock, 2003; Turney & Littman, 2003). Because of this problem, several online sentiment analyses techniques have been developed in languages as diverse as Arabic (Ahmed & Almas, 2005), Chinese (e.g., Xu, Liao & Li, 2008), English (e.g., Jansen, Zhang, Sobel & Chowdury, 2009), and multi-languages (Abbasi, Chen, & Salem, 2008).

Although several studies have investigated sentiment in different fields (Cai, Spangler, Chen & Zhang, 2010; Leong, Lee & Mak, 2012), no previous studies have focused solely on investigating sentiment of Islamic-related Spanish words of Arabic etymology as used on Twitter. In this study we aim to fill this research gap. We believe that by investigating such words polarity we add depth to the knowledge base on sentiment analysis and text mining. Through the use of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, we also add breadth to the debate over Islamic-related words sentiment. Finally, by investigating solely Twitter texts, rather than traditional offline data, this research enriches the knowledge base of an under-represented area.

This paper is organized as follows. Next section provides a brief account of related work of major areas of sentiment analysis applications. Section three deals with the research method used to conduct the analysis. In this section issues related to research design, sampling and data analysis techniques are presented. In Section four the results of sentiment analysis are presented. Finally, Section five presents research implications, limitations and explores avenues for future research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Sentiment analysis techniques have been used in diverse areas such as tracking sentiment trends in online discussion boards (e.g., Tong, 2001), differentiating between informative and emotional social media content (Denecke & Nejdi,

2009), tracking political opinions (Thomas, Pang & Lee, 2006) mining suggestions from product reviews (Vishwanath & Aishwarya, 2011), determining consumers' dissatisfaction with online advertising campaigns (e.g., Qiu, He, Zhang, Shi, Bu & Chen, 2010), tracking emotions in emails (Mohammad, 2012), classifying consumers' positive and negative product reviews (Turney, 2002), detecting Internet hot spots (e.g., Li & Wu, 2010), and predicting stock market movements (Wong, Xia, Xu, Wu & Li, 2008). In this section we review the major five distinct sentiment analysis categories, namely political orientation analysis, consumers' product reviews, movie reviews, stock market predictions and patients' mood detection.

Several studies have investigated Twitters' sentiment analysis in election campaigns in European countries such as Sweden and Germany (Larsson & Moe, 2011; Tumasjan, Sprenger, Sandner & Welpe, 2011). In a similar vein, Williams and Gulati (2008) predicted electoral based on the total number of Facebook supporters. Malouf and Mullen (2008) investigated political ideological biases using social network analysis. Golbeck, Grimes and Rogers (2010) analyzed the US Congress Tweets and reported major reasons behind congressmen usage of Twitter. Similarly, Ekdale, Namkoong and Perlmutter (2010) investigated US political bloggers' behavior and argued that extrinsic motivation was the main motive behind blogging. Similar results were reported by Gil De Zuniga, Puig-I-Abril and Rojas (2009). Tweeting behavior during the Arab Spring was also investigated by several researchers (Papacharissi & Oliveira, 2012; Lim, 2012). Results showed that protesters used Twitter an alternative to the blocked access to the Internet. Park, Lim, Sams, Nam and Park (2011) analyzed Korean politicians' visitor boards' comments and found a gender gap in terms of positive and negative comments. Zappavigna (2011) analyzed tweets related to Obama's presidential elections victory in 2008. Other researchers investigating political sentiment analysis include Efron (2004), Thomas, Pang & Lee (2006) and Park, Kim & Barnett (2004)

Extracting sentiments from consumers' reviews has been extensively investigated (Blair-Goldensohn, Hannan, McDonald, Neylon, Reis & Reynar, 2008; Yi, Nasukawa, Bunescu & Niblack, 2003). A polarity system to analyze consumers' comparison comments was developed by Feldman, Fresko, Netzer and Ungar (2007). Hu and Liu (2004) analyzed consumers' sentiments related to several electronic products such as digital cameras and mobile phones. In a similar vein, Miyoshi and Nakagami (2007) analyzed electronic products consumer sentiments using adjective-noun pairs in a sentence. Zhang, Xu and Wan (2012) analyzed consumers' sentiments in Chinese language online texts. In fact, this study was an extension of a study reported by Ding, Liu and Yu (2008) and by liu (2010). Pekar & Ou (2008) evaluated 268 reviews of major hotels using attributes such as room service, facilities and food to analyze composite sentiments towards hotels. Na, Khoo and Wu (2005) classified sentiments related to products' reviews based on data mining techniques.

Na, Thet, and Khoo (2010) analyzed movie reviews by comparing textual characteristics across four different genres. Zhuang, Jing and Zhu (2006) summarized online texts movie reviews sentiments using machine learning techniques. Pang, Lee and Vaithyanathan (2002) classified online sentiments related to movie reviews using support vector machines (SVM). Wijaya & Bressan (2008) used a similar technique, while Na and Khoo (2008a) correctly segmented customers' reviews into relevant sections pertaining to different aspects of the movie. In another study, the same authors (Thet, Na & Khoo, 2008b) used computational linguistics to segment movie reviews comments.

Das and Chen (2001) analyzed sentiments related to Yahoo! Finance's discussion board. Gu, Konana, Liu, Rajagopalan and Ghosh (2006) predicted different stocks' future returns based on comments posted on the same platform. Bollen, Mao and Zeng (2011) predicted stock market movements using Twitter posts. Other studies investigated investors' sentiments related to factors such as air disasters (Kaplanski & Levy, 2010), earthquakes (Shan & Gong, 2012), and sports events (Chang, Chen, Chou & Lin, 2012).

Several studies have recently investigated the use of sentiment analysis in patients' mood detection. For example, Rodrigues et al. (2016) developed a Portuguese language sentiment analysis tool to detect emotional polarity among online cancer community in Brazil. Porter et al. (2013) applied sentiment analysis techniques on online cancer posts in order to detect changes in individuals' moods as a consequence of interaction with other patients within the same community. In a similar vein, Akay et al. (2015) investigated cancer patients and their families' sentiments as a reaction to the environment surrounding them. Twitter has been recognized also as a powerful gauge of several medical issues such as understanding of attitudes towards immunization (Love et al., 2013), forecasting affordable care markets (Wong et al., 2015), supporting decision-making in healthcare (Swain, 2016), predicting patients' feedback (Smith and Lee, 2012), analyzing drug reviews (Na et al. 2012) and investigating medical sentiments concerning patients' health status (Denecke and Deng, 2015).

III. METHOD

a. Twitter sampling

Launched on July 13, 2006, Twitter revolves around posting short updates of 140 maximum characters, which is approximately the size of a newspaper headline. It is estimated that there are around 500 million active twitters (Bliss, Klouman, Harris, Danforth & Dodds, 2012). Thelwall, Buckley and Paltoglou (2011) found that around 80 percent of Twitter users either disseminate information regarding their daily experiences or update their followers on what they actually doing. We selected Twitter for this study because it is the most large and popular microblog Web site. We used data representing a random set of Twitter posts from November 15, 2016, to December 15, 2016. The data comprised

4586 out of 45860 tweets generated. All retweets and duplicated tweets were eliminated. Sample selection has been varied by day of the week and hours in the day in order to guarantee representativeness. The sample is comparable in size to similar research studies. For example, Qiu, He, Zhang, Shi, Bu, and Chen (2010) used a sample of 3783 opinion sentences.

b. Lexicon

Miao, Li, and Zeng (2010) argued that there are generally two widely used methods for sentiment orientation. The first one is known in the text mining community as the lexicon-based approach, while the second one is known as the corpus-based method. However, it should be noted that only few authors have used the corpus-based method in analyzing sentiment orientation. Both methods require either a pre-defined dictionary or a corpus of subjective words. In either method, the sentiment score is determined via a comparison between the sentence presented and an expert-defined entry in the dictionary. Several lexicons have been used in the literature such as the General Inquirer (Stone, Dunphy, Smith, & Ogilvie, 1966), the sentiment-based lexicon (Taboada, Brooke, Tofiloski, Voll, & Stede, 2011), the SentiWordNet (Baccianella, Esuli, & Sebastiani, 2010), the LIWC dictionary (Pennebaker, Mehl, & Niederhoffer, 2003), the Q-WordNet (Agerri & Garcia-Serrano, 2010) or the lexicon of subjectivity clues (Wiebe, Wilson, Bruce, Bell, & Martin, 2004). However, in this study we use the Spanish version of the Hu and Liu (2004) lexicon because it has been used successfully in similar applications (Miner, Delen, Elder, Fast, Hill, & Nisbet, 2012). The lexicon is similar in size to the Opinion Finder lexicon (Bollen, Mao, & Zeng, 2011).

IV. RESULTS

Several libraries/software packages such as the `twitterR`, the `maps`, the `plyr`, the `stringr` and the `ggplot2` libraries within the R version 3.3 environment were used to conduct the quantitative sentiment score. Figure 2 shows the distribution of positive sentiment scores obtained, while Figure 3 shows the distribution of negative sentiment scores. From the graphs, we recognize some asymmetry. For example, some words have high bars at the left end (positively skewed), while others show negative skeweness as measured by high tail on the left-hand side of the histogram. The visualization of the sentiment distribution in Figures 2 and 3 further underlines the fact that most words fall on the neutral point (0) or within the band of circa $-1/+1$. This result is in line with Lindgren (2012), who argued that the focus of sentiment analysis should be on either the positive or negative sentiments.

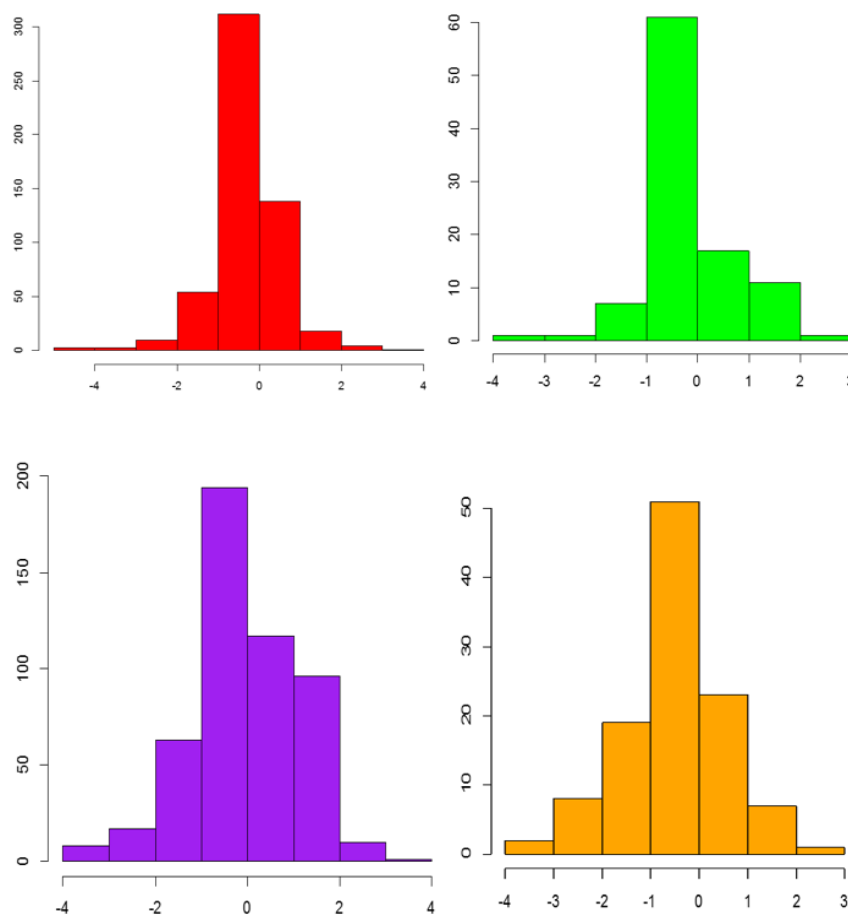


Figure 2. Major words with positive sentiment scores

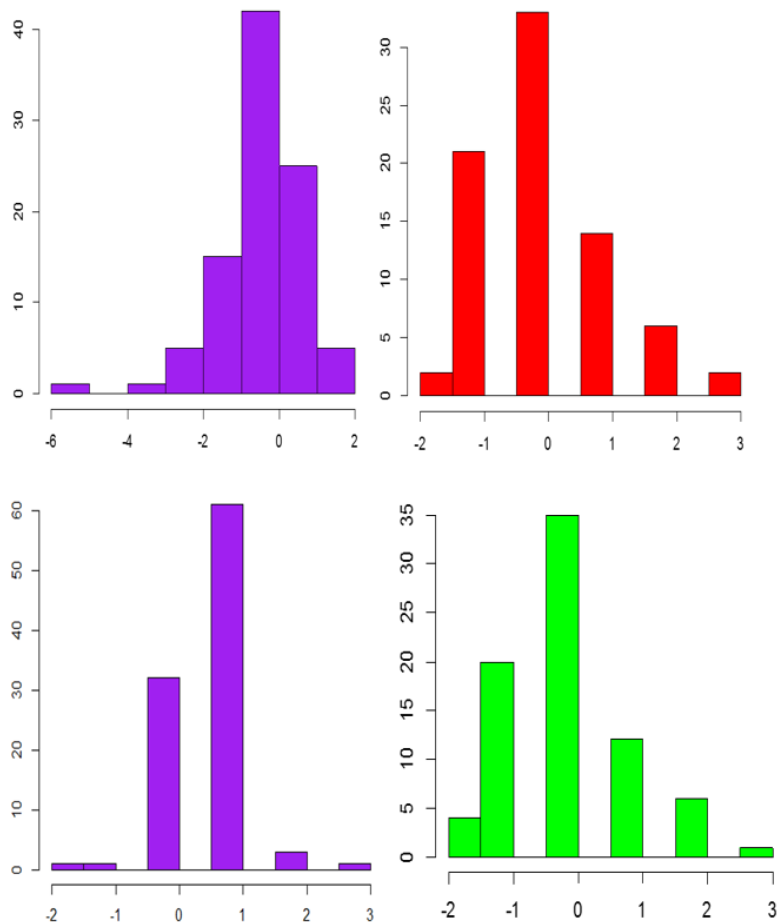


Figure 3. Major words with negative sentiment scores

Table 1 presents the division of random sample of tweets among each word used in the analysis. Following similar research only Spanish tweets were used to avoid text analysis complications (Thelwall, Buckley & Paltoglou, 2011). From Table 1 we see that most words have a positive sentiment score with the exception of four words (Islam Wahabita, Islamización, Islamismo, and Islamofobia). The overall mean score for the twenty Spanish words of Arabic etymology related to Islamic terminology was 0.2331.

TABLE 1.
SPANISH WORDS AND THEIR AVERAGE, MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM SENTIMENT SCORES

ID	Word	Tweets	Mean	Min	Max
1	ISLAM	1000	0.6710	-4	5
2	ISLÁMICA	541	0.1867	-5	4
3	ISLÁMICO	506	0.4348	-4	4
4	ISLAM CEUTÍ	415	0.5398	-3	4
5	ISLAM CHIÍ	398	0.0729	-3	3
6	ISLAM SUNÍ	287	0.6969	-2	3
7	ISLAM SUNNITA	236	0.6864	-2	5
8	ISLAMOFA	179	0.1117	-3	3
9	ISLAMICIDAD	132	0.2121	-2	2
10	ISLAMISTA	119	0.7479	-2	4
11	ISLAM WAHABITA	111	-0.0180	-4	3
12	ISLAMIZADO	99	0.6768	-2	3
13	ISLAMIZADORA	99	0.2929	-4	3
14	ISLAMIZAR	94	0.0106	-6	2
15	ISLAMO-ARABIZANTE	83	0.4458	-3	2
16	ISLAMÓFOBA	78	0.0897	-2	3
17	ISLAMIZACIÓN	78	-0.0128	-2	3
18	ISLAMÓFOGA	48	0.2917	-1	3
19	ISLAMISMO	42	-0.6429	-6	2
20	ISLAMOFOBIA	41	-0.3947	-4	1
Total and grand mean		4586	0.2331		

V. IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

In this paper we analyzed sentiment polarity of more than 4500 social media tweets expressing sentiments towards twenty Spanish words of Arabic etymology related to Islamic terminology. Although any tweet is limited to 140 characters, millions of tweets posted on Twitter almost on a daily basis. Such tweets might provide an unbiased representation of individuals' sentiment towards a specific topic. Moreover, such tweets may be used by policy makers to gauge opinions regarding a specific issue. Ignoring such sentiments might put policy makers on the defensive and could also create significant image problems. The speed of social media might also render politicians efforts based on traditional media useless. However, it should be noted that while we conducted sentiment analysis to objectively classify individuals' opinions towards twenty Spanish words of Arabic etymology related to Islamic terminology, our analysis does not reveal the underlying reasons behind forming such opinions. Thus, future research might use topic recognition techniques in order to determine the most representative topics behind each sentiment, which allows us to gain comprehensive knowledge regarding the underlying causes of positive or negative sentiments. Although the lexicon-based approach we used in this study can detect basic sentiments, it sometimes fails to recognize subtle forms of linguistic expressions (Boiy and Moens, 2009). Finally, individuals' opinions might in fact be a manipulation of some online opinion makers posing as real individuals. This might distort sentiments of real individuals. Thus, future research should attempt to distinguish genuine sentiments from fake opinions.

APPENDIX. R CODES USED TO PRODUCE THE MAP IN FIGURE 1

```
require(maptools)
require(raster)
require(maps)
data(world.cities)
adm = getData("GADM", country= "Spain", level = 2)
mar = adm[adm$NAME_0 == "Spain" & adm$NAME_1 != "Islas Canarias",]
mar$coso = rep(1, length(mar$NAME_2))
plot(mar, bg = "grey80", axes= T)
plot(mar, lwd = 10, border= "cornsilk", add= T)
plot(mar, col= c("bisque", "red")[mar$coso], add=T)
grid()
box()
Ciudades = world.cities[ world.cities$country.etc == "Spain" &
(world.cities$pop > 20000),]
Ciudades
points(x= Ciudades$long, y= Ciudades$lat, cex = 5 *
(Ciudades$pop/max(Ciudades$pop)), pch = 19, col = "indianred2" )
Ciudades2 = Ciudades[ Ciudades$name %in% c("Guadalajara", "Albacete", "Almeria", "Granada", "Madrid",
"Malaga", "Murcia", "Algeciras", "Sevilla", "Valladolid", "Calatayud", "Zaragoza", "Benalmadena", "Cadiz", "Cordoba",
"Jaen", "Medina del Campo"), ]
Text (Ciudades2$long, Ciudades2$lat + 0.6*
(Ciudades2$pop/max (Ciudades2$pop)), Ciudades2$name, cex = 0.8)
```

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A Major Difference between the Formation of English Words and the Formation of Chinese Words in Modern Times

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Abstract—The English language is a language of “fertility” due to its continuous formation of new words in modern times. However, the Chinese language is “infertile” because it has basically stopped creating totally new words. The general trend in the development of a Chinese character in the Chinese history has been moving from complexity to simplicity. As a result, it leads to the “infertility” of the Chinese language and makes it difficult to combine a limited number of different strokes within a limited space known as 方块字 *Fāngkuàizì* ‘Square Block Word’. What is a totally new word in English is simply a combination of used words in Chinese. The Chinese language’s capability of saving horizontal and linear space makes this combination feasible to express a new meaning. Three types of constraint arising from limited type and number of Strokes, General Trend toward Simplicity and Square-Framed Space have made their concurrent contribution to the “infertility” of the Chinese word formation. The preference of the Chinese language for new combinations of used words over the creation of total new Chinese words in modern times constitutes a major difference between the formation of English words and the formation of Chinese words in modern times.

Index Terms—creation of total new words, general trend toward simplicity, horizontal and linear space, language of “fertility”, language of “infertility”, new combinations of used words, square-framed space of 方块字 *Fāngkuàizì*

I. INTRODUCTION

What are major differences between the formation of English words and the formation of Chinese words in modern times? Too many answers might pop up immediately in the Internet. Some of them are related to tenses, gender, sounds, tones, alphabetical letters, strokes, prefix or suffix. However, when we re-read the title of this article, we have to check all the answers very carefully and try to identify whether or not an answer to the question is exclusively related to the essential words “Modern Times” specified in the title. Any differences in terms of tenses, gender, sounds, tones, alphabetical letters and prefix/suffix between these two languages are not only of a modern nature, but they are also an end result of the whole linguistic history.

As far as the formation of new words in modern times is concerned, the Chinese language will be considered as an “infertile” language, whereas the English (as well as other western languages such as French) will be considered as a “fertile” language. The English language is a language of “fertility” due to its continuous formation of new words in modern times. It seems that English will never experience “menopause.” As a result, it will never come to the end of its life in “reproductivity”. A totally new word which did not previously exist in English or other related languages is often coined such as “robotics” coined by Isaac Asimov (c. January 2, 1920 – April 6, 1992) (Dr. Joseph Koyippally, 2007) and the medicine brand name “Viagra” (*Wikipedia*, July 2017). However, the Chinese language has undergone a process of “birth control” in the modern times and has become “infertile” in producing totally new words. The recently popularized Chinese character 囧 *Jiǒng* seems to give an impression of being a totally new Chinese character and find its counterpart 😞 in English in modern times. However, actually it is not a “newborn” Chinese character at all. This character can be traced back to the age of oracle bone inscription where “囟 *Cōng*”, “窗 *Chuāng*” and “囧 *Jiǒng*” are mentioned together as “window” (*Dictionary of Pictographs*, vividict.com, July 2017). 许慎 *Xǔ Shèn* (58-147), the famous philologist of the Eastern Han Dynasty discussed this word in his *说文解字* *Shuō wén jiě zì* (*Analytical Dictionary of Characters*): 囧, 窗牖兩慶, 闔明也 *Jiǒng, chuāng yǒu li lóu, kāi míng yě* (large windows which are exquisitely bright and clear). “*Jiǒng* ... is a once obscure Chinese character meaning a ‘patterned window’”. Since 2008, it has become an internet phenomenon and widely used to express embarrassment and gloom, because of the character’s resemblance to a sad facial expression. (*Wikipedia*, <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jiǒng>, July 2017). The word “囧 *Jiǒng*” turns out simply to be “an old bottle used for new wine”. Only its meaning is changed from ‘window’ to express ideas or feelings such as annoyance, shock, embarrassment. In contrast, the English language experiences its constant “labor pains”, continually generating “newborn” words. “Words like gadget, blimp, raunchy, scam, nifty, zit, clobber, boffin, gimmick, jazz and googol have all appeared in the last century or two with no apparent etymology, and are more recent examples of this kind of novel creation of words.” (*History of English*,

http://www.thehistoryofenglish.com/issues_new.html, July 2017); whereas the Chinese language paradoxically enjoys its pleasure of post-menopausal life and does not have to experience the “labor pain” any more, and the Chinese language learner also does not have to experience the pain in memorizing any totally new Chinese characters. All in all, the Chinese language is “infertile” because nowadays it has almost or totally stopped creating a new word in a similar way the English language has stopped creating any totally new alphabetic letters. In the strictest sense of its meaning, not even one totally new Chinese character has been created since an uncertain date in the modern history just as not even one totally new English alphabetic letter has been generated after the letter “Z”).

II. THE DEFINITION OF THE WORD “MODERN”

According to *Wikipedia*,

Modern history, also referred to as modern period or the modern era, is the historiographical approach to the timeframe after the post-classical era (known as the Middle Ages). [1][2] Modern history can be further broken down into the early modern period and the late modern period after the French Revolution and the Industrial Revolution. Contemporary history is the span of historic events that are immediately relevant to the present time. The modern era began approximately in the 16th century.

The word “Modern” is a loosely defined concept, delineating a period of time in late history. No one knows exactly when new Chinese characters stopped being created in the Chinese language. This could not have happened too early in Chinese history because much time would have been needed to create a vast and extraordinary number of Chinese characters. In the later age, the Chinese people might have realized that they have created enough or even too many Chinese characters, or they suddenly realized one day that they had found new ways to avoid having to create new characters. Therefore, the word “modern” can be defined here as the period of time when the Chinese language stopped creating its totally new characters.

III. THE GENERAL TREND

The general trend in the development of a Chinese character in the Chinese history is moving gradually from simplicity to complexity and then back to simplicity, such as:

the character 左 *Zuǒ* ‘left’ (𠄎 甲骨文 *Jiǎgǔwén* ‘oracle bone inscription’ -> 𠄎 金文 *Jīn wén* ‘bronze inscription’ -> 𠄎 篆文 *Zhuàn wén* ‘Seal script’ -> 左 *Zuǒ* ‘left’ 标准宋体 *Biāozhǔn sòngtǐ* ‘Standard SimSun’); (*Dictionary of Pictographs*, *vividict.com*, July 2017).

and the character 你 *Nǐ* ‘you’ (你 甲骨文 *Jiǎgǔwén* ‘oracle bone inscription’ -> 你 金文 *Jīn wén* ‘bronze inscription’ -> 你 篆文 *Zhuàn wén* ‘Seal script’ -> 你 *Nǐ* ‘you’ 标准宋体 *Biāozhǔn sòngtǐ* ‘Standard SimSun’; or sometimes it is moving directly from complexity to simplicity such as:




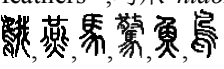




the character 具 *Jù* ‘utensil’ (具 甲骨文 *Jiǎgǔwén* ‘oracle bone inscription’ -> 具 金文 *Jīn wén* ‘bronze inscription’ -> 具 篆文 *Zhuàn wén* ‘Seal script’ -> 具 *Jù* 标准宋体 *Biāozhǔn sòngtǐ* ‘Standard SimSun’ (*vividict.com*, July 2017).

The transformation from Oracle Inscription to Bronze Script seems a process from a Picture to a kind of “Paraphrase” or to a kind of “translation” from an original language to a target language. More images are added to clarify the meaning of the original picture, and more words are needed to fully translate the original meaning in a picture. Therefore the transformation from Oracle Inscription to Bronze Script is a process from Simple to Complex; for example,

甲骨文	金文	篆文	隶书	楷书	行书	草书	繁体标宋	简体标宋	简化方案
									采用俗体楷书字形(类推简化。如: 紀 → 记, 紅 → 红)
前·12	中山王壺	籀文 说文解字	曹全碑	颜真卿 颜真卿	米芾	陆游	印刷字库	印刷字库	

A knife 刀 is added to between two groups of thread in 絕 (金文 *Jīn wén* ‘bronze inscription’) in the above illustration to indicate more clearly than in the picture 絕 that a knife is used to cut off threads. More examples of the same kind can be found in the characters 報 *Bào* ‘plead guilty’, 神 *Shén* ‘god’, 射 *Shè* ‘shoot’, etc. (See *Dictionary of Pictographs*, *vividict.com*, July 2017) Oracle Bone Inscription and Bronze Script are picture-oriented; Seal Script is partially picture-oriented or partially image-oriented, whereas 隶书 *Lìshū* ‘Official Script’ is completely stroke-oriented. Seal Script paved the way for 隶书 *Lìshū* to complete its stroke-oriented formation of Chinese characters. For example,

甲骨文	金文	篆文	隶书	楷书	行书	草书	繁体标宋	简体标宋	简化方案
𠩺	𠩺	𠩺	鵝	鵝 鵝	鵝	鵝	鵝	鵝	采用俗体楷书字形类推简化。如： 鳥 → 鸟 𠩺 → 𠩺
智缺	智缺	说文解字	吴隐	颜真卿 颜真卿	王献之 孔贞运	李白	印刷字库	印刷字库	


The word 鵝 É ‘Goose’ in Seal Script is half in an image  and half in strokes . A systematic formation of Chinese characters with strokes is first realized in 隶书 Lishū ‘Official Script’. No more hieroglyphs, pictographs or images are allowed to appear in the stroke-oriented Official Script. This transition from Seal Script to Official Script or from image-oriented to stroke-oriented is sometimes so radical and drastic that many changes are often considered by the author of *Dictionary of Pictographs* as mistakes. Take the Radical 四点底 , *Sì diǎn dǐ* ‘four-dot bottom component’ for example, it is often used to indicate 火 Huǒ ‘fire’ as in the Chinese characters 热 rè ‘hot’, 烈 liè ‘intense’, 照 zhào ‘illuminate’, 蒸 zhēng ‘steaming’, etc. However, this same bottom component is used to indicate 鸟羽 Niǎoyǔ ‘bird feathers’, 鸟爪 niǎozhǎo ‘birds claw’, 鸟尾 niǎowěi ‘bird tail’, 马蹄 mǎtí ‘horseshoe’, 鱼尾 yúwěi ‘fish tail’. (See  *Dictionary of Pictographs*, vividict.com, July 2017) The above application of 四点底  is graphically similar but etymologically unrelated to its usage to indicate 火 Huǒ ‘fire’. Actually, it is not a kind of mistake as that author indicates. This application is designed for the sake of simplicity in order to reduce the number of different strokes or to avoid creating another type of stroke. When the transition from picture-oriented or image-oriented to stroke-oriented in 隶书 Lishū ‘Official Script’ is so drastic that the picture or image is totally sacrificed to serve the purpose of simplicity. For example, the image  in  (會 Huì ‘rice and dishes were mixed and cooked together’) is transformed to a much simpler form  in 會. (For more examples, See 胃 Wèi ‘stomach’, 思 sī ‘thinking’ and 果 guǒ ‘fruit’ (*Dictionary of Pictographs*, vividict.com, July 2017).

This transition has abandoned complicated forms such as pictures and images and adopted simple forms such as strokes. As a result, it not only has simplified the formation of a word by using strokes but also laid a crucial foundation which later made a concurrent contribution to the "infertility" in the Chinese word formation. The appearance of 简体字 Jiǎntǐzì ‘Simplified Chinese Characters’ which were developed in Mainland China in 1950s seems to serve the function of a birth control surgery and make this general trend to Simplicity irreversible. However, the appearance of computers or cell phones makes this general trend almost stop or makes this movement extremely slow because whether to write a Traditional Chinese Character or a Simplified Chinese Character fundamentally means the same to a keyboard.

IV. 方块字 FĀNGKUÀIZI ‘SQUARE SCRIPT’

A Chinese character is also known as 方块字 Fāngkuàizì ‘Square Script or Square-Framed Character or Square Block Word’. After staying away from image-centered Bronze Script and Seal Script, 隶书 Lishū ‘Official Script’ took the real form of "square word". Each character consists of various strokes formed by different dots or lines as its basic components. There are over 30 different strokes, such as 一, |, J, 丿, 冂, 丷, ㇇, ㇈, ㇉, ..., large in number, but not countless. Moreover, a Chinese character which can be even composed of two or more single characters within this square space is called 合体字 Hétǐ zì ‘multiple-component character’, such as "校 Xiào ‘school’" consisting of "木 Mù ‘wood’" and "交 Jiāo ‘cross’", and "森 Sēn ‘forest’" of three "木 Mù". These characters or strokes can be arranged within this square space in a different structure, such as 独体结构 Dú tǐ jiégòu ‘single-character structure’, 品字形结构 Pǐn zìxíng jiégòu ‘triangle-character structure’, 上下结构 Shàngxià jiégòu ‘upper and lower character structure’, 上中下结构 Shàng zhōng xià jiégòu ‘upper, middle and lower character structure’, 左右结构 Zuǒyòu jiégòu ‘left and right character structure’, 左中右结构 Zuǒ zhōng yòu jiégòu ‘left, middle and right character structure’, 全包围结构 Quán bāowéi jiégòu ‘all-surrounding character structure’, 半包围结构 Bàn bāowéi jiégòu ‘half-surrounding character structure’. The rearrangement of a combination of these same components or strokes or even characters within this square-frame space had generated many new and different Chinese characters before.

V. TOTAL TYPES OF STROKES, GENERAL TREND AND 方块字 ‘SQUARE SCRIPT’

Since there are only about or less than 40 different types of strokes available for Chinese characters, this combination and rearrangement of combinations of these strokes are restricted by three types of constraint. First of all, although the rearrangement of a combination of these same components or strokes or even characters could generate many new and different Chinese characters as indicated in the above paragraph, the combination of the limited types of strokes to generate new characters is never endless and is restricted by its own total number of types. At the same time, the same graphical stroke or component is used instead to replace totally different images or shapes in Seal Script and to express totally different meanings in order to avoiding a formation of new types of strokes in 隶书 Lishū ‘Official Script’ as shown in the above example about 四点底 , *Sì diǎn dǐ* ‘bottom component’. From the aesthetic point of view, the formation of a Chinese character is not simply a random pileup of strokes. The factors such shape, balance, density and

beauty should also be taken into consideration when developing a new and simple Chinese character. When we increase the number of strokes from one to 12, we will not only see the formation of different Chinese characters in a sequence from 一 *yī* ‘one’, 十 *shí* ‘ten’, 木 *mù* ‘wood’, 林 *lín* ‘woods’ then to 森 *sēn* ‘forest’, but also see its limit in forming a new character of more strokes than in 森 *sēn* ‘forest’ in this sequence. An addition of one more stroke to the character 森 *sēn* ‘forest’ in order to form a totally new word in this sequence will distort shape, destroy balance and compromise beauty. Secondly, the potential capability in the combination of these strokes to form simply a **new** Chinese character is much larger than to form **both new and simple** characters because the combination of this limited types of strokes to generate **both new and simple** Chinese characters is considerably restricted by the general trend to reduce strokes in number to form a simple Chinese character. The general trend toward simplicity is irreversible after 简体字 *Jiǎntǐzì* ‘Simplified Chinese Characters’ has been put into practice. Thirdly, the combination of this limited number of strokes to generate **both new and simple** Chinese characters is greatly restricted by the square-framed space of 方块字 *Fāngkuàizì*. The space for each of the Chinese characters of the same font size is same and cannot be expanded. These strokes cannot go beyond this square space to be developed horizontally and linearly like the English language. That means, the number of strokes used within that space is limited and the square-framed space cannot be “over-populated” due to the general trend from Complexity to Simplicity. Although the increase of strokes in number in a character will not increase the size of a Chinese character and will not occupy more space than a character of fewer strokes in Chinese, the general trend is to reduce strokes in number to form a simple Chinese character. If the general trend in the development of a Chinese character is moving toward simplicity, the number of strokes used within that space will be decreased accordingly. When the number of strokes within that space is decreased, the new combination of strokes in forming a totally new character is gradually coming to an end in modern times after over 90,000 Chinese characters have been produced in a history of thousand years.

As a result, the above three types of constraint have led the Chinese language to have abandoned its complicated forms and adopted its simple forms and have made their concurrent contribution to the “infertility” of the Chinese word formation.

VI. NEW WORDS AND NEW COMBINATION OF USED WORDS

It is a universal truth that a language is a combination of sentences or words and more. However, it is true to say only to a certain extent that a word is made of a root or a combination of a root with a prefix or suffix because the Chinese language does not have a prefix or suffix in its strictest sense. Therefore, as a Chinese medical student, the first step in learning the medical terms in the Chinese language is not to understand how to divide words into their root, prefix and suffix as a English medical student does.

Comparatively speaking, when learning English, people can read English newspapers after they have learned 3,000-4,000 English words, due to the existence of prefixes and suffixes which can help people to expand their vocabulary. However, when learning Chinese, people may at first need more words (at least 5,000-6,000 words or more) to read Chinese newspapers because the Chinese language does not have prefixes and suffixes. But what happens in the later stages of learning is just the opposite: a Chinese language learner may not need to learn too many new words or may not need to learn more new words than an English learner does because the Chinese language in modern times is largely a language of combination of words for the learner in his/her later stages of learning. If a new medical term is needed, Chinese people use the words already known to them and combine them in a new or different order. The English learner on the other hand may need to learn a totally new medical term, such as Viagra, Cialis, jejunum, cancer, etc. This unique and favorable condition for the Chinese language contributes to almost or actually having stopped creating totally new Chinese characters since an uncertain date in the modern history.

As Davi-Ellen Chabner (2011) says, “Studying medical terminology is very similar to learning a new language. At first, the words sound strange and complicated, although they may stand for commonly known disorders and terms. For example, **cephalgia** means ‘headache’, and an **ophthalmologist** is an ‘eye doctor’” (P. 3). But for the Chinese learner, his/her first job in learning the language of medicine is just to learn a new combination, even if it is a medical term. The word **cephalgia** is translated into the Chinese words simply as “头痛 *Tóutòng*” ‘headache’ by combining the common words the head “头 *Tóu*” ‘head’ with the ache “痛 *Tòng*” together. It is the same with the word **ophthalmologist**.

The Chinese language does not have a prefix or suffix in its strictest sense. However, it seems that every Chinese word serves the function of being a prefix or suffix or both of them. What appears in English as a prefix or a suffix will be translated into a word instead in Chinese. For example, the word **Electrocardiogram** will be translated into “心电图 *Xīndiàntú*”. Here, “心 *Xīn*” means “heart” for the English “cardio-”; “电 *Diàn*” means “electro-”; “图 *Tú*” means “picture” for “-gram.” As a Chinese learner, he/she is not really learning a new word such as electrocardiogram but instead combines common words in a new or different order such as “心” (heart), “电” (electricity), and “图” (picture). For an English medical professional, the word “electrocardiogram” is also a combination of a prefix, a combining form (root) and a suffix. However, the name “Viagra” was a totally new term coined even for English medical professionals; the word “Viagra” stands for the name of a medicine and is translated into Chinese as “伟哥 *Wěigē*”. Here, “伟 *Wěi*” means “great”, a very common word in Chinese; “哥 *Gē*” means “elder brother”, another common word in Chinese,

which is a euphemism here for “penis” among the Chinese community. What is a totally new word in English is simply a combination of used words in Chinese, more often a combination of common or simple words.

Although the English language contains combinations of words such as “goodwill”, “schoolboy”, “classroom”, etc., it is fundamentally a language of alphabetical letters arranged in a horizontal and linear orientation. Only few words of English words will occupy the same horizontal and linear space as Chinese characters. For example, the two-letter English word “OK” will roughly occupy the same horizontal and linear space as the Chinese character “好 *Hǎo* ‘OK’” of the same font size. However, most of English words occupy more horizontal and linear space than Chinese characters. Therefore, the combination of English words is considerably restricted by its occupying too much horizontal and linear space. You will seldom see a combination of two words that go beyond 15 letters because this will occupy too much space horizontally and, most likely, difficult to pronounce. It is more feasible to create a totally new word instead of creating a new combination of long English words such as “antidisestablishmentarianism” (referred to as the “longest word in English” by *Wikipedia*). The preference of a new combination of used words to express a new meaning in the Chinese language is justified by the shape of a Chinese character, “方块字 *Fāngkuàizì*” which is literally translated as “square, block word”. Every Chinese character of the same font size takes the shape of a square and occupies the space of the same size. The reader can measure the space which each Chinese character occupies if we use the same font size as in English. The Chinese word “方 *Fāng*” may take up less horizontal and linear space than an English word of three letters such as “new”. In other words, a combination of three Chinese words such as “方块字 *Fāngkuàizì*” will take up less space than that of one English word “character” in the same font size. The Chinese language’s capability of saving horizontal and linear space in a Chinese character makes the combination of these three Chinese characters 方块字 feasible as a phrase in a horizontally and linear orientation to express a meaning. Thereby, a new combination of Chinese characters in a horizontally and linear orientation can represent a new meaning conveyed by a newly created English word. So, the preference of a new combination of words instead of creating a totally new word to express a new meaning in the Chinese language is predetermined by its square shape, its one-size-fits-all characters, its restricted structure of strokes, its restricted number or types of strokes and its capability of saving horizontal and linear space as well as its general trend to form a simple Chinese character.

VII. CONCLUSION

Thus, the English learner must memorize “newborn” words produced by a “fertile” language such as English, French, etc.; whereas the Chinese learner paradoxically enjoys memorizing the new combination of used words due to the “dead mechanism” of the Chinese language in producing totally new words. The preference of the Chinese language for new combinations of characters over the creation of total new Chinese characters in modern times becomes a natural result of its development. In this sense, the Chinese language prefers “infertility” to “lifetime productivity” because the Chinese language might find that kind of “lifetime productivity” is a “painful” experience, and unexpectedly, “menopause” becomes a preferred language status in order to avoid such a kind of “pain and suffering” in labor experienced by the English language while creating totally new words. The preference of the Chinese language for new combinations of used words over the creation of total new Chinese words becomes a natural result of its development and constitutes a major difference from the formation of English words in modern times.

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“Nigerian Students in the American ESL Freshman Writing Class: A Site of Resistance and Accommodation”

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Abstract—Two groups of undergraduate students, one composed of 15 Nigerian students studying at a public university in the US and a similar one composed of US-born students from the same university composed short essay drafts in response to the same writing prompt. These essays were read by the researchers and a group of student assistants to assess the differences between the two groups. The Nigerian students wrote longer essays with longer sentences and were more likely to use subordination than were their US counterparts. Both groups then participated in focus groups to discuss their English language education, university experiences, and attitudes toward college writing. The Nigerian students viewed the development of English writing skills as much more important than did their US counterparts but expressed frustration that their instructors in the US tended to dismiss what they saw as more eloquent writing, privileging instead a brief and concise style. The article discusses the results of the study as well as the frustration expressed by the Nigerian students and argues in support of Lee’s (2014) assertion that universities seek to “internationalize” faculty and student recruitment as well as provide better training for first-year composition instructors to equip them with a more sophisticated understanding of the varieties of the English language. The authors suggest that doing so will lead to better outcomes and increased retention for this group of international students.

Index Terms—freshman composition, ESL writing, Nigerian English

I. INTRODUCTION

As the number of international students pursuing higher education opportunities in the English-speaking world increases, teachers of English composition are challenged to find the most effective strategies for teaching academic English to these students, as well as in finding ways to offer a high degree of immersion in vernacular English. Carroll & Dunkelblau (2011) discuss the challenges for composition faculty in helping non-native English speakers learn the types of writing they will be called upon to perform in a variety of academic disciplines at most universities. Yet, in many cases these courses seem to take a “one-size-fits-all” approach to the teaching of English composition and overlook the actual academic preparation of students from other countries as well as students’ actual English proficiency prior to their matriculation at universities in the English-speaking world.

As the number of Nigerian students studying in the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada increases, universities attempt to find ways to welcome these students and to serve their academic needs (Manyibe, et al 2013). However, these students are often classified as second-language English learners and are enrolled in courses that offer a more-or-less traditional English as a Second Language (ESL) experience (Kolade, 2013). While the Nigerian students themselves often claim that English is their first language, many complain that their efforts are devalued as they do not meet what they felt was an often inadequately-defined “Western” standard of writing. We are skeptical of this “ESL” approach and suggest that it may be more accurate to describe English in Nigeria as a language learned concurrently (at least in urban and in private schools) with indigenous languages such as Yoruba and Igbo. Instead of focusing our attention on teaching English as a second language, it may make greater sense for us to understand the difficulties these international Nigerian students exhibit in writing “standard” or academic English as a result of widely varying access to educational facilities such as different varieties of English taught and inconsistent writing instruction at the secondary educational level at their home country (Agbatogun, 2013). Indeed, for the past two decades, there is some evidence that English has become the language of choice in many Nigerian homes (Schaefer & Egbokhare, 1999). At the same time, access to English instruction throughout the country seems to have become more unequal (Okebukola, 2012). Fakeye (2010) suggests that students from middle class or higher backgrounds who demand English instruction come from families who have the means to pay for private schooling when their district’s public schools fail to offer adequate English instruction. Those students whose families lack the means, however, often experience a poor standard of English instruction. Thus, the English levels these international Nigerian students present with when they matriculate at

American universities can be inconsistent, which may lead to certain perceptions regarding Nigerian academic English writing performance.

In order to further understand the roles English plays for these international Nigerian college students in their education and to seek the effective pedagogy to teach academic English writing to them at the universities in the United States, the present study explores the writing behaviors of a group of Nigerian university students at a small public university in southwestern Oklahoma. Although the study is qualitative in nature and involves grounded theory methodology (and is, thus, inductive), there were three discernable areas of inquiry that we aimed to explore:

- (1) What were the actual differences between the writing produced by a sample of international Nigerian university students and by that produced by a similar group of US-born students?
- (2) What were the differences in elementary and secondary English language instruction between the two groups?
- (3) How did the two groups of students view the importance of English language writing and instruction at the university level?

The study will discuss the findings of these research questions in greater detail as well as the possible implications of these findings in terms of ESL and composition pedagogy. We advocate for a more nuanced and research-based approach to the design of writing courses for international students.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Before reporting on the methodology and the results of the study, a brief overview of the issues that affect English teaching in Nigeria as well as the issues that impact Nigerian university students abroad might be beneficial here.

First, in terms of a “Nigerian English,” there is much scholarship that supports the existence of this variety of the English spoken in Nigeria as a separate dialect. Ajani (2007) notes that, apart from loanwords borrowed from languages such as Yoruba and Igbo, Nigerian English is marked by reduplication (repetition) for intensification or sometimes for differentiation. Oshodi (2014) suggests that Nigerian English speakers employ a truncated tense system, similar to the somewhat more limited number of tenses seen in many varieties of English spoken in former British Crown colonies. The writing samples we collected were analyzed, of course, to see if any of these features existed in the writing.

In terms of student experiences in primary and secondary schools, it is helpful to understand the structure of Nigerian public education. Clark & Ausukuya (2013) report that primary and secondary education is the shared responsibility of federal and local governments in Nigeria, with local governments taking the lead in curriculum development. Most schools begin English instruction no later than the third grade for students, and after that time, virtually all academic instruction is conducted in English. Yet, the rate of English literacy for 24-50 year olds is only around 70%, due in large part to the fact that, outside of major cities such as Lagos, schools are often poorly funded and parents cannot often afford the private supplemental instruction that might compensate for deficiencies in instruction. United States Embassy and Consulate in Nigeria (2015) reports wide disparities in education funding across the country and in the quality of teachers in primary and secondary schools and notes that, as a result, there is a wide variety in the quality of instruction throughout the country. Indeed, UNESCO (2011) found very poor average assessment scores for English literacy across the country. This is very disheartening for Nigerian students and educational authorities as a strong positive correlation has been shown to exist between English proficiency and academic achievement, in general (Fakeye & Ogunsiji 2009). Most likely, good English instruction coexists with good instruction in other subjects, and this finding seems to suggest that Nigerian schools that offer good English instruction probably also do a number of things rather well.

In terms of higher education, curriculum is less a local matter and more under the jurisdiction of federal authorities. Saint, et al (2003) suggest that higher education in Nigeria, in general, is viewed as essential for economic prosperity and, thus, Nigerian collegiate education takes on a more instrumental approach than do other countries, with curriculum development being closely related to those skills that will allow students to compete for professional employment. Because of this, there exists an awareness of the need for “technical or professional education to include things such as software development, coding, and language and writing instruction” (Osagie, p.279, 2012). The reality, however, is that colleges are under-funded and demand far outstrips the number of seats available in Nigerian classrooms (Akiri, 2014). These scarcities are a primary driver for Nigerians seeking a college education overseas.

Adegbite (2010) reports that such findings as those reported above are a source of frustration for upwardly-mobile and middle class Nigerians, who hold a positive attitude toward the English language. It is these attitudes that our focus groups in the present study were designed to explore. Abdullahi-Idiagbon (2005) suggests that English provides a number of unique functions for Nigerian speakers. First, it serves as a lingua franca that unites Yoruba, Igbo, and other language communities. Second, English proficiency is viewed as a marker of academic and professional potential. Finally, English proficiency provides a performative function by which skilled bilingual (e.g., Yoruba and English) speakers can “code switch” in novel and entertaining ways. The ability to weave English and one’s other languages together becomes a matter of pride, but it is this rather performative aspect of Nigerian English that creates some difficulties for undergraduate international students. At our own institution, Nigerian students face the choice of being “punished” in standard freshman composition classes for writing in ways deemed non-standard, or being placed in ESL classrooms with students of much lower English proficiency.

III. METHODOLOGY

The researchers employed a method similar to one they had used previously (Carney, 2009; Liu & Carney, 2012), in which the student writing samples and the focus group transcripts were analyzed. These “mixed” qualitative methods aimed to explore not only any observable differences in writing between the two groups (Nigerian and US students) but also their own insights into their university-level writing and about writing, in general.

A. Participants

During June 2013, two groups of students at a small public university in southwestern Oklahoma were recruited to participate in the study. Cameron University is home to approximately 300 international students with students from Nigeria comprising the biggest part of this cohort. The first group in the study was composed of 15 Nigerian undergraduates, all of whom had successfully completed both required courses in the freshman writing sequence, English 1113 and English 1213. All but three of the students in this group had received instruction in special sections of English 1113 and 1213, sections of each course that were limited to students designated as “non-native English speakers. These course sections were designed around the same course outcomes as every other section of the Freshman writing sequence but were limited to and composed of international students. The group was almost evenly split between men and women with 8 females and 7 males. The average age of the group was 21.7 years and no student in the group had taken one of the university’s remedial English courses. A similar group of 15 US-born students was also recruited with the same stipulations, namely, that they too had completed the 2-course sequence. This group was composed of 10 females and 5 males with an average age of 20.9 years. Two of these students had taken a remedial English course before enrolling in our freshman composition sequence.

B. Data Collection

a. The Writing Prompt

Students in both groups were asked to compose an essay. The prompt (created by the researchers) reads, “Every nation has its own educational system. Describe the differences between the one you experienced and what you know of education in other places.” Students were told that the task should take around 30 minutes.

b. The Focus Groups

An hour-long focus group followed for each of the two groups. The method described by Kruger and Casey (2014), in which participants were asked to make assessments of their experiences more than they were asked to share recollections of these experiences, was used. A 10-question protocol (See Appendix A) was used for each of the two groups to: (1) ensure consistency between the two groups and (2) establish parameters for the discussion. Even with parameters, the discussions were wide-ranging in scope. One of the primary researchers in this study conducted all the focus group discussions and two undergraduate research assistants took notes, employing a “keyword” method of note-taking. The assistants were two senior-level Nigerian students and one US-born senior-level undergraduate English major. They were chosen for their high grade point averages and familiarity with Nigerian culture and English Language Arts, respectively. While none of the student assistants had any experience in qualitative research, they were chosen for areas of knowledge important to the study. Liamputtong (2011) suggests that familiarity with subject matter often trumps one’s skill as an interviewer in the interpretation of focus group interviews, and, indeed, our students’ knowledge was vital to the study.

C. Data Analysis

First, the essays from both groups were read by the researchers and the three student research assistants or errors. The three assistants counted the words in each of the 30 essays, the length of each sentence, and the number of subordinate clauses in each student essay. They also searched for the performative and reduplication features of Nigerian English in the essays composed by the Nigerian students, as described by Ajani (2007) and Oshodi (2014) in the section above. Then, the notes and transcripts from focus groups were analyzed via a system of coaxial coding (Strauss & Corbin 1990). Unlike hypothesis testing which seeks to determine whether phenomena (including texts) fit predetermined categories, this approach allows participants to exhibit or demonstrate what is meaningful to them regarding a particular subject. The three assistants and one of the researchers met to review the transcripts and determine the themes and understanding that emerged from them. Three of the four coders (three students and one researcher) had to agree on what a particular part of the transcript meant, in order for it to be used in the study.

IV. FINDINGS

A. Results from Writing Samples

The writing samples students produced were analyzed for a variety of features as well as for the appearance of grammatical or mechanical errors. Table 1 shows a comparison of some of these aspects.

TABLE 1
COMPARISON OF WRITING SAMPLES COMPOSED BY NIGERIAN AND US COLLEGE STUDENTS

Aspects of Writing	Nigerian Students (N=15)	US Students (N=15)
Average Word Count of the Essays	282	236
Average Number of Subordinate Clauses	12.7	8.4
Average Sentence Length	18.1 words	14.3 words

Overall, one displayed similarity (not included in Table 1) was that there were no differences in the number of errors appearing in the writing composed by the two groups. To assess this, we used Lunsford and Lunsford (2008) as our guide for the 20 most common errors in freshman writing and found not only very few errors, in general, but no significant differences between the two groups. In terms of rhetorical strategy, the Nigerian students were more likely to use hyperbole (e.g., “the most difficult course”; “the shining jewel of Africa”) and to suggest a more indirect appeal to readers (e.g., “one might think”: “a person seeing this might assume”), but there were no other remarkable differences in this aspect.

Table 1, however, shows that the Nigerian students tended to write more, to write longer sentences, and to use more subordination in their writing. It is this “complexity” in their writing that the Nigerian students complained was not appreciated by their college writing instructors, a subject this paper will cover in the next section. None of the features such as reduplication described by Ajani (2007) were seen in the essays composed by the Nigerian students. Certainly, this is not an unexpected finding as the research cited in the previous section of this paper concerned itself with vernacular Nigerian English. However, Roberts and Cimasko (2008) suggest that, when faculty members respond to “ESL” student writing, they report semantic difficulties across various ethnic groups. None of the people (the primary researchers and the three student assistants) who reviewed the essays saw any differences between the Nigerian and US student groups, though.

B. Results from Focus Groups

Focus group transcripts were evaluated using methods described by Krueger and Casey (2000). The transcripts were read by the three coders and emergent themes were suggested and agreed upon. Again, if both researchers could not agree on the “meaning” of a particular statement, then that statement did not become part of the analysis. The four major emergent themes that came out of the focus groups discussions were as follows: 1) differences in previous writing instruction, 2) writing to and for an audience, 3) “good” writing and rhetorical concerns, and 4) writing as a way to professional advancement. These themes will be discussed below.

Theme 1: Differences in Previous Writing Instruction

Both writing samples described very different experiences in previous writing instruction. The Nigerian students all came from Lagos or were educated in Nigerian private schools. Thus, all of them explained that they would have had more opportunities for intensive in-class writing, grammar instruction, and more and earlier experiences with standardized (i.e., state-sponsored) testing aimed at writing skills than did the Oklahoma students. Six of the Nigerian students recalled taking separate courses in “English Studies” (or “Language Arts”) and separate courses in literature. In contrast, students in the Oklahoma/American sample discussed taking only one English course each year in Middle School through High School which combined all aspects of English studies. All of the Oklahoma/American students were educated in the state’s public school systems. Interestingly, the US-born students expressed a high degree of confidence in their knowledge of grammar while the Nigerian students all admitted to having some weakness in what one termed “hard grammar.” One male student offered the following assessment that most of the other Nigerian focus group members expressed agreement with: “When the teacher starts talking about nouns and verbs, I don’t listen because I figure I have been speaking English real good for a long time. But, I got to admit that I’m not real interested in it.” Conversely, one of the female American students offered that, while she probably couldn’t diagram sentences, she felt confident that she could identify the parts of speech.

Theme 2: Writing to and for an Audience

Students in both groups spoke about writing to an audience and of having to tailor their writing to specific readers. The Oklahoma students tended to speak of a vague collective notion of “audience” in a more disembodied manner. One student noted that his High School teachers emphasized the point that writing must be meaningful to whoever reads it. “You have to make it make sense to the reader. You wouldn’t write about gaming or use the language of gamers to someone older, would you?” he stated. The Nigerian students also emphasized the necessity of writing for an audience, but six of them suggested that they actually picture a person when they are writing. “I keep my teacher in mind when I write. He was very critical, so I’m aware of what it takes to satisfy him,” one male student reported. “I think of my mum,” one female reported. “I want her to be proud of me and I want her to smile.”

Theme 3: “Good” Writing and Rhetorical Concerns

Both groups expressed that they valued “entertainment” in expository or persuasive writing (Cooper, 1993). Here, however, the two groups expressed some differences. For the Nigerian students, entertainment was something they valued in the work of others as well as in their own efforts. For the Oklahoma/American students, they wanted to be entertained when they read the work of others but tried to avoid “flowery” language or too much descriptive detail in their own writing. Two of the Oklahoma/American students explained that this rather “minimalist” sort of approach seems in line with what First-Year Composition instructors at our university tend to reward. On the other hand, almost

all of the Nigerian students expressed dissatisfaction with the responses their work received at the University. A junior female Biology major stated, "Our vocabulary is so much more advanced than other students but we never get credit for it." Two students discussed the idea of "sophistication" in their writing. A sophomore male Business major argued that Nigerian students have a better idea of how "people in authority" express themselves but are often confused by professors indicating that they prefer simplicity in student writing. "We are college students," he stated. "We should be writing and speaking in more complicated ways." A junior female Communication Studies major explained that political and business leaders in Nigeria show their status by speaking eloquently and that this eloquence is what students strive for. One of the students mentioned then-President Goodluck Jonathan as an example of someone who has used a very eloquent style of speaking to move up through the ranks of Nigeria's political leadership.

By contrast, the US college students almost all favored a simpler and concise way of writing and speaking. A US-born 23-year old female Criminal Justice major suggested that, "the more you write, the more it looks like B.S. Better to keep things simple." A male Biology major similarly referred to the "KISS Principle—Keep it simple, stupid." Two of the Nigerian students discussed feeling insulted about being steered toward ESL classes as they considered themselves native English speakers already. One student, a female Communications major, considered this phenomenon a subtle form of racism. She said, "I'm black and African so I can't possibly know English, right?"

Theme 4: Writing as a Way to Professional Advancement

It was with this fourth emergent theme, that genuine differences between the two groups started to become quite apparent. The Nigerian students tended to see writing in particular and language skills in general as ways to ensure professional success. The Oklahoma students, on the other hand, were far more sanguine about writing. A 24-year old male Business major from Oklahoma suggested that error avoidance in your professional writing would "make your boss happy." However, most of these students viewed writing skills as just one of a variety of things that ensured academic and professional success. For the Nigerian students, however, there was a sense of urgency in how they spoke about writing. A Nigerian female freshman (undeclared major) made a rather passionate case for writing:

We have to compete with everybody. We don't have enough jobs at home so we compete with people from all over the world.

Our English has to be the best. We even compete here. We can't get all the scholarships other students are eligible for, so we have to write better than anybody else for the scholarships we can get.

Indeed, the Nigerian students talked about middle-to upper middle-class families in urban areas paying for either private schools or for private tutoring, if they were dissatisfied with their children's English instruction.

To summarize, the focus groups indicated that Nigerian students experienced somewhat more intensive English studies at the primary and secondary levels and had somewhat more experience with standardized writing or English testing than did the US students. Both groups, however, expressed being more-or-less satisfied with the English instruction they received. The Nigerian students valued eloquence in writing while brevity and conciseness seemed to be the goals for the US students. For the Nigerian students, the emphasis on eloquence or performance in their writing seemed at odds with the sort of writing that freshman composition instructors at our university tend to reward, and this expectation of difference led them to feel somewhat devalued in their attempts to write at the collegiate level. The Nigerian students in this study also tended to place a premium on writing as a means of moving through one's academic career and for entering professional employment while the US-born students tended to take a somewhat more lackadaisical attitude toward writing. Both groups expressed a high degree of confidence in their writing skills, however.

V. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

To recap the findings of the present study, we can see that we have answers for all the three research questions introduced at the beginning.

In our first research question inquiry, we wanted to determine if differences existed between the writing produced by our group of International Nigerian university students and the writing produced by a similar group of US-born students. The finding shows that the Nigerian students wrote longer sentences and longer essays and were more likely to use subordinate clauses than were the US students. And it also reveals that the Nigerian students preferred to use more decorative languages while the US students focused more on brevity, but the finding also demonstrates that the number and types of errors in the writing by the two groups did not differ. For our second research question, we aimed to assess the primary and secondary educational experiences for the two groups. The finding shows that while the Nigerian students tended to have more English classes, both groups described similar learning experiences. Finally, in our third and last research question inquiry, we intended to explore the attitudes of both groups toward their present English writing instruction and about writing in general. It is in this part that we found some real differences and obtained some implications, which are discussed in some detail below.

Two of the primary issues that emerged in the present study centered around: (1) whether it was appropriate to place Nigerian English speakers in freshman ESL composition classes with students for whom English is truly a second language such as students from Nepal, China, and Mongolia and (2) the fact that faculty members at our university hold different expectations for freshman writing than do the Nigerian students.

The first of these concerns seems at first glance to be easy to dispense with, but there are a number of issues contained in the question that serve to complicate our understanding. First, there are questions concerning the writing task used in the study. As no real differences (other than sentence length and subordination) were found between the Nigerian and US student groups, it would seem rather easy to suggest that the groups have more-or-less equal facility in English writing. We have to admit, however, that the writing task we assigned students was quite unlike any they encountered in their freshman composition courses. In this study, students were asked to simply recall their own educational experiences and to possibly compare them to what they might know about the educational systems in other countries. Additionally, they only had a 30 minute time frame in which to compose it. Thus, given the simplicity of the task and the limited time frame, it may be the case that there would be few opportunities for the Nigerian students to demonstrate significant differences in their writing. Scholars such as Ehineni (2014) have shown rather persuasively that the English writing in Nigerian news reports and advertising does contain lexical structures that appear quite unusual to speakers and readers of English in other Anglophone countries. The task the Nigerian students were asked to perform did not mirror the modes and genres students at the university were asked to compose in, modes that might have yielded differences. Anecdotal evidence from our university suggests that it is not so much the grammar and mechanics in the writing of our Nigerian students that our instructors find so problematic but is, instead, the rhetorical practices these students use in their writing. Oyeleye & Adeyinka (2014) suggest that persuasive writing in Nigeria makes use of devices such as personification, metaphor, and hyperbole, practices that seem out-of-place to instructors steeped in Western “academic” writing. Perhaps, a writing task of a longer duration or of a mode drawn from our freshman writing curricula would have yielded real differences.

But, whether or not a different research design would have yielded different results still leaves unanswered the other aspect of the finding as to whether these Nigerian students are appropriately placed in classrooms with other international students. It leaves unaddressed the question of why “Nigerian English” may be viewed as farther away from a Standard English than, say, the English written and spoken by the many Native American students our university serves. Indeed, the scholarship suggests that the English spoken and written by students in Native American communities has some non-standard features that might derive from the syntax of Native American languages such as Apache and Kiowa (Leap, 2012; Newmark, Walker, & Stanford, 2015). Carley, Cheurprakobkit, & Paracka (2006) suggest that the climate on a particular campus with regard to “internationalization” affects all matters of faculty and student recruitment of those from other countries as well as concerns about curriculum design and pedagogy that best serves students from an array of nations and communities. In other words, they suggest that universities with faculty from a variety of ethnicities and nationalities would be more likely to recruit international students and create pedagogical strategies that address their needs. On the other hand, universities with a homogeneous faculty and staff make-up tend to favor approaches that create a mainstream vs. “other” approach to teaching. In the case of our university, it may be that we view students as belonging to one of two groups, those who approach a standard understanding and use of English and those who do something else. From this viewpoint, the frustration our Nigerian students express regarding their experiences in freshman writing seems understandable, and we will discuss this matter next.

The second concern of the study, the frustration our Nigerian students expressed over the perception that their writing is devalued, is more difficult to address in a setting such as the one we see at our university as well as at other small universities. Even as we see our students through a “standard vs. other” lens, the “ESL” sections of freshman composition at our university must still respond to the same course objectives that other sections of freshman composition must also do. For the Nigerian students in our study, all but three took the Freshman Composition courses in “ESL” class sections. In the past, these sections took on a decidedly “English for Specific Purposes” approach to teaching freshman writing, the specific purpose being the modes and genres taught in the courses themselves. Perhaps, we place too big a premium on teaching the objectives primarily without a deeper understanding of the variety of literacy practices all of our students bring to the classroom. Thus, there has often been little scaffolding in the way instructors build from these literacy practices. Perhaps, the focus is placed too squarely on the end results: the objectives. The courses that might provide such scaffolding are usually remedial courses and, under the budgetary challenges in our state and in many others, the creation of additional courses that serve to lengthen a student’s degree plan is unfeasible. As a result, we are left with using the courses that already exist to achieve the stated objectives and simultaneously provide support for students from linguistically diverse backgrounds.

Within such constraints, perhaps there should be a dual focus on training faculty about the varieties of English discourse and an internationalization of the university itself. As universities in the United States, Canada, Great Britain, and Australia continue to welcome international students, they must seek to ensure good outcomes for these students. Faculty members should, thus, understand a variety of linguistic matters. Peacock (2001) suggests that instructors’ “mistaken beliefs” about language (e.g., grammar, vocabulary building, and form being the most important aspects of the second language classroom) can result in persistent problems for students. Cao, et al (2014) showed that a combination of linguistic and cultural sophistication along with a sense of agency on the part of faculty members were the factors that seemed to lead to better learning outcomes for international students. Faculty members with a feeling of confidence about their teaching and a better understanding of their students’ linguistic and literacy practices will likely have better outcomes. Faculty members will better understand the impacts of culture on English language communities

across the world and might encourage more substantive and varied approaches to student writing even as they aim toward the same objectives. These instructors would be better able to understand the writing practices students bring to the university and offer them a path from these practices to other ways of writing for other occasions and circumstances. Additionally, to accommodate the student's some specific academic need, the instructors can teach the true meaning of audience analysis for the international students, especially Nigerian students. For example, they can draw the international students' attention to the fact that the real audiences in their academic writing in the universities here are the general educated public in the United States, who are basically following the writing style of western rhetoric, which expects a more direct and concise but clearly detailed evidence support to the thesis statement. The instructors also can help these international students understand that the proper adjustments to the new expectations of the "new" audiences, which are a bit different from their own, is a useful but challenging learning experience. However, when the students try, they will be able to do a decent job because they can transfer the writing skills they have previously acquired with the new audiences in their minds.

Lee et al (2014) suggest that campuses with a diverse (to include international) faculty and staff offer international students a way to decrease the social isolation that comes from being an exchange student and can empower them to engage in dialogue with their instructors. International faculty members can also advocate for international students. In the present study, the Nigerian students expressed dissatisfaction over the perception that their best efforts in writing were often dismissed. None of them, however, discussed engaging their instructors in a discussion of what constitutes "good" writing in Nigeria. Perhaps, a more diverse campus environment with more students and employees would make a difference and would encourage our Nigerian students to take greater initiative to understand what the university expects in writing and other skills and why this is the case, for instance, as mentioned above, teaching them the real audiences' needs. This is an approach we endorse and believe that it will lead to better writing instruction for all students as well as a more welcoming environment and academic experience.

APPENDIX. FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

- (1) What languages were spoken in your household? If there were more than one, which was primary?
- (2) At what age did you learn to read in English? To write?
- (3) What grade in primary school were you aware of English being taught as a separate subject?
- (4) Describe English studies in your primary school.
- (5) Describe English studies in high school or secondary school.
- (6) When you write a paper at the university, what are the aspects of writing to which you pay the most attention?
- (7) Do you enjoy writing? Why or why not?
- (8) Let's talk about audience. Do you consider who you are writing to?
- (9) Do you enjoy reading?
- (10) How important is writing in your planned career?

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English Benchmark Policy for Graduation in Taiwan's Higher Education: Investigation and Reflection

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Abstract—Encouraged by the Ministry of Education (MOE), an increasing number of universities and colleges in Taiwan have started to set their own English benchmarks for graduation using external standardized language tests as exit exams. The present study investigated and reflected on the implementation of this policy at two technological universities in Taiwan by answering two research questions: (1) How did college administrators, teachers and students perceive the policy? (2) What washback effects did the English graduation benchmark policy bring about? A mixed-methods approach was adopted for the study. The results show that although there was a social consensus about the implementation of the policy, the policy did not seem to have achieved what the MOE had expected due to its limited and weak washback on teaching and learning. It is suggested that the English graduation requirements might have to be modified in the subsequent policies for more meaningful and practical results.

Index Terms—English benchmark, policy, graduation, higher education, Taiwan

I. INTRODUCTION

In many Asian countries, where examinations have long played an important role in their culture and history, decision-making bodies in education tend to view tests as a panacea for educational innovation. Chen et al. (2005) in a study on Taiwanese students' language learning motivation even added one more category, the *required orientation*, to the two existing categories, the integrative orientation and instrumental orientation, to signify the important role tests have played in most Taiwanese students' language learning experience. With this exam-oriented tradition, it was not surprising to see that the Ministry of Education (MOE) of Taiwan embodied an English proficiency benchmark policy for college undergraduates in its *2005-2008 Administration Guidelines*¹ as one of the strategies to promote Taiwan's globalization, as required by the government's *Challenge 2008: National Development Plan* (Council for Economic Planning and Development [CEPD] 2008).

Challenge 2008: National Development Plan featured ten key individual plans including "e-generation manpower cultivation plan," which aimed to cultivate e-generation manpower with good IT, English, and creative skills. Three measures were taken for this individual plan, one of which was to "create an internationalized daily environment and increase all people's English proficiency on the island." Five yardsticks were used to evaluate the results of this measure: (1) the rate of foreign visitors being satisfied with the English environment in Taiwan, such as bilingual signs, publications and websites; (2) college students' GEPT (General English Proficiency Test, a local test) passing rates at the elementary and intermediate levels; (3) civil servants' GEPT passing rates at the elementary level; (4) the number of foreign students studying for degrees in Taiwan; (5) the number of Taiwanese students studying abroad. It is not hard to see that, in addition to the first yardstick, the goal was practically test-oriented and school-based. Judging from Spolsky's (2004) three components of a language policy of a speech community, namely, its language practices, its language beliefs or ideology and any specific efforts to modify or influence that practice by any kind of language intervention, planning or management, Taiwan's English language policy was far from generating concrete linguistic results. First of all, in terms of language practices, the policy did not aim to make English one of its "linguistic repertoire" (Spolsky 2004, p.5), since the so-called "English environment in Taiwan" was limited only at a non-interactive level, such as bilingual displays, instead of using English as a daily communication medium. Second, most Taiwanese people's beliefs about English and its use still view English as a school subject (Simpson 2007) and a tool for better job opportunities, as reflected in the test-oriented and school-based implementation of the policy. Third, the efforts to modify or influence the attempted language practice were not strong enough to bring about any significant

¹ For more information about Taiwan MOE's *2005-2008 Administration Guidelines*, please refer to <http://english.moe.gov.tw/ct.asp?xItem=7043&ctNode=784&mp=1#1>.

changes. The present study will focus on the third component with specific examples from the college settings in Taiwan.

II. BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

A. Taiwan's Higher Education System

Under the current education system in Taiwan, there are two types of undergraduate programs. One type is the four-year university undergraduate programs, which recruit mostly high school graduates. The other type constitutes technological colleges or universities in the Technological and Vocational Education (TVE) system, which offers (1) four-year undergraduate programs, mainly for vocational high school graduates, and (2) two-year undergraduate programs, particularly for five-year junior college (starting after the junior high school) graduates and two-year junior college (starting after the vocational high school) graduates. Students graduated from any of the above undergraduate programs are awarded a bachelors' degree.

B. The MOE's Administration Guidelines

According to the MOE's *2005-2008 Administration Guidelines*, the MOE encouraged each university and college to set their own English benchmark for graduation, using the GEPT or other language tests, such as the TOEFL, TOEIC and IELTS. The MOE's preferred threshold was CEFR-B1 for four-year university graduates and CEFR-A2 for those in the TVE system.

The GEPT test is a local test developed by the Language Training & Testing Center (LTTC) in Taiwan since 1999 and is administered at five levels: elementary, intermediate, high-Intermediate, advanced and superior. Each of the first four levels is administered at two stages: The first stage includes the listening and reading components and the second stage includes the speaking and writing components. Examinees must pass the first stage before proceeding on to the second. The superior level is an integrated test of all four skills. Each level approximates to CEFR A2 (elementary), B1 (intermediate), B2 (high-Intermediate), C1 (advanced) and C2 (superior) respectively (Wu and Wu 2007).

In general, most four-year universities and colleges set their graduation benchmark for non-English majors at the first stage of the high-intermediate or the second stage of the intermediate level of the GEPT test, while most technological universities and colleges set theirs at the first stage of the intermediate or the second stage of the elementary level. For English majors in both systems, the benchmark was usually higher than that for their non-English major peers.

C. Problems with the English Benchmark Policy for Graduation

This trend reflected the strong demand of English in Taiwan's higher education and, what is more, the power of the MOE authority. As Shohamy (1993) put it, "using tests to solve educational problems is a simplistic approach to a complex problem. It works on people's fear of authority" (p.19). In her point of view, the power of tests is too strong to bring about any meaningful educational changes, since the changes are often instrumental.

Inevitably, almost every university and college which set its English benchmark for graduation had to provide other options for students who could not meet the requirement before graduation. The most common way was for those students to take extra courses to fulfill the graduation benchmark requirement instead. Some schools offered an internal test for students to take on campus in addition to the external tests. A few others lowered the passing scores originally set for the GEPT test. In general, most universities and colleges used external tests (the GEPT and its equivalents) as their exit exams, but the supporting measures varied from school to school.

As pointed out by Wu (2007), a serious problem thus arose with these supporting measures for the graduation benchmark requirement; that is, the criteria set for each of the measures for the graduation benchmark requirement did not seem to align with one another. There was no evidence to show that a student passing an internal exam or an extra course had the same level of required English proficiency for graduation as those who passed the external GEPT test.

To sum up, not all college students were able to pass the required English exit exam. Instead, they had to take the internal English exit test or an extra course to fulfill the graduation requirements. However, there seemed to be an alignment problem between each individual school's English benchmark and their substitute measures. Two research questions were thus formulated for the present investigation.

1. How did college administrators, teachers and students perceive the English benchmark policy for graduation?
2. What washback effects did the policy bring about?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Context

The present study was situated at two technological universities in Taiwan. These two universities, marked as School A and School B, had quite similar student backgrounds and English graduation benchmark policies. Most students at each school, where a four-year as well as a two-year undergraduate program was offered, were engineering majors. Both schools required their students to pass the first stage of the GEPT intermediate test (or other equivalent tests) as the graduation benchmark with slightly different make-up measures.

In School A, freshman students in the four-year undergraduate program were required to take an internal test (equivalent to the first stage of the GEPT intermediate test), serving as an exit test and held twice a year, if they still hadn't passed the external test by the time the internal test was held. Sophomores, juniors and seniors in School A might choose to take the internal test with the freshmen if needed. In School B, all the freshman and sophomore students in the four-year undergraduate program and all the junior students² in the two-year undergraduate program had to take an English proficiency test (each covering five pre-scheduled GEPT mock tests on the school's website) right after their mid-term and final exams. Students' scores on the two English proficiency tests accounted for 30% of the overall grades for the required English course in that semester.

Students at both schools had to take a one-semester make-up course to fulfill the graduation benchmark requirement if they still had not passed the English exit exam later in college. In school A, the make-up course was offered in the first and second semesters of the senior year for the four-year undergraduate program students, while in school B, the make-up course was offered in the second semester of the junior year for the four-year undergraduate program students and in the first semester of the second year for the two-year undergraduate program students. In addition, for students to take the make-up course in School B, the prerequisite was that they must have already taken the external GEPT test (the first stage of the intermediate test) and gained a total score no less than 80 points on listening and reading³. To pass the make-up course in School B, students also had to take the English proficiency test (as mentioned earlier) after the mid-term and final exams and must gain from the two tests an average score of over 60 points on the listening and reading components respectively. At both schools, if students did not pass the make-up course, they would have to re-take the course until they pass it.

B. Participants

A total of ten teachers, six administrators and 32 students at both schools participated in the interviews; eight teachers' classes were observed and their teaching and testing materials were analyzed. For these participants' background information, please refer to the Appendices. Meanwhile, 633 students agreed to take the questionnaire survey.

C. Instruments

Interview guides: A semi-structured interview approach was adopted. All the interview questions for the two research questions were put together in one single interview guide for each group of stakeholders. The Chinese version of the interview guides was reviewed by two PhD students in TESOL to ensure their appropriateness and clarity. The revised interview guides were then tested on several similar participants, who were not included in the formal study, for their effectiveness. The interview guides were revised accordingly before they served as the research instrument for the formal study.

Observation forms: In addition to verifying what the teachers said in the interviews, several required courses and one make-up course were observed at each school in an attempt to find more themes that might not have emerged in other sources of data. An onlooker observation approach (Patton 2002) was adopted, using two observation forms, one for the required English classes and one for the make-up course. The observation forms were developed with major "sensitizing concepts" that serve as a guide to help manage the observational task (Patton 2002, p.279).

Students' questionnaire (SQ): To investigate the washback effects of the English graduation benchmark on students, a students' questionnaire (SQ) was developed based on Alderson and Wall's (1993) Washback Hypothesis and Spratt's (2005) categorization of areas of washback effects, then collapsed into three major dimensions: (1) impact on attitudes; (2) impact on 'what' and (3) impact on 'how.' The first dimension of the washback effects is involved with attitudinal changes, while the second and third dimensions are concerned about behavioral changes.

The principal-components analysis and factor analysis (Varimax rotation) on the SQ items identified three factors that constitute three dimensions of the washback of the English graduation benchmark on learning, renamed as (1) students' perceived impact on their out-of-school practice, (2) students' perceived impact on their efforts and (3) students' worries about the graduation benchmark, which represent the three dimensions of the washback effects of the policy on students.

D. Data Collection

Teachers were recruited in person or by phone calls. In School A, two teachers teaching required courses agreed to be randomly observed for six and five weeks (two hours each week) respectively. Another teacher teaching the make-up course agreed to be observed once (two hours). In School B, four teachers agreed to be observed for two weeks and one teacher for only one week (two hours each week). Throughout the whole observation period, teaching and testing materials such as syllabi, textbooks, class handouts, teacher-made tests and students' homework were collected whenever possible.

² Students in the first and second year of the two-year undergraduate program are equivalent to junior and senior students respectively in the four-year undergraduate program.

³ For the GEPT elementary, intermediate and high-intermediate level, the perfect score for the listening or reading test is 120; while a combined score of 160 on the listening and reading tests (with neither sub-score lower than 72) is required for passing the first stage of the level. The perfect score and passing score for the speaking or writing test are 100 and 80 respectively (except that the passing score for the elementary writing test is 70).

A total of six administrators (three from each school) were interviewed. Administrators here refer to university presidents, deans of academic affairs and department chairs. A recruitment letter and a consent form were first sent to all the possible candidates before a meeting was arranged for each candidate responding positively.

The students' questionnaire survey was conducted at both schools, followed by interviews with students. A total of 633 students from both schools (305 from School A and 328 from School B) completed the SQ and a total of 32 students (16 from each school) were then interviewed.

The interviews with teachers were conducted after the observation period ended. The eight teachers being observed were automatically invited and six of them were able to be interviewed. Three more teachers from School A and one more teacher from School B were also invited among a few others, totaling a pool of ten teacher interviewees.

E. Data Analysis

Analysis of the SQ data: For students' perceived impact on their out-of-school practice, perceived impact on their efforts and their worries about the graduation benchmark, a mean score was obtained respectively from the six-point Likert scale.

Analysis of the interview data: The interview data were analyzed using the meaning condensation approach (Kvale, 1996). With this approach of data analysis, Kvale (1996, p.194) suggests five steps as in Giorgi's (1975) empirical phenomenological analysis. These five steps were adopted for the present study to analyze the interview data: First, the whole interview was transcribed in full and read through to get a sense of the whole. Second, the researcher determined the natural "meaning units" expressed by the interviewees. Third, the researcher read the interviewees' answers without prejudice and thematized the statements from her viewpoint by stating each natural meaning unit as simply as possible. Fourth, the researcher interrogated the meaning units in terms of the underlying purpose of the present study by asking questions like "What is washback?" and "How was washback generated?" The themes of the meaning units were then addressed with such questions as, "What does this statement tell me about washback?" Fifth, the essential, nonredundant themes of the entire interview were tied together into a descriptive statement to reach interpretation and conclusions.

Analysis of the observation data: As mentioned earlier, observation was done to verify what the teachers said in the interviews and to find more themes that might not have emerged in other sources of data. Therefore, all the observation data were analyzed using the meaning condensation approach. The condensed data were then compared to other sources of data, not only to verify the emergent findings but also to provide new insights.

Analysis of the GEPT and teaching and testing materials: The two GEPT samples and the teaching materials collected from the two schools were analyzed using the meaning categorization approach (Kvale, 1996). The coding and categorization of the GEPT samples and the collected teaching materials were conducted by the researcher and double checked by a "disinterested peer" of the researcher to ensure their validity.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the first research question about how administrators, teachers and students perceived the English benchmark policy for graduation, their views on the purposes of the policy will be extracted first, followed by discussions on the related problems with the perceived purposes.

A. Perceived Purposes of the English Benchmark Policy for Graduation

Both schools set their English benchmark for graduation higher than the MOE's basic requirement for college graduates in the TVE system. However, if students were unable to pass the test on time, they could take a make-up course as an alternative to fulfill the requirement. What, then, were the real purposes for implementing such a 'flexible' policy? The following views came from interviews with administrators, teachers and students respectively.

Administrators--The GEPT used for management purposes: Most administrators mentioned in the interviews one benefit of using the GEPT test; that is, quantification of students' achievements in English, which they thought was important for school management and might even help teachers with their teaching in a sense. In that regard, most administrators did not show much understanding or interest in dealing with students' failure to pass the benchmark before graduation. All that mattered to them was the presentable GEPT passing rates their students could achieve over the years in college.

Obviously, the administrators seemed to be positive and optimistic about the effect of the GEPT test as the graduation benchmark, somewhat consistent with Brown's (2008) observation that administrators' "norm-referenced perspective" tends to keep themselves focused on program-level testing and program evaluation.

Teachers--The GEPT assumed as an incentive for learning: Teachers, on the other hand, have "criterion-referenced perspective," which, according to Brown, tends to keep themselves interested in objectives setting, course-level testing, materials development, and delivery of instruction. Supporting evidence could be found in the interview data with some teachers at both schools. For example, Teacher B1 complained that the MOE misled the English education in Taiwan with such a policy, because the MOE had nothing else to check except students' GEPT-taking records. Teacher A5 had the same complaint but still tried to find a balance between teachers' basic concerns and the MOE's requirements, hoping that students could benefit from the policy anyway. Meanwhile, most teachers seemed to agree on the

implementation of a 'backdoor' for students, suggesting there was not much confidence perceived by the teachers about students' success on the GEPT test.

Students: Taking the GEPT to fulfill social expectations: Back to Brown's observation about students' views on testing, he concludes that all kinds of norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests will direct the focus, motivations, and efforts of students but only in "the most cynical ways." Brown's conclusion seems to suggest that students have no choice but to accept any implementation on them, which seems to be the case with most of the students interviewed at both schools. According to the interview data, most students accepted the implementation of the policy and showed positive attitude towards it. When asked about the intention behind the policy, a list of answers were heard among students, such as "certified English ability is important for future jobs," "improving English helps globalization," "preparing for the test helps increasing English proficiency," "the policy is set for school's reputation," etc. Obviously, most of the students agreed on the socially-justified purposes of the English benchmark policy for graduation.

However, negative voices were also heard among a few student participants. For example, some of them saw no need to use English in the future and therefore no need to set a benchmark for them. A few others disapproved the way the GEPT test was used to enhance their English learning and suggested a better environment for learning English was much more important. One student mentioned about the fairness of the graduation benchmark, suggesting there should be different benchmarks for students of different proficiency levels instead of one cutting line for all.

B. Problems with the Perceived Purposes

In spite of the multiple purposes the graduation benchmark policy were perceived to serve for, the policy at both schools was implemented with a 'backdoor,' which seemed to have raised certain doubts about its credibility. Why, after all, was a 'backdoor' even necessary here?

A benchmark set to meet problematic proficiency descriptions: To understand why a 'backdoor' was part of the graduation benchmark policy, it is important to know whether the benchmark was set too high for the students. The SQ survey results show that only a very small portion (2.2%) of students felt the benchmark was easy. Half of the students (53.9%) considered the benchmark was OK and a little less (42.5%) thought it was difficult. Meanwhile, the majority of the teachers and administrators interviewed also considered such a benchmark to be difficult for most of their students. Why, then, did both schools still decide to set the graduation benchmark at this level? Teacher A2 had this typical answer to the question:

Excerpt 1

The intermediate level of the GEPT is equivalent to the level required for a senior high school graduate⁴. We can not set the benchmark at the elementary level of the GEPT, which is only equivalent to the level required of a junior high school graduate. In that case, the benchmark would be too low!

Apparently, administrators and teachers were misled by the problematic proficiency descriptions at all levels of the GEPT test, as claimed by Shih (2006) on the washback of the GEPT. According to Shih, the LTTC described each level of the GEPT proficiency as equivalent to the fulfillment of each stage of the formal education in Taiwan; for example, the GEPT elementary level was officially described as "the proficiency of those who pass the elementary level is roughly comparable to that of junior high school graduates." However, evidence shows that some students graduated from senior high schools still could not pass the GEPT elementary test. As a result, Shih suggests that it would probably be more appropriate to describe the corresponding proficiency of the GEPT elementary level as "those who pass the elementary level have mastered the content covered by English textbooks of junior high schools" (p.176).

A 'backdoor' as a necessary evil: It thus became a thorny problem that many students still could not pass the benchmark before graduation. In order to provide an 'exit' for those unable to reach the graduation benchmark, both schools implemented similar make-up measures. What was more, the make-up measure itself even became the major 'route' to graduation for most students. For many teachers and administrators, the make-up measure seemed to be a necessary evil and they could not but accept its inclusion in the graduation benchmark policy. Ironically, however, not every student interviewed seemed to appreciate this 'favor' for them, though most of the student participants did perceive great difficulties in taking the GEPT intermediate test.

The 'pros' and 'cons' of a make-up course as a backdoor: Some students in School A expressed their dissatisfaction with the make-up course, regarding it as too obvious a 'backdoor' to fulfilling the graduation benchmark requirement, which sort of matches the alignment problem Wu (2007) points out in the previous section. Some students in School B even thought that the make-up course was not even necessary. For these very few students, passing the graduation benchmark was certainly important, but what they cared even more was to pass the GEPT test and get the certificate.

However, for the majority of students who perceived great difficulties of the GEPT intermediate test, the make-up measures would certainly be a cure-all. Some even thought of fighting for it if the make-up course should be removed.

Perceived low stakes of the graduation benchmark policy: Another underlying problem with the policy was about how teachers and students perceived its stakes, as their perceptions might influence the washback effects of the policy

⁴ In brief, the GEPT elementary level used to be described to approximately equal to junior high school graduates' English proficiency level in Taiwan; the intermediate level to senior high and the high-intermediate level to college. Now, the level descriptions have been modified to a more comprehensive "can do" list as in https://www.lttc.ntu.edu.tw/E_LTTC/E_GEPT.htm#AMenu1.

on teaching and learning (Green, 2007). It was found through interviews that generally low stakes of the graduation benchmark policy were perceived by most teachers and students.

In terms of teachers, most School A teachers perceived the pressure of the graduation benchmark through the university hierarchy, while School B teachers did not, possibly due to the different atmosphere in public and private schools in Taiwan. However, no matter whether the teachers felt pressured by the administration or not, the graduation benchmark did not seem to have brought about any concrete consequences on them.

In terms of students, the stakes of the graduation benchmark were also considerably low as perceived by most students for (1) it was not fatal to fail the exit exam; (2) the backdoor seemed wide open because no schools really wanted to fail their students with the graduation benchmark; (3) in comparison, students put less effort on the English exit exam than on the College Entrance Exam, a relatively high-stakes test in Taiwan.

C. Washback of the Policy on Teaching

To answer the second research question about the washback effects the policy led to, its influence on teaching will be discussed first followed by discussions on learning.

Interview data: The interview data with all the teacher participants at both schools show that teachers did perceive a certain degree of washback of the policy on the following different aspects of teaching: Selection of teaching materials, teaching of test-taking strategies, delivery of the GEPT-related information and teachers' worries about their students' test performance. Overall, the perceived washback on teaching was limited and superficial.

a) *Teachers' selection of their teaching materials.* For the selection of their teaching materials, School A teachers seemed to have perceived more washback than School B teachers. In School A, common syllabi, textbooks, midterm and final exams were arranged by the full-time teachers for the required courses. Part-time teachers must follow the pre-determined course design. In that regard, the full-time teachers thought that they had chosen the teaching materials they considered to be helpful for taking the GEPT test. However, for those part-time teachers, the teaching materials might not have seemed as relevant to the GEPT test as perceived by the full-time teachers.

Unlike School A, School B teachers, no matter full-time or part-time, were free to choose their own teaching materials for the required courses, which were divided into advanced, intermediate and elementary levels. Under such circumstances, very few teacher participants in School B mentioned the influence of the GEPT test on their selection of teaching materials.

b) *Teachers' delivery of test-taking strategies and GEPT-related information.* Some teacher participants also mentioned that in their classes they deliberately spoke of the test-taking strategies that might be useful for taking the GEPT test. Even for Teacher B1, who seemed most unhappy about the policy, the test-taking strategies were also touched upon in his required English classes. Teacher B4, who used the GEPT-like reading and listening comprehension questions in her freshman English classes, explained why she taught test-taking strategies:

Excerpt 2

When I taught them test-taking strategies, I was trying to deliver a message that, for the GEPT test, some strategies can be used. In fact, quite a few of vocabulary items and grammar points have appeared in the GEPT test repeatedly. For example, past perfect and simple past tense will definitely be tested in the GEPT. So I always remind them of things like that.

In addition to the test-taking strategies, two teachers also mentioned that they would remind students of the GEPT-related information, such as the test date.

c) *Teachers' worries about their students' test performance.* A few teachers felt bound to worry about their students for not being able to pass the graduation benchmark. Teacher B2 had the following representative statement:

Excerpt 3

OK, I should put it this way. There is no direct influence of the graduation benchmark but, think about it, for a teacher, if there is such a benchmark for the students, will he or she not keep that in mind? Sure, all teachers will keep it in mind.

d) *Limited and superficial washback on teaching.* In response to the obsession with the graduation benchmark, teachers perceived that they have made changes in their textbooks, taught (or mentioned) test-taking strategies or delivered the GEPT test-taking information in their classes. However, when asked if they had made any changes in their teaching methods due to the implementation of the graduation benchmark, no one answered affirmatively. Teacher B3 had the following statement typical of all teacher participants' reaction:

Excerpt 4

I think my teaching activities have not been influenced [by the GEPT test]. But language learning is nothing more than listening, speaking, reading and writing, right? So your teaching activities should be about practicing these skills. If I say my teaching activities are totally unassociated [with the GEPT test], I think an association is still there. But when I carry out my teaching activities, the GEPT test is never a reason for those activities.

The finding here is consistent with a number of previous washback studies, such as Wall and Alderson (1993) and Cheng (1995), that washback on teaching limits to only the teaching content but teachers' teaching methodology or behavior are rarely changed through a new test.

Interestingly, since the teachers' perceived washback was rather 'superficial' (Cheng 1995), the student participants in both schools perceived nearly no washback on their teachers' teaching in the required English classes. Only very few

student participants remembered that their teachers ever mentioned the GEPT test format or test-taking information in class, reaffirming the trivial washback of the GEPT test on teaching.

Observation data: The eight teachers at both schools also showed very little influence from the GEPT test in the classes they were observed, pretty much the same as what they reported in the follow-up interviews. For those who were found to have associated their teaching to the GEPT test, the association was limited to only the announcements of the upcoming internal GEPT mock test. Only Teacher B4 was found to have provided more information than merely a test announcement and she was also found to have used a textbook with reading and listening comprehension questions similar to the GEPT test, though she did not think she had intentionally chosen the textbook for the sake of the GEPT test.

Analysis of teaching and testing materials: School A's assigned textbooks were commonly-seen ESL textbooks in the market and were not directly related to the GEPT test, even though School A teachers did perceive an association of their textbooks with the preparation of the GEPT test. Also, a review of their classroom handouts, quizzes and homework assignments shows no direct link with the GEPT test either, with the exception of the sophomores' big test on the GEPT on-line mock tests, which was administered to encourage students to practice the GEPT mock tests on line. Nevertheless, an obvious GEPT influence was found in the listening comprehension test embedded in the mid-term and final exams of the required courses; that is, the listening comprehension test copied exactly the same format of the GEPT test but the contents were based on the assigned materials. The remaining part of the mid-term and final exams, however, did not show direct influence of the GEPT test. The internal test, basically a GEPT mock test administered twice a year, functioned as only a substitute for the external GEPT test as the graduation benchmark.

School B teachers, on the other hand, did not perceive any association of their teaching materials with the GEPT test, though some links were observed: Teacher B3's English learning magazine was undoubtedly tailored for the preparation of the GEPT test but was used mainly for self-study. Teacher B4's reading textbook, as mentioned earlier, did carry some post-reading questions (reading and listening) similar to the GEPT test questions, but the teacher insisted she had chosen the book only out of her own teaching philosophy. The class handouts and quizzes collected from each individual teacher were not found to have a direct link with the GEPT test. However, for some of the common tests in School B, their alignment with the GEPT test could be easily seen without question; for example, the common mid-term and final exams for the freshman required course appeared in the exact format of the GEPT listening test. Also, the two English proficiency tests collected were simply two reshuffled GEPT on-line mock tests, which followed exactly the same format of the GEPT reading and listening tests.

D. Washback of the Policy on Learning

This section will continue to look into the washback effects of the policy on learning based on the interview data and student questionnaire survey results.

Interview data: Of all the 32 students interviewed at both schools, none of them perceived a high degree of impact of the GEPT test on their learning. More than half of the student participants (19 students) said that they perceived no impact of the GEPT test on their learning, while the rest (13 students) said they perceived only little impact of the GEPT. It is therefore not surprising to find that very few students spent time preparing for the test.

However, when asked about whether they accepted the graduation benchmark policy for English, 18 students showed their acceptance, while only four students were reluctant to accept it. It seems that most of the students were positive about the implementation of the graduation benchmark policy, but why was it so hard for them to be fully engaged? The interview data provide at least three explanations as follows:

a) *Too difficult a goal to accomplish.* As mentioned earlier, the graduation benchmark was too difficult a goal for most of the students to accomplish. For these students, the real problem lay in that they did not know how to prepare for the test but not that they did not want to prepare for the test.

b) *Waiting until the last minute to boost scores.* Some students thought it was still too early for them to start to do anything about it. This is especially true among School A students, since, unlike School B students, they were not required to get a certain score on the first stage of the GEPT intermediate test first before taking the make-up course. Moreover, some students seemed to take cram schools as a last resort to pass the GEPT test, echoing Haladyna et al.'s "test score pollution" (1991, p.2), where score-boosting practices, such as developing a curriculum based on test items, lead to mistaken inferences about ability, which are unethical and should be disallowed. That is probably why some students would rather rely on cram schools than the English courses in school because the regular English classes did not offer enough "score-boosting practices."

c) *Lack of connection between personal needs and the GEPT.* Some students did not feel the connection between taking the GEPT test and their needs, which reduced their motivations for preparing for the test. For example, Student A7 felt this way:

Excerpt 5

I think the most important thing for learning English is to learn to speak, instead of taking written tests. But in Taiwan, our tests focus only on written tests, like the GEPT and our mid-term and final. The College Entrance Exam is a written test too, focusing on grammar. I think even native speakers may not be able to get good grades on such a test, because it is too hard. I think these kinds of tests (written tests) are of little help to our English learning. Even if you get high scores on the tests, it doesn't mean that you can speak English well.

Student A7's emphasis on spoken English, like many other students' views, seems to agree with Yang's (1992) BALLI study on Taiwanese students that most students believed speaking English well would bring in many opportunities. In a similar vein, some highly-motivated students even said that they study English purely out of their own interest, not because of the GEPT test. In other words, the GEPT test had no impact on them, because they would study English on their own no matter whether there was a graduation benchmark or not.

SQ survey results: A total number of 633 students participated in the SQ survey. As 27 student participants indicated in the SQ survey that they already passed the benchmark before entering college, these students were excluded from the subsequent statistical analysis of students' perceived impact of the English exit exam on the three dimensions (*students' perceived impact on their out-of-school practice, students' perceived impact on their efforts* and *students' worries*). The descriptive statistics of the remaining 606 students are presented in Table 1, showing that the mean score for *students' worries about the graduation benchmark* (3.66) is higher than the other two dimensions (3.37 and 1.33) on a six-point scale.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR STUDENTS' PERCEIVED IMPACT OF THE ENGLISH EXIT EXAM ON THE THREE DIMENSIONS
(EXCLUDING STUDENTS WHO ALREADY PASSED THE BENCHMARK BEFORE COLLEGE)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Out-of school practice	606	1.00	4.00	1.33	.40
Efforts	606	1.00	6.00	3.37	.93
Worries	606	1.00	6.00	3.66	1.06

V. LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

Like most quantitative and qualitative studies, this present study does have its limitations. First, due to the elusive and complex features of the washback phenomenon (Spratt, 2005), it is often problematic for a questionnaire survey to capture the washback effects caused by the test in question, such as what happened in the SQ survey, where high-achieving students' responses to their perceived washback of the English benchmark for graduation were not clearly separated from their eagerness to learn more English, as revealed by the qualitative data. As a result, there are certain difficulties gathering washback-related data with one single approach. Triangulation of different sources of data is essentially important to a washback study given that the elusiveness and complexity of washback always exist in each and every situation.

Second, owing to the willingness of the teachers being observed, some classes were observed only once or twice for the present study. It is inevitable that these short-term observations might have led to certain bias in the results and analysis. However, this shortcoming has been noticed and the observation data have been triangulated with the related interview data and teaching and testing materials to ensure their validity.

Third, one common problem with the qualitative analysis is their generalizability. However, this problem has been taken care of by so called "thick description" (Geertz, 1973) in order to draw the research findings from an "extensive and careful description of the time, the place, the context, the culture" (p.241), which could be used for other researchers' references if the research contexts are similar.

VI. CONCLUSION

This investigation has confirmed a social consensus about the implementation of the graduation benchmark for English in Taiwan's higher education, but it has also found that the policy didn't quite achieve the MOE's goals to increase college students' overall English proficiency and their global competitiveness by looking at its washback effects. As the washback on teaching was limited and superficial, including only the use of the GEPT mock tests, adoption of the GEPT test format for teacher-made tests, teaching of test-taking strategies, delivery of the GEPT-related information and teachers' worries about their students, and the washback on learning was also very little and mostly negative, such as test-induced fear, pressure, anxiety and frustration, it is quite clear that the policy did not bring about any significant and meaningful changes in the educational settings as intended.

However, according to the follow-up plan outlined in *Challenge 2008: National Development Plan Summary Report of Main Achievements*, the MOE still decided to keep encouraging universities and colleges to set their graduation thresholds using standardized English tests. Students' passing rates would also continue to be one of the indicators for college evaluation, in an attempt to "globalize the tertiary education in Taiwan" as before.

As reflected in the present study, the MOE of Taiwan might have needed to listen to different stakeholders' voices before such an important decision was made, especially those from teachers and students, who were directly responsible for the intended results. After all, this test-oriented English benchmark policy for graduation has proven not as effective as what the MOE originally expected. To achieve the MOE's goal for internationalizing Taiwan's higher education and improving college students' English proficiency, the graduation benchmark might have to relate more purposefully to the subsequent policies, and tests, especially standardized proficiency tests, might no longer be a panacea as traditionally believed in the Asian context.

APPENDIX A. TEACHERS INTERVIEWED/OBSERVED

School A					
Teachers	Gender	Full-time/Part-time	Teaching experience	Interviewed	Observed
A1	F	P	4 yrs.	✓	
A2	F	F	8 yrs.	✓	✓
A3	F	F	14 yrs.	✓	✓
A4	F	F	24 yrs.	✓	
A5	F	F	18 yrs.	✓	
A6	M	P	4 yrs.		✓
School B					
Teachers	Gender	Full-time/Part-time	Teaching experience	Interviewed	Observed
B1	M	F	24 yrs.	✓	✓
B2	F	F	24 yrs.	✓	✓
B3	F	F	24 yrs.	✓	✓
B4	F	F	5 yrs.	✓	✓
B5	F	P	25 yrs.	✓	
B6	F	F	20 yrs.		✓

APPENDIX B. ADMINISTRATORS INTERVIEWED

School A			School B		
Administrators	Gender	Position	Administrators	Gender	Position
A1	M	President	B1	M	Dean of Academic Affairs
A2	M	Dean of Academic Affairs	B2	M	Ex-Department Head of Applied English
A3	F	Ex-English Language Section Coordinator	B3	F	Department Head of Applied English

APPENDIX C. STUDENTS INTERVIEWED

School A				School B			
Students	Gender	Majors	Years of study	Students	Gender	Majors	Years of study
A1	M	Electronic Engineering	1	B1	F	Electronic Engineering	1
A2	M	Environmental Engineering	1	B2	F	Industrial Design	1
A3	F	Industrial Design	1	B3	F	Chemical Engineering	2
A4	M	Mechanical Engineering	1	B4	F	Chemical Engineering	2
A5	F	Chemical Engineering	1	B5	M	Organic and Polymeric Materials	2
A6	M	Vehicle Engineering	2	B6	M	Materials Engineering	2
A7	M	Electronic Engineering	2	B7	M	Mechanical Engineering	2
A8	M	Vehicle Engineering	2	B8	M	Architecture	3
A9	M	Mechanical Engineering	2	B9	F	Mechanical Engineering	3
A10	M	Business Management	2	B10	M	Chemical Engineering	3
A11	M	Electrical Engineering	4	B11	M	Electrical Engineering	3
A12	M	Electrical Engineering	4	B12	M	Civil Engineering	3
A13	M	Electronic Engineering	4	B13	F	Industrial Management	3 (2-yr.)
A14	M	Electrical Engineering	4	B14	M	Mechanical Engineering	3 (2-yr.)
A15	M	Chemical Engineering	4	B15	F	Industrial Management	4
A16	M	Electronic Engineering	4	B16	M	Materials Engineering	4

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Investigating Iraqi EFL College Students' Attitude towards Using Cooperative Learning Approach in Developing Reading Comprehension Skill

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Abstract—This study aims at investigating Iraqi EFL college learners' attitudes toward using cooperative Learning approach on developing reading comprehension skill. The study is restricted to third-year college students of the English language in Misan Governorate during the second term of the academic year 2015–2016. The number of the whole population is (200) which is distributed into two types: pilot and main. The sample of the study consists of 40 students. To achieve the aim of the study, students' questionnaire consisting of (46) items is applied as an instrument. In order to get required data, a t-test analysis shows a statistically significant difference about learners' attitudes toward using cooperative learning approach on developing reading comprehension skill. The obtained results are that: which refer to (*Cooperative learning helps everyone reach the goal equally*) from cooperative learning and (*Reading in English is difficult for me*) form Reading comprehension. Gain the low effectiveness. They got a weighted mean 56% and 40%. Items number (11, 29, 37, 43) which refer to (*Cooperative learning requires much more time to study*) & (*I think reading the texts is easier if I study within a group*) from cooperative learning and (*I forward to coming to my reading class.*)& (*I m a afraid of making mistakes in my reading class*) form Reading comprehension. All got (96%).

Index Terms—attitude, cooperative learning approach, reading comprehension skill

I. INTRODUCTION

A. The Problem of the Study and Its Significance

Nowadays many teaching methods appear and the successful teachers could choose the suitable methods that are in harmony with teaching practical subjects because they require great efforts especially on the practical side which consequently requires an extensive training to sharpen the students' performance. Therefore, using a new method in teaching Reading Comprehension, which depends on interdependence, searching for information, discussions in addition to practice teaching may improve their performance.

In the same way, Teacher should be well aware of the fact that although a major goal of most language programmes is to enable learners to use new language, there is not a method of teaching which is viewed as the best and can meet all learners needs at all times. For instance, there have been methods of teaching in the last quarter of the current century, yet we are still looking for the best method that can bring about the teaching of behaviour as complex as an Foreign Language with less time and effort (Stevens, 1977, p.15).

Meanwhile, Cooperative Learning Approach provides opportunities for students to develop skills in a group interaction and in working with others that are needed in today's world". Whereas the traditional ways of teaching, in which the instructor talks and the students may listen passively or may have a shrewd mind, show its failure as the student is out of the real involvement in the lecture (Abu and Flowers, 1997, p. 2).

Similarly, Cooperative learning method provides daily opportunities for students from different backgrounds to engage in meaningful interpersonal interaction and require them to get to know one another as individuals.

In addition, Mergan and John (1994, p.23) maintain that CL improves relations among groups; increases self-esteem; fosters positive feeling about learning and school. Students in comparatively structured learning activities take responsibility for both themselves and others; they give help when asked and are always generous for encouragement and support (Forest, 1987, p.121-4).

To sum up, In the domain of language learning and teaching, it is better to take account of any new method or programme. This is so because, as Allen and Davies, 1977,p.1) state, it may be that we shall always have to take account of changing fashion, simply because we have no way of finally establishing the best way to learn or to teach language.

B. The Aim

The present study aims at:

Investigating Iraqi EFL college students' attitude towards using cooperative learning approach in developing reading comprehension skill.

C. Values

The study can be useful in:

a- exploring learners' attitudes toward the use of cooperative learning approach on developing reading comprehension skill.

b- shedding light on the students' perceptions of the influence of such using cooperative learning approach on improving their language proficiency, in general, and on their reading comprehension, in particular.

c- giving insights to college instructors to use cooperative learning approach in teaching different courses.

D. Limits

This study is limited to

1- University third year students at the Department of English during the academic year, 2015-2016 in Misan Governorate.

E. Definitions of Basic Terms

1. Cooperative learning

Cooperative learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others" (Olsen and Kagan, 1992,p.8, as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

2. Reading Comprehension (RC)

Grellet (1981, p.3) defines RC as the extracting of the required information from a written text as efficiently as possible.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

What is meant by Cooperative Learning Approach (CLA)?

Slavin (1995) mentions that Cooperative learning is an instructional program in which students work in small groups to help one another master academic content."

Similarly ,Johnson, et al.(2000,p.99) state that cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning.

Generally speaking, cooperative learning approach defined as "better relationships among students, higher levels of self-esteem, acceptance of mainstreamed students, enhanced communication skills, growth in ability to work cooperatively, greater cooperation among students from different ethnic backgrounds, and improved attitudes towards school" (Maltby, Gage & Berliner, 1995, p.415). To sum up, Kagan (1989, p.12-15) states that in cooperative learning the teacher designs the social interaction structures as well as learning activities.

1. Principles and models of Cooperative Learning Method:

Cooperative Learning according to (Kagan ,2011, p.2; Macpherson, 2007; Johnson, eta. l,2000, p.99) consists of many models such as Positive Interdependence; Individual Accountability; Equal Participation Simultaneous Interaction; Promotive face-to-face interaction; Collaborative skills; and Group processing (See table 1).

TABLE (1)
SHOWS THE PRINCIPLES OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING METHOD

P	Positive Interdependence Positive Interdependence occurs when gains of individuals and teams <i>positively</i> correlate. “Is my gain your gain?” Helping, encouragement, and tutoring blossom. Similarly, Positive interdependence : shared goal, rewards, resources, functional roles in group
I	Individual Accountability : Individual Accountability requires that all students are actively involved and responsible for their own learning. “Is individual public performance required?” in the same way, Individual accountability: responsibility for own and group's learning
E	Equal Participation : In a traditional classroom, only one student out of the entire class will be participating at any one time. By working in teams, all students are encouraged to contribute allowing all students the chance for growth. Stahl (1994:2) declares that CL shows many ways for equal participation for all group members like the use of rotating roles in a group such as facilitator, checker, questioner, praiser, encourager, reader, writer, paraphrase, and the use of multiple ability tasks which require variety of abilities like singing , drawing , acting and categorizing
S	Simultaneous Interaction : Cooperative Learning is fundamentally a simultaneous approach. Discussions and activities both take place all at once. “What percent of the students are overtly active at once?” Stahl (1994, p.2) states that in CL, students engage in interactive abilities such as constructive criticism, encouragement, compromise, negotiation, and clarifying.
P	Promotive face-to-face interaction : shared decisions about materials, Johnson and Johnson (2001 ,p.2-3) state that this principle helps in checking for understanding, teaching one’s knowledge to others, and in explaining orally how to solve the problems that the group may meet.
C	Collaborative skills : decision-making, trust, communication, conflict- management
G	Group processing : reflection on goal-achievement, fostering group working relations. Johnson and Johnson (2001 ,p.1) claim that group members discuss with each other how well they are achieving their shared goals and establish effective working relationship. Students also describe what actions are helpful or not helpful and make decisions concerning what behaviour they want to change or adopt.
T	Team Competition : Snowman (1997,p.3) says that though this principle seems to be an odd component of CL because it focuses on competition rather than on cooperation but, there is no contradiction. The problem is that competition is not used effectively and appropriately, for example, when competition occurs among groups this can be an effective way to motivate students to cooperate with each other in their groups.

Cooperative Learning(Kagan ,2011 ,p.2)

2. The Importance of Cooperative Learning (CL):

Cooperative Learning method should be useful in many ways such as:

1. The students get excited about learning.
2. Knowledge is obtained from the student rather than solely from the teacher.
3. Fosters positive attitude in the students, such as cooperation, tolerance.
4. Trains students to express or convey ideas.
5. CL also provides formative feedback. As to the social relationships between students, CL develops social and group skills which are necessary for success outside the classroom for their own life. Finally, it promotes positive interaction between members of different cultural and socio-economic groups (Mills, 1996).
6. It promotes high levels of achievement, especially in children who have not traditionally done well in school (Sharan, 1980, p.241; Towson, 1985, p.263).
7. It promotes positive interpersonal social behaviour among children; good community (Solomon et al., 1985, p.371).
8. Comparative strategies provide learners with natural setting in which they can derive and express meaning from academic content (Swan, 1985, p.235).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Population and Sample

The sample of this study includes 40 third – year college students of the English language in Misan Governorate. The total number of the College students’ population is 206 distributed among male and female students.

B. Instruments

In order to gain information about the EFL college students’ attitudes toward using cooperative learning approach in developing reading comprehension skill in Misan, a questionnaire has been constructed to be the main instrument used.

1. Face Validity

Ebel (1972, p.78) claims that face validity is secured if the items appear to be measuring what is intended to be measured. a questionnaire has been exposed to a number of specialists in the fields of linguistics and methodology of teaching EFL as shown in table (2) below:

TABLE (2)
THE ACADEMIC RANKS, NAMES, AND LOCATIONS OF THE JURY MEMBER

N	Academic Rank	Name	College
2	Asst. Prof. (Ph.D in Linguistics)	Bushra Ni'ma Rashid	College of Education, University of Baghdad.
3	Asst. Prof. (M.A. in ELT)	Alaa Ismail Chaloob	College of Education University of Anbar
4	Asst. Prof. (M.A. in ELT)	Saadon Salih	College of Basic Education, University of Misan
5	Instr. (Ph.D in ELT)	khansa Hasan	College of Art, University of Al.ImamAL Kadhim
6	Instr. (Ph.D in ELT)	Liqaa Habeeb	College of Education University of Diayla
7	Instr. (M.A. in ELT)	NajimAbdulah	College of Education, University of Misan
8	Instr. (M.A. in Linguistics)	Iqbal S. Disher	College of Basic Education, University of Misan
9	Asst Instr. (M.A in ELT)	Hyfaa Kahadim	College of Basic Education, University of Misan

The final form of the students' questionnaire consists of 46 items distributed among two components: (30) for Cooperative Learning and (16) for Reading Comprehension (see table 3)

2. Pilot Administration

After ensuring the validity of the questionnaire, a pilot version is administered to a sample of (20) College students who are taken from Colleges of Basic Education at University of Misan. Regarding the time allotted for answering the items, it has been found that students need 40 minutes to respond to the questionnaire items.

3. Reliability

Reliability refers to how consistent evaluation results are from one measurement to another (Grolund, 1976, p.102).

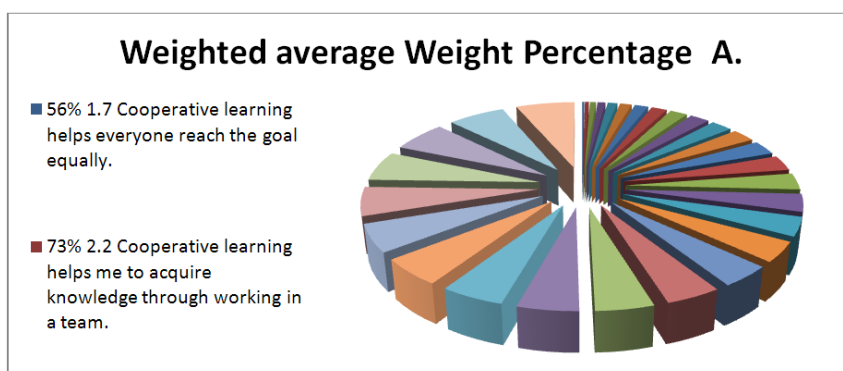
4. Scoring Scheme

Accurate scoring procedures should be adopted in order to get proper results to ensure objectivity and reliability (Harrocks & Schannover, 1968, p.76).

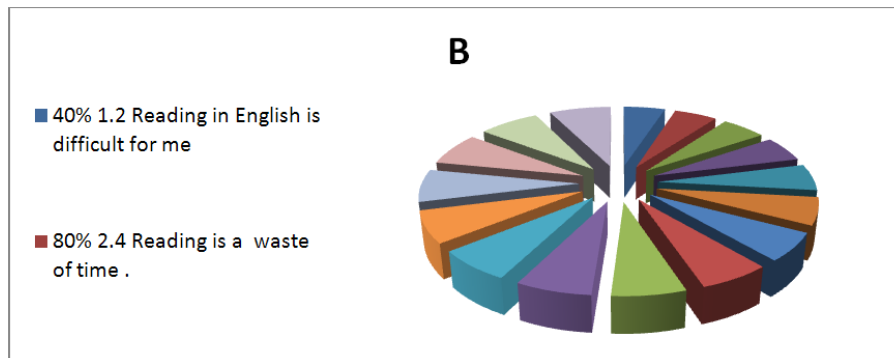
In order to achieve aim of the study, the questionnaire is intended to be answered according to a three points scale (always, sometimes, never) .The marks are assigned as follows: always 3, sometimes 2, never 1 as shown in table (3) below:

TABLE (3)
SHOWS QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT IRAQI EFL COLLEGE STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS USING COOPERATIVE LEARNING APPROACH IN DEVELOPING READING COMPREHENSION SKILL

	<i>Components and Items</i>	Weighted average	Weight Percentage
A.	Cooperative Learning		
1.	Cooperative learning helps everyone reach the goal equally.	1.7	%56
2.	Cooperative learning helps me to acquire knowledge through working in a team.	2.2	73%
3.	Cooperative learning makes me understand the working process.	2.4	80%
4.	Cooperative learning enables me to participate in sharing information, making decisions, and solving problems.	2.3	76%
5.	Cooperative learning trains me how to be a good leader and a good follower.	2.2	73%
6.	Cooperative learning creates a good relationship among group members.	2.2	%73
7.	Cooperative learning helps me to learn new thing easily.	2.7	90%
8.	The lessons become more interesting with cooperative learning	2.3	76%
9.	Cooperative learning inspires me to more active learning.	2.7	90%
10.	Cooperative learning helps me realize others' study methods that benefit me.	2.5	83%
11.	Cooperative learning requires much more time to study.	2.9	96%
12.	Cooperative learning brings more pleasure to study.	2.8	93%
13.	Cooperative learning increases my classroom participation	2.5	83%
14.	Cooperative learning helps me to share and help others which confirms my abilities.	2.1	7.1%
15.	During cooperative learning, I feel satisfied with the interactions with my partners.	2.4	80%
16.	I prefer Cooperative learning.	2.4	80%
17.	I feel actively involved in all activities through this approach	2.8	93%
18.	I feel intellectually challenged through this approach.	2.8	93%
19.	Cooperative learning reminds me of neglected key points from the text.	2.1	70%
20.	Cooperative learning helps me grasp more key idea from the text.	2.5	83%
21.	Cooperative learning helps me more comprehensive understanding of the text.	2.6	86%
22.	Cooperative learning helps me determiner the parts I don't really understand.	2.6	86%
23.	Working with other students on a problem gives me confidence to answer a question in the class	2.7	90%
24.	I think sharing information about different readings help me learn.	2.6	86%
25.	I prefer the teacher rather than another students teaches me.	2.5	83%
26.	I think working on questions with other students helps me learn	2.8	93%
27.	I think studying in class for an exam with other students is better than studying alone.	2.4	80%
28.	I think studying with other students can improve my English in the reading course more than studying alone.	2.3	76%
29.	I think reading the texts is easier if I study within a group.	2.9	96%
30.	Cooperative learning helps me improve my exam scores.	1.9	63%
B	Reading Comprehension		
31.	Reading in English is difficult for me	1.2	40%
32.	Reading is a waste of time.	2.4	80%
33.	Reading helps me in learning new vocabulary	2.7	90%
34.	In my teacher class, the teachers' instruction helps me learn the material	2.2	73%
35.	In my teacher class, the teachers' instruction is boring	1.9	63%
36.	my teacher class, makes me want to learn more English	2.4	80%
37.	I forward to coming to my reading class.	2.9	96%
38.	I have difficulty in learning new vocabulary in the reading course.	2.7	90%
39.	The students can learn a lot by reading.	2.7	90%
40.	The reading course helps me improve my reading in English	2.3	76%
41.	I like and enjoy reading comprehension	1.9	63%
42.	I often feel anxious about answering a question in the reading course	2.7	90%
43.	I m a afraid of making mistakes in my reading class.	2.9	96%
44.	I feel more relaxed if I work on an answer with other students	2.4	80%
45.	Working with other students on a problem gives me confidence to answer a question in the class.	2.8	93%
46.	I think sharing information about different readings help me learn.	2.6	86%



Graphic 1: Shows Students' Attitudes Toward Cooperative Learning



Graphic 2: Shows Students' Attitudes Toward Reading Comprehension

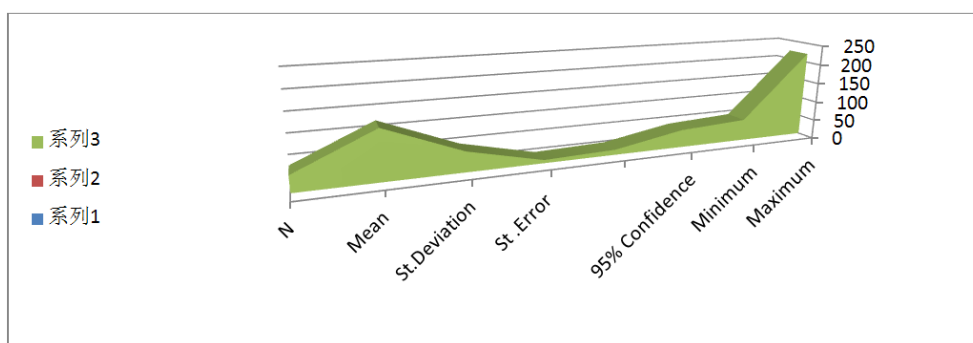
IV. RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Results Related to the First Aim

In order to achieve the first aim to identify and classify effect of using cooperative learning approach in English language classroom. The descriptive statistics of participants' performance on post-test were shown in table 3.

TABLE(3)
RESULTS OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TOTAL SCORES FOR STUDENTS

Item	N	Mean	St. Deviation	St .Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimu m	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Students	40	124.30	50.241	7.944	13.23	45.37	55	222



Graphic 3: Shows results of Descriptive Statistics of Total Scores for Students

As Table 1 shows, the overall mean score for students is 124.30 and SD is 50.241. The descriptive statistics show that using cooperative learning approach has outperformed for the students.

B. Conclusion

Conclusion remarks can be clearly pointed out as follows:

1. Items number (1, 32) which refer to (*Cooperative learning helps everyone reach the goal equally*) from cooperative learning and (*Reading in English is difficult for me*) from Reading comprehension. Gain the low effectiveness. They got a weighted mean 56% and 40%.

2. Items number (11,29,37,43) which refer to (*Cooperative learning requires much more time to study*) & (*I think reading the texts is easier if I study within a group*) from cooperative learning and (*I forward to coming to my reading class.*) & (*I m a afraid of making mistakes in my reading class*) from Reading comprehension. All got (96%)

The Students show enthusiasm towards cooperative learning as it liberates them from the instructor's control and gives them a chance to teach each other, which is an interesting job for them.

C. Recommendations

1. New methods of teaching reading comprehension as cooperative learning must be applied in our classrooms.
2. Teachers of English in the secondary schools as well as instructors of reading comprehension in colleges should be trained on using new techniques for teaching reading comprehension.

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Intelligibility of Thai English Restaurant Menus as Perceived by Thai and Non-Thai Speakers

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Abstract—This study was conducted with the aims to measure intelligibility of English menus used in Thai restaurants as perceived by Thai and non-Thai speakers and to explore the most salient unintelligible features found on the menus as identified by native Thai speakers. Ninety-six participants agreed to complete an online survey. They were asked to rate their intelligibility level and identify the sources of confusing features found on Thai English menus. Independent t-test and simple descriptive statistics such as mean score, percentage and standard deviation were utilized for data analysis. The results suggest that there is the distinction between intelligibility of restaurant menus rated by Thai and non-Thai speakers. Translation is likely to be the most frequent rated as a source of unintelligible features. The data presented here leads to the conclusion that Thais seems to be harsher in rating intelligibility level. Further implications have also been discussed in this study.

Index Terms—intelligibility, restaurant menus, English as a lingua franca, ELF

I. INTRODUCTION

The importance of restaurants in tourism sector is immense. The dishes they serve can be a representative of national culture and uniqueness to tourists who visit a city (Murcott, 1982). Culture, as defined as a way of life for a particular group of people who share the same values, beliefs and practice, is portrayed through names of the dishes, ingredients and eating behavior (Brittin, 2011). In the case of Thai food, the dishes such as *Pad Thai* and *Tom Yam Kung* are named using Thai language which is understood across the country and represents national identity (SIL international, n.d.). Thai cuisine also uses unique ingredients such as fermented fish sauce and shrimp paste in several dishes namely *Som Tam* (green papaya spicy salad) and *Nam Prink Kapi* (shrimp paste sauce). Culture is expressed through how Thais eat their meals as well. In the country, people share food and eat them with rice that is served individually (Tourism Authority of Thailand, n.d.). It is, therefore, quite common that a relationship among Thais is considered as “interdependent”. Thais like to do things in group, and seem not so confident when they are among strangers. Moreover, restaurants generate jobs for local people and are a medium to promote tourism through their mouth-watering taste and quality service (Fuentes-Luque, 2017). In this sense, Bangkok holds its reputation in being one of the gastronomical destinations to visit for food lovers (“The World’s greatest cities for food,” 2016). Their love is clearly expressed through their 448-billion-Baht expenditure on food and beverage making Thailand’s tourism revenue to reach 2.53 trillion Baht in 2016 (Theparat, 2017). Furthermore, several food tours are reviewed and advertised in Tripadvisor.com (“Bangkok Food Tours”, 2017). It can be referred that food served in the restaurants is definitely an integral part of Thailand’s tourism. Quality travelers expect quality services, and restaurants are surely one of the factors that can offer such services to them (Fuentes-Luque, 2017). Therefore, the low quality of restaurants regarding both product and services, more or less, can menace the reputation and revenues the country can make in tourism sector (Fuentes-Luque, 2017).

One might argue that taste is what attracts customers, but taste alone will not effectively fulfill its duty without menus which directly communicate with customers. Menus state what will be served, ingredients and are the first impression for customers (Ozdemi & Caliskan, 2014; McCall & Lynn, 2008). They also help facilitate dish selection if they provide sufficient information and are designed properly (McCall & Lynn, 2008). To illustrate, the owners of the restaurants might include pictures in their menus and provide some additional information along with the name of the dish. With pictures and descriptions of the menus, customers can visualize what they are going to have and perhaps can choose the dishes from the pictures. In addition, international customers may only choose the famous dishes such as *Tom Yam Kung*, *Pad Thai* and *Somtam*, that is, some items which they are accustomed to or have heard of. Having high quality menus which clearly illustrate and explain the dishes will definitely help guide tourists to explore and enjoy the variety of Thai food.

In Thailand, restaurants that want to sell their food to foreign customers must write their menus in other languages. English is one of the predominant languages which restaurant owners pay attention to since it gains popularity and is recognized as the international language that is used for communication across the globe (Huebner, 2006; Ngampramuan, 2016; Ploywattanawong & Trakulkasemsuk, 2014). For Thailand, the situation of English usage fits the

definition of English as a lingua franca because Thai people use English mostly for the purpose of communication with international tourists (Huebner, 2006; Ngampramuan, 2016). However, English used by Thais on restaurant menus can probably lead to miscommunication as the language serves as a foreign language in the country (Baker, 2009; Huebner, 2006; Ngampramuan, 2016), for example, *Spicy 3 Frame Salad (spicy crispy mixed salad)*, *Friend, Fry (French fries)*, and *Pumpkin connection (candied pumpkin)*. These types of errors might lead to laughers, misleading or misunderstanding which, unfortunately, can cause health problem in case of allergies (Fuentes-Luque, 2017) as well as end up as a meme on the Internet. Due to these potential issues caused by English written by locals on restaurant menus, this study is interested in investigating Thai English as used on restaurant menus to measure to what extent do Thai and Non-Thai speakers understand English used in Thai restaurants and the confusing features found on the menus as perceived by Thai native speakers.

One way to measure how much participants understand English on menus is to evaluate intelligibility of the texts. Unfortunately, a search on intelligibility of English written on restaurant menus yields no empirical studies in Mahidol University databased powered by EBSCOhost. Rather, intelligibility usually has been extensively studied in terms of speech (Jin & Liu, 2014; Klien & Flint, 2006; Lam & Tjaden, 2013; Wilson & Spaulding, 2010). The most related study on intelligibility of English used in tourism sector was conducted by Ngampramuan (2016). In her research, she examined intelligibility of public signs in tourist destinations as perceived by Thai and foreign participants. The result showed that international participants seemed to understand Thai English when there was no errors or minor errors found, for instance, “2 free 1 and Happy toilet” (Ngampramuan, 2016: p.134), but unable to understand it when there were major errors such as “forbidden island glass (do not lean on the glass)” (Ngampramuan, 2016: p.134). Furthermore, it appeared that international participants paid more attention on the overall meaning level rather than ungrammatical features while Thai participants responded the opposite. As quite few numbers of studies undertaking with this issue, the current study is addressing two research objectives as follows:

- 1) To measure intelligibility of English menus used by Thai restaurants as perceived by Thai and non-Thai speakers; and
- 2) To explore the most salient ungrammatical features found on Thai English restaurant menus as identified by native Thai speakers.

Two research questions are addressed to fulfill the research objectives as follows:

- 1) To what extent do Thai and non-Thai speakers understand English menus written by Thai restaurants?
- 2) What are the most salient mistakes found on Thai English restaurant menus as identified by native Thai speakers?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Intelligibility

The definitions of intelligibility given by various scholars and publications are quite similar, yet not identical. Longman Dictionary of Teaching and Applied Linguistics defines intelligibility as “the degree to which a message can be understood” (2010, p. 289). Smith and Nelson (1985) view it as “the recognition of words and utterances.” Nelson (2011) defines intelligibility as the ability to understand the messages conveyed by the utterances or texts. For the objectives of this study, the concept of intelligibility as defined by Nelson (2011) will be used for two reasons. First, intelligibility is situationally and contextually bound (Nelson, 2011). That is, to what extent people will be able to understand the messages is subjected to the contexts. In this sense, contexts can be the mutual experiences or knowledge in the past which people have and do not have to be further explained as if they are a “natural part of the discourse” (Ngampramuan, 2016, p. 6). In the case of Thai English on restaurant menus, it is essential that customers should be familiar and have some background or experience on Thai food in order to understand the menus. Second, intelligibility puts less emphasis on audience response (Ngampramuan, 2016). Therefore, restaurant menus seem to be best fitted with the definition of intelligibility because it does not concentrate on audience responses as they are one-way communication.

English as a Lingua Franca

ELF refers to “a way of referring to communication in English between speakers with different first languages” (Seidlhofer, 2005, p. 339). In other words, it involves with using English to communicate by people who have different first languages. However, this broad definition has its flaw since it seems to neglect the fact that native speakers (Inner Circle countries) and those who come from Outer Circle countries utilize English as well (Baker, 2009; Seidlhofer, 2005). For instance, an American diplomat speaks with a Filipino ambassador at the United Nations meeting in English. Thus, to expand the definition of ELF in order to include native speakers and those who use English as a second language, Jenkins (2006) proposes a term ELF to cover the use of English for communication between people who do not share the same “linguacultures” (p.164), regardless the countries they are from. Simply put, ELF is used to describe the use of English by people who do not share the same culture or a native language. For example, a Chinese tourist speaks English with Thai people in order to bargain and buy some souvenirs.

Features of English as a Lingua Franca

1) Lexico-grammatical Features

Ngampramuan (2016) discovers the lexico-grammatical features of Thai English on public signs as follows:

- 1.1 Misspelling e.g. “Keep in mine (mind) for your parking spot.” (Ngampramuan, 2016: p. 64);*

1.2 *Parts of speech* e.g. “using a noun instead of an adjective – Drink water” (Ngampramuan, 2016: p. 65);

1.3 *Inflection* e.g. “wrong verb conjugation or the disagreement of subjects and verbs – This area are under construction” (Ngampramuan, 2016: p. 65);

1.4 *Punctuation Marks, Spacing, and Capitalization* e.g. no punctuation mark – “new promotion start now” (Ngampramuan, 2016: p. 69), separating words without need – “water melon” (Ngampramuan, 2016: p. 69), mixing upper case with lower case letters – “BeKo BeKo Japanese crepe” (Ngampramuan, 2016: p. 70); and

1.5 *Ellipsis* e.g. “Please (use) next counter” (Ngampramuan, 2016: p. 71).

2) *Lexico-semantic Features*

This current study is influenced by the framework of Ngampramuan (2016) regarding lexico-semantic features of ELF found on signs. The features are following:

A. *Translation*

The features of Thai English regarding translation are mostly found in the pattern of literal translation, inappropriate translation, online translation, mistranslation between Thai and English, wrong word order, loanshift (the extension of the meaning of words in order to cover a new concept), ambiguity, wrong idioms, and codemixing such as “Thai desserts ancient (Thai shaved ice)” (Ngampramuan, 2016: p. 74) and “A motorcycle works for invite 2 ladders (Use exit 2 for motorcycle taxi service)” (Ngampramuan, 2016: p. 74).

B. *Thainess*

In this regard, Thainess refers to socio-cultural knowledge that is required of the international visitors in order to interpret the messages on signs. That is, even if the texts are grammatically correct, it is possible that the audiences still find it challenging to understand due to the adequacy of socio-cultural knowledge. Thainess mostly involves with monarchy, local food and fruit, belief and tradition, exotic career and religious etc. For example, do not point your feet to Buddha (ไม่มีตีนเท้าไปหาพระพุทธรูป).

C. *Word Choice and Creativity*

English as used by Thais tend to use weird word choice, collocation. Moreover, they seem to be creative when using the language by altering words in order to make the messages more interesting, and forming unique words by adding suffixes e.g. eation (eat + suffix -tion) (Ngampramuan, 2016: p. 83).

D. *Transliteration*

Transliteration refers to the alternation of Thai into English script such as Wat Phra Kaeo (Emerald Temple) (Ngampramuan, 2016: p. 84).

Previous Study

As mentioned earlier that the study of intelligibility of English used on restaurant menus is rare in the Thai context. That is, there is only one research relevant to the current study. Ngampramuan (2016) investigates intelligibility of Thai English used on public signs in Thailand by adopting the concept of ELF. The study aims to examine the characteristics of Thai English used on the signs, the levels of intelligibility, the attitudes of Thai and non-Thai participants towards Thai English and the factors contributing to intelligibility level. Online-based survey is employed to measure the attitudes of Thai and international participants together with interviews. The total participants are 1,266 (810 Thais and 456 international respondents) for online survey and 51 for the interview. The results revealed that English proficiency levels indeed are the factors contributing to intelligibility of Thai English on signs. It means that the higher proficiency levels, the more the participants can negotiate for the meanings and be able to understand the messages. It also reported that international participants rated higher in intelligibility if they can grab the meaning regardless the grammatical correctness. That is, they think that the mistakes that do not interfere with the overall meaning of the message are not serious. In contrast, Thai participants pay more attention to grammatical correctness. They appear to rate low in intelligibility level if the Thai English signs are ungrammatical.

Ngampramuan’s (2016) research has shed light on the intelligibility of Thai English on sign domain. However, the study of intelligibility of Thai English on restaurant menus is left to be fulfilled. Therefore, this present study aims to do so by adopting Ngampramuan’s (2016) study, intelligibility and EFL as the primary conceptual frameworks. To give a clear explanation on how these conceptual frameworks are used as the foundation of this research, the following figure summarizes the relationship between Thai English mistakes and difficulties.

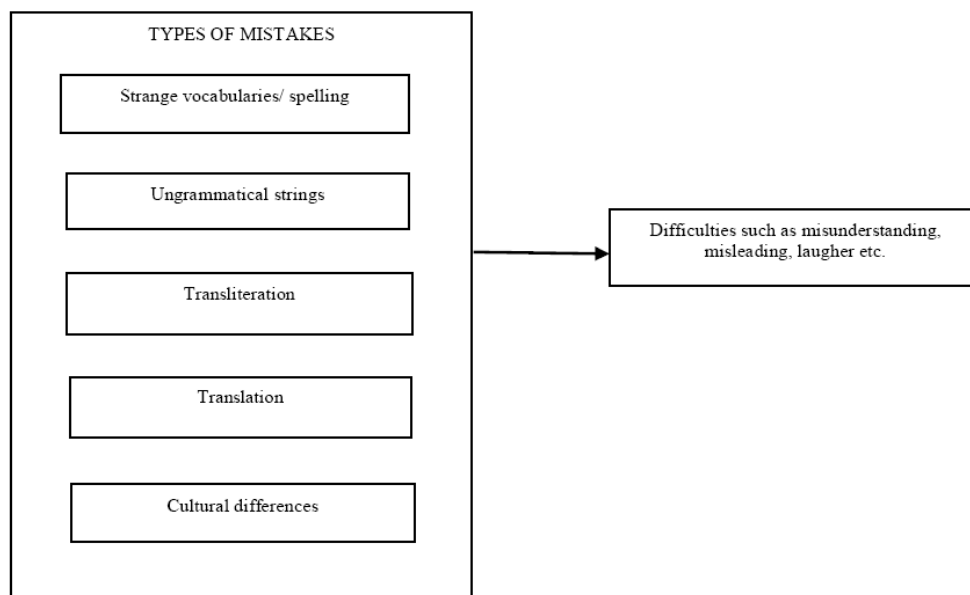


Figure 1. Relationship between Thai English Features and Difficulties.

III. METHODOLOGY

Restaurant Menu Collection Sites

Menus were retrieved from Phra Athit Road, Maharaj Road, Tha Phrachan (Phrachan Pier), Yaowarat Road, Khao San Road and Sukumvit Soi 38. These neighborhoods were selected because they were the tourist destinations which had rich resources of Thai English menus. They were also easy to commute to since all of them could be accessed by public transportations such as bus and sky train. Furthermore, the neighborhoods were listed as recommended places for food lovers (Jorgensen, 2011; Nualkhair, 2015; TripAdvisor, n.d.).

1. Phra Athit Road

Phra Athit Road was located near Khao San Road and along Chao Phraya River. It was a home for various old palaces dated back to the early days of Chakri dynasty (Huebner, 2006). Restaurants in this area were the combinations of old and modern era. Most of menus in Phra Athit Road provided at least two languages (Thai and English). However, there were some restaurants offer Chinese as an additional language.

2. Maharaj Road

Maharaj Road was situated along Chao Phraya River. It was considered to be one of the oldest neighborhoods in Bangkok. The road was the house of Tha Maharaj community mall where there were several restaurants offering harmonious combination of local, Korean, western, fusion food, and dessert shops such as *Savoey* (traditional Thai food), *Tok pok ki jib* (Korean food) and *After you* (dessert shop). The language used on the menus in Maharaj Road were mostly Thai and English. Chinese was also found in some restaurants but not as pervasive as the former two languages.

3. Tha Phrachan (Phrachan Pier)

Tha Phrachan ran along Thammasat University's Tha Phrachan Campus. The area was filled with several local food restaurants. These restaurants appeared to offer two languages on their menus which are Thai and English.

4. Yaowarat Road

Yaowarat Road was considered to be Chinatown of Bangkok. The road had a great number of food stalls that attracted countless visitors. Its famous dishes included *Kuay Teow Kua Gai* (fried noodles with chicken), *Ka Pho Pla* (fish maw soup), and toasted bread. Regarding languages used on restaurant menus, most of them provide three languages which were Thai, Chinese, and English.

5. Khao San Road

Visitors would experience some local food such as *Pad Thai* and *Khao Soi (Northern style curry noodles)*. Nonetheless, if they wanted something exotic and strange, they could try fried scorpions, grasshoppers or bamboo caterpillars. Restaurant menus in Khao San Road were mostly written in Thai and English. However, there are some restaurants that only offered English menus.

6. Sukhumvit Soi 38

Sukhumvit Soi 38 was located near Thong Lor sky train station. Most of the vendors offered local food such as BBQ pork, noodles, and *Somtam*. Thai dessert such as sticky rice with mango served with coconut milk, coconut ice-cream and *Sarim (sweet noodles in coconut milk syrup)* could also be found here. Pertaining to languages on menus, Thai and English were dominant while Japanese was found in some stalls.

Participants

There were 55 native Thai speakers and 41 international participants making it 96 in total. The number of participants could be said to provide “a conservative estimate” as it was over 30 which were the lowest number of participants which yielded reliable results (Saunders, 2012). Participants were voluntary since they had to visit the link to complete the questionnaire. They were asked to rate their overall English proficiency and reading skill because this study had excluded those who were below the intermediate level. The description of intermediate level (B1) according to the Common European Framework of Reference for English (CEFR) guideline (The Council of Europe, 2001) is:

[language users who are in this level] can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. (p. 33)

The assumption of doing so was that the participants with lower English proficiency skill might not be able to explain or identify the mistakes of the menus.

Questionnaire

There were two versions of the questionnaire in this research - one is for native Thai speakers and another for international participants. The questionnaire for Thais was divided into three parts: introduction, personal information and questionnaire. In introduction part, the name of the study, objectives, instruction, and how to contact researcher were listed. In personal information section, the participants were asked to answer 7 questions regarding gender, age, nationality, educational level, overall English proficiency level, English's reading skill and their knowledge on Thai food. In case of overall English proficiency level and English's reading skill, the researcher adopted the English proficiency levels from Ngampramuan (2016) which were elementary, beginner, intermediate, upper-intermediate, advanced, proficient and native. Questionnaire section consisted of 20 items. Each of them had 2 sub-items. The example of questionnaire is displayed in Figure 2. The participants were asked to rate their intelligibility level by selecting one of six-point Likert scale starting from 1 (totally cannot understand) to 6 (fully understand) in the first sub-question. Six-point Likert scale was employed because it could provide reliable data and short enough to not burden the participants (Johnson & Christensen, 2016). In the second sub-question, the participants were asked to explain the mistakes if they saw any. In this question, five common mistakes, as adapted from Ngampramuan's (2016) study, which were strange vocabularies/spelling, ungrammatical strings, transliteration, translation, cultural differences were listed as options. However, if the participants believed that there were other mistakes, they could provide their justifications in 'Other' box. Or, if they thought that there was no mistake, they could select 'No mistake' box. The respondents were free to choose more than one options.

For international participants, the questionnaire was also divided into three parts: introduction, personal information and questionnaire. It was identical for introduction part; however, for personal information, there were two additional questions which were “Have you ever been to Thailand?” and “How long have you stayed in Thailand?”. These questions were added with the presuppositions that the participants who had been to the country might somewhat have more understanding on Thai food than those who had never visited Thailand (Ngampramuan, 2016). For the questionnaire section, there was only one item for each menu which was “How well do you understand the English text written on the menu?”. The second sub-question regarding the mistakes was dropped because the foreigners might not be able to identify them as they did not understand Thai. The example of questionnaire for international participants is illustrated in Figure 3.

Data collection

The data collection was online-based. The primary reason was that it was convenient to gather data from international participants and Thais who lived in different regions of the country. It also helped save cost of travelling and facilitated fast data collection (Lumsden & Morgan as cited in Ngampramuan, 2016).

Procedure

First of all, the researcher made a trip to collect restaurant menus in Phra Arthit Road, Maharaj Road, Tha Phrachan, Sukumvit Soi 38, Yaowarat Road and Khao San Road. Next, all menus were examined and 20 of them were selected to be used in both versions of the questionnaires. The criteria for menu selection were following:

- 1) They had to be written in at least two languages (Thai and English);
- 2) They had to be matched with at least one of the common mistakes (see Diagram 1);
- 3) The pictures must be high quality enough to provide adequate information such as clear typeface and appropriate front size;
- 4) They must be from various categories such as side dishes, beverage and dessert; and
- 5) The lists had to be the combination of menus with no mistakes, minor mistakes (the mistakes that did not interfere with the overall meaning of the message such as *sweet corn boiled (boiled sweet corn)*) and severe mistakes (the mistakes that interfered with the meaning of the texts making them difficult to understand such as *spicy 3 frame salad (mixed spicy salad)*). These levels of mistakes were judged by three Thai native speakers who had upper-intermediate to advanced level of English proficiency.

1.1 How well do you understand the English text written on the menu? *

ข้าวราดหมูเกาหลี Food Korean

1 2 3 4 5 6

Totally cannot understand Fully understand

1.2 Regardless your understanding level of the menu, what kind(s) of mistake do you recognize from the English menu? (can choose more than one) *

No mistake

Strange vocabularies/spelling

Ungrammatical strings

Transliteration e.g. Pad Thai

Translation

Cultural differences

Other: _____

Figure 2. Example of Questionnaire Items for Thai Native Speakers

1. How well do you understand the English text written on the menu? *

ข้าวราดหมูเกาหลี Food Korean

1 2 3 4 5 6

Totally cannot understand Fully understand

Figure 3. Example of Questionnaire Item for Non Thai Speakers

After that, the questionnaires were developed and reviewed by peers and a native speaker to ascertain that the questions were understandable before publishing it. Then, the data were analyzed by using simple descriptive statistics such as mean, percentage and standard deviation and inferential statistics such as independent t-test to address the research questions.

IV. RESULTS

Intelligibility of Thai English Menus as Perceived by Thai and non-Thai Speakers

In order to compare the intelligibility of Thai English menus used in Thai restaurants as perceived by both Thai native speakers and non-Thai speakers, t-test was conducted. Table 1 reports Thai and non-Thai speakers' intelligibility scores of Thai English restaurant menus.

TABLE I.
INTELLIGIBILITY SCORES AS PERCEIVED BY THAI (N=55) AND NON-THAI SPEAKERS (N=41)

Source	Thai		Non-Thai		df	t	p
	M	SD	M	SD			
Intelligibility scores	3.40	.83	3.84	.71	94	-2.75	.007

The results clearly showed that non-Thai speakers ($M = 3.84$ out of 6, $SD = .71$) appeared to rate higher intelligibility levels than that of Thai native speakers ($M = 3.40$ out of 6, $SD = .83$) for all 20 questions. The difference of the mean score was statistically significant at $p < 0.01$, $t(94) = -2.75$, $p = .007$.

Mistakes of Thai English Restaurant Menus According to Native Thai Speakers

To explore menus' mistakes, this current research provided five options for Thai respondents to select and added two additional choices in case they felt that there was no mistake, or the mistakes were not fit in the given categories. Table 2 illustrates the frequency of difficulties as identified by Thai participants.

TABLE II.
THE FREQUENCY OF THAI ENGLISH RESTAURANT MENUS' MISTAKES
(TOTAL FREQUENCY OF MISTAKES AS IDENTIFIED BY NATIVE THAI SPEAKERS = 1863).

Source of Mistake	N	%
No mistake	95	5.2
Strange vocabulary/spelling	372	20.2
Ungrammatical strings	345	18.8
Transliteration	368	20.0
Translation	453	24.6
Cultural differences	206	11.2
Other	24	2.3
Total	1863	100.0

The results revealed that the most frequent difficulty which Thai participants were able to identify from the menus was translation (24.6%) such as *Food Korean* instead of *Korean BBQ pork served with steamed rice*. Strange vocabulary/spelling e.g. *Coconuts Milk Icecream Wlegg yolk (coconut milk ice cream with egg yolk)* and transliteration such as *hoy tod* (crispy mussel and bean sprout pancake) also appeared to be among the leading mistakes contributing to intelligibility levels at 20.2% and 20%, respectively. Thai respondents further spotted ungrammatical strings e.g. *Sweet Corn Boiled (boiled sweet corn)* at 18.8 percent and cultural differences e.g. *Lahb Hed (spicy mushroom salad)* and *O'lieng (iced blank coffee)* at 11.2 percent. When extensively analyzed "Other" mistakes as described by Thais, the researcher found that most of them mentioned the problem of translation, for example, in Q. 7 Spicy 3 frame salad (spicy crispy mixed salad), the participants wrote that this menu was translated word by word. Unfortunately, the data was, in fact, related to translation category provided in the options; therefore, this additional information was not further investigated.

Trip to Thailand, Duration of Stay and Intelligibility

There was inadequate data to properly study the relationship between trip to the country and intelligibility as there was only four respondents out of 41 who had never been to Thailand. This was similar to duration of stay because there was only one participant in each category for 5-8 weeks and 9-12 weeks. Thus, a comparison of whether number of trip to Thailand and length of stay correlate with intelligibility level was not possible to identify.

V. DISCUSSION

RQ.1 To what extent do Thai and non-Thai speakers understand English menus written by Thai restaurants?

The findings revealed that there was a distinction of the intelligibility level of Thai English menus rated by Thai and international participants. Native Thai speakers tend to be more severe in evaluating intelligibility. The results lend support to Ngampramuan (2016)'s study which found that non-Thai raters seemed to be more tolerant to the errors found on public signs than Thai raters. Quite a few more researches, though not directly related to intelligibility, support this result. Lee (2009), for instance, conducted his study to explore native and non-native English speakers' behavior in rating Korean students' essays. He revealed that Korean raters appeared to more emphasize grammar while native raters were prone to be more severe in content measurement. Schmitt (1993) also reported similar results. He studied Japanese and native-speaking teachers' rating behavior and concluded that Japanese teachers appeared to be harsher in rating grammar.

There are a few explanations that can account for the fact that why there is a difference of the intelligibility level rated by two groups. First, non-native English speakers may pay closer attention to form-related mistakes than international raters. For them, it is likely that the mistakes which violate grammaticality would be rated low, for example *Food Korean (Korean BBQ pork served with steamed rice)* which mostly received 1 (totally cannot understand) from Thai respondents while most international participants rated it as 6 (fully understand). However, it should also take into the consideration that the international raters may misunderstand the meal as general Korean food instead of Korean BBQ pork served with steamed rice because they cannot read Thai scripts that stated the intended menu. Second, international participants are more tolerant to the errors if such distorted texts do not interfere with the overall gist of the message. That is, they tend to ignore the mistakes which are form-related. For instance, they mostly rated 6 for *Sweet corn boiled (boiled sweet corn)* as it has only a minor mistake regarding word order which certainly does not affect the intelligibility of the message. Third, international participants may have less expectation on the grammar of the menus because they understand that Thais use English as a lingua franca. Therefore, the mistakes that do not impede intelligibility are rated high, namely *Papaya Salad Beans (bean spicy salad)* which mostly receive 5 and 6, respectively. The work of Lee (2009) and Schmitt (1993), as previously discussed, also can be used to confirm that native English speakers seem to focus meaning of the text rather than grammaticality. Forth, the difference can also arise from the fact that Thai participants understand Thai scripts on the menus. That is, Thais are likely to use their knowledge of the language and food to make the judgment while overseas raters use only English to assess whether the menus are intelligible or not. Menu that employs transliteration such as *Tom Luerd Mhoo (coagulated pork blood soup)* shows that

while Thais appeared to rate both 1 and 6 equally, non-Thai speakers mostly rated this item as 1. It can be said that those who rate 6 may employ their Thai knowledge to judge it as there is no way they can grab the message out of the English scripts.

RQ2 What are the most salient mistakes found on Thai English restaurant menus as identified by native Thai speakers?

The most frequent mistake rated by native Thai speakers was translation. One of the explanations for this is probably because all of the menus selected for the questionnaire, at least, contain translation as one of the mistakes. For example, *EggNoodles no soup with BBQ pork, egg (egg noodles with roasted pork)* was identified as having strange vocabulary/spelling the most and translation a second. When looking at this menu from the raters' views who may not be trained in language-related field, it is acceptable to say that the translation in this menu is generally wrong. Therefore, it is not unexpected that the respondents choose translation as one of the most salient mistakes. Allowing participants to select as many difficulties as they want may contribute to the results as well. The findings reported that there were 1,863 responses for all 20 questions while the total number of participants was only 55. It seems that one participant provide more than a single answer in each item. Thus, it is high chance that they select translation in most of the items making it the most salient difficulty. Apart from translation, Thai participants also found strange vocabulary/spelling, ungrammatical strings, transliteration and cultural differences in the menus as well. The rationale behind these results probably lies in the participants' both Thai and English knowledge. As they can understand both languages, they tend to know what is right when writing the menus in English in terms of grammar, word choice, spelling and culture. Therefore, they are able to identify other difficulties besides translation.

Implications

The implications of this study are threefold. First, it can be an evidence to back up the need to design ESP curriculum that pay more attention to communicative purpose. According to the results, it clearly shows that international participants are likely to ignore the mistakes that do not interfere with the meaning of the message. Therefore, focusing solely on grammar does not improve Thai students' ability to use English nor it tremendously helps them get their meaning across. By focusing the use of English for communicative purpose, students will tend to be able to use the language more fluently and meaningfully. One possible way to so do is promoting theme-based instruction in ESP classroom where the emphasis of the course is on both grammar and other necessary component such as vocabulary that corresponding to students' need and speaking practices. Moreover, teachers should provide more corrective feedback when the mistakes impede intelligibility of the text and putting in less effort on correcting those which do not seriously violate it. Second, teachers may use restaurant menus as the authentic materials in the class. To write the effective multilingual menus, one must consider several factors such as the translation techniques, cultures and grammar. Having students experienced the authentic menus will surely make them recognize both quality and bad menus. Third, it can serve as a foundation to develop a guideline for Thai cuisine translation as it offers the insights into how people view the current menus and the mistakes that violate both Thai and non-Thai speakers' understanding which the restaurant owners should avoid.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

The following three major limitations are listed in this study. First, this research does not administer interview which may allow the researcher to gain more thorough understanding of the participants' answers. Some menu such as *Food Korean* might have been rated highly intelligible by the international participants due to the fact that they misunderstand it as the general Korean food not any specific types of meal. Second, the size of overseas participants is not sufficient to investigate to what extent trip to Thailand and duration of stay influence intelligibility. Finally, this study does not explore the relationship between English proficiency and intelligibility which may shed light on whether the proficiency affects intelligibility of the messages.

The limitations above allow future research to fulfill the gaps as follows. First, interview should be carrying out for it will give the insight into whether they actually understand the intended meaning of the menu, why participants rate the intelligibility level or determine the mistakes the way they do. Second, it is recommended to recruit more international participants so that the proper statistical analysis can be administered. Third, English proficiency and its relationship with intelligibility should also be studied.

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Service-learning as a Useful Supplement to Intensive English Programs

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Abstract—This paper looks at the effects of service-learning on an Intensive English program. It examines English language participants at a community college who engaged in different service-learning projects over the course of one semester. Students found that service-learning helped them improve their English skills, increased their confidence when interacting with native English speakers, and gave them a rewarding experience of helping others. This paper argues that a service-learning component to English language learning curricula promotes enhanced language acquisition, as students are able to produce and receive authentic language outside the class while performing real-world tasks with meaningful purposes.

Index Terms—ESL, English as a second language learning, service-learning, academic English, intensive English programs, community service

I. INTRODUCTION

Service-learning at institutions of higher education has gained popularity in recent times (Molee, Henry, Sessa, & Mckinney-Prupi, 2010; Gerstenblatt & Gilbert, 2014; McClam, Diambra, Burton, Fuss and Fudge, 2008; Chupp & Joseph, 2012). Service-learning is being used in a variety of disciplines, either as a capstone supplement to the program or as an integrated pedagogical component therein, with the purpose of both enriching students' academic development and making meaningful contributions to the community. There are a myriad of definitions for the term. According to the National Service Clearinghouse (2005), service-learning is "...a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility and strengthen communities" (McClam, Diambra, Burton, Fuss & Fudge, 2008, p. 237).

Ryan and Callahan (2002) see service-learning "as a reciprocal relationship that merges both field experience and sustainable community service, to offer learning opportunities that link academics to service, so that both students and the community partner benefits" (quoted by Hildenbrand & Schultz 2015 p. 262). In addition, Scott (2008) describes service-learning as "an educational experience that brings course content to life by applying classroom theories, concepts, and skills within a community" (Byers & Gray 2012, p. 257). Bringle and Hatcher (1995) define it as

a credit-bearing education experience in which students participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs and reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility. (as cited in Gerstenblatt & Gilbert, D. J., 2014, p. 1039)

Jacoby (1996), on his part, calls service-learning "a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities intentionally designed to promote student learning and development" (as cited by Amerson, 2010, p. 18). Jacoby (1996) as well as Mass-Weigert, (1998) Kinsley (1994) and Berson (1994) also suggested that service-learning is a "pedagogy which involves academic study linked to community service through assignments that require some sort of structured reflection so that each reinforces the other, with the benefits far exceeding those of service or learning by themselves" (Elwell & Bean, 2001, p. 47). Finally, the National Youth Leadership Council (2017) defines service learning as "an approach to teaching and learning in which students use academic knowledge and skills to address genuine community needs" (What is Service Learning?, 2017).

Thus, based on the literature review, we can essentially assert that service-learning is a pedagogical strategy that involves the application of classroom instruction to some form of public service, with the mutual objective of reaching student learning outcomes while fulfilling a need in the community. It is also a way of applying theory to practice that benefits the greater good—one of the highest aspirations of pedagogy. Yet with its rising recognition as a useful form of cognitive training in higher education, it has only been used sporadically in English language learning programs, and very little discussion in the related literature has taken place about ESL college students participating in service-learning (Elwell & Bean, 2001).

Second language acquisition theory claims that language learning does not necessarily take place in a classroom. Second language acquisition occurs in living unscripted linguistic environments where the learner is constructing a grammar through codified input (Gass & Selinker, 2001). In formalized language instruction, a teacher serves simply as a facilitator and source of reference for second (third, fourth, etc.) language development. The student must have an

opportunity—even necessity—to use the language outside of the structured setting of a classroom in order to truly acquire and retain it. What better means, then, to aid and ensure this than through service-learning?

When implemented properly, service-learning can provide English language learners (ELL) with real world situations to use the language constructively. In addition, it can provide them with an authentic cultural experience that will not only inform them of the dominant social norms of the country they are residing in, but will also enrich their lives with the positive experience of helping others. What follows is a review of the literature on service-learning and then an elaboration of a service-learning experiment conducted by my own institution.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Not surprisingly, service-learning is most commonly implemented in social service, teacher training and nursing degree programs. Students are typically required to enlist in community services that model the profession in which they are trained. McClam, Diambra, Burton, Fuss and Fudge (2008) suggest that service-learning should involve learning through active participation, structured time for reflection, the opportunity to apply learned skills, and knowledge of real life situations. It should also involve learning that extends beyond the classroom. In their study, university majors in the field of Human Services engaged in a semester long assignment of assisting patients at a residential psychiatric facility for adolescents. Students formed professional-client relationships with patients as they assumed the formal duties of psychiatric social-workers. Students were given pre-experience written reflection assignments to address their expectations and concerns. Then, upon completion of the service-learning, they were given post-experience written reflection assignments to measure their personal growth and formal understanding. McClam, Diambra, Burton, Fuss and Fudge's (2008) findings showed that "students exposed to well-planned experiential learning activities overcome initial concerns, develop professional confidence, and demonstrate learning at an advanced level when confronted by real and meaningful work-place challenges" (p. 247).

Byers and Gray (2012) conducted a study of service-learning in an elective Masters of Social Work course in which the students who actually continued to engage in civic activities in the community they were assigned after the course was completed. Their prolonged commitment was not a requirement of the course, nor had any contribution to their academic standing. One of the most distinctive aspects of this research is that rather than looking at attitudinal measures of self-reporting, the data in this research looked at observable behavioral reactions to service-learning. The majority of students who took the course and participated in the qualitative interviews decided to return to the community they helped for further civic activities. More students may have returned had the university offered continued structured activities in the community. Byers and Gray (2012) argue that service-learning should be included in the curriculum because "it bridges the 'wide gap' between classroom and practice" (p. 264), and that "service-learning is a valuable method for transforming impressions of communities, defining macro-practice...and fostering civic engagement" (p. 266).

Hildenbrand and Schultz (2015) explore the effects of service-learning on teacher education. Teacher candidates were assigned to work with community organizations that provided social aid to economically disadvantaged families, people with disabilities, and English language learners. One of the objectives was to provide teacher candidates with the opportunity to work with populations that experienced frequent social inequities. Participants were able to experience real community based problems, learn from them, and eventually work toward solving them. According to Hildenbrand and Schultz (2015), "each family identified a problem that needed to be solved, and small groups of teacher candidates investigated the root cause of the issue and creatively worked with families to resolve or better their situations" (p. 269). The uncertainty of each family's situation as well as the nature of the complex issues that belied these conditions drove teacher candidates to higher levels of flexibility and critical thinking—two crucial aspects of pedagogy. After their service-learning component, most teacher candidates said that the process enhanced their classroom studies, helped them learn to work with a group, improved their civic awareness, and overall added value to the course.

Gerstenblatt and Gilbert (2014) also designed an elective service-learning course that connected students to disenfranchised members of the community. The pedagogical approach of the course was based on three elements: working with existing structures of university-community partnerships, creating ongoing projects that transcended the boundaries of semesters and academic disciplines, and reflecting on larger political economic and social justice issues. The researchers note that student learning, reflection and reciprocity between students and the community should have equal importance in service-learning. The objectives of the course aimed at developing the abilities of students to engage in complex analysis, enter collaborative community relationships, apply specific methods of theories and research, perform civic actions, and practice transformative critical thinking. They claim that "as part of the course objectives, students were challenged to think imaginatively and creatively about public problems and their solutions, particularly from a multidisciplinary perspective in partnership with community members" (p. 1047). Students initially gathered ideas about needs from rural community residents with 21% of its members under the federal poverty line. Students then formed groups based on their interests, and worked with local government and non-profit organizations to come up with long term solutions in which students of future semesters would continue to engage.

Amerson (2010) examined the self-perceived cultural competence of undergraduate nursing students after the completion of a service-learning project with local and international communities. Students were required to do a cultural assessment of specific Latino communities in the U.S. and Guatemala, and then develop a culturally appropriate

plan of healthcare. They conducted anthropologic style interviews with community informants about their perceptions of healthcare issues in the community. Afterwards, they worked with community leaders to create a plan for educating the population and implementing better healthcare procedures. Students—who mostly were not fluent in Spanish—even learned key phrases in Spanish to speak with patients about medication and proper health habits. The study findings suggested that nursing students perceived an increased competency in their cognitive, practical and affective abilities related to working with the assigned cultural population. According to Amerson (2010), “introducing students to cultural values and beliefs relevant to their target population initiates an awareness of the role culture plays in decision-making and healthcare practices” (p. 22).

While cultural competence is within the capacity of service-learning projects, sometimes all that is needed is basic cultural awareness. Fitzgerald (2009) analyses service-learning as a means to teach multiculturalism and promote social diversity among a largely homogeneous white student population at a U.S. university in Texas. As part of a larger project to encourage students to work with people from other cultures and linguistic backgrounds, Fitzgerald oversaw an ESL/Literacy service-learning course, whereby eligible participants offered volunteer language tutoring to the local Hispanic community. The overall project had two objectives. The first was to create a course that included tutoring as a service-learning element and fulfilled an undergraduate requirement, specifically those who were studying English or Education. The second was to create volunteer work for undergraduates. The research Fitzgerald conducted sought to examine students’ attitudes towards diversity before and after a semester of tutoring. Pretest and posttest were conducted through anonymous online surveys. Results showed that students had a more positive attitude about diversity after regularly tutoring ESL residents of the community.

Marlow (2007) also describes a service-learning component to a college course where ESL students are the recipients. Native English speakers and international ESL students spent 30 hours together over the course of the semester engaging in extra-curricula activities of their choosing. Some of the extracurricular activities included attending campus-based events, community based events, going to museums, going bowling, and practical assistance like looking for an apartment, or opening a bank account. In addition to extra-curricular activities, there were structured tutoring sessions with context based language activities in class. These were opportunities for ESL students to apply concepts that they learned in their core university courses with the aid of their service-learning partners. Both parties benefited by gaining either linguistic or cultural knowledge from the other.

Sperling (2007), however, is critical of how multicultural service-learning has become a viable means to “teach about the complexities of our multiethnic, multiracial world” (p. 309). The author points out how the majority of students in multicultural service-learning are upper-middle class white students, and that often the quantity of participant hours take precedence over the qualitative and meaningful objectives of service. In a country like the U.S. where racial and identity politics still remain relatively volatile, Sperling (2007) notes that having white postsecondary students do service-learning in black and Latino communities can create paternal power relationship that only serves to reinforce a white hegemony. With good intention, most service-learning programs do attempt to fulfill identified community needs. However, programs that employ multicultural service-learning should be aware that

“it is difficult to skip over the word needs without wondering how it affects participants. Even if they are instructed to approach their service from a social change orientation, participants still are being implicitly taught to dichotomize the world into the needy... and the benevolent service providers.” (Sperling, 2007, p. 314)

Thus, while the objective may be in the good intentions of broadening the cultural perspectives of students, we not only stand the risk of presenting them as outsider authorities inadvertently imposing their cultural values on the local population, but without proper critical vetting of reflection methods, students may walk away with only a superficial understanding of their service-learning experience. Other researchers like Chupp and Joseph 2010 also speak to the potential of reinforcing stereotypes and paternalism as a negative side-effect of service-learning.

Still, when power relations and biases are apparent and critically reflected upon throughout the process, service-learning through interaction with other cultural groups can be enlightening. Hagan (2004) practiced service-learning through ESL tutoring as a component of her clinical psychology doctoral program. Hagan, a white American female, became critically aware of the implicit hierarchy between herself—an English speaking native of a privileged class—and her tutee, a Korean working class mother of two. Throughout her experience tutoring, the author explored the applicability of John Berry’s (2001) theory of acculturation. According to his theory, when a minority culture comes into contact with a dominant host culture, there are four strategies that they can employ to cope with the process of acculturation. The minority ethno-culture group can: a) integrate, which involves mixing their own cultural identity with the host culture, b) assimilate, which involves totally embracing the host culture, c) separate, which is the attempt to remain steadfast in their own cultural ways and avoid the host culture entirely, and d) marginalize themselves, which is a retreat from both their own culture and the host culture. International students are no different. Integration, even if temporary, would be the ideal outcome to stave cultural shock. Hagan’s experience with her ESL student not only helped the student get a better grasp of American society through language and practice, but it also allowed the author to reflect on her own implicit prejudices and subconscious cultural practices.

The effects of service-learning on participants can vary. Mahasneh, Tawalbeh, Al-Smadi, Ghaith,, and Dajani, (2012) conducted a study to test service-learning as a pedagogical and learning strategy. Specifically, the authors explored the degree to which service-learning fostered a connection to their classmates and university, invoked their

sense of responsibility to the greater community, and contributed to their professional development. Their findings concluded that service-learning helped students to apply theory to real-life, built self-confidence, facilitated teamwork skills, and enhanced communication and social skills. The experience as a whole created positive perceptions of the community and the idea of community service. In addition, the community partners that hosted the students reported high-levels of satisfaction with student service.

However, service-learning is not necessarily easy or always as desirable. Darby, Longmire-Avital, Chenault and Haglund (2013), for example, performed a study that examined the factors that increase and decrease students' motivation for carrying out service-learning throughout the semester. Among these were gender, student expectations, and time. Female students generally began with higher levels of motivation that declined steadily, while male students experienced a hike in motivation midway through the semester. Students were motivated by self-expectations, and their community partners. The more these aligned, the higher the motivation rose. Finally, students were concerned about fitting this extracurricular activity into their already busy schedule. The authors found that aspects such as having an interest in helping people, forming positive relationships, gaining a sense of community responsibility, and all around enjoying the experience increased their motivation. Other aspects like communication problems, integrating learning outcomes of the course and the service-learning experience, as well as transportation issues and schedule demands decreased motivation. In the end, the research showed the tendency for motivation to decline for all students as the semester progressed.

However, a change in geographical context in combination with genuine humanitarianism can overshadow the aforementioned disincentives. Bamber and Pike (2013) advocate for international service-learning whereby students participate in community service in another country. This service-learning takes the form of volunteering for programs that are aimed at solving problems related to poverty and social injustice. They see international service-learning as "a form of ecological engagement with aesthetic, moral and spiritual dimensions that is enacted through participation with the lives and 'worlds' of those living in different countries" (p. 536). Bamber and Pike (2013) point out the ethical aspect of service-learning where students contribute to creating a more equitable and sustainable society. Language learning, cross-cultural awareness, and all round personal transformation are the benefits they see from being exposed to another culture for service-learning. Their qualitative research looked at how students described their ongoing experience of international service-learning. Nearly all students in the study described their experience as life changing. They saw themselves and the world differently, as they reassessed their value after working with people less fortunate than them.

When applied to English language learning, service-learning has proven to be an effective teaching strategy. Heuser (1999) used service-learning for Japanese ESL students as a capstone project in a sheltered-content sociology class to enhance students' awareness of homelessness in the United States. Sheltered-content combines English language instruction and specific academic content. After preparing students through readings, written responses, role plays, and poverty simulations (students were grouped into families and assign poverty-level wage jobs and a monthly budget), students were guided on a three day service-learning weekend at a youth drop in center, a homeless shelter, a women's crisis center, and a residential facility for mentally ill adults. As part of their reflection, students had an oral discussion in which they related sociological concepts to their experience. Then, they were asked to write a letter to a friend to describe their experience to a friend as they applied the theories they went over in their discussion. Heuser (1999) asserts that "a service-learning model boosted students' motivation, because they could apply language and content knowledge to their actions in testing whether their experiences had supported or contradicted what they had learned in class" (p. 67)."

Minor (2001) had ESL students engaged in service-learning as an integral part of their institution's program. Each week, students went to places such as soup kitchens, elementary schools, or retirement centers and performed needed tasks. Then, they discussed their experience in class and performed further research about the issues responsible for the conditions of the people they were serving. Minor (2001) offers a list of practical advice about setting up a service-learning component such as spending a few consecutive weeks at a the same worksite to develop rapport or making sure the activities students are engaged in involve personal linguistic interaction with others.

Elwell (2001) specifically advocates for service-learning for ESL students at community colleges. The author asserts that the academic component of service-learning is based on the reciprocal nature of the process. While students are providing a service, those being served are teaching lessons to those who serve them. One can imagine that in the case of ESL, the major lessons being taught involve task-based aspects and contextualized language use. Elwell (2001) notes that service-learning not only connects students with the community, but it also connects academic disciplines, facilitates communication among students, allows students to align their personal passions with academic requirements, and generates empathy for the vision of a healthy community. The author also notes that ESL services in learning have only been used sporadically in programs designed to increase language proficiency. While service-learning at the post-secondary level has received a significant amount of attention in the literature, very little discussion has taken place about ESL college students participating in service-learning (Elwell, 2001). This researcher had an intermediate level class read John Steinbeck's "Of Mice and Men", as well as engaged them in research projects on the life of this author and on the social conditions of migrant labor of the time that inspired the novel. The students' service-learning project was a local drive to collect food, infant care necessities, and school-supplies for migrants that had been economically

devastated from a recent crop failure. According to Elwell, “through their reading of Steinbeck’s novel and related reflective academic activities, the students had become fascinated by the situation of California’s farmworkers, seeing it as an extension of a historical economic situation that has endured since Steinbeck’s time” (p. 53).

Glicker (2006) uses service-learning as an integral part of a noncredit elective writing course for adult ESL students who need academic skills to successfully transition to students into the community college. Students worked as mentors and tutors to help level ESL students for 2 hours a week during the 12 week course. As part of their reflection exercises, they kept journals and had weekly meetings to share their experiences with each other. According to Glicker (2006), “the course was designed so that students could develop a deeper awareness of their own learning processes as well as deepen their commitment to the college learning community” (p. 42).” As a result, “service-learning helps students become the architects of their own academic futures while assisting less proficient learners” (p. 45).

In a small rural school district in Central Nebraska, U.S.A., Russell (2007) implements service-learning into her ESL curriculum by having students aid the extensive ESL population of the area. Students, through their own deliberation, decided to create a mini Spanish/English phrase book to give away to community members. Russell notes how service-learning creates opportunities for applying problem solving skills while developing their English, as well as their research, skills. In Russell’s (2007) service-learning requirement, students were encouraged to take initiative. They divided themselves into groups and assigned each other tasks. One of them was to create and distribute a questionnaire in English and in Spanish to distribute, in order to get input from the community about what should be in the phrasebook. Others focused on contacting local businesses for donations to print the booklet. The researcher uses the term “collateral learning” to describe the outcome because, in addition to developing new relationships, students improved their English skills. As they communicated with the community, they were able to have authentic experiences with native speakers beyond the classroom. The author also points out to the reality that this kind of service-learning motivates students to learn because they get the opportunity to apply what they learned in a meaningful way. Also,, they are able to address problems they care about outside the classroom, and they gain a connection and ownership of the community in which they reside. For international students who often feel the isolation of cultural shock, this means an invaluable sentimental asset.

When language development is a significant part of service-learning experience for ESL students, students are capable of getting much more out of it. Leeman (2011) stresses the need for critical analysis of the ideological and material impact of service-learning programs. The author refers to the tendency of some programs to simply use local communities as a language resource rather than orienting the service to the community’s need. The author additionally points out that language learning is not the only aspect that service-learning offers: there is also community knowledge available to be learned. According to Leeman (2011), “ideally, service-learning programs linked to foreign language learning would use classroom activities and discussions to help students develop critical consciousness regarding cultural, social and political issues related to multilingualism and linguistic activities” (p 301.). The author then gives two examples of successful language linked service-learning programs in the U.S. among heritage Spanish language learners (that is, first, second and third generation Latino immigrants with varying degrees of linguistic competency in Spanish). In the first case, students majoring in health-related fields took Spanish courses that focused on medical terminology, translation, literacy studies, and sociolinguistics. Then they worked in local medical clinics that served the Hispanic population to provide diabetes prevention information and offer translation/interpretation services. This provided students with the opportunity to critically analyze health disparities as well as the patterns of discrimination in American healthcare that emerge from language policies and ideologies. In the second example, students operated an after-school Spanish literacy class for young heritage Spanish speakers at a local elementary school. According to Leeman (2011), three critical connections were made between: (1) university students and the children’s parents and teachers, (2) classroom content and authentic agency and (3) younger heritage speakers and older more experienced models of linguistic retention.

In addition to the crucial connections that service-learning makes between the university and the community, at the heart of it there is a moral obligation. Lovat and Clement (2016) situate service-learning in “values pedagogy”. This means a pedagogy that incorporates civics and citizenship in the curriculum namely through service-learning. They do not see education in social values as simply as a moral imperative, but as a pedagogical one. Their focus is specifically on the element of value pedagogy that nurtures empathic character and affective self-management which in turn develops social intelligence. Service-learning, according to Lovat and Clemet (2016) “can be seen to accord with neuroscientific notions concerned with sociality as a feature of human development, social intelligence as an artifact of cognition , and the nurturing of empathic character as essential to effective teaching and learning” (p. 116). They see enhanced empathetic social consciousness as an essential learning outcome of the civic involvement that service-learning requires. In addition, the dual achievement of increasing student agency in the environment while achieving the larger objectives of formal education is part of what defines service-learning.

Chupp and Joseph (2010) argue that service learning is at its most successful when there is a triple impact that include the student, the university and the community. When there is a palpably positive change among each of these parties, the effects of service learning can be far reaching and ongoing. Chupp and Joseph then categorize four approaches to service learning that have different outcomes as well as beneficiary recipients: traditional, social justice, critical and service learning with institutional change. Traditional is the most basic form of service learning. It involves

the community service that “enhances academic learning through student action, reflection, and application” (p. 192). The primary beneficiary of this approach is the student. Social justice service learning has a moral element that fosters critical thinking about societal issues and builds awareness of the need for social change. In this approach, both the student and community benefit. Critical service learning is similar to social justice service learning in that they both promote awareness of deeper rooted societal malaise. Yet the main difference, according to the author, is that critical service-learning calls for immediate action for social change in fundamental ways. Finally, service learning with institutional change is “[s]ervice learning as an opportunity to examine and change institutional structures and practices” (p. 192). Here, the student, the community and the university benefit altogether. Chupp and Joseph argue that with all the work that goes into establishing relationships with community partners, organizing activities, and creating the curriculum, it would be a waste to only focus on student learning outcomes. Faculty and administrators in their various departments could use this as an opportunity for professional development and a means to apply academic resources to address real world issues. This serves to reinforce the very student agency for change that its service learning curriculum purports.

When analyzing the literature there are a few common themes. The first is the reciprocal relationship between the service and the student providing the community, with what the community is teaching the student, service-learning is holistically effective. Kelly (2013) refers to it as collaborative service-learning. The author makes the distinction from community service by noting that while community service involves unpaid work designed to benefit the community in some way, in addition to this, collaborative service-learning involves “the integration of formal and informal components” (pg. 82). That is, the student gives to the community and the community informs the student.

The next theme is the conceptual and social connection facilitated by service-learning. Conceptually, students are taking static textbook instruction and applying it to dynamic situations. Not only does this connection reaffirm what they have studied in the academic curriculum, but it also fosters critical thinking as students evaluate to what extent (if any) certain concepts apply to the issue at hand. Socially, valuable relationships are being made on both the micro and macro level. At the micro level, students are connecting with people of a myriad of backgrounds who can offer them the wealth of their experience in the community. If students are working in groups with their peers, they gain and or strengthen their cooperative skills. At the macro level, the university or college is able to create structural ties to the community that can reap immediate social and economic benefits to the outside organizations involved.

Finally and most importantly, reflection is the essential learning factor of service learning. Its implantation—whether through writing and/or discussion—and its quality is crucial to successful service-learning. This will truly determine what valuable pieces of knowledge students will walk away with from the experience. Molee, Henry, Sessa, and Mckinney-Prupi (2010) examine and describe the DEAL model for assessing student learning in service-learning courses. The DEAL model is an acronym for a three part process that involves 1) describing experiences, 2) examining experiences through the framework of course learning objectives and 3) articulating their Learning through reflection (Ash & Clayton, 2004; Ash, Clayton, & Moses, 2007; Jameson et al., 2008, found in Molee, Henry, Sessa, & Mckinney-Prupi, 2010). This model was applied through writings and extensive instructor feedback. Students were given prompts to vividly describe events and actions that they engaged in service-learning, relate real life experience to theoretical concepts and are required to make constant revisions throughout the process. The authors found that “the assessment rubrics of the DEAL Model enable reflection to be used to determine what students are learning, how well they are learning it, and even how their learning compares to learning in other pedagogies” (p. 250). Chupp and Joseph (2010) refer to Hatcher and Bringle’s (1997) set of guidelines for effective reflection, “link experience to learning objectives, give guidance to activities, schedule activities regularly to expand the service experience over the course of students’ development, allow feedback and assessment and include clarification of values” (p. 194). They also note the four phases of Kolb’s (1981, 1984) experiential learning cycle: “concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and, finally active experimentation” (194). In essence, the reflection component of service-learning should be aligned with the overall learning process of human beings. How it is structured and implemented will determine the efficacy of service-learning.

Background

The setting of the initial attempt at service-learning for ESL students was a community college that offered an intensive English program meant to prepare international English language learners for college in the United States. These courses ran parallel to the college semester and ranged from introductory English to Intermediate English classes that ran a total of 126 hours per term. This particular campus hosts around 150 students a year.

Typically, at the end of each semester, students are required to perform a final project of some sort that reflects the culmination of their language learning. One instructor of a combined Beginner and High Beginner class with a total of ten students decided to intertwine an extra-curricular element to this final project that included service to the community. The instructor divided students into groups at the beginning of the semester and had brain storming sessions about possible initiatives. Some of these ideas included: a school food or clothing drive in which proceeds would be donated to a local charity, cleaning up a dirty public space, getting permission to plant trees, and volunteering at the local library.

There were obvious obstacles to achieving these goals. Some students, for example, did not have time outside of the class to volunteer to clean a park. And getting permission to plant anything anywhere in our city of residence is a bureaucratic nightmare. Nevertheless, students made attempts to do so and investigated the matter. This meant finding

people, asking questions, hashing out dilemmas—in short, using English. Throughout the semester, the instructor regularly received progress reports from the groups and provided incremental feedback that organically shaped the final product of their projects.

In the end, the students hosted an event on campus that highlighted the focus of their projects. One group had a "Plant a Tree Project". Though they were not physically able to plant a tree, they created brochures on how to do so, and had games in which the prizes were potted plants. Another group had a "Travel Around the World" exhibit in which students displayed clothing and cultural artifacts of their home countries. They also gave free food to campus from the respective cultures, which they prepared themselves. They held the event for one hour in the campus cafeteria and received a lot of attention. As part of their final presentation, they provided visual and physical artifacts of their experience in community service. Since this was the first time doing something like this for both the instructor and the students, it was last minute, a bit haphazard, and was limited to on-campus activities. However, it served as a template to formalize a community service element into the curriculum at all levels for the following semester.

III. PARTICIPANTS

A total of 28 community college ESL students in an Intensive English program took part in the service-learning community project (SLCP). Students, males and females, were in three separate mixed level classes: (1) Introductory & Low Beginning English (2) Beginning & High Beginning English and (3) Low Intermediate & Intermediate English. All but 1 student were taking a full time 20 hour a week class load that consisted a reading and writing course and a speaking and listening course at their respective levels. Students were of heterogeneous linguistic background from various parts of Africa, Latin America, Asia and Europe. With the exception of three middle aged participants, students were young adults under 25 years of age.

IV. METHODOLOGY

At the beginning of the semester, instructors were given assignment sheets that entailed the rationale, objectives, suggested methodology and grading of the SLCP. The instructors were told that they could scaffold the projects by setting parameters, offering examples and suggestions, and giving logistical support beyond the students' knowledge of operations. Students were told they could work in groups depending on class size, or that the class could work together as a whole. To alleviate the legalities of field trip waivers, students acted independently, outside of class time hours.

Throughout the semester, students provided weekly or biweekly updates to the instructor in the form of either a brief written report, a brief class presentation, or both. The purpose for these briefings was to provide the class and instructor with updates on their progress, as well as present any new challenges or questions they may have had. In addition to students having regular briefings with their instructors, I had regular briefings with the instructors as well to monitor progress and offer advice. As part of a final project at the end of the semester, students gave group presentations with artifacts (videos, pictures, flyers, etc.) showing the highlights of their experience throughout the SLCP. Finally, students were given surveys rating the usefulness of the assignment altogether.

V. PROJECT RESULTS

The Introductory and Low beginning class worked as a group to create an informational pamphlet about the available college facility for new international students. They conducted interviews with other international students on campus so as to find out about some of the initial problems they had with the college when they first started. Afterwards, they went to the respective facilities and interviewed the managers on how to use them, compiled the information along with photos, and printed some copies to distribute and keep in our office for reference to give new students.

The Beginning and High Beginning level students helped a local church package and distribute food for the needy. Low intermediate and intermediate students worked through a language conversation club to help other students improve their English speaking.

VI. SURVEY RESULTS

The survey included eight questions with inquiries about the nature of their SLCP, something new they learned with the experience, if they thought it helped improved their English, the hardest and most memorable moments, if they felt more confident in a community of English speakers since the start of the SLCP, and if they would do another SLCP of their own volition. Out of the 17 students who completed the survey (the low intermediate and intermediate students did not complete surveys), all but 2 said they believed the SLCP helped improve their English. All students said they felt more confident in their English speaking skills and 14 stated that they would like to do another SLCP if given the opportunity. Some of the new things students stated they learned from the project were working as a team, new vocabulary, and practical skills related to their SLCP (e.g. how to make a brochure or how to organize food inventory).

VII. DISCUSSION

The limits of using student surveys to measure the success of this SLCP is two-fold. First, students assessing their own language development stand the risk of being undermined by subjectivity. Simply because students stated that they felt that their English improved or had more confidence using the language does not necessarily mean that they understand or speak it any better. Second, while there were quantitative values within the survey, the very nature of it was qualitative, which can question any statistical margins of consistency when measuring its success. Notwithstanding, the fact that students in the intensive English program did pass the course through the program's standard evaluation process and the majority reported overall positive learning experiences through the SLCP should serve as enough evidence that its implementation was successful in reaching its objectives.

Employing service-learning for intensive English programs appears as though it should be commonsensical for any curricula for several reasons. The first is purely linguistic. Exposure to the language in an uncontrolled environment in combination with instruction contributes to proficiency. Students get the opportunity to apply and affirm semantic knowledge they gained in class while constructing and accessing a grammar through interaction with other speakers of the language. In addition, students will be using the language to complete a meaningful real world task. This means they must employ problem solving skills while utilizing rhetorical agency to do so. This is an essential facilitator of second language development (Gass & Selinker, 2001).

Another reason why service-learning should be a part of intensive English programs has to do with cultural proficiency. Many, if not most, students intensive English programs are foreign students. Those who are not foreign may be second generation immigrants who have limited exposure of their own cultural enclaves in the country. Service-learning provides them with the opportunity to explore the larger milieu of their surrounding English speaking community. Students get a better understanding of how to socially navigate the unfamiliar cultural terrain. They learn customs, mannerisms, behaviors and even dialects different than the ones they are accustomed to. Whether students choose to try to assimilate or integrate within the new environment, service-learning offers the chance for them to go beyond their social comfort zones and experience the country as it truly is.

Separate but not unrelated, the quality of the service-learning increases the overall quality of language education which can encourage both student matriculation and retention in a program. Glicker (2006) notes that "service-learning may provide a conduit for increasing matriculation of diverse communities at the college as well as university level" (p. 40), and further, it can "help build retention and empower students. By combining knowledge of a variety of effective ESL instructional approaches with an innovative service-learning curriculum, the students can learn how to more effectively manage their time and their linguistic capital for maximum benefit" (p. 45). While it may not be true of all English language learners, being able to have a positive memorable experience outside the class, but still related to a program which helps them get the most out of their language learning endeavors, leaves a lasting impression about the school in general. Most of our students responded on their surveys that they would like to engage in another SLCP, and also described the kind of service-learning they would get involved in if given the opportunity. A program that advertises regular community engagement to enhance the language learning experience is bound to be enticing to foreign students eager to learn English in another country.

And while this article argues for service-learning in Intensive English programs with international students specifically, there is no reason why English language courses at any capacity for residents should not utilize it as a linguistic tool. Classes for adult residents and citizens learning English as their second language could also be improved by including a service learning element. In fact, it could even be argued that resident students and their communities may benefit more from this. Not only would students have the potential of orchestrating projects that bridge language gaps in their own community (think of the mini Spanish/English phrase book that Russel's (2007) student created to give away to community members), but the service learning element could exemplify things that they are already trying to perform in English within their communities. Imagine, for example, a Spanish mother who is taking English classes to better communicate with her child's elementary school instructor doing a service-learning project that involved being an informal elementary school teacher's assistant.

Finally, as much of the literature on it iterates, service-learning has a moral dimension that emphasizes institutions giving back to the community. Many students who participated in our SLCP expressed a general satisfaction for simply being able to help people in need as they practiced English. In general, foreign students who visit wealthy English speaking countries like the United States may often be stunned that there are even people in need to help. Exposing them to this reality gives them a more accurate picture of how the world works. In addition, having students volunteering locally can promote sentiments of pride and inclusivity, as international students take stake in their immediate communities even though it is not their home country. The more they get involved, the less likely they may feel isolated in a foreign culture and space.

VIII. CONCLUSION

This paper examined the effects of service-learning when implemented in an intensive English program curriculum, and argues that it should be an integral component of all such programs where possible. Service-learning has proven to enhance the language learning process, as it requires students to use the language beyond an academic setting. Recommendations for future research would include exploration of how a more structured lexical schema prepared by instructors may enhance language learning. Students could be provided with a list of words and phrases relative to the

service-learning task and environment they have chosen or been assigned. The correlation of vocabulary acquisition and service-learning might provide further insight on receptive and productive learning. Also, technologically creative forms of reflection might be employed to examine whether this increases students capacity to learn English. Students can keep blogs, use various online platforms to post audio-video recordings of their service-learning or work collectively to create a wiki page about their experiences. All of this would accompany a final product that would measure the success of the process. Finally, while preexisting university ties for community service-learning are certainly beneficial, it might be worth considering giving students options to research their own forms of service. Darby, Longmire-Avital, Chenault and Haglund (2013) note that the goals and direction of a community partner may not be aligned with the students objectives or interests, which could lead to a lack of motivation to complete the project. On the other hand, Kelly (2013) points out that students may be left with too much burden to find an organization and apply the objectives of the assignment given. This can cause unnecessary anxiety and frustration. Thus, a healthy balance of freedom and structure are necessary.

Altogether, when done properly, placing service-learning as a permanent fixture in an intensive English program curricula can enrich students' educational experience. It offers them the opportunity to immerse themselves in a foreign culture as they advance in their academic track, receiving both structured intake of information in class, and dynamic experiential intake of information outside the class. Students have the opportunity to create positive relationships and learn to work as a team as they gain the moral satisfaction of providing a service to their community. And, most importantly, they stand a better chance of achieving the objectives of all intensive English programs, that is, to gain proficiency in the language.

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The Relativity Strategy of Old Javanese

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Abstract—Old Javanese is one of the temporal dialects in Indonesia that is estimated to develop from the IX-XV century. The language has a lot of languages inherited in the form of literature *kakawin* (Old Javanese poetry) and the form of *parwa* (Old Javanese language prose) until now. Literary works in the form *kakawin* and *parwa* are very popular work to be sung in Balinese society especially in religious ceremonies. Therefore, the Old Javanese is very worthy of being used as a linguistic study even though the language is categorized as a dead language. In morphological typology, Old Javanese is an agglutinative type. On the other hand, syntactically the Old Javanese language includes the Split-S typology. Associated with morphological typology and syntax, the Old Javanese has a core system or verb. Thus, the Old Javanese has various forms of verb-alternation in clause structures, either in single clauses or complex clauses. Relative clauses are one part of the complex clause having a change of grammatical relation when the insertion of certain linguistic elements. The topic of this study was the relativity strategy in Old Javanese. The relativity strategy of Old Javanese was described with related theories and concepts. Based on the result the Old Javanese could make the subject to be relative by inserting element of the relative *sang* and *ikang*. On the other hand there was also an indirect relativity by marking of verbs and penloping.

Index Terms—grammatical structure, argument structure, strategy, relativization

I. INTRODUCTION

Old Javanese is one of the Austronesia languages. The Old Javanese is one of the temporal dialects thought have developed from the IX - XV century. Historically, the language has a very rapid development during the reign of King Maharaja Dharmawangsa Teguh in Majapahit Kingdom era. Old Javanese began to be abandoned by its speakers since the entry of Moslem into Indonesia with its Arabic. Since then the Old Javanese has divergence and evolved into two different languages, namely the Central Java language and the Modern Java language (see Uhlenbeck, 1964, Zoetmulder, 1985).

The ability of the written traditions possessed by the community at that time made the Old Javanese language documentable so that it could be inherited until now. The language documentation can be used as a field of language, literature, and philology research. Currently the Old Javanese is categorized as a dead language. The language can only be learned and understood through written relics. As Ferdinand de Saussure (1916) statement that langue is concrete since it is a collectively agreed sign of language and is a social fact so that it can be understood (Hidayat, 1996, p. 9).

In morphological typology, Old Javanese belongs to the agglutinative type. Agglutination typology has a very complicated word-forming procedure. Agglutinative language has characteristics, namely (1) a word can be formed from two or more morphemes that clearly morpheme boundaries; (2) each morpheme does not change in form so that it can be directly identified (see Comrie, 1989, Keraf, 1990). Regarding with the typological of the language, then in the formation of a word, a basic verb can be formed into a derived form formed through a morpheme process. The grammatical process can be a combination of bound morphemes, such as affixation with free-form, pre-categorical forms, or any other combination of words. Thus, a derivation can be clearly seen in its morpheme boundaries. Any changes in form and meaning may result in a syntactic relation change when the verb is used in forming clauses. For example, an intransitive clause can be formed into a transitive clause; a monotransitive clause can be formed into a bipolar clause. The same thing can be seen in the form of verbs, the number of core arguments required, as well as changes in functional relations in the clause. Thus, the change in verb form greatly implies the clause structure of either a single clause or a complex clause.

From a syntactic point of view, Old Javanese includes Split-S typology that treats part of S equal to A (Sa) and part S is treated in the same way as P (Sp) (Erawati, 2014). The determination of the typology is based on a change in grammatical relations within the basic clause structure in the derived clause. The combination of two single clauses can cause syntactic functions in complex sentences often share arguments. The thing usually appears in clauses with a control structure. The function of subject or any hidden grammatical object function (covert). Thus, the elements of disappearance in the complex clause are very numerous. For that purpose, it is explained first about the basic structure and structure of argument in Old Javanese followed by a complex sentence.

Universally, the basic structure and structure of the argument in the Old Javanese clause, ie the intransitive predicate (S), intransitive extension (S, E); Transitive predicate (S, O), transitive expansion predicate (S, O, E), copulate clause, and verbless clause. The classification of the clause was adapted from Dixon (2010, p. 161). The intransitive clause has only the core argument as a grammatical subject. Intransitive expansion clauses have additional elements required by verbs. A clause with a transitive predicate has two core arguments as the subject NP and NP of the grammatical object.

Transitive expansion clauses require three core arguments, namely subject, object, and additional elements. The additional element in Old Javanese can be E (NP; Sentence). Copulation clauses can add copula elements as a predicate.

In relation to the division of clauses above, Old Javanese has a very varied clause structure ranging from the simplest to the very complex structures. Complex sentences have a very wide range, such as the study of inter-clause. Theoretically, a complex sentence consists of four types, namely (1) a sentence has a relative clause, (2) a purposive clause / sentence aim, (3) a complement clause, and (4) a clause with a raising construct. The discussion of complex sentences actually aims to determine the role of morphosyntax typologically that forms the complex sentence. Based on the above description, this article is only discussing about the relativity of complex clauses in Old Javanese. There were two questions as the problems of study, namely (1) what elements can relativize the grammatical functions in the Old Javanese; and (2) how is the strategy of relativity in Old Javanese? The aim of this research was to describe and explain the syntactic elements in the clause grammatically. The problems were analyzed by applying the concepts and theories that match the object of the study. Theories and concepts are described in the following sub-sections.

II. THEORY AND CONCEPT

Grammatical relations are terms used in relational grammar. The theory of relational grammar was originally developed by Perlmutter and Postal in the early 1970s. Grammatical relations are defined as primitives. Blake (1994) introduces three types of purely syntactic grammatical relationships, namely subject (S), direct object (DO), and indirect object (IO). In addition, semantic relationships, such as locative, benefactive, and instrumental are collectively referred as oblique relations (p. 76). Syntactic relations are considered to form a hierarchy by giving 1, 2, 3 numbering which is used to indicate the corresponding relation as shown below:

S	DO	IO	OBL
1	2	3	

The hierarchy can be seen in the following example (taken from Blake, (1994, p. 76).

<i>Eva</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>the apple</i>	<i>to Adam</i>
1	2	3	

The example implies that 1 is the subject (agent), 2 is the direct object (theme), 3 is the indirect object (benefactive). Therefore, the nature of grammatical relations can be understood through the interaction of semantic roles and pragmatic relations. For example, subjectivity can be understood by subject prototypes as agent and topic interactions. The clause structure above has different grammatical relations at different levels. For example, a grammatical relationship may change from active structure to passive derivative structure which indicates a change of subject relation. That formation structure depends on the perspective of the speakers of the language. Those grammatical relationships are reference for describing the various aspects of clause structures and the principles of the universe that govern the structure and organization of natural language syntax. Based on the description of the theory, the alternation of verbs in predicate can result in the change of syntactic relations.

A. Sentences and Clauses

Alwi, et al (2000) argues that a clause is a syntactic unit consisting of two or more words containing predictive elements (p. 312--313). He further said that the sentence is no different from the clause. The thing that distinguishes the sentence and clause is a sentence has the final intonation or punctuation while the clause has no final intonation or punctuation. Both sentences and clauses are syntactical construction which containing predication elements. Viewed from the internal structure, both sentence and clause consist of predicate element and subject with or without object, complement, or description. The definition of the basic structure of a clause can be derived from the basic structure of the sentence. Sentences have more complex features than clauses. This can be interpreted as not all sentences can be called clauses.

As described above the things that distinguish between a clause and a sentence is either the final intonation or the reading sign. However, in this paper the sentences and clauses in are not distinguished. The basic clause is a clause construction that has at least the characteristics, namely (1) consists of one clause, (2) the elements are complete, (3) the order of its elements in the most common order, and (4) does not consist of question or denial (Alwi, et al, 2000, p. 319). Thus, it can be said that the basic clause can be interpreted as a single declarative sentence consisting of common elements. To clarify clauses it is necessary to understand the problem of syntactic functions, the syntactic categories, and the semantic role of elements that fill the clause's constructions. Referring to the above concept, judging from the element/category of words that populate the predicate, clauses in Old Javanese are differentiated into predicated verbal and copulate clauses. Verbal predicated clauses can be classified into intransitive verb types, intransitive extensions, transitive, transitive extensions. Meanwhile, the Old Javanese copula clause can be filled by copula verbs and without verbs (Dixon, 2010).

B. Complex Sentences

Simple sentences can bound other simple sentences to form more complex constructs (sentences). Sentences formed from the combination of these clauses become complex sentences (complex sentence). The relationship between clauses in compound sentences is quite diverse and complicated. The complexity is caused by the interaction of three different

parameters, namely the internal arrangement of the clauses, the structural relations of the clauses, and the semantic relation of the clauses (see Elson and Pickett, 1983, p. 120).

Other experts, Kuiper and Allan (1996) argue that a sentence that has an embedded clause (subordinate clause) is called a complex sentence (p. 264). Van Valin Jr. and LaPolla (2002) argue that there are two fundamental questions that every theory has to answer about complex sentences, namely (1) what units are involved in that complex sentence? (2) What are the relationships exist between the units in the construction? Van Valin Jr. and LaPolla found the answer (1) derived from a clustered structure of clauses, the boundaries of the basic complex sentence formers are the basic core of the clause. Meanwhile, for answer (2) is a complex sentence divided into two, i.e. a sentence whose elements are grammatically equivalent (coordinate) associated with a coordinated conjunction and a clause whose elements are unequal (subordinate) connected with a subordinate conjunction (p. 441-443). In Indonesian, for example, the coordinating conjunctive is *dan* 'and', *tetapi* 'but', and etc. The subordinate conjunctive, such as *untuk* 'for', *supaya/ agar* 'in order', *jika* 'if', and so on, and so forth corresponds to the purpose of combining the clause (Alwi, et al, 2000, p. 296-302).

In relation to complex sentences, Artawa (1998) argues that not all languages treat syntactic constructs in the same way. Treatment is highly depending on the type of concerned language. In the accusative languages A (gent) and S (subject) are characterized by a number of features, such as case, control, verb match, word order, and A / S are usually not expressed with unlimited verb forms. Meanwhile, in syntactically ergative languages, the relationship of P(atient) and S(subject) play an important role in a number of grammatical processes (p. 83). For example, only P and S can be relativized. P and S still appear with unlimited forms of verbs. Furthermore, in accusative language, S/A construction is described as the carrier of the subject relation. In ergative language, S and P are treated equally morphologically; the question that arises is whether S and P are defined as bearers of subject relations? The thing to be remembered is the difference between morphologically ergative language and syntactically ergative language.

Anderson in Li (ed.) (1976) argues that most ergative languages morphologically have no ergative syntax. Syntactic process in this language is like a syntactic process in the accusative language. The combination of S and P in ergative language is often referred to be absolute. Meanwhile, A in a transitive clause and in this type of language is said to bring ergative relation. As discussed in the sub-section of the structure of argument and grammatical relation of Old Javanese especially on the subject, Old Javanese language approaches accusative language characteristic, but it needs to be discussed and further proved in the grammatical association concerning the relation of syntactic functions.

C. The Relativity Strategy of Cross-languages

Every language has a grammatical strategy in terms of relativisation. There is a language that can only relativize S(subject), there is also a language that can only relativise P(atient). To obtain the position availability of the nominal phrase structure argument for the formation of relative clauses, the study is based on the grammatical relational hierarchy approach, accessibility hierarchy proposed by Keenan and Comrie (1977). Keenan and Comrie (see also Artawa, 1998, p. 83), Aboh, (2010, p. 99) suggest the following hierarchy and in this case the peak position is more universally achievable for relativization.

Hierarchy of Achievement (HA)

Subject (SUBJ) > Direct Object (DO) > Indirect Object (IO) > Oblique (OBL) > Genitive (GEN) > Object comparison (O-COMP).

The hierarchy sets the ease to achieve in the relative clauses formation. If an FN can be achieved for relativity in a language then all higher FNs in the hierarchy can also reach the relay. Keenan and Comrie (1977) also include NPs that are not directly related to verbs, such as the possessor of subject into the hierarchy. Further, there is a set of hierarchical constraints with respect to the hierarchy of attainment. The constraints are (1) a language must be able to relativised the subject; (2) any establishing a relative clause must apply to the continuing segment of the achievement hierarchy; and (3) the strategy that apply to a single grain of hierarchy of achievement should basically not apply to a lower item.

Kalkutungu language is one of the only languages that relativies the absolute. Examples is shown below (from Blake, (1994) and adapted by Artawa (1998, p. 84-85).

(1) *Ngulurmayi-nha ngga-thu yurru [] ngartathati-nyiu*

Catch my PAST-ERG people-NOM sit-PART

'I caught the man [once he was sitting]

(2) *Ngulurmayi-nha nga-thu yurru [] thuku-yu itya-nyin*

Catch -PAST I-ERG people- NOM dog -ERG bites-PART

'I caught the man [as soon as he] was being bitten by a dog'

In example (1) the function that relativised in the subordinate clause is S which is not disclosed and indicated []. In the datum (2) the function P is relativised and P is not being expressed in the subordinate clause. If each role is not commonly marked as absolute it is relegated then derivative construction must be used. To say 'I catch the person while he is biting the dog' the subordinate clause must be transitive. In this case, agent typically marked as A is now expressed as absolute relations and P is interpreted as dative. It can be seen as follows.

(3) *Ngulurmayi-nha nga-thu yurru [] thuku-u itya-yi-nyin*

Catch-PAST I-ERG people NOM dog-DAT bite -AP-PART

'I caught the man [while he was] being bitten by a dog'

In Balinese, Artawa (1998: 85-88) argues that only subject can be relativised. Here are the examples and explanations.

(4) *Emeng-e gugut cicing*
 Cat-DEF bite dog
 'The Dog bit the cat'

(5) *Emeng-e [ane gugut cicing] gelem*
 Cat-DEF [REL bite dog] ill
 The cat [which bit the dog] is sick'

(6) * *Cicing [ane emeng-e gugut] galak*
 Dog [REL-cat-DEF bite] fierce
 'The dog [which bit the cat] is fierce'

At (4) the basic verb construction, NP before verb is patient and NP post verb is an agent. Relative clause at (5) shows that the patient can be relativised. Meanwhile, agent can not be relativised as in example (6). The relativity confirms that NP on (4) is the grammatical subject of the clause. Compliment of the agent (*cicing*) is not achieved for relativity. The relative NP is clearly in Balinese. According to Artawa (1998, p. 85-86), since zero construction agent did not go well for relativity, Balinese lacked ways to reveal information such as 'Dogs that bite the cat is fierce' (see 6). However, it can be found that agents in Balinese can be relativised 'indirectly' by using 'diathesis derivative' strategy. Diathesis is a common practice for relative in a language.

According to Givon (1990, p. 669-670), there are various strategies in forming relative construction by cross language. One of these is the 'verb-coding strategies', namely the relativity strategy which is the interaction between the relativity and the rules of promotion. Promotional rules, also called substitutions, in Balinese are addressed by nasal prefixes in verbs. The verb marking strategy as the relativity strategy in Balinese can be seen as follows (see Artawa, 1998, p. 86).

(7) *Emeng-e gugut cicing.*
 Cat-DEF bite dog
 'The dog bit the cat'

(8) *Cicing-e ngugut emeng-e [N-gugut]*
 Dog-DEF ACT-bite cat-DEF
 'The dog bit the cat'

(9) *Cicing-e [ane ngugut emeng-e] galak*
 Dog-DEF [REL ACT-bite cat-DEF] fierce
 'The Dog which bit the cat is fierce'

Furthermore, Artawa (1998) explains that in (8) the agent compliment (*cicing*) is expressed as the subject. The subject can be relativised as in data (9). Based on the comparison (4,5,6) that in Balinese can only relativising subject (p. 86). The cross-language relativity strategy found by the experts might be used as a reference to identify the relativity in Old Javanese.

III. METHODOLOGY

An article would be appropriate and systematic if the application of methods and techniques are proper. Therefore, this article was based on three stages of methods and techniques, namely methods and techniques of providing data, methods and techniques of data analysis, and methods and techniques of presenting the results of data analysis. The methods and techniques of data providing was observation. The term of observation here was listening in spoken language and reading in written language. Note taking technique was used when researchers deal with the use of textual languages, for example: ancient texts, narrative texts, languages in mass media, and others (Mahsun, 2005, Bungin, 2001, Moleong, 2000, Creswell, 2009). Associated with the methods and techniques of providing data, then the data was in written form which the ancient Javanese text as the primary data. The data from other researches were used as the secondary data to complete the primary data. For data refinement assisted by note taking, record, and translation techniques.

The next was the method and technique of analyzing data. There were two methods in analyzing data, namely the intralingual comparing method and extra lingual comparing method. The concept of comparing is to compare something or something that is compared must contain the meaning of interconnection while intralingual refers to the elements that are in language (lingual). The intralingual comparing method is an analytical method applied by comparing lingual elements, both in one language and in several different languages. The extra lingual comparing method is comparing the elements from outside language. As a concrete step, it was completed by the technique of applying connecting-comparing-equal technique, connecting-comparing-differentiate technique, and connecting-comparing-equal the core. (Mahsun, 2005, p. 111—113, c.f. Djajasudarma (1993), Sudaryanto (1993) .In this analytical stage, the rules governing the existence of the object of research must be formulated. The rules that are found even in the simplest results are at the gist of a scientific activity.

At the final stage, methods and techniques of presenting the results of data analysis was used. The results were described in two ways, namely (a) formulation or description using ordinary words, including the use of technical terminology with the aim to obtain straightforward results. (B) The formulation by means of certain signs, abbreviations,

tables or symbols constituting a convention in the research process. Both methods were used in a coherent way to obtain a maximal presentation. Both methods are commonly referred to as informal and formal methods.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Structure of Old Javanese Clauses

In morphological typology, Old Javanese is classified into agglutinative typology. Agglutinative language has a variety of morphemes as word-forming. The characteristics of agglutinative language, namely: (1) Agglutination language consists of morphemes combination and morphs; (2) One word can be formed from many morphemes that morphemes boundaries in words are very clear and always have variants so they are easily to be identified directly; (3) The basic form is always affixed with affixes that usually have functions and meanings; and (4) Using affixes to refer to a grammatical category (Comrie, 1989, c. f. Keraf, 1990). For example, the verb *gawe* 'work' can have a derived form, such as *agawe*, *magawe*, *gumawe*, *ginawe*, and etc. The forms of the verb as the core of the clause have various perspectives from the speaker. If the speaker wants to put forward the patient / theme then the chosen verb is *ginawe*, and if the speaker wants to put forward the agent then the selected verb is *agawe*, *magawe*, or *gumawe*. Theoretically, the classification of the Old Javanese clauses was referred by Dixon (2010). Thus, in general, the structure of the Old Javanese clause is classified into a verbless clause (verbless), clause with verbs, and copula clause. When associated with syntactic typology, the Old Javanese includes the Split-S typology, meaning treating S as equal to A (Sa) and in other one side treating S equal to P (Sp). S is the subject of the intransitive clause, A is the subject of the transitive clause, and P / O is the object of the transitive clause. (See Erawati, 2014).

Regarding to morphological and syntactical typology, Old Javanese has many verb alternations within its clauses. For example, verbs in basic form (zero constructs) that predicate the basic clauses of Old Javanese are largely appearing in intransitive construction and imperative constructions. Meanwhile, in transitive construction, the verbs that appear are always in the form of a derived verb through affixation. The statement can be seen the following data.

- (1) *Lungha ta sira*
Go PART 3SG
'His gone'
- (2) *Ma-lungha ta sireng alas*
ACT-go PART 3SG-PREP Forest
'He goes to forest'
- (3) *Dateng ta kawitan-ira kabeh, ...*
Come PART ancestor-POSS-3 all,
'Come to all his ancestors'
- (4) *alap pangana(ng) ku* (imperative)
Take food-1SG
'Take my food'
- (5) *Naga Taksaka s-um-ahut Maharaja Pariksit.*
Name ACT-bite name
'Naga Taksaka bit Maharaja Pariksit.'
- (6) *Ksamakna nghulun um-aradhana sangyang.*
Forgive 1SG ACT-call ART
'Forgive! I called the master'
- (7) *Anugraha-ngkw-i kitānak-a satus.*
Anugraha-1SG-BEN 2SG-anak-IR one hundred
'I will grant you a hundred children'
- (8) *Dadi ta sira wuta, tar panon desa*
So PART 3SG blind, NEG view village
'Be blind, see no village'

The clauses (1), (2), (3), (4) are intransitive clauses. The data (1) shows the form of the verb *lungha* 'pergi', the datum (2) *malungha* 'go', datum (3) *datang* 'come', datum (4) verb *alap* 'take', the intransitive verbs, there are free basic and derived form. Basic verbs may occupy predicate functions in clause structures. The *lungha* form in the datum (1) can also be pronounced with the prefix *a-* or *ma-* as in datum (2) but remains as an intransitive verb. The difference between the basic verb and the intransitive derived verbs lies in the presence of an additional element as an OBL relation. Basic verbs may also appear in imperative clause structures, as in datum (4). The verb *alap* can be marked by other suffixes, such as *ma-*, *ang-*, *-um-*, *-um-/-i*, or affixed combinations as transitive active markers.

Furthermore, in data (5), (6), (7) are transitive clauses and the verbs are amplified by affixation. The verbs *sumahut* 'bite' and the verb *umaradhana* 'summon' are both morphologically grounded with *-um-*. Affix *-um-* in Old Javanese is an active marker that is contrasted with affix *-in-* as the passive marker. In addition to *-um-*, the verb is still possible with other affixes. The verb *anugraha* 'bless' is a verb attached to the enclosure *-(ng) ku* and the suffix *-i*, so as to form *anugrahangkwi* 'I blessed', The basic form of *anugraha* can be attached by other affixes, such as in *manganugrahakên*, *kanugrahan*, *anugrahi*. Construction (5, 6) are pure transitive construction (S and O), while at (7) is a transitive

expansion construct (S, O, and E). Finally, the datum (8) is a clause construction with copula. In Old Javanese, such constructions can be derived from non-verbal clauses, which the predicates are filled by nominal, adjectival, numeral, and adverbial categories. Based on the transitive clause structure, the strategy relativity are particularly vulnerable in Old Javanese.

B. Elements and Relativity Strategies in Old Javanese

Every language has elements as a relative in the clause. However, the element of relativity is not in the same position. There are languages that only relativize the function of the subject and some only relate the function of the object. An adaptive language uses a morphological tool and some use elements that are free. In fact, there are languages that have no devices or relativity tools. Related to the topic, Old Javanese has many linguistic elements that seem ambiguous. On the other hand, a linguistic form can have certain syntactic functions, and in one side the same linguistic form can function as relativity. For example, the element 'sang', lexically is an article category that usually refers to a person's name or position, and one side, the form of the 'sang' is an element of relativity. Therefore, the differences in those functions need to be proven its existence in the clause. Based on the Old Javanese morpheme system, morphological markers tend to exist. There are several possibilities of the relativity strategy of Old Javanese described as follows.

1. Subject Relativity

The basic structure of clause and arguments of Old Javanese is as the basis for discussing the relativity strategy in their clauses. The insertion elements in the clause are important to be discussed in order to identify grammatical functions and elements in the clause structure. The complex sentence in Old Javanese is generally composed of two or more basic clauses. Thus, to find out the strategy of relativity in Old Javanese can be seen in the following transitive clauses.

- (9a) *Apan tan matikang Naga Taksaka [ikang] s-um-ahut*
 Because NEG die-DEF name [REL] ACT-bite
wwang atuha-nira sira Maharaja Pariksit
 man old POSS3SG 3SG ART name,
tuhun ikang naga sama-nya pĕjah,
 although DEF dragon all-POSS3SG dead
t-um-iba ring kunda
 ACT-fall PREP stove

'Because the Naga Taksaka which bites his parents does not die, even though the snakes mostly die, it falls into a cult stove'

- (9b) *Apan tan matikang Naga Taksaka s-um-ahut wwang atuha-nira*
 Because NEG die-DEF name ACT-bite man old -POSS3SG
sira maharaja Pariksit, tuhun ikang naga samanya pĕjah,
 3SG ART name was DEF dragon all-POSS3SG dead,
t-um-iba ring kunda
 ACT-fall PREP stove of worship

'Because Naga Taksaka bit off his parents does not die, even though the snakes mostly die, fell into the cult stove'

- (10a) *[I kang] desa kulwan Sanghyang Eka Dasa Rudra r-um-aksa,*
 REL village west ART name ACT-keep
Kapwāsangkĕp ing sarwāstra. [ã: a-a]
 Supposedly-complete PREP of all-arms

'Sanghyang Ekadasa Rudra who keeps the west region is completed by all weapons'

- (10b) *Desa kulwan Sanghyang Eka Dasa Rudra r-um-aksa,*
 Village west ART name ACT-guard
kapwāsangkĕp ing sarwāstra. [sarwa-astra]
 Complete PREP all-weapons

'Sanghyang Ekadasa Rudra keeps the west region is completed by all weapons'

- (11a) *Yapwan [ikang] lor village, sanghyang Dwadasaditya r-um-aksa,*
 If REL village north ART name ACT-keep
makadi sanghyang Indra,
 like ART name

'Although Sanghyang Dwadasaditya who keeps the north regions, like the god Indra'

- (11b) *Yapwan desa lor sanghyang Dwadasaditya r-um-aksa, makadi sanghyang Indra.*
 'Although village north ART name ACT-keep like ART name
 'Although Sanghyang Dwadasaditya keeps the north regions, like the god Indra'

- (12a) *Ma-takwan ta sireng mantri, [sira -ing]*
 ACT-ask PART 3SG-PREP minister
[I kang] t-um-on Bhagawan Kasyapa,
 REL ACT-see name

- 'He asks to his minister who sees Bhagawan Kasyapa'
- (12b) *Ma-takwan ta sireng mantri, [sira -ing]*
 ACT-ask PART 3SG-PREP minister
t-um-on Bhagawan Kasyapa, [-um- : ton]
 ACT-see ART the name
 'He asks to his minister, see Bhagawan Kasyapa'
- (13a) *Sira ta s-in-omah de haji [sang] ma-gawe yajna sarpa .*
 3SG PART PASS-wife PART king REL ACT-make sacrifice snake
 'She is married by the king who makes the snake as sacrifice of the serpent'
- (13b) *Sira ta s-in-omah de haji ma-gawe yajna sarpa, ...*
 3SG PART PASS-wife PART king PREP-ACT-make sacrifice snake
 'She is married by the king to make the snake as sacrifice of the serpent'

All of the above clauses, ie (9a), (10a), (11a), (12a), (13a) are relative clauses. The sentence in the datum (9a) is an intransitive-transitive combined clause. In the data, the transitive verb *sumahut* has two core arguments, as subject and object. *Naga Taksaka* is a grammatical subject, *wwang atuha nira sira maharaja Pariksit* is the object of that sentence. The grammatical subject is relativized to the *ikang* form and can be inserted between the grammatical subject and the predicate verb in the sentence. If the clause is returned to its basic / or is not be relativized it becomes (9b). Thus, subjects in Old Javanese can be relativized by inserting the *ikang* form between the subject FN and its verbs.

Datum (10a) is also a relative clause. The form of relativity is characterized by the form *ikang* which is at the beginning of the sentence. In the data, *Sanghyang Eka Dasa Rudra* is the grammatical subject of the sentence; the *Desa Kulwan* 'village/western region' is the object. The other constituents that appear in the transitive sentence are complementary. The grammatical subject of the *rumaksa* verb 'keep' in (8a) can be relativized by inserting *ikang* element. When the *ikang* element is deleted, it looks like datum (10b). The same thing is data (11a and 11b). Meanwhile, datum (12a) has a combination clause, that the first clause is intransitive; the next clause is transitive clause. When the transitive sentence construction is observed, there is a verb *tumon* 'see' verb which requires two core arguments that serve as subject and object. The grammatical subject of the sentence is the *mantri* 'minister', which shares the argument with an intransitive clause in front of it. Meanwhile, *Bhagawan Kasyapa* is the object the sentence. In the sentence there is an element of relativity which expressed by elements '*ikang*'. The form of *ikang* can be directly placed after grammatical subject without any structural decline. If the element of relativity is deleted, it would look like (12b). Thus, subjects in Old Javanese can be relativized by the *ikang* element.

Finally, in the data (13a) there are two transitive clauses. The first clause is manifested in passive form; however, the relativity strategy in data can be seen in the next sentence. The agent of both sentences is the *haji* 'king' (oblique of the first clause agent as well as the second clause agent). The element of the relativity sentence is characterized by the form of *sang* (which can be interpreted 'that', but on the other hand *sang* is article. The grammatical subject of the *haji* 'king' can be relativized by the inserting *sang* element. When the element is deleted, it looks like at (13b). Based on these data, the relativity in Old Javanese can be done by inserting the form of *ikang* element, and *sang* the 'that or which' without any structural reevaluation. Thus, subjects in Old Javanese can be directly relatable (a and b are grammatical). Other examples are shown in the following interrogative form.

- (14) *Aparan [ikang] wwang l-um-ěbw-akěn ing sumur i kita?*
 INTR REL man ACT-entrance-CAUS PREP well PREP 2SG
 'Who is the one who thrusts you into the well?'

2. Objects Relativity

Previously has been explained about the strategies to relativize the subject in Old Javanese. Further, it would be explained grammatical strategy relating objects in Old Javanese. The object relativity in Old Javanese is done indirectly by using 'diathesis derivative', as proposed by Givon (1990, p. 669-670). Old Javanese includes a language that has many alternate verbs. Thus, the relativity in Old Javanese is one of languages that has verb marking strategy in terms of relativity. Grammatical strategy is characterized by the interaction between relativity with promotional rules (the object becomes a subject, passive, or with construction topicalization). See the following sample data.

- (15) *T-um-inghal ta Dewi Kunti ri Sang Karna,*
 ACT-see PART name PREP ART name
ma-tutur ta sira ry anak-nira ri Sanghyang Aditya
 ACT-word PART 3SG PREP child-POSS3SG PREP ART name
Ikang h-in-ahut-nireng Gangga nguni, [nira-ing]
 REL PASS-float POSS3SG-PREP place ago
 'Dewi Kunti sees to Sang Karna, she says about his son from Sanghyang Aditya whom swept away in Gangga river ago'
- (16) *Sira ta ma-wěka the Yadukula, [ikang] s-in-angguh watěk Yadu.*
 3SG PART ACT-child ART name REL PASS-supposed group name
 'She is the family of Yadu who is supposed as Yadu group'

In the datum (15) the verb *hinañut* 'swept away' has an active form *humañut*, *angañut* 'sweeps away'. If the sentence is returned to its active diathesis, it looks like *Sira angañutakĕn anak nira ri sanghyang Aditya ing Gangga nguni* 'She washed away her son with Sanghyang Aditya in the river Gangga ago'. The active sentence object is promoted to be grammatical subject of the passive sentence which marked in the verb with the infix *-in-*. After becoming a derivative diathesis, it can be relativized by inserting an *ikang* form. The same thing may apply to (16). Based on these data, the Old Javanese can also relativize the object through derivative construction or topicalization.

Another example is the relativized object.

- (17) [*ikang*] *naga anak atuha de sang Kadru,*
REL dragon child eldest PREP ART name
Am- (p) rih ta yāgawe tapa sira, [ya-a-gawe]
ACT-need PART 3SG-create concern 3SG
ang-aradhana bhatara Brahmāng-anugraha ta sira
ACT-call god name gift-IR PART 3SG
'The dragon of Sang Kadru who is the eldest, he wants to meditate, worship the God Brahma, he blessed'
- (18) *Kunang [ikang] antiga kari sa-siki p-in-ahayu*
It is said REL eggs live NUM PAS-grown item
K-in-ayatna-kĕn de Sang Winata [-in-/akĕn – kayatna]
PAS-hearted PREP ART name
'A live egg is carefully preserved by Sang Winata'

Based on the examples (15), 16, 17, and (18), the idea of relativizing objects in Old Javanese is done through derivative construction or topicalization, i.e. passive diathesis with markings in the verb. Passive verbs in Old Javanese are characterized by a infix *-in-* and prefix *ka-*. Based on the analysis it can be said that the Old Javanese has the elements of *ikang* and *sang*. In terms of relativizing grammatical subject can be achieved directly, while in relativizing the grammatical object must be through derivative construction. Thus, the subject's relativity can be achieved directly by inserting the relativity elements. Meanwhile, the relative object is marked on the verb. Meanwhile, the object relativity must be through the derivative / parsing construction (indirect). In other words, only the subject can be directly relatable.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis it can be concluded that the relativity in Old Javanese is constituted by the basic structure of the clause. In relation to the relative clauses of Old Javanese can be found things like the following.

- (1) Elements of relativity in Old Javanese, are *ikang* and *sang* elements.
- (2) The elements of *sang* and *ikang* can be directly inserted between grammatical subjects and verbs without any decrease in grammatical structure. Thus, the subject can be relativized by inserting the interrupted elements of *ikang*, and *sang* directly.
- (3) Grammatical objects can be relativized by marking on verbs through derivation constructs with passive diathesis and topicalization strategy. Universally, the passive structure of the Old Javanese is morphologically observed with the infix *-in-*.

Recommendation

The complex clause structure in Old Javanese that is still related to this article requires to be studied further. The aim is to obtain a more comprehensive and deeper understanding about Old Javanese. Therefore, other researchers are suggested to contribute to the development of linguistic and ancient Javanese texts.

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ESP in a Saudi Context: Where Does It Stand?

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Abstract—English for specific purposes (ESP) gains more status in Saudi Arabia due to the continuing and sustainable growth in the development of various fields for academic and professional purposes. Using English as a means of communication in teaching and learning is one of them. The aim of this study is to critically review the previous research carried out in a Saudi context in the area of teaching and practicing English at specific schools, universities, and colleges for specific or special purposes (ESP) in the last ten years, in order to identify the current developments and to suggest new research directions. The investigation of the research body is based on an examination of the researched topics, with reference to the three research components, i.e., research approaches, research designs, and research methods (Creswell 2014). The results revealed that many research topics were examined, such as students' attitudes and motivation to learn, needs analysis, program or course development, and the evaluation and teaching of language skills. However, it was unclear how researchers, who were all ESP teachers, related their findings to the ESP context in terms of students' specific needs. It also showed that the majority of studies carried out were quantitative in nature, and thus, led themselves to utilizing mainly a questionnaire as a research tool. The study concluded with some recommendations and pedagogical implications, which hopefully, will reverberate with other studies for further research.

Index Terms—ESP, higher education, research development, new research directions

I. INTRODUCTION

Many researchers have examined the area of ESP (English for specific or special purposes) and its relevance to teaching and learning (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987, and Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). ESP is considered a subfield of language for specific purposes (LSP), in which learners need to use the target language, i.e., English, as a medium of communication to fulfill specific needs, rather than learning it for its own sake (Richards and Rodgers, 2003). ESP can take different forms, depending on learners' needs, such as the degree of specificity or experience that is appropriate for the course (Robinson, 1991). Nevertheless, the focal point of any categorisation of ESP is that English is not taught as a separate subject, but is constructed around functions determined by the purposes of the learners. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.19) state that, directly, "ESP should probably be seen not as any particular language product, but as an approach to language teaching, which is directed by specific and apparent reasons for learning." It is clear that the focus is on the process of language learning not on the actual use of language.

Students who are involved in the ESP context need to be proficient users of English with the highest possible caliber in order to pursue their studies and have access to different recourses in scientific fields such as medicine, engineering, computing, and physics. The reason for giving English a dominant role students need most is caused by its global status around the world. English holds a privileged status globally for many reasons, whether it is regarded as a first or second language, or a lingua franca with official status in many countries. Crystal (2003, p.7) explains what makes English a global language by noticing

There is the closest of links between language dominance and economical, technological, and cultural power, too, and this relationship will become increasingly clear as the history of English is told.

Jenkins (2007, p.2) defines English as a lingua franca (EFL) as the use of English as a common language among people who have different mother tongues, and he refers to it by stating that "it is a foreign language of communication." Crystal (2003, p.22) advocates that there is "a need for mutual intelligibility and identity" in order to make EFL users successful.

Similarly, Nunan (1999) takes a step further and holds that viewing English as a global language necessitates the need to change the policies and practices of teaching and learning English.

ESP researchers have focused on practical aspects, such as course design and material design (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998) or case descriptions of research projects related to individual teaching. As a result, the approaches and ideas underlying certain practices and individual cases are not well identified in order to make a link between theory and practice (Basturkmen, 2006). Patridge and Starfield (2011) assert that considering English as a lingua franca, i.e., the language of worldwide communication, whereby nonnative speakers of English use English for their own purposes, leads researchers in the field of ESP to consider new directions for its pedagogical implications. Nickerson (2005), when discussing the issue of English as a lingua franca and research on business English, provides two trends related to such investigation. First, research shifts the focus of tackling in isolation the examination of language of spoken or written texts toward the analysis of the communicative contexts and how the organizational and cultural factors affect the written and spoken texts. Second, it is suggested that EAP and ESP are both needs driven, i.e., students have

different needs and purposes in their minds to study English, which influence their motivation for learning (Nickerson, 2005).

So far, there has been little critical discussion of the place of ESP researches in a Saudi context. While a considerable amount of research has, so far, been conducted in teaching English for academic purposes in the Saudi context, a rather small number of studies have been conducted for ESP purposes.

This is not surprising, because most of the English language courses are directed to general purposes to enable students to communicate in English effectively for daily life. Therefore, such investigation is intended to determine whether or not the issue of ESP has been addressed thoroughly to advance our understanding of its nature and delineate its characteristics, and to offer theoretical support for both ESP teachers and researchers. To this effect, the following research questions have been formulated.

- 1- What ESP areas have been explored by researchers?
- 2- What research approaches and methods have been utilized by previous research?
- 3- To what extent do the current studies provide a theoretical and practical foundation for further research?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *English for General and Specific Purposes*

English language teaching (ELT) has two branches, i.e., English for specific or special purposes (ESP) and English for general purposes (EGP) (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). On the other hand, English for academic purposes (EAP) is considered a division of ESP (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). Regarding EAP as a division of ESP leads to another classification, proposed by Jordan (2003), who compares English for general academic purposes (EGAP) with English for specific academic purposes (ESAP). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) highlight three factors related to the emergence of ESP: the dominant role of English to serve particular needs in technology and commerce, new developments in linguistics and what to teach students, and addressing ESP as a learner-centered approach. The origins of English for specific purposes (ESP) can be traced back to the 1960s, when the focus was on learners' needs of study (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). The different divisions and categorizations of ESP and EGP suggest that there are some similarities and differences between the two sets. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 53), when discussing the difference between ESP and EGP, comment that it is "in theory nothing, in practice a great deal." One way to look at the similarities and differences between English for general and specific purposes is to examine the characteristics of each type. Due to the unique nature of ESP, certain characteristics are proposed by researchers (e.g., Strevens, 1988, and Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, pp. 4-5) identify the following characteristics to account for the differences and similarities between ESP and general English.

I. Absolute Characteristics

- ESP is defined to meet the specific needs of the learner;
- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; and
- ESP is centered on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse, and the genres appropriate to these activities.

II. Variable Characteristics

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
- ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be designed for learners at the secondary school level;
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students; and
- Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

Prior to Dudley-Evans and St. John's classification, Strevens (1988) proposed another classification, which includes the absolute characteristics that "ESP is in contrast with general English," and he limited the variable characteristics to include only two, in comparison to Dudley-Evans and St. John's classification, which included more.

B. *ESP in Saudi Arabia*

In light of the continuing and sustainable growth in development, Saudi Arabia has witnessed a boom in various fields of health affairs, technology, science, and economy, due to the government's plans to promote human development in recent years (Rahman and Alhaison, 2013, AL-Seghayer, 2014). For the educational sector, the government allocates a generous, high percentage of the state budget for building new schools, establishing new universities, developing curricula, and improving teaching practices, which takes into account the needs of learner and society and the configuration of the labour market. For its inevitable importance, English is an integral component of the Saudi education system. As part of curricula development, English received special attention and has undergone different stages of development, including reshaping the desired goals and objectives, contents, methods of teaching, and learning environment. Among many initiatives and projects in 2014, the Saudi Ministry of Education has implemented a project called the English Language Development Project (ELDP), which is considered part of a large reform project for developing the educational system under the King Abdullah Project for General Education Development for the development of public education (Tatweer, 2014).

Due to the English language dominant position, ESP courses are taught for various reasons to obtain different degrees (Ahmed, 2012). For example, some institutes offer high school degrees, such as the Industrial and Advanced Construction secondary institutes run by the Technical and Vocational Training Cooperation, or diplomas, such as Technical Colleges and Information and Telecommunication colleges. The majority of universities provide bachelor degrees in different majors, like medicine, engineering, technology, business, and computing. Fewer programs are intended for students to complete their postgraduate master or PhD studies in different ESP majors. Some military colleges offer some ESP courses to students as a requirement to finish certain programs, such as English to teach logistics or aviation. In the preparatory year, all students who want to pursue their studies in majors like medicine, business, and engineering have to take general and specific English courses before they begin full-degree programs.

C. Different Types of Research

As a complex and systematic process, various types of research have been adopted, each of which is guided by a particular interest. For example, Kumar (2010) divides research into three different types, from the point view of 1) application of the findings, e.g., pure and applied research; 2) objectives of the study, e.g., descriptive and explanatory researches; and 3) mode of inquiry, e.g., qualitative and quantitative research. Kumar adds that such a classification is not exclusively limited; some types of research may share the classification of others.

There is a strong relationship between second-language research and teaching in a second language or foreign context. Pica (1997) holds that the teaching–research relationship can be seen in relation to coexistence, collaboration, complement, and compatibility. She adds that the focus of L2 research has shifted to tackle issues such as teaching practices informed by different teaching methodologies, instructional materials, and classroom practice. Mackey and Gass (2016) observe that second-language research enables both researchers and teachers to obtain a better understanding of the nature of teaching and learning, as well as factors affecting each aspect. However, it should be noted that not all second-language learning research might be applicable to classrooms because of the “changing dynamics of the learning context” (Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p. 261).

Some kinds of research are preferable for examining some topic areas, such as reading comprehension, especially if they are not well supported by research. One example is an action research, which is a form of teacher research process in which teachers research their own practice systematically and critically to bring about change (Grabe and Stoller, 2002). The selection of a certain approach depends on the nature of the research under study with reference to its purpose and how much data are needed (Denscombe, 2014). Creswell (2014) asserts that research problems, personal experiences, and audience are all factors affecting the choice of a certain approach. However, the choice of any approach does not mean the rigid adherence to that approach (Bell and Waters, 2014). From a broader perspective, all research can be divided into three main types: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed research. Bryman (2008) highlights that, in a simple way, quantitative research is concerned with quantification, while qualitative research emphasises words for data collection and analysis. However, this distinction is not enough to account for the differences between the two strategies. There are some fundamental differences between the two strategies in terms of the role of theory in relation research, epistemological and ontological stances the research takes while conducting his or her study (Bryman, 2015). According to Creswell (2014), the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is made by using specific jargon, like (qualitative) instead of using numbers to refer to (quantitative), using close-ended questions with quantitative research in comparison to open-ended questions implemented with qualitative design, or by looking at specific assumptions associated with each designs such methods and strategies of collecting and analysing data.

A third paradigm is called the mixed-research method, which was a reaction to a long debate between qualitative and quantitative researchers about many epistemological, ontological, and methodological assumptions. This approach allows researchers to share some elements of the two research methods, i.e., quantitative and qualitative, to tackle the research problem by implementing multiple methods for the collection and analysis of data (Teddile and Tashakkori, 2009). Denscombe (2014) holds that using a mixed-methods approach can enhance researchers’ confidence in the accuracy of their findings, if they reach the same conclusion when triangulating two different research methods.

D. Research Data Collection and Analysis

Data that researchers have to deal with when gathering their information fall into two main sources: primary data and secondary data. Primary data are original in nature and collected by the researchers themselves. Such data are geared directly to the research problems, through interviews, questionnaires, and observations. Secondary data, in contrast, are in the shape of a finished product; they have already been collected by someone else, so they may not be totally relevant to the purpose of the researched study, such as documents and studies used in the literature review (Galvan, 2013). Both primary and secondary data analyses have advantages and disadvantages, but secondary data offer more benefits for researchers in comparison to primary data, as the latter are time-consuming and require more money and effort to conduct (Bryman, 2008). Up to this point, each research approach has various methods for data collection. Denscombe (2014) suggests the following considerations before selecting any method: 1) research methods are often linked to specific research designs; 2) each method has its advantages and disadvantages, and the role of the researcher is to determine what best suits the research problems; and 3) research methods should not be used in isolation, but should be combined to strengthen what has been found. For ESP research, Gollin-Kies (2014), has examined published articles between 2003 and 2012 in the ESP field to find out that there is a preference for publishing qualitative researches

contradicting previous studies that suggest a trend to publish quantitative studies in the fields of applied linguistics and ESOL (English for speakers of other languages). The triangulation process is recommended in ESP research; this process combines the two approaches, thereby enriching the collected data (Long, 2005, Gollin-Kies, 2014).

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

For the sake of the study, data were collected by examining 18 studies carried out in a Saudi context in the area of teaching and practicing English at specific schools, universities, and colleges for specific or special purposes (ESP) in the last ten years. Then the researches were critically analyzed. The examination of the researches' components was based on three components, i.e., research approaches, research designs, and research methods (Creswell 2014).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The following account provides a critical review to answer the first and second research questions, which consider the topics discussed in different studies and approaches of research and techniques of data collection. Researchers worked on different research areas, which focused on the individual aspects of learners (Ellis, 1997). These areas are as follows:

First, some studies considered affective factors associated with language learners. For example, Javid et al. (2012) examined Saudi undergraduates' motivational orientations by distributing a questionnaire to identify whether any statistically significant differences existed due to the participants' gender and university major. The study concluded that female students majoring in medicine and technology information reported more positive motivational orientations, intrinsically and extrinsically, in contrast to their male counterparts; in addition, male participants majoring in English were more intrinsically and extrinsically motivated than female cohorts. In a similar study, Alhuqbani (2014) used a questionnaire to compare the motivation and attitudes of police cadets with their English language needs. The findings revealed that students' needs were centered around studying English for security purposes, and students were found to be instrumentally and interpretively motivated, as long as they succeeded in meeting their needs.

Second, other studies looked at the role of needs analysis to facilitate language learning. Liton (2015) conducted a study to determine the real needs of learners of a business school and what they need after they graduate in the workplace by investigating an ESP course but from the teachers' perspective. For data collection, a questionnaire was administered to the ESP teachers, and the observations were triangulated. The findings showed that the ESP course design did not meet the specific needs of students in the work place, suggesting the need to replace the traditional teaching techniques with more communicative ones. In another study, Javid and Umer (2013) investigated the needs of undergraduate medical students in order to evaluate the appropriateness of ESP teaching materials. A questionnaire was distributed to students, and students' responses confirmed that ready-made materials cannot meet students' specific academic needs. Habbash and Albakawi (2014) conducted a needs analysis of engineering students' English needs, using a questionnaire addressed to both students and teachers. The results pointed out that being aware of students' interests and needs resulted in building self-confidence and positive attitudes toward English.

Third, another researched area was program development and evaluation. Alahmadi (2010) developed an interactive multimedia program for computing students, in order to introduce the basic technical English vocabulary they needed in their studies. Similarly, Alfahaid (2011) carried out a study to develop ESP courses at health sciences colleges. His study was based on a needs analysis and course program evaluation. He used a mixed-methods approach, including a questionnaire given to students, teachers, and graduates, as well as a semistructured interview carried out with students, graduates, teachers, course administrators, hospital managers, and health professionals. The program evaluation indicated that the ESP course was partially beneficial to students in their academic studies and for their target career. However, some practical issues related to learning-teaching materials and assessment procedures needed to be addressed. Fadel and Elyas (2015) carried out a study to introduce a scientific reading program and inject it with teaching English for general purposes. They used a questionnaire administered to students to uncover students' attitudes toward ESP. Results showed that students were willing to study ESP and that ESP programs should consider learners' needs to be a top priority for motivating students, rather than piquing their interest. Results also showed that ESP courses not only benefited students in their academic studies, but also improved their overall language proficiency. Younes (2016) carried out a study to examine the efficiency of ESP courses in the preparatory year, but from teachers' perspectives. By using a questionnaire, teachers reported that ESP courses were suitable for students in their academic study and for the workplace. However, the results suggested that the background and culture factors should be taken into account when designing such courses to address students' needs. Mahib ur Rahman (2012) carried out a study to evaluate the English writing text in order to determine how the writing text met students' requisite skills and learning needs. He used a questionnaire for the sake of data collection, and teachers reported that the prescribed book has some significant areas of strengths as well as some shortcomings.

Fourth, another researched area that researchers addressed pertained to the four language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and the subskills, i.e., grammar and vocabulary recognition. Alnufaie and Grenfell (2012) investigated the writing skills of an industrial college, implementing a questionnaire to determine how often students deployed product-oriented strategies in comparison to process-oriented strategies. The responses indicated that students

diversified the two sets of writing strategies. Alamin and Ahmed (2012) investigated the writing of students to diagnose the syntactic and punctuation errors committed by science students during their first year of study while taking a technical writing course. They collected data from the quizzes, homework, and final examinations of students. Results showed that students lacked basic English grammar, which could be ascribed to intralingual interference.

Fifth, the final area of research has to do with the study and soft skills students adopt while learning. El-Gilany and El Sayed Abusaad (2013) examined the relationship between self-directed learning readiness and learning styles among Saudi undergraduate nursing students. Using a questionnaire, they determined that there was no association between self-directed learning readiness and demographics and learning styles. Mousawa and Elyas (2015) conducted a study to illuminate the importance of providing students with soft skills and, more specifically, communication skills and presentation. They argue that soft skills are as important as hard skills and they have direct relevance to academics and success in employability. Similarly, Al rebish and Taha (2017) integrated teaching communication skills into a health profession education course in order to improve the study skills of students who were enrolled in a preparatory year. Quantitative through a questionnaire and qualitative through focused group discussions. AL-Roomy (2017) investigated the efficiency of combining study skills with an academic study of English for medical students in a parallel program. He used semi structured interviews with students and teachers, as well as an open-ended questionnaire with students for the purpose of data collection. The results indicated that teaching study skills explicitly boosted students' English performance with their academic courses. In another study, Naser (2015) conducted a study to identify the vocabulary recognition strategies of science students via semi structured interviews, class observations, and two questionnaires. The study showed that teachers should be well prepared before teaching ESP courses, students had to be motivated and elevate their English proficiency, and prescribed books taken prior to university study should introduce scientific topics. Alzahrani and Alzahrani (2012) identified another effective element of learning, related to medical students' perceptions of their learning strategies, including learning habits, learning resources, and preferred teaching methods. They utilized a questionnaire submitted to students and found that students preferred self-instruction and practical sessions over lecturing.

Regarding the third research question of the current place of ESP in the Saudi context and its research directions in English, the following considerations summarize the place of ESP research in the Saudi context in terms of topics, methodology, methods, and suggestions for future research directions.

With respect to the research topics, researchers explored many areas, including needs analysis, program development and evaluation, and specific problems related to the process of teaching and learning, similar to other ESP areas of study previously investigated (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998, and Basturkmen, 2006). However, when examining the role of affective factors associated with the psychology of learning, some important factors were overlooked, such as ESP and the identity of learners, which are essential to maximize students' learning. The notion of social identity was first coined by Peirce (1995) to explain the relationship between language learners and the social world, and it suggested that such a relationship could be best understood via the power relations found in the interaction between language learners and the target language speakers. She argued that what guarantees successful learning is the learners' ability to construct and assert their own identity and have the full right to engage and reflect critically with native speakers and to be the subject of change with their identities, rather than being the subject to change with an identity they do not won (Peirce, 1985). Belcher and Lukkarila (2011) point out the important role that teachers have to enable ESP learners to determine their imagined identities in order to achieve their long-term learning goals, rather than the short-term ones. Learners should be the center of learning, and they should state what they want to learn and for what purposes through language (Belcher and Lukkarila, 2011). While researchers tried to explain how students meet their needs and communicate in English in their academic study, it was not clearly sought how they met these needs across professional boundaries. For example, no single study examined the students' need to communicate in English after having finished their education.

In relation to methods of collecting data, it is noticeable that the number of studies that implemented only one method, mainly the questionnaire, is larger than that of the studies that varied the data collection methods. Although the questionnaire is considered to be a useful tool for collecting data, easily and unanimously, from a large number of participants, all of the questions are fixed and prepared beforehand; thus, the researcher might think that all of the students came up with the same interpretations, which is not always true (Bryman, 2008). Such findings do not agree with other findings, which suggest that quantitative research methods were the most commonly used tools for collecting data among researchers (Gollin-Kies, 2014) and with those trends to implement more than one method to triangulate data (Long, 2005, Gollin-Kies, 2014).

Another issue is the role for ESP practitioners. Several researchers (Nunan, 1999, and Dudley Evans and St. John, 1998) proposed that ESP practitioners have to play different roles, such as teachers, course designers, researchers, and evaluators. However, some of these roles were not clearly covered in the above review, especially the role of ESP practitioners as researchers who strived to understand and improve their own practices in continuous professional inquiry. Action research, whereby teachers try to understand their own teaching practices, investigate, and reflect to bring about change in the classrooms, is considered to be an effective way of investigating. By conducting action research, teachers become participants, rather than recipients by playing the role of teacher-researcher (Porocka and Sierocha, 2013).

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the previous literature undertaken in a Saudi context with respect to developments in ESP research. The findings drawn from the research yielded some important results that may lend insight into the current value of ESP in a Saudi context and identify the areas of challenge and potential in order to offer theoretical support for further research. The main findings of this study are as follows.

First, varied research topics were examined, including the psychology of learning and learners, the role of needs analysis, program development, and the evaluation and teaching of language skills. However, little evidence was provided to support how researchers acted accordingly. For example, it was unclear how teachers could develop their own materials and vary their teaching methods to suit students' specific needs. If data suggest that students need to learn grammar and some technical vocabulary, teachers must consider that they should not teach the language as they intended when teaching EGL, but rather, they should focus on teaching about the language (i.e., cantering on the language) (Dudley Evans and St. John, 1998). In this case, researchers do need to find their own ways to link theory with practice, using their collected data (Basturkmen, 2006).

Another important point is that, when researchers examine the spoken or written language, the desired goal should be directed toward communicative competence, in which all classroom activities use meaningful and authentic communications, bearing in mind cultural and organizational factors (Nickerson, 2005).

Second, much of the research was based on quantitative techniques for collecting data and, more specifically, questionnaire tools, which might be attributed to the ease of using and analysing such a tool. Additionally, students' and teachers' perspectives were the main sources for collecting data, with few exceptions; further research should consider the views of policymakers, stakeholders, and course designers, in order to create a clearer picture of different aspects of ESP.

Third, the results revealed that it was unclear from the given studies if the ESP teachers really had degrees majoring in some fields, such as engineering, computing, and medicine, or if they just evinced interest in ESP courses. If teachers have an EGP background, they are more likely to resort to the same method of teaching ESP as they do EGP. For this reason, it is recommended that key issues of ESP be included in preservice teachers' programs and that training workshops be given for teachers to introduce them to the ESP realm and to discuss the prevailing issues they encounter while teaching. Finally, it is hoped that this study will reverberate with other studies to benefit the Saudi ESP context and relate it to the ELT world.

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Subjectless Sentences vs. Subjectless Clauses

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Abstract—The study is concerned with the contrastive analysis between the sentence and the clause level. It aims to investigate the usage of both subjectless sentences (independent clauses) and sentence-like construction (dependent clauses) in formal vs. informal language. The idea of subjectless is the focus of the analysis undertaken on selected samples, ranging from formal to informal language used in a presidential speech, a standup comedian's monologue performance, an interview with a celebrity, and an episode of a TV series. Since English is a non-pro-drop language, then the study tries to answer the following questions: (1) why can we find instances of null subject on the sentence level. (2) How would null-subject for both sentences and clauses influence communication in different contexts?

Index Terms—Subjectless, independent clauses, dependent clauses

I. INTRODUCTION

Even though English is not a pro subject null language, yet it still allows three types of grammatical structures to be subject null. These are imperatives, truncated, and non-finite null subjects. Since imperatives contain subjects which are null and “intrinsically second person” (Radford, 2004, p. 90), then it is not going to be included in the present study. The reason behind excluding this type is because the researchers are interested in the other two structures since they may include more than two options to be their subjects.

II. TRUNCATED NULL SUBJECTS

To illustrate what truncated null subjects are, it is necessary to first define the notion of “truncation”. Truncation, as Radford (2004, p. 362) defines it, is “an operation by which a sentence is shortened by omitting one or more unstressed words at the beginning” which in this case applies on the subject. So truncated null subjects are finite independent clauses (i.e. sentences) that do not contain a subject. They are mainly used in colloquial English. This case of truncation can also be referred to as situational ellipsis. According to Quirk et al. (1985), the following are examples of situational ellipsis where the elliptical element is the subject:

- *Told you so* (I/We told you so)
- *Looks like rain* (It looks like rain)
- *Get it?* (Did you get it?)

In the third sentence, not only the subject is ellipted but also the operator (ibid.).

III. NON-FINITE NULL SUBJECTS

Non-finite null subjects are non-finite dependent clauses known to have no tense neither mood. Moreover, they “lack an explicit subject and subordinator” (Biber et al., 1999, p. 198). However, it does not mean that a non-finite clause does not contain any subject. Rather, it may have its own subject which sometimes is preceded by the preposition ‘for’ for the purpose of introducing it. Since the present paper is concerned with subjectless clauses then the non-finite clauses containing subjects are not going to be included in the discussion. According to Quirk et al. (1985), the subjectless clauses that do not contain any subject are of four types:

1. To- Infinitive clauses: (Jack hates to miss the train)
2. Bare infinitive: (Did you hear anyone close the door?)
3. -ing participle: (Buying all those books will cost you a fortune)
4. -ed participle: (Called early, he was sleepy all day)

The most frequently used ones are (to- infinitive, ed clause, and -ing participle) while the (bare infinitive) is rarely used.

Now one may wonder what may be the benefit of employing non-finite clauses. Biber (1999) explains how non-finite clauses can be used as supplementary clauses in that

the speaker marks the information given in the clause as subordinate: as background (initial position), parenthetical (medial position), or supplementary (final position). (p. 201).

A. Infinitive Clauses

Infinitive clauses are used with anticipatory 'to' to construct a non-finite clause. (Quirk et al., 1985). They may occupy different positions within sentences and hence function as either a subject, extraposed subject, subject predicative, direct object, object predicative, adverbial, or part of a noun phrase (Biber et al., 1999).

For instance:

- The best thing would be *to tell everybody*. (Quirk et al. , 1985, p. 993)

B. Bare Infinitive

The bare infinitive clauses can be found in pseudo-cleft sentences “where the infinitival *to* is optional” as in:

- What they did was (to) *dig a shallow channel around the tent*. (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 993)

C. -ing Participle

-ing clauses may also occupy different positions within sentence and hence have a range of syntactic roles such as a subject, extraposed subject, subject predicative, direct object, prepositional object, adverbial, part of noun phrase, part of adjective phrase, or complement of preposition (Biber et al., 1999)

For instance:

- *Leaving the room*, he tripped over the mat. (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 993)

D. -ed Clauses

-ed clauses differ from infinitive and -ing clauses in being less versatile. -ed clauses are restricted to the following syntactic roles: direct object, adverbial, or part of noun phrase (Biber et al., 1999).

For instance:

- *Covered with confusion*, they apologized abjectly. (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 993)

IV. LIMITS OF THE STUDY

In order to have an interesting research concerning the concept of subjectlessness, the researchers have chosen a variety of data to be analyzed. This data ranges from formal to informal language as well as monologues to dialogues. These data are:

1. A political speech by Hilary Clinton in New York.
2. A standup comedian’s monologue.
3. An episode from a comedy TV show; Full House.
4. An interview with a celebrity; Leonardo DiCaprio.

V. THE ANALYSIS

(1) Hilary Clinton’s Speech in New York

TABLE (1):
HILARY CLINTON’S SPEECH IN NEW YORK

Text	Type of Structure
to be here with all of you	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
To be in New York with my family	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Initial Position
To be right across the water from the headquarters of the United Nations	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Initial Position
To be here in this beautiful park dedicated to Franklin Roosevelt’s enduring vision of America	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Initial Position
And in a place... with absolutely no ceilings	Subjectless Sentence
“Equality of opportunity... Jobs for those who can work... Security for those who need it... The ending of special privilege for the few... The preservation of civil liberties for all... a wider and constantly rising standard of living.”	Subjectless sentence
printing drapery fabric in Chicago	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Medial Position
increasing their incomes by the same percentage as the top 5 percent.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
going to college, starting a business, buying a house, finally being able to put away something for retirement	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
making record profits	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Medial Position
making record pay	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Medial Position
to make ends meet	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
making more than all of America’s kindergarten teachers combined	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
paying a lower tax rate	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
to secure the gains	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
to make our economy work for you and for every American	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
For the successful and the struggling	Subjectless Sentence
For the innovators and inventors.	Subjectless Sentence
For those breaking barriers in technology	Subjectless Sentence
discovering cures for diseases.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
For the factory workers and food servers who stand on their feet all day.	Subjectless Sentence
For the nurses who work the night shift.	Subjectless Sentence
For the truckers who drive for hours and the farmers who feed us.	Subjectless Sentence

For the veterans who served our country.	Subjectless Sentence
For the small business owners who took a risk.	Subjectless Sentence
For everyone who's ever been knocked down, but refused to be knocked out.	Subjectless Sentence
to change course.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to turn the tide	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
working for us more than against us.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
to see our progress ripped away.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
singing the same old song...	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
singing that, too	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Medial Position
promising lower taxes for the wealthy	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Medial Position
listening to those who are?	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
to wipe out tough rules on Wall Street	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
courting future failures	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
offering any credible alternative.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
to make our own reproductive health decisions.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to put immigrants, who work hard and pay taxes, at risk of deportation	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to build an inclusive economy	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
without drowning in debt	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
not to have either one	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
working as a housemaid	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
to eat at lunch	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
without embarrassing her	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Medial Position
letting her go to high school so long as her work got done	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
To meet every challenge	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Initial Position
To be resilient	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Initial Position
To solve the toughest problems	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Initial Position
to babysit the children of Mexican farmworkers	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
to require better working and living conditions for farm workers workers whose children deserved better opportunities.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to find out how many children with disabilities couldn't go to school	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
guaranteeing them access to education	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
to have a lawyer	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
And saw lives changed	Subjectless Sentence
going to college	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)- Medial Position
becoming sick themselves.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)- Final Position
juggling a job	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)- Medial Position
raising three kids	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)- Final Position
to come easy.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
to be her champion and your champion.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
to make the economy work for everyday Americans	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Medial Position
To make the middle class mean something again	Non-finite Clause(-to infinitive)– Initial Position
rising incomes and broader horizons.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)- Final Position
to give the poor a chance	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Initial Position
to work their way into it.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
to work to build tomorrow's economy	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
to come to the table	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Medial Position
to reward businesses	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Medial Position
stashing profits overseas	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)- Final Position
cutting red tape	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)- Medial Position
making it easier	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)- Medial Position
to get a small business loan	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
Developing renewable power – wind, solar, advanced biofuels...	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Initial Position
Building cleaner power plants, smarter electric grids, greener buildings...	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Initial Position
Using additional fees and royalties from fossil fuel extraction to protect the environment...	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Initial Position
to help our fellow Americans	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to lead the global fight against climate change	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to pay for some of these improvements.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
building an economy for tomorrow	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Initial Position
investing in our most important asset	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Medial Position
beginning with our youngest	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
to remember this	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
developed by age three.	Non-finite Clause (-ed participle) – Final Position
to learn and thrive as they should	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
to gain or improve skills the economy requires	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
setting up many more Americans for success	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
to strengthen America's families	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
to do their job at work and at home	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to earn paid sick days	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to arrange childcare or take college courses	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
to get ahead.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to retirement with confidence, not anxiety.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position

breaking the bank	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
to choose between keeping a paycheck and caring for a new baby or a sick relative.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to end the outrage of so many women	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
earning less than men on the job	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Medial Position
making even less	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
raising the minimum wage	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Initial Position
Expanding childcare	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
Declining marriage rates	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Initial Position
Helping more people with an addiction or a mental health problem	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Initial Position
Not second-class status	Subjectless Sentence
to harness all of America’s power, smarts, and values	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
to maintain our leadership for peace, security, and prosperity.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to thrive in the 21 st century	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to meet traditional threats from countries like Russia, North Korea, and Iran	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
to deal with the rise of new powers like China	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to meet emerging threats from cyber attacks, transnational terror networks like ISIS and diseases that spread across oceans and continents.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to keep Americans safe	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
soaring skyward.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
to maintain the best-trained, best-equipped, strongest military, ready for today’s threats and tomorrow’s.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to be smart as well as strong.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
Meeting today’s global challenges	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Initial Position
to improve lives around the world with people, not just their governments.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
to shape global events rather than be shaped by them.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
to be strong in the world	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Medial Position
to win the fourth fight	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Medial Position
reforming our government and revitalizing our democracy	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)- Medial Position
to stop the endless flow of secret	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Medial Position
to buy elections	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
to undo the Supreme Court’s decision in Citizens United.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
to make it easier for every citizen to vote	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
to disempower and disenfranchise young people, poor people, people with disabilities, and people of color.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to give Americans something worth voting for.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to have all the answers	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Medial Position
to help cut waste and streamline services.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
To do that	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Initial Position
to expand health care for children and for our National Guard	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Medial Position
to reduce the number of Russian nuclear warheads that could threaten our cities	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Medial Position
to join me in this effort	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to make calls and knock on doors.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
to advance a very different vision for America	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)- Final Position
fighting for children, families, and our country	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)– Final Position
to be a President for all Americans.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position
pointing them out!	Non-finite Clause (Gerund)- Final Position
to live up to our God-given potential	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive)– Final Position

In table (1), the researchers notice that subjectless clauses, non-finite clauses, have the highest number of occurrence; (123)times which constitute about 90.4%. Concerning non-finite clauses, it was found that

1. –to infinitive clauses occurred (76) times throughout the data constituting about 61.7% of the total number of non-finite clauses used.

- Initially (9) 11.8 %
- Medially (24) 31.5 %
- Finally (43) 56.5 %

2. Gerund clauses occurred (46) times throughout the data constituting 37.3% of the total number of non-finite clauses used.

- Initially (7) 15.2 %
- Medially (13) 28.2 %
- Finally (26) 56.5 %

3. –ed participle clause occurred only one time throughout the data in a final position. It constitute about 0.8% of the total number of non-finite clauses used.

Meanwhile subjectless sentences occurred only (13) times which constitutes only 9.5% of the analyzed data.

(2) Fat man with a sense of humor (Standup Comedian’s monologue)

TABLE (2):
FAT MAN WITH A SENSE OF HUMOR (STANDUP COMEDIAN'S MONOLOGUE)

Text	Type of Structure
being extra helpful	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) –Medial Position
cracking jokes in the gym	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) –Medial Position
doing nothing else there	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) –Final Position
allowing other people to get in to the line at checkout counters	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) –Medial Position
saying that you have never gone to that section	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) –Final Position
trying to entertain kids of single mothers	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Final Position
sharing a little of their love with the person whom their kid likes	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Final Position
promoting some healthy product	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Medial Position
Looking back	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Initial Position
eating the sundae rather than the joke	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Final Position
watching comedies and funny sitcoms	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Medial Position
While watching TV	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Initial Position
Looking down from my neck	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Initial Position
to lose my remote	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Medial Position
trying to produce energy from renewable resources	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Medial Position
to use humans as a source of energy	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to produce electricity	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Medial Position

In table (2), the researchers notice that subjectless clauses, non-finite clauses, have been used (17) times. Concerning non-finite clauses, it was found that:

1. -to infinitive clauses occurred (3) times throughout the data constituting about 17.64 % of the total number of non-finite clauses employed.

○ Medially (2) 66.6 %

○ Finally (1) 33.3 %

2. Gerund clauses occurred (14) times throughout the data constituting about 82.35%

○ Initially (3) 21.4 %

○ Medially (6) 42.8 %

○ Finally (5) 35.7 %

Meanwhile subjectless sentences have not been used at all.

(3) Full House (TV series) – S01E02

TABLE (3):
FULL HOUSE (TV SERIES) – S01E02

Text	Type of Structure
Beautiful!	Subjectless Sentence
17 minutes.	Subjectless Sentence
Baby wipe.	Subjectless Sentence
to make a quantum leap in diaper theory.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
Loving it, loving it	Subjectless Sentence
to tie a hefty bag around her waist	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
Jr. Jammy time.	Subjectless Sentence
very nice	Subjectless Sentence
Snagging a plan	Subjectless Sentence
Big deal	Subjectless Sentence
Over my bunnies?	Subjectless Sentence
hanging all over Graceland.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Final Position
riddle time	Subjectless Sentence
Elvis?	Subjectless Sentence
to go to this big fancy ball	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to come to the ball with me?	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
No monsters, no witches,	Subjectless Sentence
Red light	Subjectless Sentence
Because I have an actual job that pays money	Subjectless Sentence
Two words.	Subjectless Sentence
Two more words	Subjectless Sentence
to be a success in the music business.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to be in bed girls.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
dreaming about Tweety Bird or Big Bird or Larry Bird or something.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Final Position
And cookies.	Subjectless Sentence
to be taken on that kind of ride.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to listen to the greatest rock band in the world.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
Great hair	Subjectless Sentence
to do that?	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to tell you about our 11 o'clock pizza.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
Open party!	Subjectless Sentence
Ready.	Subjectless Sentence
to say that Joey is innocent	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to do with it.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
ripping and knifing its way through your soft, tender, inflamed gum tissues.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to ask for that girl singer's phone number.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to think that you were adult enough	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Medial
to take care of my kids.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final
Empty bowls and empty cartons.	Subjectless Sentence
No probably about it.	Subjectless Sentence
to say thanks	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Medial Position
to do better.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to grow on me.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
turning it into a 24 hour mini-mart.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Final Position
Want a piece of pizza?	Subjectless Sentence
to get some sleep.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
An ice cold carrot	Subjectless Sentence
to know that was really nice of you	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Medial Position
to take the rap for DJ and Stephanie.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
walking around you	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
saying well...well...well.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to say no.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to be Robert Young.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
counting on me	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Medial Position
to stop her from being in pain	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to be here	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to be in a real house with real people.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position
to go to bed.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Final Position

In table (3), the researchers notice that subjectless clauses, non-finite clauses, have the highest number of occurrence; (34) which constitute about 58.6% of the analyzed data. As concerning non-finite clauses, it is found that

1. –to infinitive clauses occurred (27) times throughout the data constituting about 79.4% of the total number of non-finite clauses employed.

- o Medially (3) 11.1 %
- o Finally (24) 88.8 %

2. Gerund clauses occurred (7) times throughout the data constituting about 20.5% of the total number of non-finite clauses employed.

- Medially (2) 28.5 %
- Finally (5) 71.4 %

Meanwhile subjectless sentences occurred (24) times which constitutes about 41.3% of the analyzed data.

(4) Interview with Leonardo DiCaprio

TABLE (4):
INTERVIEW WITH LEONARDO DICAPRIO

Text	Type of Structure
to do a sort of portrait of this culture	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to start on a basis of somebody being very honest.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to be very surreal sometimes	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
doing this movie,	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Initial Position
to put that darker nature of humanity up on screen,	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
consuming as much as possible	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
feeding every primal urge	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
giving into the sort of reptilian part of our brain.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
doing this film that plot	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
allowing the actor to have a certain amount of freedom in their portrayal of that	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
spending so much time being Jordan Belfort	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Initial Position
to get out of that mindset,	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
To tell you the truth	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Initial Position
to shut off pretty quickly	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to act like this	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to reel it in	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to spend so much time with him?	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to capture his attitude	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to accomplish in that scenario.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to say I think a lot of his actions were deplorable.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to put this era up on screen	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to make sure that you didn't try to make him likable.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to emulate Gordon Gekko.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to be the fat cats on Wall Street.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) Final Position
selling these fraudulent penny stocks to very rich people	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
to uphold that attitude	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) – Medial Position
doing those speeches in front of the whole crowd of people	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Medial Position
making more money	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) – Medial Position
identifying who you are.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to clap for me	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to be the "Wolf of Wall Street" of its time.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to make his fortune	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to belong to the aristocracy of America	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to have an identity	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to try to find the motivation of Jordan	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Initial Position
to a reptilian part of his brain	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to be paramount	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
doing very good things for the world	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to be sort of rampant	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
taking me	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
to watch a great actor	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to work with Marty	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to work with my favorite director of all time	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to finance a movie some day	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to work with him.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to trust each other more and more implicitly	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to discover what the film is	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
Being the film historian that he is,	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Initial Position
talking about that movie	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
coming from the sort of violent streets of New York	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
watching movies	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
doing it	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
getting opportunities after "This Boy's Life" and "Gilbert Grape,"	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
to say sanitized,	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
making the movie you wanted to make.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to do it	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to get this type of resistance.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to do this in a very real, authentic way,	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to do another film	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to put it together with another director	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to have the freedom to portray these people.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to make the movie we wanted to make.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to be serious.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position

to do a film like that	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
watching De Niro prepare	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
creating something out of thin air	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
embodying that character	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
committing to it	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to make this character realistic.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to do anything, really	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to be a working actor,	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to squander this opportunity at all	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
doing independent movies	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
seeing it around the world	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) 0 Final Position
to really finance movies as a result of being in that film.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to be honest with you	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to keep you grounded.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
being able to do great impressions.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
recreating what I was actually going to do on camera,	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
coming to Lasse Hallstrom with a checklist of, like, 300 different attributes	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
doing this one, this one, this one.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
doing that role	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
being the leading man	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to carry the story.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to do whatever the hell I wanted at any given moment	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to carry on the way it should've.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to do with a big plate of spaghetti,	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
being terrified of the possibility of ever winning something like that	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
Being very honored	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
to do this type of film.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to see epics or big movies coming from Hollywood	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to take a gamble on this.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to seek that out.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to turn down superhero roles	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to not go in the new "Star Wars" epic.	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to do some good for the world	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
getting involved in environmental issues	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
talking to me about climate change	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
speaking about it	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
speaking to different NGOs	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
affecting our culture	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
affecting a global conversation like never before.	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to do "11th Hour" as well	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
arguing with 100 people	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
acting as we do today	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
making enough of a positive change in a worldwide culture	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
to make any sort of dramatic shift	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to find oil	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
bubbling up in the Antarctic	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
doing this	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to make that shift	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
saving the Sumatran tiger	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to be a marine biologist	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
considering this is the biggest life-support system,	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
to focus on targeting a lot of these places	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to get some more support by any willing billionaires out there	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to help me support this cause	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to get financial support for a lot of this stuff	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
being a little bit older, too,	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Initial Position
criticized for it a lot, too.	Subjectless Sentence
to avoid [it]	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to say this	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
saying this about a lot of different things	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
trying to sort of outdo each other	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
saying to one another	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
to get a role in the movie as well	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to lead an interesting life	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to support you	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
A little sedate?	Subjectless Sentence
raising money for a film	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
to raise money for environmental causes?	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to donate their work	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
Which was a huge success	Subjectless Sentence
to do that	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to do more of that	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position

to actually physically buy land	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to manage it	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
to monitor it	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
being able to go to the Natural History Museum	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
going there now as an adult and experiencing those places firsthand	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Medial Position
being [an] equal life form	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
snapping a few feet away from me	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
following some fish	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to think that these majestic creatures	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Medial Position
protecting pristine environments and biodiversity	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position
to hopefully make a big difference	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
to do some pretty incredible things	Non-finite Clause (-to infinitive) - Final Position
roaming on our planet?	Non-finite Clause (Gerund) - Final Position

In table (4), the researchers notice that subjectless clauses, non-finite clauses, have the highest number of occurrences; (145) which constitute about 97.9% of the analyzed data. Concerning non-finite clauses, it is found that:

1. -to infinitive clauses occurred (86) times throughout the data constituting about 59.31% of the total number of non-finite clauses used.

- Initially (2) 2.3 %
- Medially (32) 37.2 %
- Finally (52) 60.4 %

2. Gerund clauses occurred (59) times throughout the data constituting about 40.68% of the total number of non-finite clauses used.

- Initially (4) 6.7 %
- Medially (29) 49.1 %
- Finally (26) 44 %

Meanwhile subjectless sentences occurred only (3) times which constitute about 2% of the data analyzed.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

One of the goals of modern linguistics is to develop a model of Universal Grammar which captures natural language features that are universal, while also accounting for variation among languages. The use of empty subjects in English has been explained in both syntactic and stylistic terms. Syntactically, empty subjects in independent clauses occur in non-initial coordinate clauses

Accordingly, the study reveals the occurrences of subjectless clauses in a variety of contexts, i.e. formal and informal language, and this verify the aim of the study which asserts the usages of such kind of clauses in different texts, via. Presidential speeches, comedian monologue performance and interviews with a celebrity and an episode of TV series. Further, the findings of the study provide support for the key arguments of the influence of subjectless clauses on the way of communication in various situations.

Such clauses give power and affect people's opinions and tendencies of the contextual settings, apart from their smoothness when used in such situations. The study attentively answered all the questions posed so far.

It was noted at the beginning of this paper that the use of empty subjects in English is stylistically determined. This makes style an important predictive factor in the use of empty subjects, but not a sufficient one. The findings presented in this paper allow one to predict precisely which subjectless clauses will be used and which will not. Thus, subjectless sentences in English are a discourse level phenomenon in which pragmatically recoverable material is deleted sentence initially.

The results of this study motivate further text-based analysis of any discourse in language in order to see to what extent subjectless clauses in English or any other language is conditioned by - or independent of - higher-level discourse-pragmatic factors.

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Assessment for Learning in the Chinese Context: Prospective EFL Teachers' Perceptions and Their Relations to Learning Approach

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Abstract—This study examines how prospective EFL teachers conceive of assessment for learning (AfL) practices and how these perceptions relate to their learning approaches. The study evaluated, in three teacher training universities' in China, 692 prospective EFL teachers' responses to a self-report instrument regarding assessment for learning practices and students' learning approach. Results indicate a significant positive correlation between their perceived AfL experience and their tendency to adopt an achieving or deep approach to learning. Results also reveal that a surface approach to learning was negatively correlated to AfL experience, suggesting that in the Chinese university environment, the more AfL features incorporated into the classroom teaching and assessment processes, the less likely students adopt a surface approach to learning. This study also provides evidence of the potential differences in students' responses to AfL as a result of different institutional environments. Implications of the results for addressing potential barriers to implementation of AfL in the Chinese context are also discussed

Index Terms—prospective EFL teachers, assessment for learning, learning approaches, tertiary EFL courses

I. INTRODUCTION

Following the review by Black and Wiliam (1998), assessment for learning (AfL) has been strongly promulgated by an increasing number of education systems internationally. In the Asia-Pacific Region, there has been a particular interest in the positive effect of AfL on the learner (Val Klenowski 2009). For example, in *Directions for Assessment in New Zealand* (Absolum et al. 2009), a clear priority is given to AfL:

all young people should be educated in ways that develop their capacity to assess their own learning. Students who have well developed assessment capabilities are able and motivated to access, interpret, and use information from quality assessment in ways that affirm or further their learning (p. 5).

In Hong Kong, the interest to integrate assessment and teaching brought about a 'learning to learn' curriculum reform emphasizing that teachers provide feedback to students of their strengths and weaknesses as a basis for further improvement in learning (Curriculum Development Council 2001). AfL is explicitly emphasized in an assessment reform document by the Hong Kong government:

All schools should review their current assessment practices and put more emphasis on *assessment for learning*. The latter is a process in which teachers seek to identify and diagnose student learning problems, and provide quality feedback for students on how to improve their work. Different modes of assessment are to be used whenever appropriate for a more comprehensive understanding of student learning in various aspects (Chapter 5, p. 1, Curriculum Development Council 2002)

Similar assessment innovations are being promoted and carried out in China. The Chinese government has overtly called for assessment reforms that move evaluation systems away from transmission and memorization of 'bookish' knowledge for purely ranking or selection purposes towards more formative, authentic and humanistic approaches to assessment (Chen and Brown 2013; OECD 2011). Although regular high-stakes public examinations are still used extensively to select students at all levels of schooling in China, a new assessment initiative is being carried out in China where a school-based assessment based on the teachers' judgment is to be included in the public examination system. Such curricular policy reform movements attempt to reduce the domineering impact of examinations by placing a greater emphasis on using assessment to inform teaching and learning improvements. For example, the AfL direction in the ongoing curricula reform is clearly reflected in how formative assessment is incorporated and defined in the College English Curriculum Requirements (CECR) (Chinese Ministry of Education 2007). The CECR policy document clearly articulates the need for students to be meaningfully engaged in formative assessment:

Formative assessment is the procedural and developmental assessment conducted during the process of teaching and learning ... Specifically, it is a means to adapt various assessment approaches and a means to follow up on the teaching and learning process, and to provide timely feedback so as to enhance students' overall development. It facilitates the effective monitoring of students' autonomous learning. Formative assessment includes self-assessment, peer-assessment, and assessment conducted by teachers and school administrators. ... It is used to observe, evaluate and monitor the learning process for the purpose of enhancing effective learning (Chinese Ministry of Education 2007; see also Chen et al. 2013).

While assessment for learning has therefore been vigorously promoted in mainland China and in Hong Kong, so far few empirical studies have been conducted to understand how students' perceptions of AfL practices may relate to their learning approaches. The study reported in this paper is part of a larger research project intended to help us gain a better understanding of the nature of Chinese and Hong Kong university students' perceptions of AfL practices as well as the relationships between these perceptions and their learning approaches. Students participating in the current research were involved in university English language enhancement course, where formative assessment was explicitly recommended and allegedly incorporated into teaching and assessment of the students' learning processes. In the following section, conceptualization of AfL and learning approaches in the literature are reviewed. The research method used and the findings of this study are then presented, and finally, the implications of the results are discussed.

II. CONCEPTUALIZATION OF AfL IN THE LITERATURE OF EDUCATIONAL ASSESSMENT

Although assessment for learning has become a widely used concept in educational discourse, a variety of definitions of the term prevail (Klenowski 2009). In light of the review of the research by Black and Wiliam (1998) showing how assessment affects student learning, the Assessment Reform Group (ARG) outlined seven characteristics of assessment that meet the criteria for being considered "assessment for learning":

- It is embedded in a view of teaching and learning of which it is an essential part;
- It involves sharing learning goals with pupils;
- It aims to help pupils to know and to recognize the standards they are aiming for;
- It involves pupils in self-assessment;
- It provides feedback which leads to pupils recognizing their next steps and how to take them;
- It is underpinned by confidence that every student can improve;
- It involves both teacher and pupils reviewing and reflecting on assessment data (ARG 1999, p.7).

Building on these seven characteristics of assessment that promotes learning, a definition of AfL was formulated as follows:

Assessment for Learning is the process of seeking and interpreting evidence for use by learners and their teachers to decide where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go and how best to get there (ARG 2002, p. 2–3).

Primarily, ARG emphasizes that assessment that promotes learning, i.e., AfL, contrasts with tests or examinations intended to certify students' learning. Explicit in the above definition of AfL is thus that AfL is primarily concerned with how assessment is integrated into regular curricular activities, and with how students can be actively involved in the learning and assessment processes (Allal 2010). Although AfL as a term began with the distinction between assessment of learning which is about evaluating what has been learnt and assessment for learning which is about using evaluation to feed into the learning and teaching process and thus improve learning (Gipps 1994; McDowell et al. 2011), AfL is often formulated as formative assessment/feedback in the literature, as the following quotation illustrates:

Assessment for learning is any assessment for which the first priority in its design and practice is to serve the purpose of promoting students' learning. It thus differs from assessment designed primarily to serve the purposes of accountability, or of ranking, or of certifying competence. An assessment activity can help learning if it provides information that teachers and their students can use as feedback in assessing themselves and one another and in modifying the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged. Such assessment becomes "formative assessment" when the evidence is actually used to adapt the teaching work to meet learning needs (Black et al. 2004, p. 10).

More recently, based on a comprehensive review of the literature (e.g., Sadler 1998; Biggs 2003; Gibbs and Simpson 2005; Black et al. 2003), McDowell et al. (2011) define AfL as an assessment environment that:

- is rich in formal feedback (e.g. tutor comment; self-assessment systems),
- is rich in informal feedback through dialogic teaching and peer interaction,
- provides opportunities to try out and practice knowledge, skills and understanding,
- has assessment tasks which are authentic or relevant,
- assists students to develop independence and autonomy, and
- has an appropriate balance between formative and summative assessment (p. 750).

This formulation of the six core features of an AfL environment, according to McDowell et al., is congruent with a learning culture where assessment encourages students to understand the standards and criteria that embody what it means to do well in the subject and take responsibility for directing their own learning, where assessment engages students through appropriate tasks and provides students with opportunities to test out ideas and practice relevant skills, and where timely feedback from tutors as well as informal feedback through interaction among students themselves is

available. In light of these six core features of AfL as an assessment environment that can support students' learning, McDowell et al. have further developed a specific AfL inventory known as the Assessment for Learning Questionnaire (AfLQ). In McDowell et al.'s view, the AfLQ was developed to give a broad picture of the ways in which students experience the AfL environments, and thus to provide an indication of the extent to which AfL practices are embedded in classrooms. Their subsequent empirical study in which the AfLQ was used in university classroom settings showed that the AfLQ was sufficiently sensitive to show up the differences between different university courses with or without AfL features.

Most recently, Pat-El et al. (2013) constructed Assessment for Learning Questionnaires for Teachers (TAFL-Q) and for students (SAFLQ) for evaluating perceptions regarding AfL practices in vocational secondary classrooms using matching. The TAFL-Q and SAFL-Q, however, only capture the construct AfL in two subscales: Monitoring and Scaffolding, and fail to cover some of the underlying principles of AfL commonly discussed in the AfL literature such as assisting students to develop independence and autonomy in learning and assessment.

III. RESEARCH ON STUDENT LEARNING APPROACHES

Learning approaches have long been recognized as a prerequisite for effective application of learning strategies and as such have been subject to a great deal of research (Birenbaum and Rosenau 2006). From a phenomenographic perspective, the term approach to learning tends to be viewed as a way of characterizing what students say they do (Ellis et al. 2008). Phenomenographic research into approaches to learning has demonstrated that students vary in their approaches to learning at university and that such approaches exhibit qualitative differences (Ellis et al. 2008). In Biggs' (1987) study process model, three approaches to learning (surface, deep and achieving) are proposed. A 'deep' approach to learning is described as striving for improved understanding by applying and comparing ideas, whereas 'surface' learning involves reproductive strategies with little attempt to integrate information (Lizzio et al. 2002). The 'achieving' approach (also referred to as the 'strategic' approach) is characterized by students highly focusing on maximizing the grades earned by their efforts (Ellis et al. 2008). The achieving approach tends to relate to the particular learning context, whereas the deep and surface approaches relate to the content of the material (Birenbaum 2007). While a large body of earlier research has provided empirical evidence for the positive relationship between a deep approach to learning and study success, little research has been done to explore the strong influence of assessment on student learning processes, and how students might be stimulated to use deeper approaches to learning (Gijbels and Dochy 2006).

IV. METHODOLOGY

Participants

In all, 692 first-year students from two universities in mainland China and one university in Hong Kong took part in this study. Of them, 251 students were from a major teacher training university in Beijing in mainland China (26.7% were males and 73.3% were females, mean age 19.06); 309 were from a major provincial teacher training university in Jiangxi Province in mainland China (24.3% were males and 75.7% were females, mean age 19.80); and 132 were from a major teacher training university in Hong Kong (17.4% were males and 82.6% were females, mean age 20.70) (see Table 1 below). At the time of this study, the participants were involved in a compulsory English language proficiency enhancement course required by each of the universities. The students from mainland China in this study were broadly representative of tertiary students in China in that they were mainly mother-tongue speakers of Mandarin and had entered the university after completing six-year studies in Chinese-medium secondary schools. The Hong Kong students were also generally representative of Hong Kong university students in that they used Cantonese in their daily communication and completed their secondary education in Chinese-medium schools. Both mainland Chinese and Hong Kong students in this study, however, are generally considered to share the same Chinese (i.e. Confucian) cultural traditions (Littlewood 2001).

In mainland China, first-year university students have to take an essentially generic English proficiency course widely known as College English required by the Ministry of Education. This College English program usually aims at developing listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation skills among the students, and is characterized by using a set of unified textbooks approved by the Ministry of Education. The teaching methods are, to a great extent, text-book-based and teacher-centred.

In most universities in Hong Kong, first-year students take a compulsory generic English for Academic Purpose (EAP) course, which tends to focus on general academic reading, writing and speaking. Common activities in EAP classes include teacher input and student group or pair work involving presentations or discussions.

TABLE 1.
SAMPLE OF THE STUDY.

	Total (N=692)	Beijing (N=251)	Jiangxi (N=309)	Hong Kong (N=132)
Male	165	67	75	23
Female	527	184	234	109
Mean age (std)	19.7 (1.72)	19.06(.82)	19.80(1.15)	20.70(3.07)

Instrument

Based on the six defining features of AfL as an assessment environment stated earlier, McDowell et al. (2011) developed *Assessment for Learning Questionnaire* (AfLQ) to explore university students' experience of AfL and evaluate the extent to which AfL principles are implemented in different university courses. The AfLQ contains closed-ended rating scales (Visser, Krosnick and Lavrakas 2000) of two constructs (i.e., perceived AfL experience and student approaches to learning). The first construct, perceived AfL experience, has 3 underlying factors: 1) Staff support and module design; 2) Engagement with subject matter; 3) Peer support. The second construct, students' approaches to learning, has 2 underlying factors: 1) Deep approach; 2) Surface approach. The AfLQ thus provides data both on features of course experience related to AfL and on student approaches to learning, which fits well with the purpose of the present research. Consequently, for the questionnaire in this study, we adopted most of the questions in McDowell et al.'s questionnaire that we found applicable both in the Chinese and Hong Kong university context and in English language learning settings as this study focused on student AfL experience in university English language enhancement courses. In addition, a few question items in our questionnaire were drawn from Biggs (1987), Pintrich and De Groot (1990), and Gibbs and Simpson (2004).

The 34-item questionnaire in this study uses a five-point Likert-type scale in which 1= strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. The questions in the questionnaire for this study were written in English. Given the fact that the first language of the mainland Chinese students in this study was Mandarin, and the first language of the Hong Kong students in this study was Cantonese, we believed it best to present the questionnaire bilingually to the students in this study. Hence, the questions were translated into Mandarin and Cantonese versions respectively by colleagues from mainland China and Hong Kong. To further ensure the validity of the questionnaire, the Mandarin and Cantonese versions were independently translated back into English by two bilingual researchers to see whether anything could be misinterpreted. The four translators then met to discuss their translations and reach consensus on the Mandarin and Cantonese versions. In addition, one class of students the lead author was teaching were invited to fill in the questionnaire and to comment on the questions. Based on their input, we made some slight changes to the wording of some items. This process helped to ensure that the questions in the questionnaire matched the research focus and the wordings were appropriate to both mainland Chinese and Hong Kong students involved in this study.

The questionnaires were distributed to students by their English teachers in normal class time at each of the three universities. Before distribution of the questionnaire, the students were told that the questionnaire was anonymous, and they were also assured that their responses would not affect their status in their English courses.

Method of analysis

While the questionnaire used in our study is based on McDowell et al.'s (2011) AfLQ, it is nonetheless distinctive in that a few question items in our questionnaire were drawn from other sources such Pintrich and De Groot (1990), and Gibbs and Simpson (2004). Because our questionnaire has a clear theoretical lineage, confirmatory rather than exploratory factor analysis, was conducted to test whether students' responses could be clearly differentiated into the expected underlying dimensions. Pearson correlation analyses were conducted to understand the relationship between students' approaches to learning and their perceptions of AfL practice. In order to see whether perceptions of the AfL practice and learning approaches were significantly different between the three Chinese populations, a MANOVA was conducted.

V. RESULTS

SPSS was used for processing and analyzing the quantitative data. Using factor analysis allowed us to condense the underlying dimensions or constructs to three categories of AfL experience and three categories of learning approaches (see Table 2 below). The three factors of AfL experience were: 1) Engagement with subject matter (Cronbach's alpha coefficient .80); 2) Teacher feedback and support (Cronbach's alpha coefficient .812); 3) Collaborative and independent learning (Cronbach's alpha coefficient .644). The three factors of learning approaches were: 1) Surface approach to learning (Cronbach's alpha coefficient .664); 2) Achieving approach to learning (Cronbach's alpha coefficient .580); 3) Deep approach to learning (Cronbach's alpha coefficient .644). These factors generally confirm both the AfL and student learning approach dimensions or constructs reported in McDowell et al.'s (2011) study, providing further empirical evidence concerning the conceptual structure of the questionnaire. In addition, the Cronbach alphas fall within an acceptable range compared with similar previous studies (Birenbaum 2007, Ellis et al. 2008, Furnham et al. 2011)

Table 3 and Figure 1 below present the means and standard deviations for the different scales of the questionnaire for each of the three groups of students involved in this study. Firstly, when looking at all the study participants (N=692), with regard to students' AfL experience, students agreed more strongly with *collaborative and independent learning* and *teacher feedback and support* than *engagement with subject matter*. The two aspects of AfL, i.e., *collaborative and independent learning* and *teacher feedback and support* appeared to be both generally well perceived within Beijing and Hong Kong groups. Within the Jiangxi group, *collaborative and independent learning* appeared to be their major preferred AfL practice. With regard to students' approaches to learning, it is clear that *deep learning approach* was least positively perceived within each of the three groups, and all the students appeared to rely more on *achieving approach* and *surface learning approach* than *deep learning approach*. Secondly, all the three groups perceived *achieving approach* fairly positively. Thirdly, the Hong Kong group demonstrated a greater preference towards *surface learning approach*.

TABLE 2.
QUESTIONNAIRE SCALES, NUMBER OF ITEMS, AND RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS (FOR THE ENTIRE SAMPLE IN THIS STUDY)

Scale	number of items	Cronbach's α
Engagement with subject matter	5	.80
Teacher feedback and support	6	.812
Collaborative and independent learning	3	.644
Surface approach to learning	4	.664
Achieving approach to learning	5	.580
Deep approach to learning	3	.644

TABLE 3.
MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR THE DIFFERENT SCALES OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN THIS STUDY.

	Mean (Std) Total (N=692)	Mean (Std) Beijing (N= 251)	Mean (Std) Jiangxi (N=309)	Mean (Std) HongKong (N=132)
Engagement with subject matter	3.186 (.686)	3.309 (.659)	3.158 (.626)	3.105 (.825)
Teacher feedback and support	3.496 (.618)	3.612 (.516)	3.387 (.607)	3.548 (.753)
Collaborative and independent learning	3.672 (.583)	3.598 (.581)	3.764 (.548)	3.652 (.637)
Surface approach to learning	3.323 (.737)	3.264 (.729)	3.226 (.727)	3.654 (.654)
Achieving approach to learning	3.586 (.481)	3.526 (.471)	3.643 (.462)	3.586 (.510)
Deep approach to learning	3.067 (.655)	2.981 (.650)	3.001 (.621)	3.333 (.622)

TABLE 4.
THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR LEARNING APPROACHES AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF AFL PRACTICE (N=692).

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Engagement with subject matter	1	.606**	-.135**	.392**	.304**	.203**
2.Teacher feedback and support		1	-.067	.343**	.271**	.179**
3.Surface approach to learning			1	.019	-.037	-.031
4.Achieving approach to learning				1	.357**	.294**
5.Collaborative and independent learning					1	.156**
6.Deep approach to learning						1

TABLE 5.
THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR LEARNING APPROACHES AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF AfL PRACTICE IN BEIJING (N=251)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Engagement with subject matter	1	.566**	-.096	.468**	.398**	.312**
2.Teacher feedback and support		1	-.027	.408**	.311**	.246**
3.Surface approach to learning			1	-.027	-.001	-.102
4.Achieving approach to learning				1	.364**	.313**
5.Collaborative and independent learning					1	.306**
6.Deep approach to learning						1

TABLE 6.
THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR LEARNING APPROACHES AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF AfL PRACTICE IN JIANGXI (N=309)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Engagement with subject matter	1	.539**	-.114	.347**	.232**	.207**
2.Teacher feedback and support		1	-.117**	.302**	.316**	.111*
3.Surface approach to learning			1	.003	.001	-.080
4.Achieving approach to learning				1	.383**	.298**
5.Collaborative and independent learning					1	.061
6.Deep approach to learning						1

TABLE 7.
THE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR LEARNING APPROACHES AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF AfL PRACTICE IN HONG KONG (N=132)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Engagement with subject matter	1	.753**	-.212*	.431**	.365**	.261**
2.Teacher feedback and support		1	-.107	.452**	.269**	.251**
3.Surface approach to learning			1	.163	-.132	-.043
4.Achieving approach to learning				1	.252**	.297**
5.Collaborative and independent learning					1	.146
6.Deep approach to learning						1

When looking at all the study participants (N=629), the results indicate a significant positive correlation between all aspects of AfL practice and two of the three learning approach factors (i.e., achieving or deep approach to learning) (see Table 4). For example, there was a significant positive correlation between *teacher feedback and support*, *collaborative and independent learning* and students adopting an *achieving or deep approach to learning*. This means that students taking an achieving or deep approach to learning may be generally inclined to make greater use of various AfL features in their learning settings. Interestingly, the results also revealed that a *surface approach to learning* was negatively correlated to all aspects of AfL practice. For example, there was a significant negative correlation between *surface approach to learning* and *engagement with subject matter*. It is thus possible that in the Chinese and Hong Kong university learning environment, the more AfL features incorporated into the classroom teaching and assessment processes, the less likely students adopt a surface approach to learning.

To see whether the mean scores in perceptions of the AfL practice and learning approaches were significantly different between the three groups, a MANOVA was conducted. The results indicate that the three groups differed significantly on AfL experience and learning approaches ($F(12, 1264) = 11.26, p < .001$). With regard to AfL practice, the results indicate that Beijing (mean 3.309) scored significantly higher than both Jiangxi (mean 3.158) and Hong Kong (mean 3.105) on *engagement with subject matter*; Beijing (mean 3.612) scored significantly higher than Jiangxi (mean 3.387) on *Teacher feedback and support*, and Jiangxi also scored significantly lower than Hong Kong (mean 3.548) on this factor. In terms of *collaborative and independent learning*, Jiangxi (mean 3.764) scored significantly higher than Beijing (mean 3.598); Jiangxi was also higher than Hong Kong (mean 3.652) on this factor but the differences did not reach significance level. With regard to learning approaches, Hong Kong (mean 3.654) differed significantly from Beijing (mean 3.264) and Jiangxi (mean 3.226) on surface learning approach; Jiangxi (mean 3.643) was significantly higher than Beijing (mean 3.526) on *achieving approach*; finally, Hong Kong (mean 3.333) differed significantly from both Beijing (mean 2.981) and Jiangxi (mean 3.001) on *deep learning approach*.

Within the three groups, the patterns of relationships between approaches to learning and AfL factors somewhat varied. For example, Hong Kong group was characterized by demonstrating a strong positive relationship between an achieving approach to learning and aspects of AfL practice such as *engagement with subject matter* and *teacher feedback/support* (see Table 7). Compared with Beijing and Hong Kong, Jiangxi was characterized by the lowest-level correlation between *deep approach to learning* and AfL practice, but Jiangxi demonstrated stronger correlation between an *achieving approach to learning* and one AfL factor, i.e., *collaborative and independent learning* (see Table 6). Among the three groups, Beijing demonstrated the most robust positive correlation between a *deep approach to learning* and most aspects of AfL practice (see table 5).

VI. DISCUSSION

The data in this study show that all participants responded fairly positively to *collaborative and independent learning*, suggesting that students might rationalize collaboration and autonomy as part of their classroom experience and hence consider these aspects of AfL practice a crucial part of learning. The formulation of such perceptions could be related to the current ongoing quality education campaign as part of curricula reform in the educational sector in both mainland China and Hong Kong. An important emphasis of this quality education campaign is that learning and assessment need to enable students to take responsibility for directing their own learning and interact with their fellow students to share and broaden ideas and learning strategies. The finding thus seems to bear out the research on the impact of AfL practice on the development in students of 'meta-cognition' and the ability to gain control over their own learning (Steadman 1998; Gibbs and Simpson 2005), and challenge an assumption frequently put forward in the literature that Chinese students rely on their teacher as the ultimate authority and only valuable source of learning.

Gibbs and Simpson (2005) emphasize that students need appropriate feedback on performance to benefit from courses. Learning and assessment environment thus needs to provide students with frequent opportunities to receive suggestions for improvement. Unlike traditional assessment practices that are usually good at evaluation but fail to provide students with advice and support to improve their own learning (Brown 1999), a major characteristic of AfL is teachers providing students with the skills and strategies for taking the next steps in their learning. Among the three groups of participants in this study, the Beijing and Hong Kong students demonstrated a good level of endorsement of *teacher feedback and support*, suggesting that good effort was probably placed by lecturers into giving feedback to students in the English language enhancement courses in these two universities. The findings also show that Jiangxi group perceived *teacher feedback and support* significantly less positively. A possible explanation is that teachers involved in teaching this group of students were less experienced in integrating this aspect of AfL within classroom teaching and learning than teachers in the other two universities. An important way in which AfL can be effectively implemented in classrooms is to ensure that teachers need to be proficient in using a range of assessment techniques in the classroom. Wiliam and his colleague (Wiliam and Thompson 2008, Wiliam 2011) outline five teacher-oriented formative strategies that are essential to AfL integration within teaching and learning processes: 1) Clarifying and sharing expectations and assessment criteria; 2) Designing learning situations that elicit evidence of student understanding; 3) Providing constructive feedback; 4) Activating students as resources for each other in their learning; 5) Activating students as owners of their own learning. Given such an important role of teachers in the enactment of AfL in classrooms, the above result suggests a need to develop teachers' capacity for integrating various forms of AfL practice into their classrooms through effective professional development.

Previous research suggests that in universities, a common practice that promotes AfL is through design of assessment tasks which result in high-quality learning and which students find authentic and relevant as these tasks give them a sense that they are learning something valuable to their long-term personal development (Biggs 2003; Swaffield 2011). In this study, all participants perceived *engagement with subject matter* less positively than other aspects of AfL practice. Such less positive perception might be shaped by students' own experiences of learning and teaching practices in university English enhancement classes where students might have little opportunity to experience problem-based learning or real world' tasks requiring students to demonstrate their knowledge and skills in meaningful contexts.

Most interestingly, this study provides clear-cut evidence on the relationships between the student experience of AfL and their approaches to learning. All aspects of students' perceived AfL experience (i.e., *teacher feedback and support*, *collaborative and independent learning*, and *engagement with subject matter*) were significantly positively correlated to two of the three learning approach factors, i.e., *achieving or deep approach to learning*. The results also show that there was a negative correlation between *a surface approach to learning* and all the *three aspects of AfL practice*. Particularly worthy to mention is that *surface approach to learning* was significantly negatively correlated to *engagement with subject matter*. This is in the context of an assessment reform agenda in mainland China and in Hong Kong that has focused on 'assessment for learning' rather than 'assessment of learning'. The statistics here suggest a clear alignment between perceived AfL experience and students tending to adopt achieving or deep learning approaches. This clear alignment between AfL practice and quality learning approaches thus provides support to the case for making *assessment for learning* the prime target in the ongoing curricular assessment reform both in mainland China and in Hong Kong. Such outcome can also be useful in persuading skeptics of the value of AfL practices, and in this sense promotion of AfL can contribute to pedagogic change and learning quality enhancement. In McDowell et al.'s (2011) study, they found that within courses in which AfL features were embedded, there was a higher level of use of deep approaches to learning among students when compared with courses that had not used AfL approaches. They also found that students who scored more highly on the deep approach were more positive with regard to staff support, and reported a higher level of engagement with subject matter. This study thus supports McDowell et al.'s earlier observation.

VII. CONCLUSION

Previous research shows that context is a powerful influence on students' perceptions about assessment environment. The majority of research studies on students' perceptions of university assessment environment have so far been

conducted in western societies. Drawing on these studies of students' experience of learning assessment conducted in western societies, this study investigates in three Chinese populations involved in university English language enhancement courses: a) students' perceptions of AfL practice; b) the relationships between students' perceptions of AfL practice and their learning approaches. The study documents a clear alignment between perceived AfL experience and tendency to adopt achieving and deep learning approaches among the students. The study suggests that there is variation in the extent to which AfL practices might have been implemented in English enhancement courses across three different mainland China and Hong Kong universities. Different aspects of AfL practice also revealed different perceived levels of endorsement among the students in these universities. It is hoped that this understanding can help to understand the extent to which AfL practice, as proclaimed in ongoing curricula reform in both mainland China and Hong Kong, is effective in promoting students' learning in university classrooms. Significantly, the findings of this study point to the importance of effective professional development that is essential to teachers' acquisition of the capability to provide constructive feedback and promote students' active engagement in learning and assessment activities. The study thus forms a basis for further research on potential barriers to the integration of AfL within university classroom teaching and learning. It needs to be pointed out that this study has not investigated teachers' actual classroom AfL practices in the university environment. To what extent students' perceptions mirror actual practices is therefore not known. Additional qualitative observational research in classrooms is therefore needed to verify students' experience of classroom assessment practices and to obtain a fine-grained understanding of the effects of AfL practices on student learning in different disciplines.

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A Study of Values of *Royong* Verses and Their Implementation in Local Content Learning

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Abstract—This research is a qualitative research that aimed to study, analyze, and implement the values contained in the *royong* verses of Makassar. The data obtained was analyzed by the researchers by using Semiotic analysis popularized by Michael Riffaterre. Techniques of collecting data of values and the their implementation in local content learning were interviews, recording, and library research. The results of this research revealed the values of *royong* verses collected by the researchers. These values were then divided into three parts, 1) Personal Values, 2) Social Values, and 3) Religious Values. The personal values include; compassion, obedience, intelligence and diligence, self-esteem, kindness, Careful speech or not inviting danger, alertness, independence, hard work, patience, Harmony of words and deeds or readiness and action, persistence or consistency, self-esteem maintenance, clever or intelligent and knowledgeable, Avoidance of despair or patience, a sense of pain, A sense of obligation; motivation, will, intention and determination, not arrogant or humble. Meanwhile, the social values consist of Thinking before doing, Honesty and true words, Obedience to parents, Belief and true character, Upholding dignity and prestige, participative, responsive to the environment. The third values, religious, include Faith, devotion and obedience to One Almighty God, Power of effort and plea to One Almighty God, Fate or surrendering to the absolute will of the Creator. These values were then implemented in the local content learning in elementary schools (SD) located in Takalar regency.

Index Terms—values, implementation, oral literature, *royong*

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Taum (1997, p. 13), literature refers to imaginative works or fiction, or the use of a beautiful and useful language that signifies other things. Mursal Esten (1978, p. 9) argues that Literature is the disclosure of artistic and imaginative facts as the manifestation of human life (and society) through language as the medium and has positive effects on human life (humanity).

Teeuw (Endraswara, 2011, p. 151) holds that oral literature is still present in various corners of society. Oral literature found in remote areas is usually purer because people in these areas are not familiar with technology and are also illiterate, compared with oral literature in the midst of urban society where oral literature is just like “unclear sounds” because it is shifted by the technological sophistication and the influence of foreign cultures.

According to Endraswara (2011, p.150), studies on oral literature is in need of precision and thoroughness. Therefore, sometimes some oral literatures are pure and some are not pure. Pure oral literatures, for example, are fairy tales, legends, myths, or stories spread orally in society. Oral literature that is not pure usually mingles with oral tradition in society. This mingled oral literature is sometimes only a fragment of sacred stories. It may be that the story only comes from incomplete ancestral traditions.

The forms of oral literature are prose (eg, myths, fairy tales and legends), folk poems (such as verse, gurindam, and pantun), performing arts such as wayang, traditional expressions (sayings and proverbs), folk songs, etc. The development of oral literature in Indonesian literature is influenced by several foreign cultures, such as Chinese culture, Hinduism and Buddhism, Indian culture, and Arabic culture. The oral literature influenced by these cultures was brought by way of trade, marriage, and religion.

The function of oral literature is not merely a need of art, but there is also education to be conveyed therein, such as moral values and religious values in society. One oral literature pertaining to morals is *royong*. *Royong* is an oral literature containing life advices.

Philosophically, the importance of research on the implementation of *royong* values is based on three main aspects, the ontology, axiology and epistemology. Ontologically, *royong* in Makassar community is a literary work in the form of lyrical prose the presentation of which is in the form of songs.

The expression of oral literature in society is always carried out with amazing passion and creativity, which of course is aesthetic, symbolic, and metaphorical. Originally, literary forms were folk tales delivered orally from mouth to mouth and from generation to generation (Ikram 1997, p. 220), which then evolved into various forms such as poetry, lyrical prose, songs, and so on.

Axiologically, the spread and inheritance of oral literature is usually done through oral tradition or by an example accompanied by gesture and memorization from one generation to the next. Thus, oral literature in its development has become the result of a traditional culture.

This oral literature has special features that distinguish it from written literature. Amir (2013, p. 78) explains that the characteristics of oral literature include: (1) oral literature exists in the form of performances, in many cases accompanied by musical instruments, even dances, (2) entertainment and education are dominant elements in it, (3) oral literature uses local or regional languages, at least regional dialect, and (4) oral literature uses the poetry of the concerned speech community.

In addition, Ansor et al (2007, p. 2) defines oral literature as one part of the oral tradition. Oral literature is spread from one person to another, so the oral tradition develops in the middle of the community by using language as the main medium.

Furthermore, Nursito (2000, p. 114) explains that oral literature belongs to the old literature. The general characteristics of the old literature are; (1) in line with the attitude of the conservative and traditional society, which means that the old literature is static, (2) the old society prioritizes mutual cooperation. Therefore, the old literature as a product of society is owned together. That is why the poets do not want to accentuate his name and announce his work to the community.

Hutomo (1991, p. 3) states that oral literature has some features, among others; 1) spread from mouth to mouth, the expression of culture spread in terms of time and space is transmitted by word of mouth, 2) born from a village-based society, out-of-town community, or illiterate society, 3) describing the cultural characteristics of one society for oral literature is a cultural heritage that portrays the past, but also mentions new things (according to social issues), therefore oral literature is also called living fossil, 4) poetic, 5) consisting of various versions, 6) not emphasizing the fact or truth, but emphasizing the fantasy aspect, which is not accepted by modern society, and, however, having functions in society, and 7) using everyday oral language.

According to Sudardi, (2002, p. 2) in the communication of oral literature, there are four important elements to achieve such communication. These four elements of communication must be present simultaneously in the presentation of oral literature. Those four elements are: (a) *artist*, (b) *story*, (c) *performance*, and (d) *audience*.

In addition to oral literature, in society there is also oral tradition which in its development follows the social condition of the society. According to Pudentia (2008, p. 377), oral tradition in its various forms is very complex and contains not only stories, myths and fairy tales, but also contains various things concerning life and the life of the community such as local wisdom, value system, belief and religion system, as well as various art products.

Oral literature is part of the culture of Indonesian archipelago of which existence fades because oral literature is only used by certain people who know and understand oral literature. This will be one of the reasons that oral literature will become extinct if there is no attempt by the younger generation or caring people to preserve it. Learning and research in conservation efforts for oral literature both through non-formal and formal education are also far beyond the expectation.

This axiological reality shows a gap between the expectation and reality; between the cultural heritage and the works of oral literature and the reluctance to preserve these works of oral literature.

This is what inspired the researchers to choose one oral literature as an effort to introduce and preserve the oral literature for the younger generation, for education, and for the Indonesian archipelago. The researchers also realized that what they did by trying to select one of the oral literatures to be investigated in the effort of preservation was also still relatively simple. However, the researchers assumed that nothing is worthless as long as there are intention and effort towards preservation and improvement. Therefore, this research is an effort to contribute to the preservation of oral literature especially Makassarese oral literature, *royong*.

Preservation of oral literature also faces obstacles because in order to be able to understand and interpret an oral literature it requires an effort that is not easy. Besides knowing the texts of oral literature structurally, understanding and interpretation also require some elements and things that are beyond the texts of oral literature. This is what makes people sometimes feel reluctant to learn oral literature. All this time, oral literature especially certain oral literatures like *gotong* is only considered as a tool or medium for the sake of community traditionally, for example, as a tool for wedding ritual, for putting child to sleep, for worship, and others. This assumption will ultimately make oral literature less introduced and taught in formal education. It is also because oral literature like *royong* in its use is not done arbitrarily or in other words the use of oral literature *royong* has requirements that must be met both by the performers of *royong* and by those who need *royong*.

Oral literature in one area has meaning that is always different from other areas. Oral literature usually uses the language that refers to connotative meaning, so that oral literature is often difficult to interpret. The interpretation of the oral literature such as *gotong* can not be done only by referring to its text alone.

The interpretation must involve the performers of *royong* (*paroyong*) and those who understand *royong*. This also sometimes causes reluctance to undertake research in order to preserve oral literature.

There is a habit that is often done by mothers in Makassar before putting their babies to sleep. They will sing a bedtime song, sung without a musical instrument with certain verses in Makassar language while the baby is swinging slowly until his/her eyes are closed. This song among Makassar people is called *royong*.

Epistemologically, beside being understood as a form of artistic or rhythmic oral literature, *royong* is also known to have social and cultural functions in its supporting community. *Royong* in Makassar tradition is sacred. In essence, *royong* constitutes a typical traditional prayer presented in the form of singing (vocal music) and contains religious symbolic values. As a prayer *royong* for Makassar people is a mystical institution (Sulkarnaen, 2010, p. 86).

Royong is considered to have a very important role and function, so it is always presented and becomes part of a ritual performed. *Royong* is believed to connect the human world and the unseen world (Sulkarnaen, 2010, p. 18). Makassar people believe that *royong* can keep danger and evil spirits away (Solihing, 2004, p. 4).

II. METHODOLOGY

This research is a qualitative research with descriptive method. In accordance with Bogdan and Taylor (in Moleong, 2005, p. 4), qualitative research is a research procedure that produces descriptive data in the form of written or spoken words of people or the performers of *royong* that can be observed. Data of this research consists of primary data and secondary data. According to Umar (2003, p. 56), primary data refers to data obtained directly by the researchers as an object of writing. In-depth interviews were used to obtain data from the informants to be interviewed. Interviews that were conducted by the researchers were the interviews with the use of guidelines (*interview guide*) for more in-depth interviews focusing on the issues investigated. Interview guidelines do not usually contain detailed questions, but merely an outline of what kinds of data or information to collect from the informants. Meanwhile, according to Sugiyono (2005, p. 62) secondary data refers to data that are not directly provided to the researchers that, for example, a research must be conducted through people or document searching. This kind of data is obtained using literature study conducted on many books and obtained on the basis of notes relating to research. In this study, the researchers acted as a single instrument.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

In this chapter, the researchers describe the results of the research in the form of data analysis and discussion based on the semiotic analysis popularized by Michael Riffaterre. The data analysis was conducted to determine values contained in the *royong* verses spread in several regencies in South Sulawesi.

A. Results on Values of Royong Verses

The values contained in the text of *royong* that have been collected by the researchers are as follows; *Cui royong Cui Nilakborok* verses contains religious values (Power of efforts and pleas to One Almighty God) including 'holy spirit please come over to this child born out of happiness, I give you (addressed to the child) a prayer and make you a source of medicine'. Furthermore, *royong* verses sung by Hj. Siyang Daeng Saga contain personal values consisting of a) compassion 'Grow up to be an adult with establishment my son. May you have a long life and have happiness. I hope you share that happiness with me too', b) intelligence and diligence 'If you later grow up and become an established person, enrich your knowledge. Hopefully, you will have much knowledge a provision for yourself', c) clever or intelligent and knowledgeable 'If you grow up, I will recommend you to recite the Koran. May you finish your recitation and also finish your school'. The next value is the social value that includes Obedience to parents' 'Grow up to an adult with establishment my son. May you have a long life and have happiness, I hope you share that happiness to me too'. The next value is the religious value (Power of efforts and pleas to One Almighty God) 'To all Angels and to forty Walis, please help my son. Unite his soul with his body so that he can sleep soundly tonight'.

The next values are derived from the *royong* verses sung by Chaeruddin Hakim. The personal values in it include, a) compassion 'My son, even though your food is gold and diamond is its side dish, remember my son the sacrifices your mother has done to you', b) Careful speech or not inviting danger, and alertness 'May you be happy my son, do not hurt others' feeling, do not pick a quarrel with anyone. I only ask one thing, may you be happy', c) independence 'Thou shalt not humiliate yourself, it is humiliating to expect compassion from others', d) a sense of pain 'You are my son. A child who grows self-esteem, shame and pain you cultivate in you', e) A sense of obligation; motivation, will, intention and determination 'I hope you are happy my son, may you have all the joy so that your shoot and stalk also feel the happiness'. The next is the social value which consists of a) Honesty and true words 'You are my son. Have good manners, be noble-hearted. Be polite to everyone', b) upholding dignity and prestige 'you are my son, from the very topmost place, born from the the land full of traditions, uphold the traditions', c) participative 'You are my son, from the topmost place, missed by many people. May you be happy and remember those in difficult situations', d) Responsive to the environment 'You are my son, son. Be courteous and friendly to your neighbors'.

The next verses of *royong* are sung by Hj. Syamsiah of which personal values consist of a) Obedience 'Who makes Aco cry loudly?, his own mother for not being obedient', b) self-esteem 'Although your pole of your house is gold, even though the stairs are diamond I will not go upstairs if I am disappointed and My anger has culminated', c) patience 'because of my poverty, I have my feelings strengthened, even though I am given feeling of blandness, I still make

sweetness happiness', d) Avoidance of despair 'I have been driven out by disappointment and anger, But I am still here waiting for happiness', e) Not arrogant or humble 'I am not gold or sparkling diamond, I am only brass but can not be tested'. The next values are social values (thinking before doing) 'Regret is like that, never at the beginning, always comes last with a state of astonishment'. Religious values (faith, devotion, and obedience to One Almighty God) 'I surrender everything to my Lord, and I make Prophet Muhammad my strongest fence'.

The Next is the values contained in the *royong* verses sung by Daeng Sakking. Its personal values include; A) Kindness 'Oh my dear, grow up to be a kind person, and also be kind to others', b) Harmony of words and deeds or readiness and action 'Oh my Lord, make my son a good man, make him a golden child, make him follow your orders, strengthen his soul, strengthen his words as well. My son is a good boy'. The results of the analysis of the next *royong* values came from Kartini Daeng Caya. The values found include; Personal Value a) Hard work or work ethic 'Though on the highest mountain', b) Persistence or consistency 'He will climb because there is happiness above it'. The next values are social value (belief and true character) 'May happiness be granted by Allah SWT.' The next is religious value (Power of efforts and pleas to One Almighty God) 'Obtaining blessings from Allah SWT.'

B. Implementation of Values in Local Content Learning

Based on the analysis of *royong* verses, the values that can be implemented in local content subject in elementary schools. However, the researchers only selected some schools located in Takalar regency. These schools were State Primary School (SDN) Number 31 Lau, State Primary School (SDN) number 139 Inpres Benteng Sanrobone, and SDN State Primary School (SDN) number 194 Inpres Taipanorang.

The values of *royong* verses in local content learning were determined by the researchers to be implemented in higher grades; grade four (4), five (5) and six (6). The following are the explanations of values that can be implemented in local content subject.

Personal value (harmony of words and deeds) in *royong* verses sung by Daeng Sakking is 'Oh my Lord, make my son a good man, make him a golden boy, make him follow your orders, strengthen his soul, and strengthen his words. My son is a good boy'. This value can be implemented in local content subject written by Fattah Tika in 2005 page 10 at State Primary School (SDN) Number 31 Lau Sanrobone subdistrict Takalar regency for fourth grade (4); 'speaking politely'. The hope desired by the *royong* performer and the author of the book is to make children adhere to his words and speak politely.

Social value (thinking before doing) in *royong* verses sung by Hj. Syamsiah stanza 23 'Regret is like that, never at the beginning, always comes last with a state of astonishment' can be implemented in local content subject written by Kembong Daeng in 2012 page 15 at SD Negeri Number 139 Inpres Benteng Sanrobone Sanrobone subdistrict Takalar regency for fifth grade; 'Quickly repent before you die, Do not regret until death comes to you.

Personal values (Honesty and True Words) sung by Chaeruddin Hakim stanza 12 'You are my son. Have good manners. Be noble-hearted. Be polite to everyone' can be implemented in local content subject written by Fattah Tika in 2008 page 16 at State Primary School (SDN) Number 194 Inpres Taipanaorang North Galesong subdistrict Takalar regency for sixth grade; 'Forgive me if my words offensive to you.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study used semiotic analysis to find meaning and values contained in the text of *royong* that have been collected by the researchers.

Hermeneutic reading helps the researchers or the readers in interpreting, here are some examples of hermeneutic reading;

May you repay me (with) sweetness (*royong* text of Daeng Sakking stanza 2). The expectation of a mother is not when her child grows up she gives him/her sugar or anything that tastes sweet, but *Tekne* or 'sweet' in question is that the child repays his/her mother who has given birth to, nurtured and raised him/her.

Giving something sweet is a representative of the word 'happiness', but the *royong* performer or *paroyong* does not explicitly convey this meaning to the listeners or the child. This proves that the text of *royong* requires a second level of reading known as hermeneutics (retroactive).

After doing a second level of reading, to get the values contained in the text of *royong* the researchers used cultural Taxonomy. Jufri (2007, p.122) formulated three aspects of value with several indicators called cultural value model that can be used as a reference for research on flexible culture. These three aspects of value are (1) personal value, (2) social value, and (3) religious value.

The values that the researchers have found are consistent with what is in the textbook of local content subject. The existing values apparently can be implemented in local content subject. The following are some examples of values implemented in local content subject.

Personal value (Obedience) can be found in the text of *royong* sung by Hj. Syamsiah; 'Who makes Aco cry loudly?, his own mother for not being obedient'. This value can be implemented in Local content subject in the textbook entitled *Lontarak Gowa Basa Mangkasarak* for elementary school students grade 4 (four) material *Kana Alusuk* (subtle words), sub-material *Paruntuk Kana* (Proverb), 'Listening to Words' (Tika 2005, p.23). This value encourages us to keep

listening to words or commands from people older than us, especially from our parents. Listening to words means refers to someone who obeys commands.

Based on the results of this research and the discussion of the values of *royong* verses in local content learning, the researchers have come to the conclusions that:

First, based on the results of the analysis or heuristic reading, it was found the meaning of the first word of the text or *royong* verses sung. The first meaning provided by the researchers proved that there are some *royong* verses that have meanings but have not been revealed. Therefore, the researchers performed a second level of reading or commonly called hermeneutics/retroactive. Meanings that have not been revealed in the first reading were revealed in this second level of reading. However, the second level of reading was not separated from the meaning to be conveyed by the performer of *royong* and the researchers' interpretation.

Second, the results of data analysis or the first reading (heuristic) and the second reading (retroactive/hermeneutic), revealed the values contained in the *royong* verses. The values found were determined by using cultural Taxonomy. These values are; a) Personal values consisting of compassion, obedience, intelligence and diligence, precision, self-esteem, honesty, courage, careful speech, independence, hard work, patience, perfection of life, harmony of words and deeds, persistence, keeping promises, self-esteem maintenance, clever, avoidance of despair, dedication, firmness, and not arrogant. b) Social values consisting of thinking before doing, generosity, carefulness in earning a living, compassion, togetherness, honesty and true words, freedom, obedience to parents, fairness, belief and true character, communicative in seeking the truth, Accepting the views of others, upholding dignity and prestige of the family, participative, solidarity, responsive to the environment, responsibility and affection, not quickly believing information from others. c) Religious values consisting of immortality, majesty, greatness, Faith, devotion, and obedience to One Almighty God, Power of efforts and pleas to One Almighty God, nobleness, honor, and holiness.

Third, the values found in the *royong* verses were then implemented in the local content subject. In this research, the researchers selected three elementary schools in Takalar regency. These schools are; A) SDN State Primary School (SDN) Number 31 Lau Sanrobone subdistrict, b) State Primary School (SDN) Number 139 Inpres Benteng Sanrobone Sanrobone subdistrict, c) State Primary School (SDN) Number 194 Inpres Taipanaorang North Galesong subdistrict. However, in this research, the researchers only took higher grades, namely fourth grade, fifth grade, and sixth grade. In accordance with the initial observation conducted by the researchers, the values contained in the *royong* verses are highly suitable to be implemented in higher-grades.

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Construction and Deconstruction of Imagined Community—A Comparative Study of Daniel Defoe’s *Robinson Crusoe* and J. M. Coetzee’s *Foe* in Light of Nationalism

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Abstract—This paper makes a comparative study of Daniel Defoe’s *Robinson Crusoe* and J. M. Coetzee’s *Foe* in light of nationalism. *Robinson Crusoe* and *Foe* have been studied comparatively from the perspective of post-colonialism and postmodernism. But they haven’t been studied in light of nationalism. This paper argues that Defoe’s *Robinson Crusoe* contributed to form the nation of England as an imagined community, shaped “Englishness” and Euro-centrism, but J. M. Coetzee’s *Foe* deconstructed “Englishness” and Euro-centrism, aroused the national imagination of the Africans by rewriting it, so as to expose the fact that Euro-centrism was constructed by language, indict the Dutch and English colonial administration in South Africa and its profound and lasting hurt: the deprivation of the rights of speech, the destruction of their culture, and encourage the Africans to eliminate cultural inferiority and discrimination by creating new voice.

Index Terms—*Robinson Crusoe*, *Foe*, imagined community, nationalism, construction, deconstruction

I. INTRODUCTION

Daniel Defoe’s *Robinson Crusoe* is well-known both in England and all over the world. It’s one of the forerunners of the English realistic novel. By creating an enterprising English colonizer Robinson, who is the representative of the English bourgeoisie of the eighteenth century, who “was the dream of that era” (Xu, 2007, p.54), Defoe aroused the national imagination of the English people, established the national imagination of “Englishness” typical of Robinson, and contributed greatly to shaping Euro-centrism.

J. M. Coetzee’s *Foe* can be seen as a postmodernist and postcolonial rewriting of Daniel Defoe’s *Robinson Crusoe*. It’s a parody of *Robinson Crusoe*. *Robinson Crusoe* is about the experience of Robinson Crusoe—a castaway. And most parts of the novel are written in the form of diary. The first part of *Foe* is the experience of a female castaway—Susan Barton. The second part is written in the form of Susan Barton’s diaries to talk with the writer Mr. Foe about the telling of the story of Crusoe. In *Foe*, Coetzee kept the main characters in *Robinson Crusoe*, such as Crusoe (with a slight change from Crusoe to Cruso in *Foe*) and Friday, but added a female character—Susan Barton (who acted as the narrator) and Mr. Foe, also a writer in the novel. (In order to separate Robinson Crusoe in *Robinson Crusoe* from Cruso in *Foe*, Robinson Crusoe is called Robinson in this paper.) Foe is the original name of Daniel Defoe. “Defoe later added the aristocratic-sounding “De” to his name, and on occasion claimed descent from the family of De Beau Faux” (Wikipedia). By changing Defoe to Foe, Coetzee sent Defoe back to his original name, and thus deconstructed Defoe’s construction of his name, disclosed the truth that everything can be constructed by words to serve one’s respective purpose.

The purpose of J. M. Coetzee’s keeping the names of these characters is to deconstruct them. By subverting the hero Crusoe created by Defoe, J. M. Coetzee deconstructed Euro-centrism. Coetzee disclosed the fact that the Europeans’ superiority was not innate, but made up by the Europeans themselves, among whom the novelists like Daniel Defoe played an active part. And thus he deconstructed the imagining of the English people of their national spirit of being superior colonizers, and constructed the national imagination of Africa.

A lot of comparative studies had been done on *Robinson Crusoe* and *Foe* by scholars at abroad and at home. Some scholars studied *Foe* as a rewriting of *Robinson Crusoe* from the perspective of post-colonialism and postmodernism. Some scholars studied *Foe* as a revamping of the canonical novel *Robinson Crusoe* to “highlight their respective ideological and intellectual differences peculiar to the novelists’ own historical positionality” (Lu, 2007, p.30).

The previous researches have paved way for the interpretation of these two novels, but as far as the author of this paper knows, they haven’t touched on the two novels’ ideological role in arousing national imagination of each author’s country, so this paper attempts to analyze the construction of nation by these two novels with the concept of nation as imagined communities posed by Benedict Anderson.

Benedict Anderson (1991) defined nation as:

It is an imagined political community—and imagined as both inherently limited and sovereign. (p.6)

It is imagined because the members of even the smallest nation will never know most of their fellow-members, meet them, or even hear of them, yet in the minds of each lives the image of their communion. (p.6)

With his novel *Robinson Crusoe*, Daniel Defoe contributed to form the national imagination of the English people, and constructed “Englishness” (the national characteristics of England) embodied by Robinson, who represented reason, who was an omnipotent and strong-willed colonizer, and his process and ways to colonize is vividly described in great detail, to develop the English people’s entrepreneurial spirit to colonize other “inferior” nations and their people. In *Foe*, J. M. Coetzee depicted Cruso as foolish, superstitious, uncertain, pessimistic, to deconstruct the Euro-centrism represented by Robinson. And by switching Friday from a Caribbean boy in *Robinson Crusoe* to a Negro in *Foe*, and depicting him as a black slave whose tongue has been cut by the slave-traders or his master Cruso, Coetzee reminded the Africans of their history of being enslaved, colonized and silenced, and thus aroused the national imagination of the Africans as a community.

II. DANIEL DEFOE’S CONSTRUCTION OF THE NATIONAL IMAGINATION OF ENGLAND BY *ROBINSON CRUSOE*

According to Benedict Anderson (1991), “the novel and the newspaper” are “two forms of imagining which first flowered in Europe in the eighteenth century. For these forms provided the technical means for ‘representing’ the kind of imagined community that is the nation” (p.25).

Robinson Crusoe, which was published in 1719, and the eighteenth century marked the dawn of the age of nationalism, provided the technical means for the imagining of the nation of England, and shaped the national characteristics of England (Englishness). By writing in English, depicting an English-speaking hero and representing places and lifestyles in England, Daniel Defoe constructed the national imagination of the English people and shaped their national spirit, for he successfully portrayed an enterprising, strong-willed, lucky, optimistic, omnipotent, positive and rational English colonizer Robinson, who rolled up all the good qualities into one, who was the representative of the English bourgeoisie of the eighteenth century.

A. *The Role of Language in Constructing the Imagined Community of England*

The printing language played an important role in arousing the imagining of nation. An Englishman will never meet, or even know the names of more than a handful of his fellow country people in his daily life, but in the process of reading the novel, “they gradually became aware of the hundreds of thousands, even millions, of people in their particular language-field, and at the same time that only those hundreds of thousands, or millions, so belonged. These fellow-readers, to whom they were connected through print, formed, in their secular, particular, visible invisibility, the embryo of the nationally imagined community” (Anderson, 1991, p.44). The character Robinson in *Robinson Crusoe* speaks English, the language spoken and read by the English people. Those who spoke the same language would often identify themselves as the same community, so when the English people read the novel written in their language, and found that the hero’s mother tongue was also English, they would identify themselves with Robinson.

B. *The Role of Places in Constructing the Imagined Community of England*

At the beginning of *Robinson Crusoe*, we found that the hero Robinson’s hometown was located in the city of York, and one of his “elder brothers was lieutenant-colonel to an English regiment of foot in Flanders” (Defoe, 2010, p.1). The names of places such as “the city of York”, “Flanders”, pulled the English readers into a familiar landscape, some of them may even have been to the places, and the words “English regiment” would immediately arouse the national imagining of the “English” readers but not the readers from other countries.

Robinson’s introduction of his nation to Friday aroused the national imagination of the English readers, for he introduced the English people’s lifestyle, religion, manners in personal relationships and ways to make a living, which made the abstract idea of nation into a concrete one. “I described to him the country of Europe, and particularly England, which I came from; how we lived, how we worshiped God, how we behaved to one another, and how we traded in ships to all parts of the world” (Defoe, 2010, p.273). By reading Daniel Defoe’s *Robinson Crusoe*, the English readers can fuse the world inside the novel with the world outside, and easily form the imagined community. They can form a strong connection with other people in their country, and shape a sense of national identity as a nation of Christianity, did business all over the world as the way to make a living, and have superiority over other nations and have strong abilities to colonize other nations.

C. *The Portraying of Characters in Arousing the Imagination of National Characteristics (Englishness)*

1. The Embodiment of “Englishness”: Robinson Crusoe in *Robinson Crusoe*

By *Robinson Crusoe*, Daniel Defoe not only contributed to the formation of the national imagination of England, but also shaped “Englishness”—the connotation of the national characteristics of the English people. The English people would identify themselves and their compatriots with the civilized, strong-willed and superior colonizer Robinson, who stands for wisdom, reason, power and optimism. They would imagine their nation as superior, and other nations as inferior, people from other nations as barbarian cannibals to be tamed and ruled, other lands as places waiting to be colonized by the white English or Europeans.

Robinson showed the following characteristics, which helped to form the national characteristics of the English

people. He was adventurous and “satisfied with nothing but going to sea” (Defoe, 2010, p.1). He was well-educated (civilized), in command of knowledge and skill, and created a miracle on the desert island. He embodied reason advocated by the Enlightenment in dealing with the harsh conditions. When he found himself to be the only survivor of the shipwreck, he suffered from fear at first, but soon he attempted to cope with the hard conditions, managed to seek shelter and food. The next day, when he saw that the ship was lifted off in the night from the sand where she lay, he managed to reach the wrecked ship for some necessary things for his use such as food, drink, clothes, and tools to work with on shore, ammunition and arms. And he was lucky to find these things which could secure him and maintain his life temporarily.

And he was depicted as a strong-willed, God-like colonizer, which encouraged the English people to be colonizers of nature and other nations. There are totally twenty chapters in *Robinson Crusoe*, among which fourteen chapters are about Robinson’s colonization and civilization of the isolated island, the wild animals and the “barbarous” people. And the process and ways of colonization were described in great detail to instruct the English people to go abroad to conquer and rule the world.

Robinson colonized the primitive and passive nature. The island on which he landed was a primitive desert island, which was a virgin land waiting to be colonized. So he began to civilize it. He grew wheat to make bread by himself, and he also collected the fresh grapes in a pleasant valley to make raisin for the extra-nutrition. Robinson colonized the wild animals. He enclosed the wild goats for milk. And he lived on the meat of the wild animals.

Robinson colonized the “barbarous” people represented by Friday. He tamed Friday with gun, English and bible, which are the ways to colonize other peoples, i. e., conquest through force and culture.

At first, Robinson tamed Friday with force. He used his gun to kill a goat. Friday was frightened “because he did not see me (Robinson) put anything into the gun; but thought that there must be some wonderful fund of death and destruction in that thing, able to kill man, beast, bird, or anything near or far off” (Defoe, 2010, p.260). The mystery of the gun scared Friday greatly, he kneeled down to Crusoe to pray him not to kill him, “and the astonishment this created in him was such as could not wear off for a long time; and I (Robinson) believe, if I would have let him, he would have worshipped me and my gun” (Defoe, 2010, p.260). He began to worship Robinson and his gun, and afterwards Friday dared not to rebel any longer. Therefore, with force, he scared Friday to be subject to him.

In addition to conquest by force of arms, “Defoe’s strategy to implement the European civilization on the desert island is to erase the language and religion of the ancient American civilization, and unify the history with his own civilization. In his novel, other civilizations suffered from loss of voice or absence” (Jian, 2003, p.47). Robinson colonized Friday with language. “Robinson disdained to ask Friday about his native language, but named him “Friday” compulsively, thus successfully subverted the language of the other, and destroyed the American civilization completely” (Jian, 2003, p.47). For the profit of him, Robinson taught Friday English. At last, Friday learned enough English to talk with Robinson. “Friday began to talk very well, and understand the names of almost everything I had occasion to call for, and of every place I had sent him to, and talked a great deal to me” (Defoe, 2010, p.262). And in the end Robinson succeeded in his colonization of Friday in language. Through language, Robinson destroyed Friday’s culture and replaced it with his.

As to religious colonization, Robinson negated Friday’s religion and thus erased his cultural identity. Robinson asked Friday about his religion and then told Friday that his religion was a cheat or even evil spirit. Robinson said: “the pretense of their old men going up the mountains to say O to their god Benamuckee was a cheat; and their bringing word from thence what he said was much more so; that if they met with any answer, or speak with any one there, it must be an evil spirit” (Defoe, 2010, p.267). After negating Friday’s original religion, he began to instruct the knowledge of the true God, and Friday finally became a Christian.

Robinson civilized Friday in lifestyle. He converted Friday from Cannibalism and changed his eating habits. He taught Friday to eat bread and drink milk, and the cannibal Friday who was fond of the flavor of human flesh liked it unexpectedly and “made signs that it was very good for him” (Defoe, 2010, p.253). Meanwhile, in order to help Friday get rid of the horrible and inhuman habit of eating human flesh, Robinson prepared the boiled goat meat and broth with salt for Friday. Not adjusting himself to the flavor of salt, Friday tried to accept it under Robinson’s guidance. And then he decided to offer Friday his barbecued goat flesh, which threw Friday into admiration to Robinson. After tasting the roasted goat flesh Robinson provided to him, Friday liked it very much, and Robinson described: “when he came to taste the flesh, he took so many ways to tell me how well he like it that I could not but understand him” (Defoe, 2010, p.261), so that Friday even swore that he would not eat man’s flesh any more.

Thus with armed force, language and religion, Friday was conquered completely. The education qualified Friday as a good servant and companion, but Robinson never imagined Friday as his compatriot, for:

The nation is imagined as limited because even the largest of them, encompassing perhaps a billion living human beings, has finite, if elastic boundaries, beyond which lie other nations. No nation imagines itself coterminous with mankind. The most messianic nationalists do not dream of a day when all the members of the human race will join their nation in the way that it was possible, in certain epochs, for, say, Christians to dream of a wholly Christian planet. (Anderson, 1991, p.7)

Because of the nation is imagined as limited, though Robinson taught Friday English and converted him to Christianity, he never imagined Friday as English people but only as a slave to him. Instead of introducing his name to

Friday, Robinson “taught him to say ‘master’; and then let him know that was to be my name” (Defoe, 2010, p.253). The English readers would identify themselves with the master Robinson, but exclude the slave Friday out of their compatriots.

2. The “Other” to reflect “Englishness”: Friday in *Robinson Crusoe*

In *Robinson Crusoe*, Friday was depicted as an ideal “other” to be colonized by Robinson, in the end he spoke Robinson’s language—English, converted to Robinson’s religion—Christianity and showed complete “subjection, servitude, and submission” to Robinson (Defoe, 2010, p.253). Defoe constructed Friday as a barbarous cannibal to justify Robinson’s civilizing of him and destroying of his culture. And Friday showed no defense of his language, religion and lifestyle—the markers of his cultural identity. Under Robinson’s instruction, he gave up his language, religion and lifestyle, converted to Christianity and became “a good Christian, a much better than I (Robinson)” (Defoe, 2010, p.271).

Even in appearance, Friday was Europeanized, “he had all the sweetness and softness of a European in his countenance” (Defoe, 2010, p.252). He was a Caribbean, “The color of his skin was not quite black. His face was round and plump; his nose small, not flat like the Negroes” (Defoe, 2010, p.252).

So at last Friday was erased of his cultural identity and became a slave body and soul. He showed all the manners of a slave as described in *Robinson Crusoe*:

when he espied me, he came running to me, laying himself down again upon the ground, with all the possible signs of a humble, thankful disposition, making a great many antic gestures to show it. At last he lays his head flat upon the ground, close to my foot, and sets my other foot upon his head, as he had done before; and after this, made all the signs to me of subjection, servitude, and submission imaginable, to let me know how he would serve me so long as he lived. (Defoe, 2010, p.252-253)

Defoe depicted Friday as an ideal “other” ready to be conquered, and showed complete submission to the conqueror in the end.

III. COETZEE’S DECONSTRUCTION OF THE IMAGINED “ENGLISHNESS” BY SUBVERTING THE CHARACTER ROBINSON CRUSOE

“Postmodernism ultimately manages to install and reinforce as much as undermine and subvert the conventions and presuppositions it appears to challenge” (Hutcheon, 1990, p.1-2). With postmodern devices, Coetzee negated and subverted the conventions and presuppositions of Euro-centrism by rewriting *Robinson Crusoe*, so Cruso in *Foe* became the antithesis of Robinson Crusoe in *Robinson Crusoe*. Cruso in *Foe* was depicted as old, impotent, foolish, superstitious, stubborn, uncertain and passive.

In *Foe*, Cruso is foolish and superstitious, which is a mockery on the reason of Robinson in *Robinson Crusoe*. In contrast to Robinson’s relying on himself and reason to solve problems, Cruso turned to some foolish superstition. “He put some few white petals and buds from the brambles that were at the time flowering on parts of the island in a little bag to make an offering to the god of the waves to cause the fish to run plentifully, or performing some other such superstitious observance” (Coetzee, 2010, p.31).

In telling his history, Cruso was inconsistent, uncertain, self-contradictory and self-undermining in his words. “The stories he told Susan were so various, and so hard to reconcile one with another, that Susan was more and more driven to conclude age and isolation had taken their toll on his memory, and he no longer knew for sure what was truth, what fancy” (Coetzee, 2010, p.12). As Susan narrated, “Thus one day he would say his father had been a wealthy merchant whose counting-house he had quit in search of adventure. But the next day he would tell me he had been a poor lad of no family who had shipped as a cabin-boy and been captured by the Moors...” (Coetzee, 2010, p.12)

He was no longer as reliable as Robinson in *Robinson Crusoe*, which deconstructed Robinson’s authority in narrating and colonizing.

When Cruso talked about why Friday’s tongue was cut. He told a variety of reasons. The truth could not be grasped.

Perhaps the slavers, who are Moors, hold the tongue to be a delicacy. Or perhaps they grew weary of listening to Friday’s wails of grief that went on day and night. Perhaps they wanted to prevent him from ever telling his story: who he was, where his home lay, how it came about that he was taken. Perhaps they cut out the tongue of every cannibal they took, as a punishment. How will we ever know the truth? (Coetzee, 2010, p.23)

Different from Defoe’s fabrication of Robinson’s colonial achievements on the desert island, Coetzee disclosed the fact that being alone too long on the desert island, Cruso became old on his island kingdom. With nobody telling him oppositional opinions, he became narrow-minded compared with those lived in the normal world. He grew passive and stubborn out of old age, and he had no desire to be saved and escape from the desert island. Susan found “it was a waste of breath to urge Cruso to save himself” (Coetzee, 2010, p.13).

In contrast to Robinson, Cruso showed little vitality. He had slovenly appearance and unpleasant behavior, “his great head of tawny hair and his beard that was never cut glowed in the dying light. He ground his teeth in his sleep because his teeth had decayed and he took food in his unwashed hands and gnawed at it on the left side where it hurt him less” (Coetzee, 2010, p.18). And he showed no sexual desire for Susan, which was also a sign of weakening.

To sum up, Cruso in *Foe* was depicted as old, foolish, superstitious, impotent, stubborn, passive and pessimistic, who became the complete antithesis of Robinson in *Robinson Crusoe*, in this way, J. M. Coetzee deconstructed the image of

Robinson in *Robinson Crusoe*, negated the national characteristics embodied by Robinson Crusoe such as reason, power, wisdom, optimism, and thus deconstructed the national characteristics of the English people, and their imagining of their nation as superior to other nations and people, and disclosed to the readers that Euro-centrism wasn't innate but fabricated by the Europeans like Daniel Defoe. So it can't hold water. And thus Coetzee subverted the convention and presupposition of Euro-centrism.

IV. COETZEE'S CONSTRUCTION OF THE NATIONAL IMAGINATION OF AFRICA BY REWRITING FRIDAY

By switching Friday from a Caribbean boy in *Robinson Crusoe* to a Negro in *Foe* and depicting him as a black slave whose tongue has been cut and who was castrated, Coetzee reminded the Africans of their history of being enslaved, colonized and silenced, and thus aroused the national imagination of the Africans as a community.

In *Foe*, Friday was a black African, as was described in the novel "He was black: a Negro with a head of fuzzy wool" (Coetzee, 2010, p.5). The detailed description of Friday's appearance as a Negro immediately plunged the African readers into a sense of identification. Friday became a representative of the African people, and he belonged to the collective body of readers of Africa, which easily arouse the imagining of the African people of their nation as a community.

Friday's loss of tongue symbolized the deprivation of the rights of speech of the black. So *Foe* is a ferocious indictment of the Dutch and English colonial administration in South Africa and its profound and lasting hurt. The deprivation of the rights of speech led to wide discrimination and further hurt. Friday's tongue was cut, which even caused Susan's unselfconscious and uncontrollable discrimination, "I caught myself flinching when he came near, or holding my breath so as not to have to smell him. Behind his back I wiped the utensils his hands had touched" (Coetzee, 2010, p.24). Susan, who was sympathetic to Friday out of the same position as the oppressed, who was excluded and oppressed as women, had the rights of speech in *Foe*, so she symbolized the white in South Africa after gaining independence from the British Commonwealth of Nations. The black in South Africa represented by Friday was subjected to double oppression and discrimination. Friday's loss of speech symbolizes the deprivation of the rights of speech of the black in South Africa, which in turn caused their being discriminated by the colonizers as well as by the white in South Africa. His silence also has some relationships with the South African context where the novel was written. Owing to apartheid, the black people have no rights of speech, and they are forced to keep silent all the time. The white people who have discourse power ignore the identities and demands of the black people.

Friday was castrated, which was a metaphor of the destruction of the African culture. In *Foe*, Coetzee revealed that Africa was distorted and ambiguous. When Susan found an Indiaman to send Friday to Africa, the mate of the ship told her that "Africa is a great place, madam, greater than I can tell you" (Coetzee, 2010, p.109). But the master of the Indiaman told her that "One half of Africa is desert and the rest a stinking fever-ridden forest" (Coetzee, 2010, p.110). As to what Africa is really like, even Susan had no idea. The telling of the story of Africa was left to Friday, but he lost the power of discourse. So the essence of African culture was castrated by the colonizers.

By switching Friday to a black slave whose tongue had been cut and who was castrated in *Foe*, Coetzee aroused the imagining of the Africans of their nation as a community, and attempted to make the Africans to be aware of the postcolonial impact left by the white European colonizers, break the silence and voice their opinions, so as to eliminate the discrimination.

V. CONCLUSION

Novels provided the technical means to represent nation—the imagined community. The popular realistic novel *Robinson Crusoe* was written in English, the places in England appeared in the novel, and the hero Robinson was an ideal Englishman, which aroused the imagining of the nation of England and shaped its national characteristics—"Englishness". Defoe successfully portrayed a rational, enterprising, strong-willed, lucky, optimistic, omnipotent and positive English colonizer Robinson, who rolled up all the good qualities into one, who provided the model of the imagining of the national characteristics of the English people. By reading the novel, the English would imagine their nation as a community; they would identify themselves with Robinson Crusoe and imagine themselves to be people as ideal as Robinson and imagine their nation to be superior to other nations, and form Euro-centrism.

With his novel *Foe*, J. M. Coetzee deconstructed the image of Robinson Crusoe, so Cruso in *Foe* became the complete antithesis of Crusoe in *Robinson Crusoe*. Cruso in *Foe* was depicted as old, foolish, superstitious, impotent, stubborn, uncertain, skeptical, passive and pessimistic. Coetzee subverted the image of Crusoe in *Robinson Crusoe*, negated the national characteristics embodied by Crusoe, revised the myth created by Defoe, and deconstructed the imagining of the English people of their nation to be superior to other nations, and broke the Euro-centrism, and disclosed to the readers that Euro-centrism wasn't innate but fabricated by the Europeans like Daniel Defoe.

And by switching Friday from the Caribbean boy in *Robinson Crusoe* to a Negro in *Foe*, and adding the depiction of Africa, Coetzee aroused the Africans' imagination of the nation of Africa as a community. That Friday's tongue was cut exposed the fact that the black in South Africa was deprived of the rights of speech. And Friday's being castrated symbolized the distortion and destruction of the African culture by the colonizers. All these reminded the Africans of their history of being colonized, silenced and distorted, the African readers would identify themselves with Friday and

fuse the interior of the novel with the exterior world. Therefore, with the novel *Foe*, Coetzee helped to construct the imagining of the nation of Africa, and indicted the colonial administration in Africa and its profound and lasting hurt: the deprivation of the rights of speech, oppression, destruction of African culture, so as to unite the Africans to reflect on the impact of the colonial administration, create their own voice in the world and tell their true history.

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Project-based Learning Activities and EFL Students' Productive Skills in English

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Abstract—This article presents the results of a study on the effect of Project-Based Learning on students' English Productive Skills and how the activities influence teaching and learning process in a public junior high school in Bali-Indonesia. This research applied an embedded mixed-method design in which the quantitative data were collected using speaking and writing tests, and the qualitative data were collected using interview guide, observation checklist, open-ended questionnaire, and field note. Paired-sample t-test was used to analyze whether or not there is a significant difference in students' English productive skills before and after being taught using PBL; while the qualitative data were analyzed descriptively. The results of the analysis showed a significant effect of PBL on students' English productive skills. From the part of the students, PBL was found to improve enthusiasm, confidence, creativity, self-directed learning and collaborative learning skills. On the part of the teacher, PBL promotes teaching motivation and satisfaction. This study recommends the implementation of PBL in EFL context, especially in an attempt to improve students' ability to speak and write in English as a foreign language.

Index Terms—project-based learning activities, English as a foreign language, English productive skills, teaching and learning process

I. INTRODUCTION

Constructivism is one of the theories which is addressed to describe the learning process according to 21st century learning foundation. It believes on the importance of reflection on experiences towards the quality of learning (Weld & Funk, 2005). The student, as the creator, will create their own concept and beliefs towards knowledge based on their prior knowledge (Weegar & Pacis, 2012). Meanwhile, the teacher, as a facilitator, should provide opportunities for collaborative works and authentic tasks which enhance students' problem-solving skills (Ndon, 2011). The students are encouraged to engage in a collaborative learning situation since the teachers' role is limited in the constructivist learning. It means, instead of focusing on teacher, learning should occur in students-centered learning activities.

Communication is also one of the key components of 21st century learning (Greenhill, 2010). One of its concerns is on student ability to effectively express their thoughts or ideas using oral and written communication skills. Both of those skills are powerful and extremely useful for the learners to prepare themselves for facing their real-life (Jerald, 2009). Strategies to communicate is influenced by the topic communicated, the interpersonal relation between the people involved in the communication, or the context (i.e. whether the situation is formal or informal) (Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, & Thurrell, 1995). Thus, language learners are considered successful language speakers when they can perform communicative functions appropriately in various situations.

Oral and written skills are categorized as productive skills which require learners to produce rather than receive information through language (Spratt, Pulverness, & Williams, 2005; and Harmer, 2007). In the language educational setting, through speaking and writing activities, students are given the opportunity to experience with the target language. They are encouraged to express meaning by producing appropriate oral or written utterances. In speaking, a person interacts with others or influence someone by saying something which may affect someone else's point of view or thought (Clark & Clark, 1997). While Harmer (1991) considers writing as the only language skill which enables students to produce a touchable and readable product. As both speaking and writing involve the activity of 'producing' language in the context of communication, these skills are commonly labelled as language productive skills.

The use of a wide range of techniques to create a new knowledge, thought, or idea is also one of the bases of great teaching according to 21st century education (Jerald, 2009). It is an important process in which learners make connection across domain of knowledge. The students play an important role to develop their knowledge where they innovate their own ideas to create new things and or adapt new situation (Zhao, 2009). Every experience that is encountered in students' learning process will become a useful knowledge and those are considered as educative experience if they are organized from an authentic context (Dewey, 1938).

The importance of students' role in the learning process is also stated in Indonesian Regulation of National Education Standard (*PP. No. 19 Th. 2005, Pasal 19, Ayat 1*). Learning process should be organized in an interactive, inspiring, fun, and challenging environment. The learning activities are expected to be able to provide sufficient space for innovation, creativity, and independence. Learners develop their own learning by being attached into several range of activities in accordance with their talents, interests, physical, and psychological development.

The potential strategy to maximize students' role in learning should take into account the principles of constructivism, and one of the mostly used is Project-Based Learning (PBL). PBL is simply defined as a learning strategy which is organized around projects (Thomas, 2000; Larmer, Markham, & Ravitz, 2003; Bell, 2010). In PBL classroom, students plan, implement, reflect, and evaluate their own learning by working on authentic tasks, such as solving problem or task which is constructed based on real-world issues (Blank in Blank & Harwell, 1997; Dickinson, et al., 1998; Westwood, 2008). PBL also elevates student's willingness in learning. According to Blumenfeld, et al. (1991), a successful implementation of PBL in the classroom can raise students' motivation by being fully involved and engaged to the classroom activities.

In its implementation, PBL has sets of steps that should be carried out (Stoller, 1997; Korkmaz & Kaptan, 2001). Firstly, the learners and teacher make an agreement and decision about the theme or topic of the project and the method of solving the problem. Secondly, students design the project by enquiring information related to the project, the plan, and the objective of the project. Thirdly, the students collect, analyzed and organized data to answer the problems or the tasks. They create the project based on the application of the knowledge they achieve through the process of enquiring. Fourthly, the students define the essential point of the project and plan the presentation method. Fifth, the students design the presentation by analyzing and compiling the essential information about the project. Next, the students present their project by using their communicative skills. Finally, the students evaluate their learning. Though these steps, students are trained to become an active and creative thinker and are involved in collaborative learning to work on the group project.

As the students engage in the social aspects of PBL, in the same time they are also developing their 21st century skills in which two of them are students' oral and written skills (Barron et al, 1998; Markham, 2011). Throughout the entire process of PBL, students' communication skill is being activated (Hadim & Esche, 2002; Harun, 2006). Specifically, the students' communication skills are promoted through some activities such as sharing information, discussing the project, dividing tasks on each group member, writing essay or presentation, presenting the project result, and so forth (Güven, 2014).

To cope with the demand of educational new paradigm, learning specifically in Indonesia should be held in the way based on the 21st century learning and Indonesian national education standard. The old paradigm of teacher-centered should be shifted into students-centered learning (Kember, 2009; Attard, et al., 2010). Unfortunately, there are some educational institutions in Indonesia that do not implement teaching and learning process as the way it supposes to be. Such facts were found on some review of studies (Pradnanar, 2014; Wulandari, 2014; Yaman, 2015). Those studies proved that the lack of the teachers' knowledge about appropriate methods that can be used in teaching is the obstacle in creating an effective teaching and learning process.

The lack of teachers' knowledge on alternative strategies that reflect the 21st century learning cause some disadvantages. Some research administered in Indonesia found the use of conventional teaching strategies that hardly help students develop collaboration, creativity, communication, and critical thinking. Conventional teaching tends to be textbook oriented and causes students to have less creativity in doing their work (Hastuti, 2016). A non-authentic material and conventional teaching methods also influence students' low motivation in learning process. They become unmotivated as the result of the small amount activities that students' attracted with (Ferti, Adiyalmon, & Ranti, 2014). Those students who experience learning in such situation and condition will tend to have low learning achievement.

The empirical evidences presented above indicate that the process and result of learning are highly related with the teachers' teaching strategies (Guerrero, 2017). Students are being attached with the strategy in the classroom while also create their own thought about the activities they should participate in. Students will respond to the learning positively if they believe on the process of learning itself (Henter, 2014), otherwise it causes some disadvantages on the learning process.

In most public schools in Indonesia, teacher-centered learning is the most observable practices. Students mostly work on the provided tasks in the textbook. As the consequence, students were unmotivated and demonstrated low enthusiasm to participate in learning activities in the classroom. From the open-ended questionnaire, it was found that the students generally had lack of motivation towards learning and most of the students felt weary to join such monotonous learning activities. Those findings are also supported by the result of the interview with the teacher. The data reveal that teachers have the preference of using tutoring and direct-instruction strategies to teach the students. Both of those strategies are teacher-centered in nature, which make students passive and reluctant to work on their own. The strategy that is fully directed by the teacher will not teach students to be responsible to their own learning (Carnine, 2000; Knowles, 1984).

In a well-organized direct instruction, the teacher is the one who decide what is to be learned, to explain the way to do the task, actively monitor and give feedback to students' work while students are engaged in activities such as working on tasks and response to the teachers' instruction (Christenson, Ysseldyke & Thurlow, 1989). It is inversely proportional to the theory of constructivist and it does not engage with student cultural resources, background knowledge and community context (Luke, 2013). There are some features of direct-instruction that fit in the teacher-centered

characteristics. Direct instruction as a teacher-centered method, sets the teacher as the one that has main power in the teaching and learning process, in which he/she supposed to encourage the students construct their own learning. Instead of having discussion and conversation with the students to develop their ideas, the students are assumed to have little useful knowledge. As the result, the teachers tend to present the facts to students directly, give students less opportunity to have their own choices, and provide every piece of information that is needed by the students (Poplin, 1988; Stainback & Stainback, 1992; Steffe & Gale, 1995; Abdullah et al, 2012).

To cope with the problem above, the use of appropriate teaching strategies is very important. The strategy is not only expected to bring positive effect on students’ academic achievement but also will train them to take responsibility on their own learning as well as to experience learning by doing. According to the previous studies related to this research, PBL brought enhancements for the students, along with the advantages. Firstly, Imtiaz and Asif (2012) proved that PBL played an important role in improving students’ language skills and promoting students’ autonomous learning skill in Pakistan. Secondly, Vicheanpant and Ruenglertpanyakul (2012) showed an effective effect on developing Thai students’ communication skill which came along with more positive attitude in learning. Thirdly, Nassir (2014) verified significant difference on Iraqi students’ English achievement before and after being taught by using PBL. Fourthly, Rochmahwati (2016) specifically found a positive impact on Indonesian students’ English speaking skill before and after being taught by using PBL. The finding came along with the positive improvement on students’ attitudes on language learning.

Those studies confirm that PBL can be used to teach English. However, previous studies that have been conducted before were not specifically proposed in analyzing the effect of PBL on students’ productive skills and identifying the influence of PBL towards teaching and learning process. This study aimed at answering two research questions: (1) Is there any significant difference in students’ English productive skills before and after being taught using PBL?, (2) How does PBL instruction influence teaching and learning process?

II. METHODOLOGY

The design of this study is embedded mixed-method which focuses on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data. The two data sets were collected during single study and they were purposed to answer two different research questions. Twenty-eight students of the seventh grade participated in this study. The quantitative data play major role within overall design. They were collected from pre-test and post-test. The result of the quantitative tests were used to analyze whether or not there is a significant effect on students’ English productive skills before and after being taught using PBL. Interview, observation checklist, open-ended questionnaire, and field note were used to collect the qualitative data. The qualitative data collected before, during, and after the intervention, were used to identify the influence of PBL on teaching and learning process. Paired sample t-test was used to analyze the quantitative data, while the analysis of qualitative data followed Miles and Huberman’s (1994) flow model which consists of data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The first research question was answered by examining whether or not the results of the tests before and after the treatments are significantly different. The speaking test was divided into two categories, monologue and dialogue test. The findings of the speaking and writing are presented as below.

A. The Effect of PBL on Students’ Speaking Skill

The first research question was proposed in order to find out the effect of PBL on students English productive skills. Pre-test and post-test of speaking and writing were administered before and after the students were being taught using PBL. Speaking skill was divided into monologue and dialogue. The findings are presented in the tables below:

TABLE I
RESULT OF MONOLOGUE PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST

Monologue Test	Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower				Upper
Pretest- Posttest	-26.286	6.749	1.275	-28.903	-23.669	-20.61	27	.000

The first result of paired-sample t-test answers the first research question specifically on monologue speaking test. Paired-sample t-test was conducted for pre-test and post-test. Table 1 presents t= -20.610 and the Sig. (2-tailed) value is less than 0.05 (0.000 < 0.05). It indicates that the participants showed a significant achievement on monologue speaking test before and after treatment. Similar test was run for the results of dialogue speaking test as presented in the following table.

TABLE II
RESULT OF DIALOGUE PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST

Dialogue Test	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest- Posttest	-23.286	5.868	1.109	-25.561	-21.010	-20.998	27	.000

Table 2 presents the outcomes of the paired-sample t-test of students' dialogue speaking achievement. Pre-test and post-test results were compared in order to see the difference before and after the treatment. It shows that significant value of 2-tailed was less than 0.05 ($0.000 < 0.05$). It can be concluded that there is a significant effect of PBL on participants' dialogue speaking test. In other words, the implementation of PBL in EFL classes significantly affect students' productive skills in English. This is in line with a similar research conducted by Yang and Puakpong (2016) who involved eighty students in Kaili University. They found that that there was a positive effect of PBL on non-English major Chinese students' speaking ability. Another positive outcomes of students' opinion towards PBL implementation in the classroom was also revealed.

B. The Effect of PBL towards Writing Skill

To answer the second research question, paired-sample t-test was also used to compare between the writing scores from pre-test and post-test. Table 3 reports the mean difference is -22.786 with Sig. (2-tailed) is $.000 < 0.05$. It can be concluded that there is a significant effect of the implementation of PBL on students' writing skills. This was proven by the significant difference between the mean scores before and after being taught using PBL. This finding is summarized in the following table.

TABLE III
RESULT OF WRITING PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST

Writing Test	Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest- Posttest	-22.786	9.163	1.732	-26.339	-19.233	-13.159	27	.000

The significant effect of PBL on students' writing skill was also concluded by Sadeghi, Biniiaz, & Soleimani (2016) in their research that revealed that there was a positive effect of PBL in enhancing students' comparison/paragraph writing skills. The result of their research indicated that the students who were educated by PBL performed better in their writing skill than the students who were educated by the instruction based on students' textbook.

C. The Effect of PBL on the Teaching and Learning Process

In order to answer the second question, the qualitative data were needed in this study. The main qualitative result was analyzed from observation checklist, open-ended questionnaire, and field note. Observation checklist was taken in order to identify students learning in the classroom. It was composed based on Thomas (2000) theory on the characteristics of PBL and Brown (2008) on the characteristics of an active learning. The open-ended questionnaire was administered in order to see how the students responded PBL activities in the end of every treatment. To gain the qualitative data from the teacher's perspective, the field note was filled along the process of every treatment.

The findings showed that PBL could promote students' enthusiasm, confidence, creativity, self-esteem and collaborative learning ability. Students' action in the classroom (which is noted in the observation checklist) shows that they enjoyed the learning process, considering on their active participation throughout the lesson. The twenty-eight participants who responded to the open-ended questionnaire showed willingness and enthusiasm to participate in the learning process. They worked in groups and create a project collaboratively. Their enthusiasm was confirmed through an interview conducted after the class. One of the students said: "*I feel excited to learn because there are many creative things to do while learning*" (S12/F). Enthusiasm can also be seen in the following picture.



Fig. 1 The students were participating enthusiastically in the process of finishing the project

The image shows that each of the students was directed to work on different kind of tasks with the aim to produce a group project. All students have their job description and were actively participated toward the accomplishment of the project. This finding supports the previous data which indicates the influence of PBL on students' learning quality in term of students' enthusiasm.

This finding was consistent with Erdem (2012) who found that PBL could promote students' enthusiasm towards learning. She stated that Project-Based Learning was able to increase students' enthusiasm towards learning. When the children are excited and enthusiastic about what they are learning, they often get more involved in the subject, the level of anxiety is reduced and then expand their interest to other materials. Enthusiastic students tend to retain what they learn, not to forget it as soon as they have passed the test.

The qualitative result also shows that PBL enhances students' confidence in practicing their English as they work collaboratively in team and helped each other. The students were continually exposed to some activities that acquired them to be able to speak their ideas to others. It was also enable students from different levels of proficiency to work and learn together. The particular finding was represented by following quotation: *"I feel more confident when I present the work in front of the classroom because we are able to help each other in a group."* (S09/M). Their confidence in presenting their work can also be seen from the following picture.



Fig. 2. The students confidently presented their work as a group in front of the classroom

The figure above shows the students presentation on their project. All of the students were able to explain / describe their project in front of the classroom without any hesitation. In the group presentation, the students helped each other to make the presentation ran well. They also support one another when answering questions from other groups or the teacher. This phenomenon was found to support the positive effect of PBL implementation on students' learning confidence.

In relation to students' learning process, it was evident that students' confidence appeared as the result of the implementation of Project-Based Learning. One of the significant studies entitled "English Games as a Constructivist Approach in Project-Based learning" which was conducted by Masrom and Yusof (2013) also found that there was a significant positive result of working in groups in PBL class on student self-confidence. By working in a group, the students did not only build confidence but more importantly, they learn to organize work as a team and work with commitment and responsibility.

The results also show that PBL influenced students learning process by promoting their creativity on learning. The learners were assigned to work on a project which promotes their higher order thinking skills. For example, in the project of making a family profile, the students were encouraged to be as creative as they could without neglecting the essential

meaning of a profile itself. Students' creativity is also represented through their works (Figure 3). From the open ended questionnaire it was revealed that students were aware of the need to be creative for a quality project. One the students said: *"I know how to make my family profile. I took photos from my family album and then wrote in English. I must be creative so that our project is good"* (S05/F). The following picture represents student project on the topic of family profile.



Fig. 3. Student project on Family Profile

These images represent students' creativity in doing their work. In the projects students were able to put every piece of information that was gained from the interview with their own family members. By using the result of the interview, they were able to compose some description about their family members which were all done in English. They were also given a chance to decorate their own family profile as creative as they can.

Creativity in PBL activities were also reported by Talat and Chaudhry (2014), who found that after treated with PBL model of teaching, students developed creativity as indicated by creative ideas and language use. It was also found that students creatively were especially motivated by new challenge created by the teacher. The students did their best effort to find new ideas or thought for the quality of the project. Every single individual was fully engaged during the teaching and learning process.

Students' self-esteem and collaborative learning skills are also influenced by PBL. It was evident that students were not only aware for the need to learn together as a group/team but also the initiative and responsibility for their own learning. While working in a group, the students may be involved in asking and answering questions, giving opinion about other people/group work, sharing information, evaluating other student's /group's work, expressing ideas, monitoring team work, actively interacted to make decision, etc. Individually, each student was given a chance to select and manage their own work. These activities can be expected to maximize independent and self-directed learning. Student awareness was represented by the following quotation: *"The strength of this learning is that I am able to share my ideas with my friends in the group"* (S06/M). This is revealed in the following figure.



Fig. 4. The students interacted to each other in a group group

Working together is one of the characteristics of PBL implementation. As seen in the picture, students shared their ideas and made a consensus together. They develop their collaborative learning skills which is one of the pillars for the 21st century learning. Imtiaz and Asif (2012) who explored the impact of Project-Based Learning on teaching English found that Project-Based Learning did not only improve students' language skills but also to make them independent learner. In addition, the students also learned some other skills such as doing work as team member, autonomous and independent learning.

From teacher's perspective, PBL promotes self-motivation and satisfaction in teaching. According to Fullan (2001),

teachers' assumption and expectation for students success is one of the factors that motivates teachers. This research found that the teacher considered PBL as an effective strategy to teach the students and gave positive feedback to students' participation and achievement. Highly engaged teachers result in more engaged students' participation in learning (Demir, 2011). When a teacher believes PBL is beneficial and has good influence to students, it can be expected that s/he are motivated to implement this learning model in their classroom (Lam, et al., 2010; English, 2013). This research also found that the English teacher had strong motivation to implement PBL in the classroom for three reasons: first, the students were fully engaged in the classroom activities so that student-centered learning came into play; second, the students showed good responses toward the learning process; and finally, the teacher had the feeling of satisfaction as the results of positive responses of the students and the conducive learning atmosphere. These are presented in the following excerpt from the teacher.

"Students seem to be so happy and their response to the project-based learning activity is very good. It becomes the most satisfying thing for me if the students are willing to participate actively in the class and achieve the goal of learning. They think that the activities are very interesting. This is why they become very active in the classroom" (T07)

This finding is consistent with Vicheanpant and Ruenglerpanyakul (2012) who pointed out teachers' satisfaction as one of the advantages of PBL in teaching communication skills to the students. Thus, up to this point, PBL does not only affect students' learning positively, but also affect teachers' teaching quality. There seem a strong cause and effect relationship of PBL and student learning: active and participative students affect teachers' motivation and satisfaction, and vice versa. This surely restores the joy of teaching and learning Larmer, Mergendoller, and Boss, (2015).

IV. CONCLUSION

This study provides empirical evidence of the impact of the implementation of problem-based learning activities on students' speaking and writing skills in English as a foreign language classes. The findings show a significant difference on students' English productive skills before and after being taught by using PBL. In addition, PBL enhances students learning quality in term of enthusiasm, confidence, creativity, self-directed and collaborative learning ability, while from the teacher's part, PBL promotes teacher's motivation and satisfaction in teaching.

Some practical advices are also provided based on the result of this study. Considering the significant effect of PBL on students' English productive skills, it is recommended that PBL should become a choice for English teachers, especially in the context of English as a Foreign Language setting. This teaching method can also promote the teaching and learning quality which has valuable contribution to student learning and support the 21st century learning.

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On the Cultivation of Students' English Autonomous Learning Ability in Vocational Colleges in Leshan City, Sichuan, China

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Abstract—Autonomous learning plays a more and more important role in vocational colleges, especially in terms of English study. Only when the students master autonomous learning ability can they really learn actively in their whole life. Nevertheless, most students in vocational colleges lack this ability, which is caused not only by students' lack of motivation, lack of proper learning strategies but also by teachers' inappropriate teaching approaches as well as by the imperfect educational system. In order to cultivate the students' autonomous learning ability, the writer carried out a research in Leshan Vocational and Technical College, analyzing the causes of the current situation and putting forward some suggestions to the students, the teachers and the educational departments.

Index Terms—cultivation, English autonomous learning ability, Vocational Colleges

I. INTRODUCTION

It is undoubted that English is the most widely used language in the world. In order to communicate better with the world, China needs a lot of people who master a good command of English. Therefore, currently more and more Chinese students spend more and more time in English study. And most of them depend on schools or training centers to learn English. Although school education and teachers' instruction are very vital to English learning, no one can learn everything in the classroom or the training centers due to the limited time and energy. Most of the job needs to be done by the language themselves on their own. Especially for college students who have more spare time and comparatively less time with teachers, it is necessary for them to grasp the ability of English autonomous learning which is a useful skill to get new knowledge and latest information. This paper is mainly concerned with how to foster English autonomous learning ability of vocational colleges students based on a study carried out in Leshan Vocational and Technical College. And hopefully, this paper is also beneficial to teachers of English and the educational departments.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES OF AUTONOMOUS LEARNING

According to the previous studies abroad, the definitions of autonomous learning are various. Among so many definitions, the one raised by Holec (1981) is worth mentioning: that is "the ability or capacity or to take charge of one's learning". Many researchers see eye to eye with Holec in the term of autonomous learning as an ability. What is more, according to Holec, the autonomous learners are capable of deciding their goals and aims and then try their best to find opportunities to achieve them.

And Huttunen (1986) put more emphasis on performance in stead of ability. He held that the performance of learning is more important. Furthermore, according to the definition put forward by Littlewood (1996), autonomous learners are "those who master an independent ability to make and accomplish the choices that govern their learning."

In addition, since the 1980s, domestic educators and scholars embarked on different researches on English autonomous learning, including not only theoretical studies but also case studies of English learners' autonomous learning, mostly in colleges and universities. To name just a few, Xie Fang (2002) studied on the importance of cultivating a good habit of autonomous learning in the term of foreign language education in the colleges and universities. Wei Yuyan (2002) put forward the necessity of promoting English learner's autonomous learning. Peng Jinding (2002) carried out the case study to verify that the teaching approach she adopted was positive to cultivating language learners' autonomous learning.

According to the previous studies, the following are the main characteristics of autonomous learning:

First of all, autonomous learning is spontaneous. Traditional learning is decided by exterior conditions such as the school, the teachers and the supervision of parents, etc. In this way, the students' learning is more or less passive. But on the other hand, autonomous learners choose study out of their own needs such as interests, passion, desire to be recognized, dream, etc. The outside effect on them is negligible. As a matter of fact, the autonomous learning is active.

Secondly, autonomous learning is free. Traditional learning is stereotype in which learners can not choose what to learn, when to learn and how to learn. All of the study is decided by schools and teachers who make the plans for students to finish. But on the other hand, autonomous learners are free to choose time, place, resources, process, and

approaches of the learning, without affected by others. Therefore, the autonomous learners have a clearer goal.

And finally, autonomous learners are self-disciplined. Traditional learners rely too much on exterior environment in that their learning is carried out under the organization of schools and teachers. If the exterior environment changes, the learning will be definitely affected. But on the other hand, autonomous learners play multiple roles in their learning, such as deciders of goal, plan makers, and process managers, etc. In this case, autonomous learning is rarely affected by outside environment and autonomous learners are able to adjust and control their study behavior.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

Research Subjects

Geographically, Leshan Vocational and Technical College is located closely to Leshan Normal University where the writer works. Therefore, the writer can carry out the study easily. The writer chose 150 non-English majors at their first year in Leshan Vocational and Technical College at random from the department of Finance, Medicine, Hotel Management, Accounting, as well as Computer. Specifically, the 150 research subjects are composed of 100 female students and 50 male students. During the process of the research, the writer will invite their teachers of English to do the favor of handing out and recollecting questionnaires.

Research Questions

The research questions about English autonomous learning ability mastered by students in Leshan Vocational and Technical College are as follows:

1. Have you heard about English autonomous learning ability? Do you study English actively or passively?
2. Do you study English on your own out of class?
3. What learning strategies do you master?
4. What may affect you in a bad way when you study English on your own?
5. Does your teacher of English introduce anything about autonomous learning?
6. Do you know how to foster English autonomous learning ability?

Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire design of English autonomous learning ability is based on the following 5 parts. Part one is the background information of the research subjects like the name, age, gender, major, their English level, etc. Part two is about the way the research subjects study English out of class and the time they spend in English study out of class. Part three is about the problems of the research subjects' motivation and English learning strategies. Part four is about the causes of those problems. Finally, part five is about whether the teachers of English guide the research subjects in out-of-class English learning or not and the research subjects' advice on fostering English autonomous learning ability.

Procedures

At first, the writer gathered 30 research subjects to do the pretest by finishing the questionnaires with a view to finding possible problems and questions that are likely to happen in the research. And then, the writer began to accomplish the formal study with the help of the teachers of English in Leshan Vocational and Technical College. All the 150 questionnaires are handed out to the research subjects who are supposed to finish the questionnaires independently, honestly and anonymously within 20 minutes.

Data Collection and Data Analysis

The writer handed out 150 questionnaires and recollected all of them, among which 145 were valid because 3 research subjects chose more than is necessary and the other 3 subjects didn't finish all of the questions. Consequently, after the confirmation of the validity of the 145 questionnaires the writer put in the data of them to the computer for further analysis with the help of SPSS16.0.

IV. MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH RESULTS

Through the analysis of the questionnaires, the writer found the students in vocational colleges who lack autonomous learning ability do have motivation problems and learning strategies problems in their English study. And the writer further analyzed the causes of those problems as follows:

1. Lack of motivation: The questionnaires show that about 79% of the research subjects agree that lack of motivation affect their autonomous learning in a big way. In most vocational colleges, English classroom is teacher-centered. The teachers decide everything for students: what to learn, when to learn, and how to learn. So, most students study passively and thus lack interest in English learning. According to the survey, 61% of the subjects think "the teacher lack passion in the classroom"; 43% of the subjects hold "the textbooks are not suitable"; 28% of the subjects are not satisfied with "the teachers' teaching approaches"; 78% of the research subjects lack interest in "the courses"; and 53% of the subjects attribute lack of motivation to "the teaching mode". Therefore, it is clear the students' motivation is certainly frustrated.

2. Lack of learning strategies: The questionnaires show that about 82% of the research subjects know little about learning strategies. The EFL teachers in their class seldom introduce any learning strategies to the students. Some students may have one or two kinds of method in their English study, but lacking systematic consciousness of learning strategies. In addition, compared with the study in high schools, vocational college students suffer less pressure in their

study and they fail to adapt themselves to the change of roles, which hinder them from studying actively and spontaneously. In the high schools, the students have less spare time while in colleges they have more free time. In this case, appropriate learning strategies are more important than ever. If they lack correct learning strategies, they can not make good use of sufficient free time in colleges, thus failing to foster the good habit of autonomous learning.

3. Lack of confidence: The questionnaires show that about 65% of the research subjects lack confidence in their English study. Confidence plays a very important part in language learners' study. Most vocational college students are afraid of making mistakes when they study English. Therefore, even in the English classroom they choose to be silent when the teachers raise questions. Bad performance in the test also hinders them and discourages them. In the long run, they lose confidence in their English study. When they lose confidence, they study passively in the classroom, not to mention in their spare time. Therefore, they seldom study on their own and lack autonomous learning ability.

4. Imperfect educational system: In the United States of America, the colleges and universities follow a principle of "lenient entry, stringent exit". It is easy for American college students to enter the college but it is difficult for them to graduate. But on the other hand, Chinese educational system is known as "stringent entry, lenient exit". The students face less pressure after they enter the colleges, which make them less motivated to study autonomously. What is more, Chinese evaluation system puts more emphasis on the results of study by means of different kinds of tests and examinations, while paying less attention to the process of study, which is also one of the reasons why vocational college students lack autonomous learning ability.

V. SUGGESTIONS OF FOSTERING AUTONOMOUS LEARNING IN VOCATIONAL COLLEGES

1. Promoting learners' motivation: First of all, the teachers of English should fully understand the students' need, and then deliberately choose what can arouse the vocational college students' interest in the classroom so as to promote their motivation. Helping the students to change the need of society and objective requirements of the education into their own interior learning needs is one of the EFL teachers' tasks. Secondly, the teachers of English should foster the students' learning interest. The EFL teachers can adopt different ways to do the job, such as making textbook content flexible, supplementing new content beyond textbooks, assigning various kinds of tasks for students to participate in, etc. Thirdly, the teachers of English should guide the vocational college students in setting up suitable and clear goal in their study. Without clear learning goal, the students' learning is bound to be blind and passive. The EFL teachers should help the vocational college students to know themselves better so as to set up short-term goal and long-term goal as well, based on their own conditions. At first, the short-term goal should be easy to reach, so the students can be encouraged and their motivation can be promoted. Finally, the teachers of English should innovate and enrich their teaching approaches so as to arouse the vocational college students' interest. New staff is likely to attract the students' attention. The EFL teachers should try to make the students keep active attitude in their study.

2. Fostering learners' learning strategies: As is well-known, language study will be twice the result with half the effort when they students master correct learning strategies that they can use in their language study. With correct learning strategies, the students will study more actively and autonomously. Therefore, strategy training plays a vital role in the vocational college students' language study. By the way of clearly teaching vocational college students how to foster their own learning strategies in language study, the teachers of English are supposed to guide the students to learn English more effectively, and also in this way the EFL teachers can encourage the students to self-assess and self-manage their language study. Specifically, the EFL teachers can assign different kinds of language study tasks in their class. As for the students, they are supposed not only to take part in the tasks but also to explain how they fulfill the tasks and reflect on how the learning strategies help them to do the job. In the process of completing the various tasks, the EFL teachers introduce more learning strategies and the students practice those strategies and summarize what they get at the end of the process. Finally, the feed-back system should be established by which the EFL teachers can improve the learning strategy training and the teacher-student interaction is also promoted.

3. Building learners' confidence: It is believed that the learners' self-confidence is of great importance to his or her success in the language study. If the learners are short of confidence, they will feel afraid to open their mouth to speak English and also they are unwilling to take part in any tasks the EFL teachers assign to them. It is undoubted that it takes a long time for the vocational college students to establish self-confidence and the EFL teachers bear the responsibility to do the job. When the EFL teachers teach the language in their class, they are supposed to teach the vocational college students in accordance with their aptitude. Specifically, it is advisable that the EFL teachers assign easier tasks first and then go on to the more complicated ones for the vocational college students to finish. In this way, the students are easy to get success so as to build the confidence. Also, in the process of finishing the complicated tasks, the EFL teachers should encourage the students to form teams or groups, which is good for them to succeed in finishing the tasks so as to gain the confidence. Especially for timid and shy students, group-work provides a comfortable and less competitive environment for them to suffer from less pressure. And finally, the EFL teachers should adopt different criteria when they assess the students' performance, taking individual difference into account. In this way, everyone has a chance to succeed, which is good especially for those students who lack confidence and more dependent.

4. Adjusting educational system: Chinese educational system should follow the example of that of America, which is "lenient entry, stringent exit". Chinese college students should be given more pressure after they enter the colleges and universities, which can make them more motivated to study autonomously. In most vocational colleges in China,

English is not a decider for the students' graduation. This condition should be changed into a new one in which the students can not graduate unless they reach a certain level of English. In addition, Chinese evaluation system should put more emphasis on the process of study and stress more on the students' comprehensive abilities, instead of only the results of study judged by means of different kinds of tests and examinations. Only in this way can the students become more motivated in their English study and get involved in more autonomous learning.

VI. CONCLUSION

The study which is carried out in Leshan Vocational and Technical College by the writer in terms of the vocational college students' English autonomous learning ability shows clearly that the teachers of English is facing a complicated and significant task of guiding the students' autonomy in their language learning. Therefore, language learners' autonomous learning ability is supposed to be set as a goal in English teaching curriculum. The teacher-centered classroom must be altered to be student-centered. Only when the students possess more rights in their study can they become more autonomous, passionate and active. The EFL teachers should not only be the guider, but also be the innovator, facilitator, designer, reflective practitioner and companion, etc. Both the EFL teachers and the students should join hands together in promoting the students' motivation, building the learners' self-confidence as well as enriching the students' learning strategies, etc. The educational departments should also be more innovative and aggressive in reform of the educational system and evaluation system so that the quality education will prevail instead of setting test results as the only goal.

It is no doubt that developing the vocational students' English autonomous learning ability still has a long way to go. So long as the direction is correct, the goal will be attained sooner or later.

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Derek Walcott's Dream on Monkey Mountain: A Multifaceted Phantasmagorical Narrative

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Abstract—When identifying different strands of criticism on Derek Walcott's play, *Dream on Monkey Mountain* (1970), one is pleasantly surprised by the scope of theoretical approaches towards his dramatic work. Almost every critical school of literary theory can be found in the writings on Walcott's play. This diversity in form is paralleled by an even greater variety of content, making it all but impossible to tag Walcott's drama with a single label. Most critics concur that *Dream on Monkey Mountain* is a complex play, full of complicated, sometimes, contradictory images and metaphors. Dangling between dreams and reality, Walcott's play, according to the author of this paper, is a multifaceted narrative. Focusing only on the concept of "dream", the present article, appreciating and reflecting some of the significant relevant interpretations (all about dreams), tends to add that the identity, thus destiny, of a (colonised) nation is shaped also by their collective unconscious shared in the psychic inheritance of all members of the human family.

Index Terms—archetype, Caribbean identity, collective unconscious, double-consciousness, dream play

I. INTRODUCTION

Living in mixed St. Lucian world and exposed to both colonial and folk cultures, Derek Walcott is aware of the plurality of Caribbean society. Exploring European colonial heritage of the Caribbean, Walcott tries to find expressions for the difficulties inherent in Caribbean identity, a key theme that runs throughout his works. Walcott's works are typically postcolonial in that they acknowledge the combination of European and African heritages that have influenced the development of identity in the Caribbean.

Dream on Monkey Mountain is Walcott's best known and most performed play. It was first performed in 1967, at the Central Library Theatre in Toronto, Canada. The play made its New York City first appearance in 1971, at St. Mark's Playhouse. This production gained Walcott an Obie Award. Frequently performed since its commencement, it is a complex allegory, which at its heart, concerns racial and cultural identity. In *Dream on Monkey Mountain*, as Nasser Dasht Peyma in "Ref. [9]" argues "Walcott changes the folk form into a complex, poetic proposal of the psychology of cultural subjugation and the desire for freedom" (2009, p. 157).

The form of the play depends deeply on ritual, symbolic, and archetypal elements, which are dependent on masquerade, music, and mime for their effect. The play opens with a mime in which movement, dance and song are combined to introduce its main themes. The mime gives way to a lament sung by a story-teller and chorus, introducing Makak (the play's main character) to the reader. Therefore, even before the narrative action commences, the drama is located in an oral folk context. Since "the play is a dream," put by Walcott himself, it would be considered through various approaches. More significantly, *Dream on Monkey Mountain*, according to the author of this paper, could be read once more under the light of some of the common conceptions of Jungian Psychology in the form of its archetypal insights to confirm the play's best artistic expression in the face of colonisation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Kelly Baker Josephs in his article, "Ref. [3]", asserts that the play is a fantasy based on the hallucination of an old woodcutter who has a vision of returning to Africa. In *Dream on Monkey Mountain* Walcott's mosaic of folklore connected by fantasy creates space for the newness that will allow for the psychological and material "shaping" of a Caribbean community. Walcott organises the folkloric elements within the hallucinations of the play's protagonist, Makak, allowing dreams and madness to create the glue that produces a cohesive Caribbeanness within the play (2010, p. 2).

Similarly, Patrick Colm Hogan in his article, "Ref. [2]", argues that establishing both a social and a personal identity which are not determined by the oppressor has been a recurrent theme of subaltern writers, from postcolonials, to women, to racial and ethnic minorities. A number of writers have chosen to look at this issue from the other side, "examining the ways in which oppressive ideologies undermine personal identity and even lead to madness" (2000, p. 103). Colm Hogan believes that the delirium from which Makak suffers is clearly connected with his inability to link

himself to family or culture. He has, in effect, been formed by an ideology which strips him of the individual and human identity implicit in the name and which seeks to structure his personal identity “around a racial typology according to which black is to white as monkey is to human” (2000, p. 107). Colm Hogan concludes that Walcott’s play presents us with a powerful literary analysis of the constitution of colonial identity, its varieties and development, responding to the far more important issues of social and personal identity in the real world.

However, Robert Fox and Lloyd Brown, “although taking different approaches, both underscore the play’s dream element and metaphoric dimension.” Brown illustrates that the play is “revolutionary” and combines “symbolism with fantasy.” In spite of its Eurocentric style, Brown argues, “Walcott’s play insists instead on the transcultural unity of black American and Caribbean experience.” Fox in turn emphasises the “mythological aspect of Walcott’s drama,” arguing that the play goes “beyond redeeming the downtrodden to dramatise the disparities between a consciousness that is creative and metaphoric, and one that is straightforward and imprisoning” (Haney, 2005, p. 82).

Despite their insightful interpretations, all about dreams, these scholars have overlooked a significant aspect of psychoanalysis: the relationship between dreams and identity in the face of colonisation. An investigation into their relationship from the perspective of the Jungian psychology will deepen our understanding of the orchestrating function of the collective unconscious and, more important, Derek Walcott’s philosophical reflections on racial memory, dreams, and archetypes. This essay, appreciating and incorporating some of the aforementioned overlapping interpretations, tends to assert that the identity, thus destiny, of a (colonised) nation is shaped also by their collective unconscious shared in the psychic inheritance of all members of the human family.

III. DISCUSSION

A. *Dream on Monkey Mountain: A ‘Dream Play’*

“*Dream on Monkey Mountain*,” as Nasser Dasht Peyma argues, “belongs to the 20th century genre called ‘Dream Plays’, connected with works by playwrights such as the Swedish playwright August Strindberg” (2009, p. 157). In Derek Walcott’s own words, “the play is a dream, one that exists as much in the given minds of its principal characters as in that of its writer” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 290). It seems, like a dream, the play resists description and interpretation, and it can mean different things to different readers. Makak, the principal character in the play, lives in Monkey Mountain, which is depicted in the prologue as “volcanic”. A volcano, signifying Makak himself, is unpredictable, sleeping violence, submerged energies that will one day demand release. Makak in several occasions emphasises that “his dream is not a dream,” whereas others characterise it, “not only a dream, but a bad dream” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 290).

Makak, an old black charcoal burner who comes to town, gets drunk, and is taken into prison by Corporal Lestrade, a mulatto guard who is the custodian of law and order during the later years of colonial power. In the dream scene of a mock trial, Lestrade accuses Makak of being drunk and damaging the premises of a local salesperson. However, in another dream sequence, Makak is crowned king in the romantic Africa of his root, surrounded by his wives, his warriors, and the masks of pagan gods (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 157).

Most critics agree that Derek Walcott’s *Dream on Monkey Mountain* is a complex play, full of complicated, sometimes contradictory images and metaphors. Because of the text’s richness, the play has attracted numerous interpretations of its many aspects. At the centre of numerous critics’ reading of the play are Makak and the dream journeys he goes on that lead to self-discovery and his self-acceptance. “His journey to Africa,” according to Dasht Peyma, “inspired by the apparition, and his escape into the forest are both imaginary journeys made in his mind. The dream journeys are symbolic; archetypal quests rooted in the ethnic history and collective consciousness of Caribbean people” (2009, p. 159).

It seems the dream in this play belongs both to Makak and to collective atmosphere of the whole plot. At the same time, as Makak’s dream of Africa is displayed, he remembers a dream in which a white Goddess looks after him. However, he gives up this dream brutally beheading the woman with an African sword. This sacrifice expresses a sound reaction against a fantasy life alienated from reality.

B. *Dream on Monkey Mountain: A Christian Allegory in the Face of Colonisation*

Dream on Monkey Mountain, as Dasht Peyma states, “can be a political allegory of the state of the blacks in the postcolonial world in general and in the Caribbean in particular.” The main character of the play, “Makak, is determined to go back to Africa as part of his vision” (2009, p. 158). Makak’s journey, as Dasht Peyma believes, “involves some echoes of Christ (some kind of Messiah Figure—all throughout the play): Makak is compared to the Black Messiah who will lead the people of Africa and the African Diaspora to freedom” (2009, p. 159). In prison, two robbers follow him, and from Good Friday, he looks forwards “to the moment of resurrection on Easter Sunday.” The prison can be a symbol of both “life and colonial rule” (2009, p. 159). Makak urges Moustique to leave everything behind and follow him; Makak heals the sick Josephus by urging him simply to believe and even Moustique tells the peasants that Makak “breathe resurrection” and he is “God’s messenger” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 251); “the wonder stories that people tell of Makak, and the doubt they encounter, are reminiscent of Gospel accounts; in the prison and in the escape to Monkey Mountain,” Makak is “accompanied by two thieves, a Christ on the cross. Souris becomes a convert to Makak’s faith, while Tigre remains outside, with his vision of souls tormented in hell” (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 159).

Dream on Monkey Mountain “is set on an unnamed island in the West Indies at an unspecified time, assumed to be contemporary with the time the play was written. The play’s action takes place in several locations, both real and imagined” (phantasmagorical narrative). The most real place is the prison run by Corporal Lestrade, where the play begins and ends. “Lestrade furiously defends the English law, but the law is used to abuse justice when he goes through a perfunctory justification of Makak’s readiness to stand trial.” In Makak’s dream, the action goes from his hut on Monkey Mountain to a country road where he heals a sick man and then to the public marketplace before returning to the prison cell. After Makak, and two other black prisoners, Tigre and Souris (the two thieves in a supporting role like those by Christ’s Crucifixion), escape, they spend time in the forest before going to a most unreal setting where Makak is a king. “All of these settings underline Makak’s journey from a real existence that is harsh, through self-awareness, and back to a reality in which he functions as a better person” (Dasht Peyma, 2009, pp. 161–62).

Makak’s situation in prison can be seen as a metaphor for the mental situation brought about by colonialism through Corporal Lestrade. “Makak has just been arrested for being drunk and smashing a local café while claiming he was the king of Africa.” Tigre and Souris try to challenge the Corporal “as he does his duty.” The Corporal grows irritated and compared them to “animals.” Corporal Lestrade, who is a “mulatto, represents the complicity of certain elements of the black community with the colonisers, although he should be the ally of the other blacks” (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 162). He mocks three black prisoners:

CORPORAL. Animals, beasts, savages, cannibals, niggers, stop turning this place to a stinking zoo! (Walcott, Dream, 1970, p. 216)

He calls black people a tribe of apes:

CORPORAL. In the beginning was the ape, and the ape had no name, so God call him man. Now there were various tribes of the ape, it had gorilla, baboon, orang-outa, chimpanzee, the blue-arsed monkey and marmoset, and God looked at his handiwork, and saw that it was good. For some of the apes had straighten their backbone, and start walking upright, but there was one tribe unfortunately that lingered behind, and that was the nigger. Now if you apes will behave like gentlemen, who knows what could happen? (Walcott, Dream, 1970, pp. 216–17)

The whole passage is a parody of “Genesis,” full of grammatical errors and misspellings. The Corporal asks Makak for basic information, but the prisoner only wants to go home. Lestrade mockingly asks him, “Where is your home? Africa?” The implication is that he has no homeland. It seems Walcott, through Makak, speaks about racial despair and the sense of complete loss of hope for his race. In “Ref. [7]”, Walcott links this feeling to being “rootless,” having no connection with a tradition that gives one personal value, of having no home, of being a stranger in a home owned by someone else, by whites (1970, p. 21).

A mock trial conducted by the Corporal, where Tigre and Souris put on towels as “judge’s robes and the Corporal defends Makak. The Corporal presents the facts of the case to the judges. He reveals that Makak claims to have had a dream in which he was told he was the direct descendant of African kings”. The Corporal charges that Makak created a “disturbance in a public bar and that he spoke obscenely about a dream” he had and in which “he had spoken to a spirit” (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 163). In addition, Makak is charged with urging others to “join him in seduction and the defilement of the flag” (Walcott, Dream, 1970, p. 225). “The trial,” as Dasht Peyma illustrates, “parodies Christ’s appearance before Pontius Pilate, the governor of the Roman Judaea province, and therefore establishes Makak as some kind of Messiah figure” (2009, p. 163).

When Makak comes to make his deposition, his cage is flown out of sight, and as he tells his vision, its subject—white Goddess—appears and then withdraws. This is the dream which has caused him to go berserk and in his madness claim to be “the direct descendant of African kings, a healer of leprosy and the saviour of his race” (Walcott, Dream, 1970, p. 225).

In scene one, seeing his friend, Moustique, Makak says that he thinks he is going mad and asks Moustique how long they have known each other. Moustique tells him, “Three, four” years. Makak tells sceptical Moustique of his early morning encounter with the white Goddess, which he insists was not a dream. She amazed him by calling out his real name; a name he does not use.

MAKAK. Saddle my horse, if you love me, Moustique, and cut a sharp bamboo for me, and put me on that horse, for Makak will ride to the edge of world, Makak will walk like he used to in Africa, when his name was lion! (Walcott, Dream, 1970, p. 240)

In act one, scene two, “a group of women robed in white runs onstage, dancing and singing. They are followed by men carrying a sick man on a stretcher.” Makak cures the apparently sick man by holding a hot coal in one hand and touching the man’s head with the other. Coal in this metaphor can be racial blackness; it is one of the cheapest commodities in the marketplace. Charcoal burning is the work of those who can get nothing better. Then, the “pressure,” is oppression. Yet through self-trust, coal can become “diamond” (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 165). When it seems that his efforts have failed, Makak blames self-hatred and lack of faith:

MAKAK. Let us go on compere. These niggers too tired to believe anything again. (Walcott, Dream, 1970, p. 250)

Makak’s words recall his own answer, in the prologue, to Corporal Lestrade’s question, “What is your race?”: “I am tired.” If the others are “trees without names,” Makak also has forgotten his name and has been lost between the false identities of “Monkey” and “Lion.” Makak is overwhelmed by the power he possesses now but Moustique’s attitude is completely mercenary, “I see a sick man with snake bite and a set o’ damn asses using old-time medicine. I see a road

paved with silver” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 250). From the beginning of scene one, Makak is accompanied by Moustique, like Don Quixote and Sancho Panza; however, this company reminds us of Christ and Peter, with his special greed in silver. Moustique’s greed brings disaster. He impersonates Makak by appropriating Makak’s vision to their own ends, and “he uses the language of Afrocentrism to get money from the people in the marketplace.” However, “his betrayal of the vision is itself betrayed” (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 166), when he is recognised by Basil that he is not Makak, which in turn leads the people to reject the false prophet.

At the heart of *Dream on Monkey Mountain* there is “a search for and acceptance of one’s identity. When Makak is questioned at the beginning of the play, he cannot tell Corporal Lestrade his real name or much about himself” (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 167).

In act two, scene two, Makak, Tigre and Souris arrive in the forest. Moustique explains:

MOUSTIQUE. When I was a little boy, living in darkness, I was so afraid, it was as if I was sinking, drowning in a grave and me and the darkness was the same, and God was like a big white man, a big white man I was afraid of. (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 290)

Souris being frightened in the darkness of forest explains:

SOURIS. And that is what they teach me since I small. To be black like coal, and to dream of milk. To love God, and obey the white man. (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 290)

The result is a strain and rupture in identity. When all value is associated with whiteness, blacks almost necessarily seek to repudiate blackness, which is impossible. In the moonlight, the Corporal meets Basil and is made to confess his sins:

CORPORAL. Too late have I loved thee, Africa of my mind ... I jeered thee because I hated half of myself, my eclipse. But now in the heart of the forest at the foot of Monkey Mountain ... I kiss your foot, O’ Monkey Mountain. [*He removes his clothes*] I return to this earth, my mother... now I am myself. [*Rises*] Now I feel better. Now I see a new light. (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 299)

Corporal Lestrade, alienated from his black self by his service to the whites, seems for a while, “cured of that alienation when the others make him strip naked” (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 168). Makak tells him, “They rejected half of you. We accept all. Rise. Take off your boots!” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 300) Makak welcomes the Corporal back to the life given him at birth. Tigre comes out and scoffs at the Corporal, saying that now he knows what it is like to be a “nigger,” naked, vulnerable, and humiliated, an animal. Makak tries to get Tigre to stop. Makak confesses he is lost and has forgotten the way. He surrenders his dream of Africa and admits that he is lonely, lost, an old man again:

MAKAK. I was a king among shadows. Either the shadows were real, and I was no king, or it is my own kingliness that created the shadows... I am lonely, lost, an old man again... drunk and disorderly, beaten down by a Bible, and tired of looking up to heaven (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 304).

Makak is now only a “shadow”, horrified by his new vision of his own people who wrangle among themselves, and disobey him, “O’ God, O’ Gods, why did you give me this burden?” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 305)

In act two, scene three, the apex scene, the dream reaches its climax in parody and pantomime. The scene functions as a dream-within-the-dream. The Chorus introduces the scene as a collective fantasy, and “the tribe” seems to take on a communal African identity. As the Chorus sings and dances in his praise, Makak is placed upon his throne. As Makak says that he is only a shadow, he is glorified as the “inventor of history.” Earlier in the play, Walcott mocks Caribbean mimicry of European standards; here he pokes fun at the back to Africa movement (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 219).

Makak wants to identify his Apparition, the white Goddess. However, the Corporal insists that she should be beheaded in a powerful passage, which summarises the injurious effects of European cultural conditioning, and suggests that its power is dependent on the colonised person’s own complicity:

CORPORAL. She is the white light that paralysed your mind that led you into this confusion. It is you who created her, so kill her! Kill her! The law has spoken. (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 319)

Makak beheads her. In so doing, he drives out “the stranglehold which the European side of his heritage has on him.” However, since the white Goddess “is responsible for his African dream, the beheading also involves repudiation” on Afrocentric cultural essentialism (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 171). Therefore, Makak rejects simultaneously the twin “bewitching” of Europe and Africa and tells, “Now, O’ God, Now I am free” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 320). Makak recovers his real name. He has been called Makak—Monkey—until now, but now he is not a colonial mimic, imitating European or supposed African modes of behavior. He says, “My name is Felix Hobain ... I believe in my God” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 322). The final tone of Makak’s experience is acceptance, but the Corporal’s tune is still the same. The Corporal’s last words are, “Here is a prison. Our life is a prison.” However, Makak’s last words are very different. The suggestion is that the coming to term with hybrid origin and identity is an issue of relevance for all Caribbean people.

The play ends with Felix Hobain’s (Makak’s) realisation:

MAKAK. Makak lives where he has always lived, in the dream of his people. Other men will come, other prophets will come, and they will be stoned, and mocked, and betrayed, but now this old hermit is going back home, back to the beginning, to the green beginning of this world. (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 326)

Makak’s powerful passage clearly argues against a return to Africa. For Makak, home is the Caribbean land. It is viewed as “the green beginning of this world.”

C. *Dream on Monkey Mountain: An Exploration of Revolutionary Consciousness*

According to Lloyd Brown in his article, "Ref. [4]", in Walcott's *Dream on Monkey Mountain* "the quest for an African identity becomes an exploration of that revolutionary consciousness which is the subject of Black (revolutionary) theatre in America" (1993, p. 193).

Walcott's play, as Brown argues, is painstakingly explicit about his symbolic structure. "The overt emphasis of both the 'dream' title and the Narrative phantasmagoria is unmistakable" (1993, p. 193). So are the explicit statements of the author's "The play is a dream, one that exists as much in the given minds of its principal characters as in that of its writer, and as such, it is illogical, derivative, contradictory" (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 208).

From here, as Brown argues, "it is not difficult to accept the play's 'revolution' as a dream, a vision which symbolically projects the revolutionary potential of Makak." In other words, the play is "an analysis of whatever exists in the minds of the hero and his contemporaries—his messianic dream about a Back-to-Africa pilgrimage from the oppressive poverty of the Caribbean, [to] his obsessive ambivalence towards the White world" (1993, p. 193).

Conversely, the revolutionary "dream" or the visionary quest of Walcott's Makak, as Brown asserts, symbolically projects the "psychological realities of the Black man's relationship with both the White West and with the African past" (1993, p. 194). The play's action represents the fantasies which constitute Makak's dream-world and which are re-enacted in his mind during his overnight imprisonment; he is a Black Messiah whose quest for an African identity (he plans to return to Africa) "is inspired by an 'Apparition' (an image of the White woman)." But Walcott does not allow us the luxury of viewing Makak's dream "as an isolated, individual fantasy, for we are a part of his dream." Meanwhile, our implication is dramatised by the manner in which the "spectators" within the play/dream are incorporated into Makak's visionary world; his cell-mates, Tigre and Souris, the jailor Corporal Lestrade, and Makak's partner, Moustique—they are all principal actors in Makak's "fantasies" because, "although they see him as a weak-headed old man, the dream also exists in their minds and implicitly, in the minds of the play's Black (theatre) audience" (Brown, 1993, p. 195).

In one sense, according to Brown, "our African dream and our revolutionary transcendentalism are a kind of escape" (1993, p. 195). On its most elemental, sexual level, Makak's dream of a white goddess/apparition compensates for the fact that he is ugly, sexually repulsive, and lonely. And beyond this, "his dream lifts him above the harshness of his everyday poverty; the vision of an African splendour compensates for the self-hate that is ingrained in the Black psyche in a White world" (1993, p. 195). As Makak himself summarises, "I have left death, failure, disappointment, despair in the wake of my dreams" (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 305). But the nature of Makak's dream also touches upon the "ambiguities and ironic self-conflicts of a Black revolutionary consciousness, for our revolutionary dreams are not merely forms of escape." They are also, "paradoxically, a psycho-existential affirmation of self, of Black selfhood. However, overly idealistic his revolutionary cause may be, and despite the romanticisation of his 'royal' African heritage, Makak affirms his human identity precisely because the capacity to dream has survived within him" (Brown, 1993, p. 195).

As we will see later, according to Jungian Individuation, at the end of the quest, a new self emerges. Before his vision Makak is "despised and self-hating, an impoverished hermit whose ugliness makes Monkey Mountain an appropriate habitat." But at the end of his dream Makak expresses a "triumphant sense of his own humanity which has been confirmed for us by his proven capacity for dream." So that when he is released from prison "the regaining of physical freedom is analogous to a birth, to revolutionary beginnings for Makak and his people" (Brown, 1993, p. 195).

MAKAK. ...I have been washed from shore to shore, as a tree in the ocean. The branches of my fingers, the roots of my feet, could grip nothing, but now, God, they have found ground. Let me be swallowed up in mist again, and let me be forgotten, so that when the mist open, men can look up, at some small clearing with a hut, with a small signal of smoke, and say, "Makak lives there. Makak lives where he has always lived, in the dream of his people." Other men will come, other prophets will come, and they will be stoned, and mocked, and betrayed, but now this old hermit is going back home, back to the beginning, to the green beginning of this world. (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 326)

In other words, as Brown continues, the romantic fantasies about an African "home" of royal lions act as a catalyst, enabling Makak and his people to come home to their human selves. "The dream-fantasy about revolution involves and confirms a very real revolutionising of self-perception." But this phantasmagorical/fantasy-reality paradox does not account for all the "ambiguities which Walcott attributes to Makak's dream and its revolutionary ethos" (Brown, 1993, p. 195). Since the very nature of Makak's vision highlights a certain tension of self-conflict in the development of a revolutionary consciousness. "His revolutionary Black awareness can only be fully developed once he recognises that the Apparition represents his continuing and subconscious allegiance to the White world which his rhetoric rejects" (Brown, 1993, p. 196). When Makak beheads the Apparition, the self-conflict ends, because in his words, he is now "free"—of White value systems and images which have stunted his Black self-awareness.

Then, Makak's dream, as Brown argues, is a "mirror which reflects the paradoxes in his emergent self-awareness. The full development of a Black revolutionary consciousness depends upon a frank recognition of the Whiteness within, and of the Black-White tensions which account for the Black man's notorious double-consciousness," (the awareness of being a split person, a dual self whose different parts are at dire odds with one another. In one person; therefore, we have two deeply divided tendencies), "but which ironically, also spark his perceptual revolution by forcing him to confront his self-contradictions" (Brown, 1993, p. 197). Having recognised his self-hate and Whiteness for what it is,

then he must destroy it before he can progress from his initial ambiguities (Black rhetoric, White Apparition) to the unequivocal freedom of Black self-acceptance. This is the kind of progression that the Black American critic Larry Neal describes; the Black revolution is an internal violence, “the destruction of a weak spiritual self for a more perfect self. But it will be a necessary violence.” It is the only thing that “will destroy the double-consciousness—the tension that is in the souls of the black folk” (Brown, 1993, p. 197). Makak is the dreamer whose visions are, in one sense, symbolical of that fantasy/escape which colours the prophetic ideal. However, in a more pressing sense these visions also imply the capacity to revolutionise self-perception. Hence, although the dreams themselves must end, this ending is actually a beginning—the existential beginning of a new Black self-definition.

D. Dream on Monkey Mountain under the Light of Jungian Psychology and Its Archetypal Insights

Carl Jung's foremost contribution to myth criticism is his “theory of racial memory and archetypes.” In developing this concept, “Jung expanded Freud's theories of the personal unconscious, asserting that beneath this is a primeval, collective unconscious shared in the psychic inheritance of all members of the human family” (Guerin et al., 1985, p. 176). Just as certain instincts are inherited, “so more complex psychic predispositions (that is, a ‘racial memory’) are inherited by human beings” (Guerin et al., 1985, p. 176). Jung was also careful to explain that “archetypes are not inherited ideas or patterns of thought, but rather that they are predispositions to respond in similar ways to certain stimuli.” He indicated further that “archetypes reveal themselves in the dreams of individuals, so that we might say that dreams are personalised myths and myths are depersonalised dreams” (Guerin et al., 1985, p. 177).

One major contribution is Jung's “theory of individuation as related to those archetypes designated as the shadow, the persona, and the anima. Individuation is a psychological ‘growing up,’ the process of discovering those aspects of one's self that make one an individual different from other members of his species.” It is essentially a process of recognition—that is, as he matures, the individual must consciously recognise the various aspects, unfavourable as well as favourable, of his total self. Jung theorises that neuroses (like madness in Makak's case) are the result of “the person's failure to confront and to accept some archetypal component of his unconscious” (Guerin et al., 1985, p. 179).

The shadow, persona, and anima are “structural components of the psyche that man has inherited. The shadow is the darker side of our unconscious self, the inferior and less pleasing aspects of the personality, which we wish to suppress” (Guerin et al., 1985, p. 180). The white Goddess, with her femme fatale seductions, is a classic representation of the devil figure designated by Jung as the shadow. She represents the dangerous aspect of the unrecognised dark half of Makak's personality, as well as his anima.

The anima is perhaps the most complex of Jung's archetypes. It is the “soul-image,” in this sense; “anima is the contrasexual part of man's psyche, the image of the opposite sex that he carries in both his personal and his collective unconscious. In other words, the human psyche is bisexual, though the psychological characteristics of the opposite sex in each of us are generally unconscious, revealing themselves only in dreams or in projections on someone in our environment” (Guerin et al., 1985, pp. 180–81). The persona is the “actor's mask that we show to the world—it is our social personality, a personality that is sometimes quite different from our true self.” Jung explains that, “to achieve psychological maturity, the individual must have a flexible, viable persona that can be brought into harmonious relation with the other components of his psychic makeup.” He states that an artificial or rigid persona results in such symptoms of neurotic disturbance as irritability and melancholy (Guerin et al., 1985, pp. 180–81).

“The literary relevance of Jung's theory of shadow, anima, and persona may be seen in our analysis” of Derek Walcott's play *Dream on Monkey Mountain*. In the first place, “Makak's persona is both false and inflexible.” It is the social mask of a Messiah-figure, healing, self-righteous Christian—the persona of a prophet with all the connotations. In truth and reality, none of his miracles works. “His failure to recognise himself,” when he confronts the white Goddess (his shadow), is merely another “indication of his spiritual immaturity.” He has been stunted at first “in his psychological growth (individuation) because he is unable to confront his shadow,” recognise it “as a part of his own psyche, and assimilate it to his consciousness.” However, after the Corporal Lestrade (once here as the image of the Wise Old Man, albeit being incomplete) insists on beheading the white Goddess, Makak beheads her and restores his identity (Guerin et al., 1985, pp. 180–81).

The fundamental myth found in this play is “the Myth of Edenic Possibilities, which reflects the hope of creating a second Paradise, not in the next world and not outside time,” (Guerin et al., 1985, p. 187), but in the Caribbean land, viewed as “the green beginning of this world” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 326), “a place where man, after centuries of poverty, misery, and corruption, could have a second chance” to fulfil, in reality, “his mythic yearnings for a return to Paradise”. Closely related to the Myth of Edenic Possibilities is the concept of the mythic New World hero (Adamic hero) who is described “as a radically new personality, the hero of the new adventure; an individual emancipated from history, happily bereft of ancestry, untouched and undefiled by the usual inheritances of family and race, an individual standing alone, self-reliant and self-propelling, ready to confront whatever awaited him with the aid of his own unique and inherent resources” (Guerin et al., 1985, p. 187).

Dream on Monkey Mountain is informed by several archetypal patterns and symbolic meanings encountered throughout world literature. These examples are by no means comprehensive, but represent some of the more common archetypal images that the reader is probably to face in literature. At the centre of numerous critics' reading of the play are Makak and the dream journeys he goes on that lead to self-discovery and his self-acceptance. “His journey to Africa,” according to Dasht Peyma, “inspired by the Apparition, and his escape into the forest are both imaginary

journeys made in his mind. The dream journeys are symbolic; archetypal quests rooted in the ethnic history and collective consciousness of Caribbean people” (2009, p. 159).

It seems the dream in this play belongs both to Makak and to collective atmosphere of the whole plot. At the same time, as Makak’s dream of Africa is displayed, he remembers a dream in which a white Goddess looks after him. However, he gives up this dream brutally beheading the woman with an African sword. This sacrifice expresses a sound reaction against a fantasy life alienated from reality. Her beheading signifies the scapegoat sacrifice. Here the central motif with which Derek Walcott deals is the archetype of scapegoat. This motif centred in the belief that, by transferring the corruptions of the tribe to the white Goddess, “then by killing her (this scapegoat), the tribe could achieve the cleansing and atonement thought necessary for natural and spiritual rebirth. This blood sacrifice and purification were considered as a magical guarantee of rejuvenation, an insurance of life” (Guerin et al., 1985, p. 166).

Makak, demonstrating the features of a redeemer and a saviour, is a “mythic and microcosmic representation of the lives of West Indians and of the legacy of racial subjugation and poverty” (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 160). His journey, as Dasht Peyma believes, “involves some echoes of Christ: Makak is compared to the Black Messiah who will lead the people of Africa and the African Diaspora to freedom” (2009, p. 159). All this passage establishes Makak as some kind of Messiah figure.

In Makak’s dream, “the action goes from his hut on Monkey Mountain to a country road where he heals a sick man and then to the public marketplace before returning to the prison cell.” After Makak, and two other black prisoners, Tigre and Souris, escape, “they spend time in the forest” before going to a most unreal setting where Makak is a king. “All of these settings underline Makak’s journey from a real existence that is harsh, through self-awareness, and back to a reality in which he functions as a better person” (Dasht Peyma, 2009, pp. 161–62). Makak’s “dark quest leads him down the labyrinthine ways of the human mystery, the mystery of man’s life and destiny” (identity). His quest is the quest undertaken by all of Caribbean people “who would gain that rare and elusive philosopher’s stone, self-knowledge” (Dasht Peyma, 2009, pp. 161–62).

What we encounter noticeably here is the very common archetypal images of hero archetypes (archetypes of transformation and redemption). Through his quest, Makak, as a saviour or deliverer, undertakes an imaginary journey. Like Don Quixote, Makak is a wanderer, separated from his homeland, idealistically in search of a reality more substantial than that embraced by the ancestry society he has rejected. Forest signifies paradise; innocence; unspoiled beauty; and fertility. Due to his forest dream, a quest to restore his identity, Makak “undergoes a series of painful experiences in passing from ignorance and innocence into spiritual maturity (Guerin et al., 1985, p. 162); he comes to the age of a moral reborn—when he decides to behead the white Goddess to release himself and his nation. Makak’s situation in prison can be seen as a metaphor for the mental situation brought about by colonialism through Corporal Lestrade. “Makak has just been arrested for being drunk and smashing a local café while claiming he was the king of Africa.” As he tells his vision, its subject—white Goddess—appears and then withdraws. This is the dream which has caused him to go berserk and in his madness claim to be “the direct descendant of African kings, a healer of leprosy and the saviour of his race” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 225).

Dream on Monkey Mountain is a play that explores “the various ways in which racism defines an unlivable identity for oppressed people, an identity that pushes towards madness” (Hogan, 2000, p. 45). Walcott, at various points, makes this theme explicit. For example, he draws the epigraph for part one from Sartre’s prologue to “Ref. [10]”: because of “always being insulted,” the self becomes “dissociated, and the patient heads for madness” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 211). On the other hand, as the mulatto Corporal Lestrade puts it in dialogue with Basil: “My mind, my mind. What’s happened to my mind?” and Basil replies: “It was never yours, Lestrade” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 297). His mind was never his own because it was always defined by the attributed categories of racism, because his identity was always a matter of what he was told he was. When Makak has a vision of the white Goddess in the prison, Lestrade says, “My Lord, is this rage for whiteness that does drive niggers mad” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 228). A number of writers examined the ways in which oppressive ideologies undermine personal identity and even lead to madness. (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 158). Thus, much of the play explores the absolute valorisation of whiteness, and absolute devaluation of blackness in colonial racist ideology.

In act two, the scene three functions as a dream—within—the-dream. The Chorus introduces the scene as a collective fantasy, and “the tribe” seems to take on a communal African identity. As the Chorus sings and dances in his praise, Makak is placed upon his throne. As Makak says that he is only a shadow, he is glorified as the “inventor of history.” Earlier in the play, Walcott mocks Caribbean mimicry of European standards; here he pokes fun at the back to Africa movement (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 219).

Makak wants to identify his Apparition, the white Goddess. However, the Corporal insists that she should be beheaded in a powerful passage, which summarises the injurious effects of European cultural conditioning, and suggests that its power is dependent on the colonised person’s own complicity:

CORPORAL. She is the white light that paralysed your mind that led you into this confusion. It is you who created her, so kill her! Kill her! The law has spoken. (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 319)

The Corporal Lestrade, albeit providing incomplete pattern, here exemplifies the Jungian concept of the Wise Old Man who is “the custodian of law and order during the later years of colonial power. In the dream scene of a mock trial,” Lestrade accuses Makak of being drunk and damaging the premises of a local salesperson. He provides the social

guidance and moral wisdom for the old hero. The Corporal Lestrade insists that the white Goddess should be beheaded. This is the only remedy to emancipate Makak and his tribe. Makak beheads her. In so doing, he drives out “the stranglehold which the European side of his heritage has on him.” However, since the white Goddess is “responsible for his African dream, the beheading also involves repudiation” on Afrocentric cultural essentialism (Dasht Peyma, 2009, p. 171). Therefore, Makak rejects simultaneously the twin “bewitching” of Europe and Africa and tells, “Now, O’ God, Now I am free” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 320). Makak recovers his real name. He has been called Makak—Monkey—until now, but now he is not a colonial mimic, imitating European or supposed African modes of behavior. He says, “My name is Felix Hobain ... I believe in my God” (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 322). Her white colour (in its negative aspect) signifies death, horror, the supernatural, and the impairing truth of a baffling global mystery. In addition, the white Goddess represents the archetypal woman (*femme fatale*), associated with sensuality, fear, danger, darkness, and death; the unconscious in its terrifying aspects.

The final tone of Makak’s experience is acceptance: the suggestion is that the coming to term with hybrid origin and identity is an issue of relevance for all Caribbean people. The play ends with Felix Hobain’s (Makak’s) realisation:

MAKAK. Makak lives where he has always lived, in the dream of his people. Other men will come, other prophets will come, and they will be stoned, and mocked, and betrayed, but now this old hermit is going back home, back to the beginning, to the green beginning of this world. (Walcott, *Dream*, 1970, p. 326)

Makak’s powerful passage clearly argues against a return to Africa. For Makak, home is the Caribbean land. It is viewed as “the green beginning of this world.” The green colour here (in its positive aspect) is an archetype and has a symbolic meaning signifying growth, sensation, hope, fertility and continuity.

IV. CONCLUSION

When identifying different strands of criticism on Walcott’s *Dream on Monkey Mountain*, one is pleasantly surprised by the scope of theoretical approaches towards his dramatic work. Almost every critical school of literary theory can be found in the writings on Walcott’s theatre. This variety of critical approaches may be due to the fact that the scope of Walcott’s works for the stage ranges from epic drama to musical. This diversity in form is paralleled by an even greater variety of content, making it all but impossible to tag Walcott’s drama with a single label.

An investigation into the play from the perspective of the Jungian psychology could deepen our understanding of the orchestrating function of the collective unconscious and, more important, Derek Walcott’s philosophical reflections on racial memory, dreams, and archetypes. *Dream on Monkey Mountain* is not only a dream but also a play, with an audience that participates in the dreaming. Makak’s hallucinations, his people’s hallucinations, become shared with the audience. The audience members complete the play as they participate in the collective delirium, collective dream, and potentially collective resistance, conveying the communal qualities of decolonisation.

As we considered, in *Dream on Monkey Mountain*, Makak was the dreamer whose visions were, in one sense, symbolical of that fantasy/escape which coloured his prophetic ideal (*Dream on Monkey Mountain* as a Christian Allegory in the Face of Colonisation). However, in a more pressing sense these visions also implied the capacity to revolutionise self-perception (*Dream on Monkey Mountain* as an Exploration of Revolutionary Consciousness). Hence, although the dreams themselves had to end, the ending was actually a beginning—the existential beginning of a new Black self-definition (*Dream on Monkey Mountain* under the Light of Jungian Psychology and its Archetypal Insights).

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A Cross-cultural Analysis of Brand Personality: Comparisons of China's and the US Energy Companies' English Websites

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Abstract—With the rapid development of economic globalization, projecting a positive image overseas and creating world famous brands have become vital to enhance industrial and national core competencies and execute the "Going out" strategy. To achieve the goals, corporates attach significance to establish and maintain corporate websites in view of its convenience, autonomy and interactivity while encountering cross-cultural challenges. This study employs corpus analytical tools to conduct content analysis on the existing cross-cultural differences and the linguistic and cultural features, between Chinese and US energy companies' websites based on Aaker's brand personality framework and Hofstede's cultural dimension theory. Findings reveal that there is a significant difference between occurrence frequencies of brand personality dimensions between China and US, and their websites linguistic discrepancies are relevant to their cultural differences. The study may provide meaningful implications on employing linguistic theories and methods to conduct multidisciplinary studies on corporate communication online.

Index Terms—cross-cultural, brand personality, corporate website, China, the US

I. INTRODUCTION

In the year of 2015, energy companies on *Fortune Global 500* has a slight increase by 0.49 percent in total operating income, but the overall decreased by 14.76 percent in profits margins, which can be attributed to several uncontrollable factors including sluggish global economic recovery, general decline in commodity prices, and China's "New Normal". Although the total income and profit of Chinese energy companies on the ranking list have increased by 6.8 and 11.7 percent respectively, their roles in the global market will be further highlighted in the future. The whole industry's profitability has decreased significantly, operating income and profits both declined, with only one more company getting ranked among the 500 list. Oil and gas companies still account for the largest proportion, whose profitability has dropped substantially, while that of power companies has improved. Minerals and coal companies have suffered the severest decline in profits that greatly bring down their rankings. Considering the development of the world economy, we expect energy companies will continue to play an important role for quite a long period of time, especially in developing countries, since energy resources are the main power and material source, as well as engines of economic development and employment. However, the booming of energy alternatives and environmental protection has been worsening the situation of energy companies. To survive this, energy industry has become more eager for corporate identity marketing and branding, seeing corporate brands as a guarantee of quality and insurance against the irreplaceability. Therefore, the energy companies are prompted to enhance branding awareness to gain a long-term competitive advantage.

Corporate brand personality, as a key component of corporate image and an outcome of corporate branding (Keller & Richey, 2006), is significantly related corporate communications in websites (Okazaki, 2006), which combine multimodal elements (text, image, video, interactive functions, etc. Simões (2015) reveals that companies utilize a consistent online presence to convey their brands and build stakeholders relationships, especially for those operate globally. According to Breeze (2013), corporate identity, currently multidimensional and dynamic, is realized through corporate communication discourse. As a powerful and accessible means of corporate communication, corporate website helps translating corporate identity into corporate image and finally corporate reputation (Dowling, 2001). For a long time, foreign-market-oriented companies have been struggling with two choices, whether to standardize global websites or to adapt their websites to local cultural preferences (Chao, Singh & Chen, 2012). A much larger proportion of researchers have validated the effectiveness of localizing corporate websites instead of globalizing them with empirical evidences covering both developed and developing countries. Practitioners also agree that cultural adaptation of corporate websites can ensure successful marketing campaigns online (Vence, 2005), moreover, they need guidance to localize corporate websites culturally as well as linguistically.

Previous studies tend to focus on investigating themes and designs of corporate websites employing marketing

theories, or corporate communication, while linguistic exploration of online corporate communication discourse is not yet adequate, especially from China's perspective and a lot of attention has been paid to online branding and corporate identity construction via its website, especially as an aspect of professional communication, there is only very little research that looks at the processes involved in these activities from a quantitative linguistic analytical perspective or in corporate websites localization construction, which is seriously out of accordance with the Belt and Road Initiative and the rapid growth of overseas direct investment. To fill this gap, we make this cross-cultural study of "about us" in Chinese and US energy companies' websites based on the Aaker's dimensions of corporate brand personality by employing computerized content analysis. Brand personality is assessed in terms of what the company itself intends to convey to the public. Some managerial best practices are proposed for Chinese companies to effectively use brand personality dimensions to develop a unique corporate identity in the international market.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory

Several studies, based on Hofstede's researches, deal with cultural differences in websites. According to Hofstede, national cultures can be measured according to four dimensions: the first one is power distance (PD), the degree of inequality in power between a less powerful individual and a more powerful other. Specifically, high PD cultures, e.g. those in Asia or Latin America, are characterized by wide inequalities in power systems, centralized and hierarchical structures, and dependence on higher ranked staff (e.g. supervisors). In contrast, for example, Northern European countries are deemed low PD cultures. The second one is individualism vs collectivism (IDV). The dimension characterizes collectivist cultures as relationship and group orientated. In contrast, individual orientated cultures are those in which people are expected to take greater responsibility, and where attention is drawn towards the individual. The third one is femininity vs masculinity (MAS). Masculinity is considered to describe a culture in which assertiveness, achievement and material possessions are seen as masculine goal-orientated behavior. In contrast, femininity is more modest, tender, able and willing to reach compromises, as well as concerned with the quality of life. Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) describes a lack of tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity. Highly structured rules within organizations, or intolerance towards groups or individuals who have different ideas or behavior styles, characterized high uncertainty avoidance cultures. Moreover, individuals are expected to take and accept risks and responsibilities, as well as demonstrate independence in their own roles (Hofstede, 1984).

Websites cultural markers have a positive association with the Hofstede's cultural dimensions: when the Hofstede's cultural dimensions differ, diversity arises among cultural markers of websites. This result strongly recommends that culture awareness is necessary to improve management of cross-cultural online communication (Burgmann, Kitchen & Williams, 2006). Several studies analyze content of websites according to a cross-cultural perspective (Burnett & Buerkle, 2004), cultural adaptation of websites improving effectiveness of companies' internationalization strategies. Recent studies stress that, in globalized markets, the ability to manage cultural diversity is a strategic competence that companies have to employ for designing their websites. Other researches analyze websites of transnational companies and show that their operating in high and low context cultures dominated by indirect communication. Several studies focus on website cultural indicators, but only few researches are conducted on energy companies' websites.

B. Corporate Identity and Brand

A corporate identity is the manner which a corporation, firm or business presents themselves to the public, such as customers and investors as well as employees. It is a primary task of corporate communication to maintain and build this identity to accord with and facilitate business objectives. Typically it is visually manifested by way of branding and the use of trademarks, but also includes things like product design, advertising, public relations (Judith, 2001), which gives organizations their distinctiveness. Corporate identity is more than the visual identity of the company, and goes beyond the internal reality defined by the different cultures that shape the company's personality. Corporate brand is grounded on the corporate identity. The systemic alignment of corporate identity could form a solid and positive corporate reputation, viewed by all stakeholders of a company over time and key source of the competitive advantage. Therefore, corporate reputation cannot be managed, but can be improved by corporate identity management. Corporate website as a more powerful and accessible means of corporate communication helps translating corporate identity into corporate image and finally corporate reputation. Therefore, corporate website has received increasing attention of researchers.

C. Corporate Brand Personality Scale

Brand personality has been widely studied in marketing for many years. Aaker introduced a five-dimensional brand personality scale in 1997, which disclosed five distinct and robust personality categories: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness, represented by 15 attributes and 42 items (Table 1), Sincerity shares many attributes with Agreeableness. Excitement is defined with energy and activity of Extraversion. Competence denotes dependability and achievement like Conscientiousness. Sophistication and Ruggedness capture more aspirational images associated with wealth and status. This study is theoretically based on Aaker's brand personality framework. Aaker's theory is the most well-known scale and has been widely reviewed, extended and replicated by many

researches for examining companies' online identify especially mission and vision statements, which support its validity, reliability and international practicability. Another reason to choose Aaker's scale is that it is linguistically accessible.

TABLE 1:
WEBSITE BRAND PERSONALITY EVALUATION CRITERIA (AAKER, 1997)

Dimensions	Traits	Example of words	Number of words
Sincerity	• Down-to-earth	• Down-to-earth, Family-oriented, Small-town	174
	• Honest	• Honest, Sincere, Real	
	• Wholesome	• Wholesome, Original	
	• Cheerful	• Cheerful, Sentimental, Friendly	
Excitement	• Daring	• Daring, Trendy, Exciting	143
	• Spirited	• Spirited, Cool, Young	
	• Imaginative	• Imaginative, Unique	
	• Up-to-date	• Up-to-date, Independent, Contemporary	
Competence	• Reliable	• Reliable, Hardworking, Secure	168
	• Intelligent	• Intelligent, Technical, Corporate	
	• Successful	• Successful, Leader, Confident	
Sophistication	• Upper class	• Upper-class, Glamorous, Good-looking	174
	• Charming	• Charming, Feminine, smooth	
Ruggedness	• Outdoorsy	• Tough, Rugged, Masculine	174
	• Tough	• Outdoorsy, Western	

Website is the place where stakeholders have the first contact with companies (Booth, 2011), so companies attempt stronger online presence to convey and articulate brand information. Researchers and practitioners have stressed the objectives and application of online branding and brand personality. Online brand personality is formed by describing corporate identity on corporate websites. Brands are carriers of universal and specific cultural meanings, and cultural values and beliefs can affect brand personality and consumer satisfaction of goods and services (Arnould, 2005). Brand identity is expected to adjust to the environmental context. Brand image is affected by culture. Aaker reveals that culture has an influence on customer's perception of brand personality and finds that culturally distinct dimensions as well as cross-culturally similar dimensions (sincerity, excitement, competence and sophistication). Based on the above, we put forward Research Questions:

RQ 1: To what extent are Chinese energy companies different from the US with respect to languages describing brand personality dimensions in "about us" section of corporate websites?

RQ 2: What particular personality traits shall Chinese energy companies present online to improve their corporate identity?

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Samples

The websites of Chinese and US energy companies serve as the sample for this study. China and the US are chosen for four reasons. First, as the top two economies, China and US are comparable in terms of company numbers, sizes and performances. Second, nowadays China introduces the "going out" strategy to encourage its companies to invest overseas, with a main objective to promote brand recognition of Chinese companies in the international market. Third, their bilateral trade and investment volume have been growing steadily accounting for an overwhelming proportion in the world. Fourth, these two countries are widely different in terms of culture (see Fig. 1).

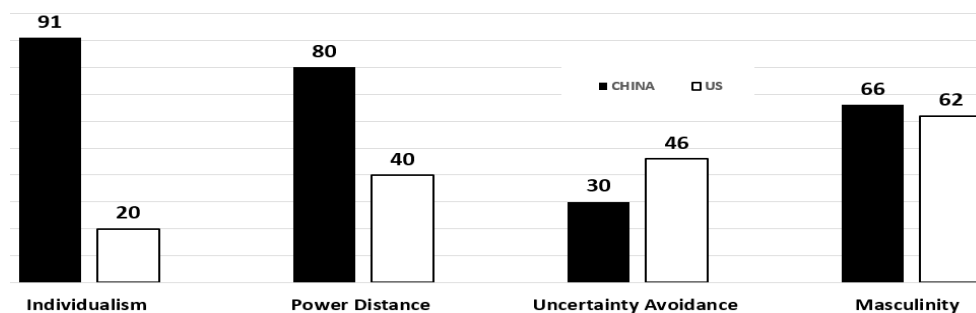


Fig. 1 Cultural Comparison between China and US (Hofstede, 2010)

Considering that different settings may result in different personality dimensions, we limit the study to one single industry to control disturbing variables. Energy industry is chosen because energy companies are likely to utilize more resources to communicate distinctive online brand personalities as, and tend to be good at websites informing customers in a well-organized and emerging manner.

As many similar studies use Fortune Global 500 list for a sampling frame, this study chooses this list based on the assumption that companies ranked on this list have managed to create positive images and English websites. The total

number of Chinese and US energy companies listed on the Year 2015 Fortune Global 500 is 25 and 18 respectively. Among the 25 Chinese companies, 9 websites are not available. Finally we have 16 energy companies from China and the US respectively. Then, we use the well-recognized search engine Google for these companies' English websites. In spite of the limited sample size, this study takes its advantage to explore rich details of personality, which cannot be captured by a quantitative analysis of a large sample, thereby to offer very helpful guidelines for practitioners. Actually an increasing number of researchers utilize a qualitative approach (Arora & Stoner, 2009).

B. Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis of this study is "about us" section online. Given the sheer size of corporate websites, it is practicable to focus on one section in websites. A number of researchers chose "about us" section, in view that it is aimed to build corporate identities for all stakeholders (Abdullah, Nordin & Aziz, 2013). In "about us" section, the company has to pay particular attention to select information and organize language to explain company history, culture and value, social responsibility, location, business and industry line, newsletter, rating and awards, management profile, financial status, employment, and especially vision and mission statements which indicate the essence and uniqueness of company's existence.

With the concern that websites may change we set a specific, albeit random, week, from September 5 to September 11, 2016, for data collection. To narrow the unit of analysis even further down, the corpus compiled includes the landing pages of the "about us" sections and the landing pages of all their subsections. The rationale behind this choice is that landing pages determine whether visitors will continue to browse the section. Macromedia, Flash movies, and any short-term information such as news and announcements are ignored (Rogers, Van Buskirk & Zechman). The files of the pages are saved and converted into a text corpus of a total of 122 thousand words, which excludes non-machine-readable text, e.g. text included in images. Appendix list the sample companies, their website links, service categories and the number of pages examined.

C. Content Analysis

Content analysis is a widely used tool for conducting objective, systematic and quantitative analysis of communication content. Several previous studies have used content analysis for analyzing corporate websites communications (Singh & Pereira, 2005). To quantify and qualify the five personality dimensions in "about us", we use content analysis with the aid of a text mining and analyzing software called WordStat, which theoretically relies on a well-established word list with the strength of continuity, normalization and objectivity (Davies et al., 2001). Also with the brand personality dictionary developed by Opoku, Abratt and Pitt, we employ WordSmith to identify most frequently used words for each dimension and their concordances, which facilitate our in-depth cross-cultural qualitative analysis of the websites texts.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study is to identify and compare patterns of language choices expressing the brand personality dimensions in Chinese and US energy companies' websites. To this end, "about us" texts in 32 websites are mined and analyzed as follows.

A. Descriptive Analysis

The study reveals two unexpected findings. First, Chinese companies don't quite differ from US companies with respect to "about us" content in English websites and presence of brand personality. As shown in Table 3, the occurrence frequencies of company history, mission and vision, maps and locations, corporate social responsibility and awards in the two countries are quite close. Recruiting information appears more in "about us" in US websites, while more in a special Career section in China's. There are more culture and ethics codes and customer affairs in US websites than in China's, which can be explained by US companies' strong sense of social responsibility, American melting pot of different races and sophisticated customer relationship management.

The statistical analysis provides evidence (see Table 3) that the website texts of Chinese energy companies (mean frequency 13.76) shows greater concern with brand personality, particularly the Competence dimension, as compared with US (mean frequency 7.03). This can be explained that Chinese energy companies suffer much more pressure to going-out competing with foreign counterparts, and the government has been practicing liberalization and opening-up policies.

TABLE 2:
“ABOUT US” PROFILE IN SAMPLE COMPANIES’ WEBSITES

“about us” Content	China	US
History	15	16
Values, Culture, Ethics codes	8	13
Vision, Mission statement	8	9
Corporate social responsibility	4	5
Locations, Map	4	5
Operations, Business line, Industry	7	4
Newsletter, Press release	2	6
Financial information	3	8
Ad. Gallery	2	15
CEO, Pictures, Biography	11	13
Career, Employment	3	0
Sponsorship (education, sports, arts, etc.)	0	0
Awards rating	7	5
Consumer Affairs, Club Community	0	5
Video	6	10

TABLE 3:
DISTRIBUTION OF BRAND PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS ACROSS COUNTRIES

Brand Personality Dimension	CHINA (n=16)		US (n=16)		χ^2 test
	Total	Mean	Total	Mean	
Competence	710	44.38	269	16.81	9008.615***
Sincerity	192	12	150	9.38	2588.251***
Excitement	120	7.5	90	5.63	1623.238***
Ruggedness	41	2.56	28	1.75	558.754***
Sophistication	38	2.38	25	1.56	573.429***
Frequency mean	13.76		7.03		

Note: *, **, ***Significant at 0.1, 0.05, and 0.001 percent levels, respectively.

In addition, as shown in Table 3, these two countries also show similar patterns in personality dimension expressions, with many more traits of Competence and Sincerity than Excitement, Ruggedness and Sophistication. Chun & Davies found that Competence was a dominating dimension in online Mission and Vision statements of the energy industry, followed by Sincerity, Excitement, Ruggedness, and NO Sophistication was identified. Sung & Tinkham also reveal that brand personality structure can substantiate similar features in both western and eastern cultures (Sung & Tinkham, 2005).

Specifically, there are differences between the distributions of brand personality dimension across countries. To more accurately position the 32 websites in relation to the five brand personality dimensions, we use the WordStat to output a correspondence analysis graph (see Fig. 2), which is practicable with strong dependency of variables from cross-tabulation test (see table 5). Corporate website is clustered near to the brand personality dimension that it mostly communicates on their websites. For example, Competence is mostly communicated on the websites of Chinese energy companies, like Ansteel Group and Baosteel Group, whereas Sincerity, Excitement and Ruggedness conveyed by US companies, like Valero Energy and ConocoPhillips. Sinopec is located loosely between Sincerity and Competence, indicating a weaker correspondence. Tesoro appears to weakly promote Sincerity. None of these websites communicate Sophistication strongly, but China National Aviation Fuel Group (CNAF) is an exception, indicating that it might not be a complete website comparing with other companies. Obviously, most companies are clustered near to the Competence brand personality dimension and the center of the map that they mostly communicate on their websites (located in the blue circle). Therefore, suggesting some similarities are existing in these companies and both China and America companies’ websites are more attaching importance on Competence.

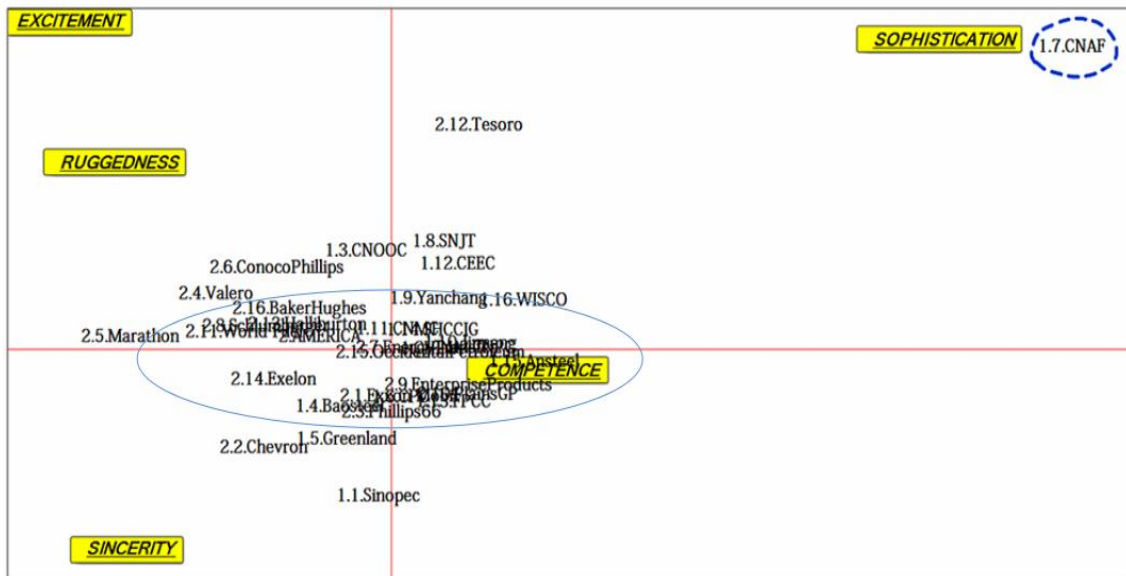


Fig. 2 Correspondence Analysis Map of brand personality traits observed in Websites messages of China and US

B. Discussion

Although globalization makes people more similar, to some extent Aaker’s brand personality dimensions differ across cultural contexts with Sincerity, Excitement, Competence, Sophistication, and Ruggedness connoting both culture-specific and culture-universal meaning. Culture-universal meaning usually exists in the more concrete qualities of brands that present personality like Competence and Sincerity, while culture-specific meaning typically resides in the more abstract qualities of brands that communicate such personality like Ruggedness and Sophistication (Aaker, Benet-Martínez & Garolera, 2001).

Corporate identity is viewed as a combination of soul, persona and spirit of corporate personality, and shall be managed differently considering linguistic and cultural differences. The linguistic differences of Chinese and US online brand personality expressions can be attributed to their cultural differences. Although Competence is the most presented dimension both in Chinese and US websites, US companies distribute with Sincerity, Excitement and Ruggedness in a relatively larger percentage than China. These four brand personality dimensions are over ignored in Chinese energy companies’ websites, which can also be supported by Figure 2. Excitement, Sophistication and Ruggedness have been found in significant presence by previous researches concerning the US brands, which have addressed brand personality dimensions in companies’ websites with the underlying idea that personality attributes lead to corporate brand differentiation. [错误!未定义书签。] It is hard to verify findings with Chinese companies since there are few researches on brand personality dimension in Chinese companies’ websites.

• Competence Dimension

Competence is the dominating dimension in both China’s and US websites, pertaining to concepts like responsibility, dependability, achievement and security. Companies tend to emphasize their Competence in their Mission and Vision statements, especially reliability and leadership in their field. Most energy companies are strongly associated with Competence as shown in Table 3 and Fig.2. It is natural with the facts that energy companies offering resources services are much more professional knowledge intensive, and competent brands are mostly perceived by consumers with expertise and quality.

TABLE 4:
KEY WORDS AND FREQUENCIES ASSOCIATED WITH COMPETENCE IN “ABOUT US” OF CHINESE AND US ENERGY COMPANIES’ WEBSITES

Dimension	Frequency Rank	CHINA	US
Competence	1	Industry (143)	Production (50)
	2	Production (112)	Industry (35)
	3	Enterprise (86)	Partnership (27)
	4	Industrial (51)	Strong (20)
	5	Trade (38)	Responsible (13)

To examine cultural-specific differences in language choices, we retrieve words listed under the Competence dimension and present the most frequently used in Table 4. It is found that many more *Partnership and Responsible* used in the US texts, while *Enterprise and Trade* in the Chinese texts. Some related sentences are retrieved and presented below randomly.

US

- ...to be the global energy company most admired for its people, **partnership** and performance...
- ...the company's master limited **partnership** is an integral asset in the portfolio...
- ...and practices designed to enable safe, secure and environmentally **responsible** operations...

CHINA

- To be a transnational steel group with the most international competitive power and the leading **enterprise** of the Chinese steel industry.
- ...be loyal to the **enterprise**, honor the commitments made before the partners and be responsible for the society and the country.
- PetroChina International deals with international **trade** in crude oil and about 100 kinds of refined and chemical products to and from over 80 countries...

According to concordances retrieved, it is evident that *Partnership* is a sign of collective and *Responsible* is for describing corporate social responsibilities (CSR). Singh & Matsuo found that CSR was a cultural marker of Collectivism instead of Individualism in corporate websites. In general, the core element of individualism is the assumption that individuals are independent of one another, focus on rights above duties, and concern for oneself. [错误!未定义书签。]^(p.413) However, although the US is categorized as individualistic culture (scored 91, see Fig.1), a large majority of US companies disclose CSR information in their websites. In spite of being characterized as collectivism culture (scored 20), Chinese companies are still in quite dark ages with regard to disclosing online CSR information. In this case, the fact that CSR is a well-acknowledged and promoted marketing strategy in the US has surpassed the impact of cultural dimension to result in this phenomenon.

Enterprise and *Trade* appear frequently in Chinese websites, which reflects that China energy companies are going-out, import and export trade scales are extending during the process of economic globalization and trade integration, and the government has been practicing liberalization and opening-up policies.

• **Sincerity Dimension**

Sincerity dimension, articulated with a list of 174 words encompassing aspects of natural, good and acceptance, is the second important personality both in Chinese and US websites. Sincere brands share family-related associations, trustworthiness and high morals (Maehle, Otnes & Supphellen, 2011). Rexha identified the lack of trust has been regarded as one of the major factors to influence customers. As shown in Table 3, the Sincerity presence of Chinese companies is significantly higher than that of American companies. American companies display relatively higher presence of Sincerity as compared to other dimensions.

TABLE 5:

KEY WORDS AND FREQUENCIES ASSOCIATED WITH SINCERITY IN "ABOUT US" OF CHINESE AND US ENERGY COMPANIES' WEBSITES

Dimension	Frequency Rank	CHINA	US
Sincerity	1	Natural (32)	Natural (50)
	2	Standard (20)	Good (9)
	3	Good (18)	Reliable (8)
	4	Real (14)	Common (8)
	5	Honest (11)	Understanding (7)

As shown Table 5, texts of the two countries have less overlap, and share only two words, *Natural* and *Good*. *Standard*, *Real* and *Honest* are more frequently used in Chinese websites, and *Reliable*, *Common* and *Understanding* in US websites. Retrieved sentences are randomly listed below.

US

- ...our local geomarket teams work side by side with customers to engineer **reliable**...
- ...with men and women of many nationalities and backgrounds working together and sharing **common** objectives.
- This document is designed to assist employees in **understanding** and applying these elements in order for Schlumberger to continue its success...

CHINA

- During the reporting period, we have 3 mines reached the national quality **standard**, 12 reached the first-level provincial quality **standard**...
- ...be meticulous, know the **real** situation, tell the truth, adopt **real** measures, do **real** things, and pay attention to the results...
- Baosteel is firmly determined to pursue its strategic goal of being the most competitive enterprise in the world, and shall also be an **honest**, friendly...

Energy companies are expected to display more sincere items to relieve customers' risk concern since the US culture has high Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI, US 46, China 30, in Fig.1) tending to avoid risks by employing more control measures. As above mentioned America companies use many *Reliable* and *Understanding* to avoid uncertainty.

As a culture with high PD (scored 80, see Fig.1), Chinese companies use many *Standard*, *Real* and *Honest* to elaborate their hierarchy management and affiliation with administrative governments. Furthermore, like China, where individualism is weak, consumers are more responsive to social brand-image strategies, emphasizing group membership, standard requirements and affiliation benefits.

• **Excitement Dimension**

Excitement is the third dimension expressed both in Chinese and US websites, related to sociality, energy and activity. Brands with these traits offer consumers the opportunity to experience exciting feelings and are related to special ‘exciting’ occasions (Opoku & Hinson, 2006). Park defined brand image in terms of three dimensions: functional, social and sensory, and found that emphasis on functional strategies are enhanced in less developed countries, and social and sensory brand images are stressed in advanced economies. Excitement personality dimension is for building sensory brand image with a relatively higher presence in US websites than China. In countries characterized by strong individualism, brand strategies are more effective emphasizing variety, novelty and experiential needs.

TABLE 6:
KEY WORDS AND FREQUENCIES ASSOCIATED WITH EXCITEMENT IN “ABOUT US” OF CHINESE AND US ENERGY COMPANIES’ WEBSITES

Dimension	Frequency Rank	CHINA	US
Excitement	1	Modern (20)	Individual (13)
	2	Young (14)	Independent (11)
	3	Innovative (12)	Innovative (10)
	4	Independent (9)	Unique (6)
	5	Autonomous (7)	Specific (5)

There is less overlap between the two countries’ key word lists (Table 6), with only two similar words. Concordances of *Individual*, *Unique*, *Modern* and *Young* are presented below.

US

- *We believe a learning environment is the way to achieve the full potential of each **individual** and the company.*
- *We expect development throughout each **individual**’s career by a combination of individual and company commitment...*
- *We respond to each customer’s **unique** business needs with personalized service...*

CHINA

- *CNMC has managed to merge traditional Chinese culture with **modern** concept on scientific management and found out a cultural path for excellent enterprises suitable for itself...*
- *...implements a **young** R&D talents training project to strengthen the training of **young** technological managers. The first batch of 136 **young** employees are selected for a three-year training plan which aims to cultivate a sustainable team of technological pioneers and middle and high level technological managers.*

Belonging to a typical individualistic society, the US companies stress *Individual* and pay attention to *Unique* individual needs to construct a favorable corporate brand personality online. As a high PD as well as a past time oriented society, Chinese tend to emphasize long history as a sign of higher social status and achievement. As a society longing for fast development, *Modern* is expected and appreciated at the same time.

• **Ruggedness and Sophistication Dimension**

Unlike the first three dimensions resembling human personality, Ruggedness and Sophistication are associated with wealth and status, or American individualism, which are more culturally specific dimensions. 错误！未定义书签。 Although these two dimensions are the least presented in both countries, Ruggedness is in a relatively higher-presence in the US websites and Sophistication in China (shown in Table 3 and Fig. 2). Garolera corresponded Sophistication with hierarchy, characterized with high power distance cultures (like China).

TABLE 7:
KEY WORDS AND FREQUENCIES ASSOCIATED WITH RUGGEDNESS IN “ABOUT US” OF CHINESE AND US ENERGY COMPANIES’ WEBSITES

Dimension	Frequency Rank	CHINA	US
Ruggedness	1	Hard (7)	Testing (6)
	2	Physical (6)	Hard (5)
	3	Western (5)	Endeavor (2)
	4	Tough (3)	Robust (2)
	5	External (3)	Animal (2)

TABLE 8:
KEY WORDS AND FREQUENCIES ASSOCIATED WITH SOPHISTICATION IN “ABOUT US” OF CHINESE AND US ENERGY COMPANIES’ WEBSITES

Dimension	Frequency Rank	CHINA	US
Sophistication	1	Refined (17)	Refined (22)
	2	Excellent (11)	Attractive (1)
	3	Precious (4)	Prestigious (1)
	4	Beautiful (1)	Striking (1)
	5	Royal (1)	

There are not many differences between key word lists in Table 7 and 8. There are two words worth attention, listed as follows.

CHINA

- *An **excellent** corporate culture will help lay down an ever-lasting foundation for an enterprise. CNMC holds and*

implements the idea that “cultural power will guide productivity”

- ...is looking to develop various businesses in cooperation with *external* partners
- ...began selling jet fuel to *western* Africa. Our gasoline market share in Pakistan and the United Arab Emirates kept increasing....

Excellent, Western and External appear frequently in Chinese websites in comparison to western companies, reflecting China's (MAS scored 66, US 62) aggressiveness to compete with foreign partners by stressing their companies' performance and achievements, which is among online cultural markers of Masculine (MAS), as summarized by Singh & Matsuo. Clear gender roles, explicit comparison and use of superlatives are cultural markers of Masculinity. Masculinity cultures are characterized by competition and social achievement.

As to RQ 1, cultural variation in values and needs does influence energy companies' projection of brand personality online in ways of dominating dimensions and word choices in expressing the same trait, although the commercial and technological globalization has been narrowing cultural gaps. The personality of home country's culture does have an influence on brand personality. Indeed, China and US energy companies' websites have some differences because of different cultures. Even expressing the same personality dimension, Chinese companies are partially using words which are not culturally adapted. For instance, as for Competence and Sincerity, Chinese companies may choose more words like Responsible and Honest related to corporate social responsibility. CSR demonstrates effects on customer satisfaction and loyalty, and company suitability, so shall be included as an aspect of corporate brand reputation. As to RQ 2, all those show energy stress more safe, reliable and stable. More individualism-oriented words like Independent, Single and Challenge are favored by western customers to perceive personalities like Sincerity and Excitement. By enforcing these personality traits, it is conducive for companies to project a positive image in the global market.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

With the Internet, companies have an unparalleled access to international customers. Being aware of the significance of online corporate communication, Chinese companies are already investing considerable resources in building their English website. If these websites are simply translated from Chinese and fail to communicate appropriate identify and personality of brands, these expenditure may be wasted, or even counterproductive. This study finds that although they have designed English websites with “about us” section and shared similar distributions, Chinese energy companies are still significantly different from the US in terms of language choice and occurrence on all the five corporate brand personality dimensions. The linguistic differences in Chinese and US corporate brand personality indicators are relevant to their cultural differences. Even when expressing the same personality traits, Chinese companies tend to use words that are not adapted to western culture.

Generally, customers prefer to browse websites in their own country domain. Practitioners always want to figure out what influences customers' preferences and perception of brands. Barney asserts that culture can be a source of competitive advantage when it involves a unique personality. Therefore, it is beneficial for foreign-market-oriented Chinese companies to localize their websites according to local tastes and preferences, which helps to make their brand personality in consistency with customers' own personality increasing their preferences for the product and corporate without being too deeply concerned with China's Collectivist, high-PD, and Masculine culture.

Although both semantic and technical difficulties may arise in translating brand expressions, the very first step of website localization for Chinese companies is building English corporate websites with more information about Customer Affair and gallery disclosed in “about us”. Second, in-depth understanding of words and expression modes associated with brand personality dimensions not only helps practitioners improve their knowledge of global identity positioning of Chinese energy companies in comparison with US, but also provides insights into how to align website languages with international perceptions of brands by strengthening or downplaying particular brand personality dimensions.

Nowadays China introduces the “going out” strategy to encourage its companies to invest overseas, with a main objective to promote brand recognition of Chinese companies in the US market. Unfortunately, Chinese companies were ill prepared to manage cultural differences and be negatively received in overseas market, especially the US. Therefore, in addition to upgrade products and services, Chinese companies need to better tailor marketing materials in need of target customers, evaluate underperforming brands with respect to brand-customer personality incongruity, build and manage their unique corporate identity, and eventually improve their corporate image and corporate reputation, which are crucial elements of competitiveness against the well-established foreign companies (Ingenhoff & Fuhrer, 2010).

In conclusion, the computerized content analysis illustrated here can be of strategic assistance to managers in portraying and managing brand images and personalities by focusing on the words used in sites. When developing particular brand personality, managers shall be aware that customers' perception may be not in line with their orientation due to cultural differences. Consumers tend to choose brands with personalities that are congruent with their self-concepts. A strong and favorable brand personality can help build more positive brand associations, and reinforce corporate identity, ^[错误! 未定义书签。] which can sustain companies' unique competitive advantages, improve customers' satisfaction and loyalty, influence their buying decision, and then increase companies' turnover, profits, market capitalization and stakeholders' value.

Some limitations shall be taken into consideration when interpreting and furthering the findings, although this study has advanced online communication literature by extending previous research with empirical evidences from the perspective of cross-cultural corpus analysis, and provides practical implications in relation to how Chinese companies express intended brand personality dimensions in websites designed for foreign users. First, the statistics are only based on the five dimensions instead of the fifteen attributes specifically. Second, it can be more insightful to compare online and offline expressions of brand personality dimensions. Third, a China-specific brand personality scale can be constructed considering Aaker's scale is developed on the US base. Finally, similar studies can be extended to other countries or industries, and correlate with more performance measures like brand ranking, market capitalization, profit, and P/E.

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Perception of Senior High School EFL Teachers in Papua, Indonesia towards Their Own Competence

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Abstract—This paper reports the competence of the English Foreign Language (EFL) Senior High School (SHS) teachers in Papua, Indonesia which sought to investigate the EFL SHS teachers' perception towards their own competence. This cross-sectional survey research design applied multistage sampling technique in determining the sample of the study. There were 159 EFL SHS teachers from six selected townships in Papua as the sample. The researchers employed questionnaire and interview as the instrument for collecting data. Data were analyzed utilizing descriptive statistics to run for frequencies and percentages. The result revealed that the EFL SHS teachers in Papua perceived that their teacher competence was good. As the majority of the respondents (91.8%) contended that they possessed good competency and only a few of respondents (8.2%) claimed that their competence was very good. None of the respondents asserted either they have poor or fairly good competence.

Index Terms—perception, EFL teacher, teacher competence

I. INTRODUCTION

In Indonesian, English is a foreign language and a compulsory subject taught to students from grade seven to tertiary level (Lauder, 2008; Mattarima & Hamdan, 2011). English has even begun to be taught in the 4th grade of elementary school students as the prudence of the school (Indonesian Government Regulation, Number 28, 1990) or as a local content subject (Mappiasse & Sihes, 2014). Although English in Indonesian schooling is formally taught to students from grade 7 to university level, the students' English proficiency, in general, is considered relatively low. Students graduated from schools or universities are still unable to show their ability to communicate in English (written and orally) intelligibly (Lengkanawati, 2005). Let alone graduated students from schools or colleges in Papua. Possessing good score in English does not guarantee that students are able to communicate in English (Rinantanti & Suhirman, 2017).

There are numerous causation factors to the lack success in EFL instruction in Indonesian schooling (Dardjowidjoyo, 2000; Yuwono, 2005; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Soepriyatna, 2012). These factors include the low motivation of students in learning English, over-crowded English learning classes, inadequate facilities and learning resources, the continuously changing curriculum, and less qualified or less competent of the English teachers (Hamied, 2001; Bradford's, 2007; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Sulistiyo, 2009; Kassing, 2011).

Given the factors that led to the less successful learning of English aforementioned, the writers assume that the less competent of the English teachers were the most crucial factor, especially in Papua province (Rinantanti, 2013). Papua is not very different from Maluku province in which facing complicated issues related to the teachers' competence (Bin-Tahir & Rinantanti, 2016). As the teachers' competence affect the quality of the teachers' performances or instructions and it is also a determinant of the student success (Soepriyatna, 2012). With regards to this, Jalal et al (2009:7) contend that "good quality of teachers can produce good quality of learners, and then the poor quality of teachers can contribute to the poor achievement of students." As the English proficiency of graduate students in Papua is relatively low, it is necessary to conduct a study to overcome this issue. Considering this, for the initial steps, investigating the perception of the EFL SHS teachers in Papua towards their own competence is necessary as their perception may steer and direct the teachers in their teaching performance.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Concept of Competence and Competency

Competence and competency are interconnected words which have mingling meanings (Mulder, 2007). Competence ascribes to the Latin word *competentia* which means the deed, the enlightenment, skills, and responsibility in conducting something (Gniteki, 2005). Deakin (2008: 42) defines competence as a complex blend of knowledge, skills, understanding, values, attitudes, and desire of someone to do something in a certain domain effectively. Richards and Schmidt (2002: 94) define it as a description of the skills, knowledge, and behavior that a person needs to achieve effective performance in his or her job activities. So the word competence contains three main elements to indicate the effectiveness of a performance knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Knowledge is an awareness of a material or information that a person acquires through his or her experience, books or other media. Skill is a person's ability to perform certain tasks whereas the attitude shows the person willingness (Soepriyatna, 2012).

Competency according to Trinder (2008) is the standard of achieving in various levels of work. Gupta (1999: 24) defines competency as a person's ability in applying knowledge and skills to produce the expected product. Hence, competence refers to a person's knowledge and abilities; competency, on the other hand, refers to the description of how something should be done. Competency refers to the feature of knowledge, skills, and experience required in doing the job. In other words, it is the ability of someone to apply his/her knowledge and skill to produce a required outcome. So competency is a part of competence.

B. Teacher Competence and Competency

Teacher competence (henceforth TC) or teacher competency is a concept used in relation to educational contexts since the emerging of education reform throughout the globe (Mulder, 2007). TC is defined as "statement about what teachers are supposed to know and be able to do" (Bailey, 2006: 210). Soepriyatna defines teacher competence as "a description of skills, knowledge, and behaviors required by teachers to perform effective teaching" (2012: 38). Based on aforementioned definitions, it implies that teachers must have the knowledge, skills, and attitude of being effective and successful teachers or competent teachers. Hence, not everyone can be a teacher (Rinantanti, 2015) as teaching is an intricate prodigy. It takes into account a wide range of personality traits, professional abilities and specific knowledge (Cole & Chan, 2009).

A good teacher must have the basic knowledge for the teacher. They are the knowledge of the subject, pedagogical in general, curriculum and pedagogical content, the learners and their characteristics, educational context and educational goals (Shulman, 1987). Teachers must know the subject and how to teach it, the students and how they learn, how to create lesson plans, evaluate their instruction, communicate effectively to students, create and maintain a safe, fun, and challenging learning environment, manage their classes, constantly improve their professional knowledge and teaching, and active in the professionalism activities (Murray, 2009).

With regard to the language teachers in order to be able to teach the language effectively, teachers need to have "language specific competence," or good language proficiency factors, the role of content knowledge, teaching skills, contextual knowledge, the language teachers' identity, learner-focused teaching, pedagogical reasoning skills, theorizing from practice and membership of community practice as well as professionalism (Richards, 2011: 3). Teacher competence includes pedagogical, personality, social, professional and language proficiency competence (UURI No. 14, 2005).

C. Perception

Perception has a very close relationship with the attitude. Perception deals with the use of mind or senses to understand a person's surrounding. Attitude, on the other hand, is the person's feeling or a way of thinking about something based on their perception (Pickens, 2005).

Perception is the basis for understanding individual differences, as for how people perceive something will affect how people behave (Cillessen & Lafonta, 2002; Lópes, 2010). Teachers' attitude is the reflection of their perception and their perception can guide and set their sights on their own teaching (Artini, 2010). Teachers' instructions are related to their perception of teaching and learning and their perception often determines their decisions and affects many aspects of classrooms such as the interactions, activities, assessment, and students' engagement (Zhu & Wang, 2014; Stipek et al., 2001).

III. METHOD

This study attempted to describe the extent to which the EFL SHS teachers in Papua, Indonesia perceive their own competence in the present time, hence applying a cross-sectional survey research design was considered suitable. Survey research design is typically used to describe preferences, attitude, opinion, and perception of people of interest to the researcher (Latief, 2013; Ary, et al, 2007; Cohen, et al, 2007; Postlethwaite, 2005). In the cross-sectional survey data are collected one by one at a time (Creswell, 2010, Trochim, 2006).

Multistage random sampling technique was adopted to determine the sample of this study. The sample of this study (50% of the population) was 159 EFL SHS teachers derived from six selected townships in Papua province. In

collecting data the researchers applied self-constructed four-point Likert-type scale questionnaire and interview. The questionnaire has been piloted to 33 non-sample EFL SHS teachers to test the validity and the internal consistency of the items. The items were valid as the calculated of the *r* value were greater than the *r* table (0.449). The result of reliability testing through Cronbach’s Alpha Split-half technique value was 0.82. The interviews were used as the supporting data. Data were analyzed using the descriptive statistical method to run for the frequencies and percentages.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Results

The Perceptions of EFL SHS teachers in Papua towards their own level of competence was measured using questionnaire that consists of 50 items of statements covering the dimension of the pedagogical competence which encompasses of 26 items, the dimension of personal competence consists of 6 items of statements and so does the dimension of social competence, and the dimension of professional competence which consists of 12 items of statements. The finding presented based on the dimensions.

1. The Pedagogical Competence of the EFL SHS Teachers

The dimension of the teachers’ perception towards their pedagogical competence was measured using a questionnaire consisting of 26 items of the statement. The lowest score for each statement was 1 and the highest score was 4 so that the theoretical score was between 26 and 104. The minimum score of 26 exists if the respondents gave an answer choice 1 for each of statement and the maximum score of 104 exists when the respondents gave an answer choice 4 for every statement.

Data of the pedagogical competence dimension were then presented in frequency distribution list within 4 categories. The tendency of frequency distribution score of the EFL SHS teachers’ pedagogical competence can be seen in table 1 below.

TABLE 1.
THE FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS’ PEDAGOGICAL COMPETENCE

Interval	Classification	Frequency	Percentage (%)
26 – 46	Poor	0	0
47 – 66	Fairly Good	0	0
67 – 86	Good	122	76.7
87 – 104	Very Good	37	23.2
Total		159	100

Table 1 indicates the frequency, percentage, and classification of the EFL SHS teachers’ perception towards their own level of pedagogical competence. Based on the table, it can be said that the teachers’ pedagogical competence was perceived of being acceptable. As most of the respondents (76.7%) stated that their pedagogical competence was good, while the rest of the respondents (23.2%) stated that their pedagogical competence was very good. The teachers’ perception towards their own pedagogical competence can be illustrated in the following figure.

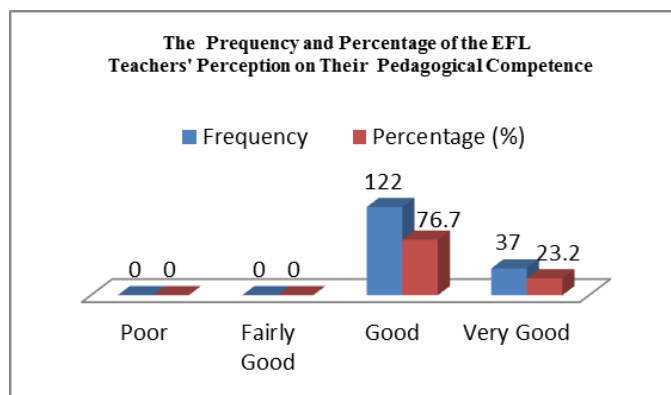


Figure 1. The Frequency and Percentage of EFL Teachers’ Perception on Their Pedagogical Competence

2. The Personality Competence of the EFL SHS Teachers

The dimension of the teachers’ perception towards their personality competence was measured using a questionnaire consisting of 6 items of the statement. The lowest score for each statement was 1 and the highest score was 4 so that the theoretical score of this dimension was between 6 and 24. The minimum score of 6 occurs if the respondent gave an answer 1 for each of statement and the maximum score of 24 occurs if the respondent gave an answer 4 for each statement.

Data of the personality competence dimension were then presented with the frequency distribution list within 4 categories. The tendency of the frequency distribution score of the personality competence of the teacher can be seen in the following table.

TABLE 2.

THE FREQUENCY & PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE TEACHERS' PERSONALITY COMPETENCE			
Interval	Classification	Frequency	Percentage (%)
6 – 10	Poor	0	0
11 – 15	Fairly Good	0	0
16 – 20	Good	71	44.6
21 – 24	Very Good	88	55.4
Total		159	100

Table 2 indicates the frequency, percentage and the classification of the EFL SHS teachers' perception towards their own level of personal competence. From the table, it can be seen that the teachers' personality competence was great. Because more than 55% of the respondents perceived that their personality competence was very good and 44.6% of respondents perceived that it was good. There was no respondent stated either having poor or adequate competence. The personality competence distribution of the EFL teachers have can be illustrated in the following figure.

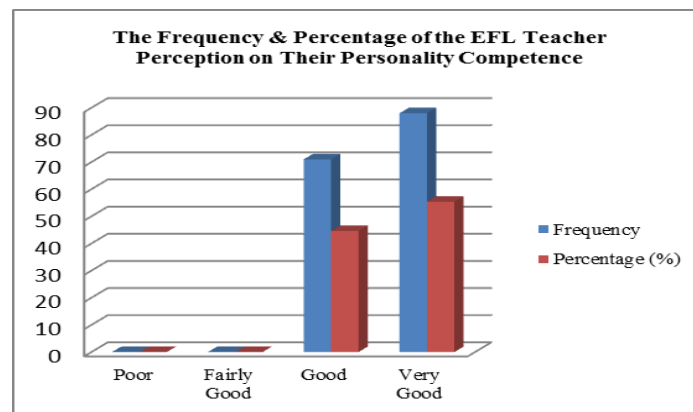


Figure 2. The Frequency and Percentage of the EFL Teachers' Perception on Their Personality Competence.

3. The Social Competence of the EFL SHS Teachers

The dimension of the teachers' perception towards their social competence was measured using a questionnaire consisting of 6 items of the statement. The lowest score for each statement was 1 and the highest score was 4 so that the theoretical score of this dimension was between 6 and 24. The minimum score of 6 occurs when the respondent gave an answer 1 for each of statement and the maximum score of 24 occurs when the respondent gave an answer 4 for each statement.

Data of the social competence dimension were then presented with the frequency distribution list within 4 categories. The tendency of the frequency distribution score of the social competence of the teacher can be seen in the following table.

TABLE 3.

THE FREQUENCY & PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE TEACHERS' SOCIAL COMPETENCE			
Interval	Classification	Frequency	Percentage (%)
6 – 10	Poor	0	0
11 – 15	Fairly Good	1	0.6
16 – 20	Good	141	88.6
21 – 24	Very Good	17	10.6
Total		159	100

Table 3 shows the frequency, percentage and the classification of the EFL SHS teachers' perception towards their social competence. Based on this table, it can be asserted that the social competence of the teacher was good. From 159 respondents, there were only 0.6% of the respondent who stated that their social competence was desirable. Less than 11% of respondents stated that their social competence was marvelous and the rest of respondents (88.6%) claimed that they have good social competence. The teachers' perception towards their social competence can be displayed in the following figure.

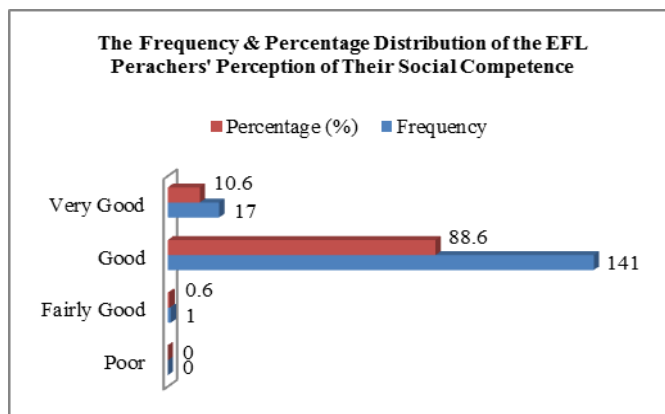


Figure3. The Frequency and the Percentage of the EFL Teachers' Perception on Their Social Competence

4. The Professional Competence of the EFL SHS Teachers

The dimension of the teachers' perception towards their professional competence was measured using a questionnaire consisting 12 items of the statement. The lowest score for each statement was 1 and the highest score was 4 so that the theoretical score of this dimension is between 12 and 48. The minimum score of 12 occurs if the respondent gave an answer 1 for each of statement and the maximum score of 48 occurs if the respondent gave an answer 4 for each statement.

Data the professional competence dimension were then presented with the frequency distribution list within 4 categories. The tendency of the frequency distribution score of the professional competence of the teacher can be seen in the following table.

TABLE 4.
THE FREQUENCY & PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE

Interval	Classification	Frequency	Percentage (%)
12 – 21	Poor	0	0
22 – 31	Fairly Good	2	1.2
32 – 40	Good	139	87.4
41 – 48	Very Good	18	11.3
Total		159	100

Table 4 indicates the frequency, percentage and the classification of the EFL SHS teachers' perception towards their professional competence. Based on the table, it can be asserted that the professional competence of the EFL SHS teacher was great. From 159 respondents, there were 18 (11.3%) respondents stated that their professional competence was very good. Even though 2 (1.2%) respondents stated that theirs are not so good, but the majority (139 or 77.4%) of the respondents claimed that theirs are good. The teachers' perception towards their professional competence can be displayed in the following figure.

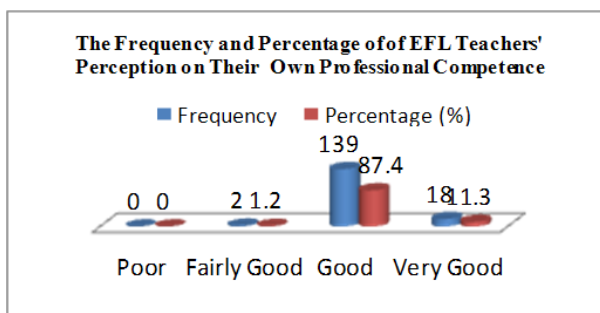


Figure 4. The Frequency and Percentage of the EFL Teachers' Professional Competence

The EFL SHS teachers' perception towards their teacher competence in a whole was measured using a questionnaire which consists of 50 items of statements. The lowest score of each statement was 1 and the highest score was 4 so that the theoretical score was between 50 and 200. The minimum score of 50 exists when the respondents gave an answer 1 for each of the statement and the maximum score of 200 exists when the respondent gives an answer 4 for each of statement.

Data from the questionnaire were presented in frequency distribution list within 4 categories. The tendency of the frequency distribution score of the EFL teachers' perception towards their competence can be seen in table 5 below.

TABLE 5.
THE FREQUENCY & PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE TEACHERS' PERCEPTION ON THEIR COMPETENCE

Interval	Classification	Frequency	Percentage (%)
50 – 90	Poor	0	0
91 – 130	Fairly Good	0	0
131 – 170	Good	146	91.8
171 – 200	Very Good	13	8.2
Total		159	100

Table 5 indicates the frequency, percentage, and classification of SHS EFL teachers' perception towards their own competence. Even though based on separate dimensions of this variable there were considerable amount of respondents who claimed that they were excellence on certain dimension, for instance on their personality competence (more than 50%), on their pedagogical competence (23.2%), on their social competence (10.6%), and on their professional competence (11.3%), in general however, the teachers competence cannot be stated that it was very good. As the majority of the respondent (91.8%) stated that the competency that they possessed was good and only a few of respondents claimed that they had a very good competence. The teachers' perception towards their own competence than can be illustrated in the figure bellow.

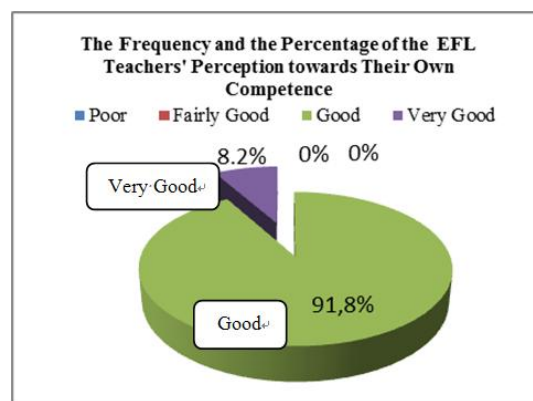


Figure 5 The Distribution of the Frequency and Percentage of the SHS EFL Teachers' Perception towards Their Competence

B. Discussions

This study revealed that the perception of EFL SHS teacher in Papua towards their pedagogical competence was good. The teachers' knowledge of their students and their characteristics reached the highest mean score of 3.66, followed by the ability of the teacher in designing the lesson plans and using the result of assessment for various aims with the means score of 3.53 and 3.37 respectively. From the interview found that teachers believed that knowing their students was pivotal (Shulman, 1987; Murray, 2009). It indicates the teachers' awareness that it benefits teachers in making suitable lesson plans, selecting and developing the suitable teaching material, as well as designing the classroom activities that engage students in learning (Richards, 2011). Without understanding the background of the students, the teachers will not certainly able to make the suitable teaching preparation and run effective instructions.

With regard to their personality competence, teachers perceived it as very good. Teachers felt that being proud and confident to be the English teacher is mandatory. It reached the highest mean score of 3.59, followed by behaving honestly, humanly, wisely and firmly reached the mean score of 3.33. Being proud to be teachers was necessary (Bhargawa & Pathy, 2011; Zhu & Wang, 2014). It can generate a sense of joy and triggers teachers to do things as best as they could in carrying out their duties. The teacher also realized that upholding the teaching profession code was imperative. As it was a set of moral principle and norm that underlie the implementation of the teachers' professional duties and services in relation to students, parents, colleges, and professional organization as well as the government in accordance with religious, educational, ethical and humanitarian values.

On the subject of the teachers' social competence, the teacher perceived it as good. Teachers ascertained that they have to be objective and do not discriminate students (Bhargawa & Pathy, 2011). Treating students fairly will create the best learning atmosphere and then this will increase the student motivation to learn. Competent teachers have to be able to communicate well with students, colleges, parents, and communities. Social interaction is absolutely necessary for teachers (Magelinskaitė, Kepalaitė, & Legkauskas, 2014).

As for the professional competence, the teacher perceived that their ability to communicate in English both orally and written, productive and receptive skills within all communication aspect was the best with the mean score of 3.98, followed by mastering the standard and core competencies of teaching English at SHS with the mean score of 3.96. The EFL SHS teachers in Papua were fully aware that mastering the material, the concept, the structures of the language, and the scientific approaches that support the teaching was absolutely indispensable. Similarly, to the mastery of standard competencies and core competencies of the English subject. Teachers must be able to develop teaching material creatively, develop their professionalism in sustainable reflective action, and utilizing ICT to support their

instruction and develop personally. According to Hilferty (2009), the teachers' professional competence dimension was the core competence of the teacher because it encompasses both pedagogical competence dimension and the knowledge of the subject being taught.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the finding and the discussion above, it can be concluded that the perception of EFL SHS teachers in Papua toward their competence was commendable. It is more than 90% of the EFL SHS teacher respondents contended that their competence was good. The EFL teachers were fully aware that possessing, internalizing, mastering and actualizing the teacher competence in accomplishing their professional responsibilities are mandatory. This study has an important theoretical and practical contribution to teachers' professional development. EFL teachers with such awareness logically should have excellent competencies. Therefore, it is necessary for conducting in-depth research on how these teachers perceptions can steer and direct their instructions.

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A Study on the Garden Path Phenomenon from the Perspective of Generative Grammar

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Abstract—Studies in the past mainly focus on the garden path phenomenon from the perspective of cognitive linguistics and psycholinguistics. The adequacies of their explanations are different, but these theories are imperfect. This paper discusses the garden path phenomenon from the perspective of generative grammar. The author holds that the θ -attachment principle can analyze the reason of partial ambiguity of the garden path phenomenon effectively and the garden path phenomenon provides evidence for derivation by phase under the framework of MP in generative grammar. People can clarify the structure of the garden path phenomenon succinctly and enhance the understanding of language mechanism through the analysis of them from the perspective of generative grammar. The faculty of language, which is the biological object, must abide by organism operation law as well. The memories of human beings are limited and cannot load too many syntactic structures at one time. As a result, the faculty of language can simply deal with a limited structure at a time. Only the limited amount of structural information can be accommodated in the active memory and phased spelling can reduce the memory load.

Index Terms—the garden path phenomenon, generative grammar, psycholinguists, partial ambiguity, the active memory, θ -attachment principle, derivation by phase

I INTRODUCTION

The garden path phenomenon is a temporary partial ambiguity in the process of language parsing, which is kept a watchful eye on by linguists and psycholinguists. This special phenomenon was noticed, discussed and researched centering on its properties and characteristics in around the nineteen seventies. Garden path sentence refers to sentences in (1).

- (1) a. The horse raced past the barn fell.
- b. The girl told the stories cried.
- c. The senator criticized on radio resigned.
- d. The raft floated down the river sank.
- e. Fat people eat accumulates.
- f. The old man the boat.

(1) a is a typical Garden Path sentence, which is easily understood as a structure of NP +V + PP by the readers. But the readers will realize that a processing mistake occurs when they see the word “fell”. Then they parse the whole sentence again and re-process it. Feng Zhiwei and Xu Fuji (2003) makes a vivid description of Garden Path Phenomenon: Just as we walked into a picturesque garden, looking for the exit of the garden, most people thought that the exit must be at the end of the main path of the garden, so that it could walk along the main path naturally and leisurely towards the garden. Just as we walked along the main path of the garden to enjoy the beauty of the garden and suddenly found that this path was wrong, it did not lead to the exit of the garden, and the right path to the exit was the other one next to the main path and it is almost forgotten by the visitors.

Other scholars also give the definition of Garden Path Phenomenon, such as Carroll (2000), Hu (2001) and Jay (2004).

Carroll (2000) argues that we interpret a sentence in a particular way only to find out near the end that we misinterpreted it. The subjective impression is that of being led down a garden path until discovering at the end we took the wrong path and have to retrace our efforts. It is called the garden path effect.

Hu (2001) holds that garden path sentences are sentences that are initially interpreted with a different structure than they actually have.

Jay (2004) thinks that a garden path sentence is a metaphor for being led down a linguistic path that takes us to the wrong meaning.

Based on generative grammar, this paper aims to analyze the cause of Garden Path Phenomenon and discuss that this phenomenon provides an evidence to Phase Theory. The paper consists of four chapters. After the introduction in Chapter 1, the second chapter is about the literature review: previous research findings by researchers home and abroad

as well as their deficiencies. Analysis and discussions are implemented in the third chapter. The final chapter serves as the conclusion of the paper.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many studies have been carried out regarding Garden Path Phenomenon since Bever (1970) first come up with this phenomenon. These studies, however, mainly focus on garden path phenomenon from the perspective of cognitive linguistics and psycholinguistics. The adequacies of their explanations are different, but these theories are imperfect.

A. Bever's Hierarchy of Canonical Schemas

Bever (1970) put forward a hierarchy of canonical schemas, which maintains listeners check in turn the language input and the brain's various leveled standard schemas in the language processing. If a certain language input matches the highest level of the schema, it is accepted and processed; if not, it needs to find a corresponding lower-level schema to determine the sentence structure of the language input. Take (1) b as an example. In fact, "told the stories" is equivalent to a restrictive attributive clause in nature, which omits "who was" that modifies the subject "the girl". However, listeners tend to correspond "the girl told the stories" to a high level standard schema "actor ... action ... modifier" in the brain and understand it as a sentence structure when they do not encounter the word "cried". When the word "cried" appears, listeners suddenly realize that there is an error in the process of language processing and then are forced to turn back to re-analyze and deal with the language processing, resulting in the difficulties of language processing and understanding. As a result, "garden path phenomenon" comes into being.

B. Kimball's Seven Principles of Syntactic Analysis

Kimball (1973, 1975) holds that syntactic analysis is divided into two levels, the first level analyzes the sentence component structure of the surface structure successively and then sends them to the second level for deep processing part by part. Kimball proposes seven principles of syntactic analysis: a. the principle of two sentences b. the principle of right association c. the principle of early closure d. the principle of fixed structure e. the top-down principle f. the principle of new nodes g. the principle of processing. Among them, a-c are regarded as the tools to explain the reasons of ambiguity of garden path phenomenon. Take (2) and (3) for example.

(2) a. The other boy the girl the boy liked loved went abroad.

b. The boy liked the girl that loved the other boy that went abroad.

In the two sentences, (2)a is harder to understand than (2)b because the embedded clause is added to interrupt people's understanding in (2)a. As a result, (2)a violates the principle of two sentences and it is unintelligible. In general, the brain's direct memory can simply accommodate two independent clauses or sentences syntactically. This can explain why embedded clauses that are added to sentences will interrupt the people's understanding process.

(3) [John believes [that Mary left]] is clear.

The processing of (3) is subject to both the principle of right association and the principle of early closure. The processing of (3) confirms to the principle of right association as shown in the brackets above. When the components outside the brackets appear, according to the principle of early closure, the existing components have become an integral phrase and should be closed. Therefore the new components are excluded. To incorporate the new components into the existing structure of the sentence, it is necessary to break the structure of the sentence that has been established and to re-analyze it syntactically, resulting in difficulties in language processing.

C. The Sausage Machine of Frazier & Fodor

Frazier & Fodor (1978) put forward the language processing strategies in order to explain the garden path phenomenon, including late closure strategy and minimal attachment principle.

Late closure strategy stipulates, if possible, people attach new items to the current components and its main basis is that this strategy can reduce the burden of working memory. Take (4) for example.

(4) Tom said that Bill had taken the cleaning out yesterday.

In (4), the adverb "yesterday" can either be attached to the main clause "Tom said..." or be attached to the subordinate clause "Bill had taken...", but people generally take the latter. Frazier & Fodor investigate the fixation vision of the subjects in reading the structurally ambiguous sentence (5).

(5) Since Jay always jogs a mile seems like a very short distance to him.

To some extent, the ambiguity of (5) is made on purpose because it lacks a comma after the word "jogs". But Frazier & Fodor's discovery is quite interesting because the time of the fixation vision of the subjects to the former words is longer than the latter. This shows that the subjects have some misunderstandings to the phrase "a mile" and some revisions should be made.

Minimal attachment principle can also be called local attachment strategy to compensate for the deficiency of the principle of right association. According to this rule, people tend to connect new items to phrase markers that use the least nodes. Take (6) as an example.

(6) John kissed Mary and her sister.

There are two explanations for sentence (6), one is the noun phrase that is connected with a conjunction: "Mary and

her sister”, and the other is the conjunction followed by the noun as the beginning of another noun phrase: “and her sister”. In accordance with the “minimal attachment principle”, people tend to take the previous explanation: “Mary and her sister”, because it uses fewer syntax nodes. More examples come from (7).

- (7) a. The city council argued the mayor’s position forcefully.
 b. The city council argued the mayor’s position was incorrect.

(7) a conforms to minimal attachment principle because the adverb “forcefully” is connected to the current verb phrase component “argued the mayor’s position”. In contrast, (7) b is a complementary structure that “argued the mayor’s position” requires the creation of a new component.

To sum up, we can see that the garden path sentences have three characteristics: a. the garden path sentences are the temporary local ambiguous sentences, the front part of the sentence is ambiguous and the whole sentence is not ambiguous. b. There is a priority between different ambiguity results in the process of understanding the front ambiguous of the garden path sentence. Some ambiguous explanations are what people are willing to accept, and some are what people are unwilling to accept. c. The explanation that people do not want to accept is precisely the correct analysis of the garden path sentence (Feng, 2003a: 340-341).

III. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

Up to know, focuses on the garden path phenomenon mainly relate to cognitive linguistics and psycholinguistics. Next we intend to make a tentative study the garden path phenomenon from the perspective of generative grammar. We will use theta-attachment (also θ -attachment) principle to analyze the reason of partial ambiguity of the garden path phenomenon and then we will illustrate that the garden path phenomenon provides evidence for derivation by phase.

A. *Theta-attachment Principle and the Garden Path Phenomenon*

Pritchett (1988, 1992) uses θ -attachment principle, which is derived from government and binding theory, to parse the reason of partial ambiguity of the garden path phenomenon. He thinks that the emergence of the garden path phenomenon is due to the violation of θ -attachment principle when people deal with local ambiguous structures.

(8) θ -attachment principle: The θ -criterion attempts to apply at every point during processing given the maximal θ -grid.

In (8), θ -grid refers to the semantic grid, which can confirm the semantic role group to accept the θ -roles, such as agent, patient, theme and the like. The θ -roles are mainly distributed by verbs or prepositions (Chomsky 1981, 1986; Pritchett 1988).

θ -attachment principle can determine the attachment relationship during the language processing. Once the θ -role to be assigned appears, it must be managed to assign it to a target that can be found to accept the θ -role. As a result, in the process of syntactic reanalysis, the analyst continues to recall that the θ -marked syntactic elements are moved from their current range of θ , resulting in difficulties in language processing and then leading to the garden path phenomenon. Sentences (9) and (10) illustrate the use of θ -attachment principle (Pritchett, 1988).

(9) Without her contributions we failed.

The word “without” appears first and is recognized as a preposition, it can be assigned a θ -role. However, there is not any potential role to accept this θ -role at that time. Then the word “her” appears and it is recognized as an NP. Since there is a θ -role to be assigned for the word “without”, and the word “her” as an NP is the potential target that can accept the θ -role. According to the θ -attachment principle, “her” should be attached in a structural position that can accept the θ -role, so “her”, as the object of a preposition attaches to the word “without”. Then there comes the word “contributions”, which is identified as an NP and also an target that can accept the θ -role. So, “her” and “contributions” form a larger NP and the word “contributions” is the head, which gets a θ -role from “without” to meet the θ -attachment principle. But when the word “we” appears, there is no θ -role to be assigned, and “we” cannot form a new NP with “her contributions”, so it is in a no role situation and violates the θ -attachment principle. However, according to Pritchett's theory, the violation of the θ -attachment principle is in the inevitable state and will not result in any special difficulties in the language processing process. Finally, the word “failed” occurs. As a verb, “failed” has a θ -role to be removed, so it is assigned to the NP “we” and then “we” as the subject of the verb attaches to “failed”. Then we will turn to sentence (10). (10) is a garden path sentence because of the violation of the θ -attachment principle during language processing.

(10) Without her contributions failed to come in.

The sentence is treated the same as sentence (9) before the word “failed” appears. But when “failed” occurs, it has a θ -role to be dismantled, and the θ -role to be dismantled must be assigned to a target with the subject status. However, at this time there is no sentence element that can bear the task. So the noun phrase “her contributions” must be re-analyzed and re-processed in order to remove the θ -role of “failed” to meet the θ -attachment principle. This reanalysis has created special difficulties in dealing with the language. Here “failed” has a θ -role to be removed and there is no component to accept it. This situation is quite different from sentence (9), which “we” waits to accept a θ -role in (9). (10) results in language processing difficulties while (9) will not.

B. *Derivation by Phase and the Garden Path Phenomenon*

Derivation by phase is put forward in the process of MP development. In recent MP framework, Chomsky (2001,

2007, 2008) put forth the derivation of syntactic structures is conducted on the basis of the unit of phase because faculty of language, which is the biological object, must abide by organism operation law. The memories of human beings are limited and could not load too many syntactic structures at a time. The faculty of language can simply deal with a limited structure at a time. Only the limited amount of structural information can be accommodated in the active memory. The goal of derivation by phase is to reduce computational burdens and enhance computational efficiency and Chomsky proposes that the derivation of the syntactic structure is composed of one phase after another, which is derived on the basis of phase. Derivation by phase is something like the principle of processing (Kimball, 1973), but it is much more concrete. Kimball (1973) proposes the principle of processing, which holds that a phrase is transferred to a syntactic or semantic processing phase when it is closed and is cleared from the short memory. However, the theory of derivation by phase considers the problem of load of active memory: phased spelling can reduce the memory load. Syntax theory, which considers the memory load, shows that the syntactic scholars realize that the grammar is somewhat constrained by the language performance. In recent MP framework, the basic sentence structure is [CP > TP > v*P > VP] and CP and v*P are phases, which are complete propositional structures. v*P possesses complete argument structure and CP includes tense, event structure and force. Force is the element to represent sentence types. All syntactic operations are determined by the heads of phase CP and v*P and conduct derivations through phase units. In the light of principles of derivation by phase, the formation of sentences is through the combination of two syntactic elements, the order is from below to above, from right to left in linear structures.

The misinterpretation of the garden path sentence just proves the rationality of derivation by phase. We will take (1) a, which is repeated in (11), as an example to illustrate this point.

(11) The horse raced past the barn fell.

(11) is a typical garden path sentence, which will be reanalyzed when it is usually misunderstood. We are used to understand the front part of this sentence “The horse raced past the barn” in accordance with the grammatical structure of NP+VP+PP. However, when listening/seeing the verb “fell”, we will be aware of the mistakes of the understanding, and then turn back to re-processing of the language input only to find the word “raced” is not a verb, but a past participle and the whole sentence is a reduced attributive clause: The horse which was raced past the barn fell. The procedure of understanding (11) shows that the front part of the sentence “The horse raced past the barn” is mistaken for the whole sentence. But when “fell” appears, people will reassemble the elements of the sentence. There are at least two points that deserve our attention. One is that people should finish reading the whole sentence in order to get the correct interpretation. The other is that people tend to parse the sentence part by part. Here “part” is exactly the phase in generative grammar. Then we will analyze (11) by using the theory of derivation by phase and illustrate that derivation by phase from below to above is the only right way to avoid partial ambiguity of the garden path phenomenon.

In terms of the principle of from below to above, relevant lexical items should be selected from lexicon and form VP through merging, as shown in (12).

(12) [_{VP} the horse [_V fell]]

And then the verb “fell” moves to the place of light verb v*P, “the horse” moves to the specifier of v*P, “fell” and “the horse” in the original position are erased, and get (13).

(13) [_{v*P} the horse [_{v*} fell [_{VP} ~~the horse~~ [_V ~~fell~~]]]]

Then the VP “raced past the barn” adjoins “the horse” and get (14).

(14) [_{v*P} [_{NP} the horse [_{VP} raced past the barn] [_{v*} fell [_{VP} ~~the horse~~ [_V ~~fell~~]]]]]]

Finally, “the horse” moves to specifier of TP and “the horse” is erased at the same time, as illustrated in (15).

[15] [_{TP} the horse [_T [_{v*P} [_{NP} ~~the horse~~ [_{VP} raced past the barn] [_{v*} fell [_{VP} ~~the horse~~ [_V ~~fell~~]]]]]]]]

Up to now, the derivation is over and the whole sentence is transferred to the phonetic level to spell out. The partial ambiguity of the garden path phenomenon is solved successfully by derivation by phase.

IV. CONCLUSION

The garden path phenomenon is a temporary syntactic ambiguous phenomenon, it is generated by people’s inappropriate use of methods to deal with it before the non-ambiguous elements are successfully processed. It is an interesting and complex psychological phenomenon, and language psychologists have proposed different syntactic strategies or models to deal with it. These syntactic strategies or models help us understand the mechanisms of the human brain processing and the process of language understanding (Liu&Liu, 2004). The reason for the emergence of a garden path phenomenon is that we analyze sentences in a way that is added word by word. When we hear a word, we will speculate on how it will affect the meaning of the whole sentence, and before the other parts of the sentence are heard, the judgment of the word will be made. This is a very necessary strategy, based on the limited memory resources and the requirements of the quick understanding of the exchange of information. But this is also a risky strategy, and sometimes we realize that we have made the wrong choice when we hear the rest of the sentence and have to reanalyze it. The garden path phenomenon reflects the pattern of language processing and understanding, which implies that the understanding may be based on the surfaced, and even the seemingly biased representation. The adequacies of their explanations are different, but these theories are imperfect. We take theta-attachment (also θ -attachment) principle to analyze the reason of partial ambiguity of the garden path phenomenon and then we illustrate that the garden path phenomenon provides evidence for derivation by phase. We can avoid the occurrence of such ambiguous sentences in

the process of language processing effectively and deal with them better by knowing the causes and types of them. We hope that people can clarify the structure of the garden path phenomenon succinctly (Radford, 1997) and enhance the understanding of language mechanism through the analysis of them from the perspective of generative grammar.

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The Effect of Using Approximation and Appealing for Help Techniques on Learning Speaking Skill among Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—This study examined the effects of using approximation and appealing for the help techniques on learning speaking skill among Iranian intermediate EFL learners. First sixteen participants out of 120 were chosen for the target population. The participants were then randomly assigned to three equal groups- two experimental groups and one control group. The groups were pretested by a speaking pre-test. Regarding the treatment, the experimental groups were taught by using the communicative approach techniques including approximation and appealing for the help. One experimental group received instruction on how to appeal for the help if their competence cannot come up with the exact word. The other experimental group received instruction on how to compensate failure in conversation by using approximate words. For example, in case of forgetting the exact word they used an approximate word or phrase like using "boat" instead of "ship" or "pipe" for "water pipe". However, the participants in the control group received traditional activities in learning speaking such as question and answer, topic discussion, dialogs and role playing. The treatment took 10 sessions of 45 minutes each under the guidance of the supervisor. Then, the control group and the experimental groups took the post-test of pet. After collecting the data, they were analyzed through using One-way Anova and Post-hoc Scheffe Test- Multiple Comparisons. The findings showed that both experimental groups outperformed than the control group. The results showed that those students who received appealing for the help treatment were better than approximation group and control group.

Index Terms—approximation, appealing for the help, speaking skill

I. INTRODUCTION

Approximation and appealing for the help are two techniques of communicative language teaching approach among the other techniques (e.g., Circumlocution-describing or exemplifying the target object or action, Word coinage-creating a non-existing L2 word based on a supposed rule, Class discussion-free or guided topics on various issues, etc.) in teaching EFL (Dörnyei, 1995). According to Akram and Mehmood (2011), approximation technique deals with utilizing an option term which communicates the significance of the objective lexical thing as nearly as could reasonably be expected (e.g., send for cruise pontoon) while engaging for enable alludes to swinging to the discussion to accomplice for help either straightforwardly (e.g., what do you call ...?) or by implication (e.g., rising inflection, delay, and eye to eye connection).

The aim of learning English is basically to improve communication ability for many learners. However, many EFL learners cannot communicate successfully in the target language maybe because they do not know how to use communicative approach strategies. Communication approach is a useful way to meet learners' communication needs. Different language teaching methods have been introduced in order to improve the quality of teaching and achieve the desired impact on students. Some of these methods could not develop the learners' ability to speak the target language fluently. This has given rise to new methods designed to overcome the limitations of the previous ones.

One of the most accepted trends in the field of foreign language teaching (FLT) is the communicative approach (CA), which was introduced in the 1970s by a group of European Council experts (e.g., Galloway, 1993). The fundamental rule that underlies the CA, as expressed by Nunan (1988) is that "students must learn not exclusively to make linguistically right, propositional explanations about the experiential world, yet should likewise build up the capacity to utilize dialect to complete things" (p. 25). Fundamentally, the CA "stresses the way that the understudies and their open intentions are at the very center of the showing program" (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983, p. 17). Although this approach

tries to develop communicative skills of the students, Iranian students' communicative ability to speak English appropriately and effectively is still very poor. One reason, in my opinion, may be that Iranian high school English textbooks are not communicative-based; they are structurally based. Another reason could be attributed to EFL teachers' ignorance of the main principles of the CA. Bakarman (2004) found out that most EFL teachers have only a shallow knowledge of the theory and principles of the CA. Consequently, they could not help students to improve their ability to speak the target language effectively.

To sum up, a likely candidate for helping foreign language learners develop their ability to speak the target language fluently is the CA. It focuses on language use but at the same time attaches importance to language knowledge. Nattinger (1984) maintained that "new methods often go unmeasured and their claims remain unevaluated" (p. 404). This experimental study, therefore, examined two techniques of communicative approach to teach EFL learners oral proficiency. Canale (1983) characterized key ability as the dominance of verbal and non-verbal correspondence methods in L2 utilized when endeavoring to make up for insufficiencies in the linguistic and sociolinguistics skill or to improve the viability of correspondence. At the point when propelled students experience troubles in conveying importance in the objective dialect without finding any answer for adapt to their issues and when they believe they have no advance in learning it could lead them to end up noticeably on edge, demotivated and unsuccessful dialect students. Showing correspondence dialect procedures can be an answer for this issue and can enhance students' correspondence strategies, as well as abatement their uneasiness level, increment their inspiration and can make ready for students to wind up plainly more effective in EFL learning (Faerch & Kasper, 1983).

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Foreign language teaching in Iran seems to have been long outdated. Traditional methods like Grammar Translation Method (GTM) continue to be used regardless of the more recent ones. Old methods used in teaching English in Iranian schools failed to motivate the students and instigate their involvement in class activities; this is why these methods are structurally based. The grammar oriented methods which are widely used in Iranian educational system are not producing desired results for a real communication. Accordingly, textbooks are structurally oriented and often not relevant to students' needs; too much emphasis is placed on the learning of grammar and vocabulary.

Although successful and fluent communication is the final goal of EFL learners, little effort is made to actually help them learn to speak English as it is spoken by native speakers. Therefore, Iranian learners have lots of problems to interact with their interlocutors in the target language. Many Iranian EFL learners are grammatically proficient and also they know abundant English vocabularies but they fail to communicate fluently. In addition, after studying English for some years, numerous EFL learners are not satisfied with their speaking proficiency level and become demotivated gradually. One of the reasons that English learners have difficulties in initiating and maintaining conversations may be due to the lack of teaching CSs used in classes for oral interactions. Teaching communicative-based techniques to EFL learners may be a useful way to develop their communicative competence and enhance their communication abilities. Therefore, teaching communicative-based techniques like approximation and appealing for the help may be a solution to this problem.

In addition, the books which are being used in Iranian schools concentrate on mechanical and formally meaningful drills, but do not allow for communicative ones. Moreover teacher-centered language instruction is the dominant form of ELT in Iran, where most teachers seem to prefer to focus on teaching grammar because, apparently, it does not require a high level of English proficiency on the part of the instructor. This assumption has been corroborated by Abu-Ras (2002), who found out that the traditional methods are compatible with the teachers' competence and training. He also found out that most teachers "do not feel linguistically, communicatively, and educationally competent" (p. 10). Consequently, they are likely to feel insecure about their English proficiency and would not be able to teach conversation to the students.

To rectify the current situation, a shift from structural approaches to the CA is critically needed. The latter has been accepted by many practitioners worldwide as a promising method for enhancing students' ability to communicate successfully in the target language. Thus the current study dealt with the effects of teaching communicative-based techniques-approximation and appealing for the help- to improve learners' speaking skills and also help them to become more successful and fluent in English conversations.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Communication strategies might be called without hesitation to make up for breakdowns in correspondence because of deficient capability. As it were, key capability alludes to the capacity to make them mean crosswise over effectively to open accomplices, particularly when issues emerge in the correspondence procedure. In this study, the significance and influence of two communication strategies were investigated.

The first purpose of this study was to examine the influence of communicative approach techniques including approximation and appealing for the help to develop Iranian EFL learners' speaking skill. The second objective of this research was to scrutinize if there is any difference between the EFL learners who received communicative approach techniques of either approximation or appealing for the help in improving their speaking skill.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study intended to address the following research questions:

RQ 1. Does communicative approach technique of approximation have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' speaking skill?

RQ 2. Does communicative approach technique of appealing for the help have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' speaking skill?

RQ 3. Is there any significant difference between the EFL learners who receive communicative approach techniques of approximation and appealing for the help in learning speaking skill?

V. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is significant since it provides some implications both for English teachers and learners to solve their communicative problems and helps them to improve their speaking skill. The findings of this study would enrich the ELT literature. It provides an insight into the effects of the CA on students' ability to understand English as used by native speakers of English. The recommendations of the study would help Iranian students to overcome or at least reduce the difficulties that they encounter when trying to communicate in English inside and outside the classroom. The findings of the study would help to influence the Ministry of Education to take into account the importance of implementing the CA and to provide teachers with pre- and in-service training in communicative teaching.

VI. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. *Communication Strategy*

A communication strategy is characterized as a person's endeavor to figure out how to fill the hole between their correspondence exertion and quick accessible phonetic assets (Maleki, 2007). In spite of the fact that there are different meanings of correspondence systems also, the fundamental thought continues as before. For instance, Faerch and Kasper (1983) characterized CS as "possibly cognizant plans" which are utilized by a person to take care of an issue with a specific end goal to achieve a particular correspondence objective. It is trusted that correspondence procedures assume an essential part in the improvement of vital skill (e. g., Faucette, 2001); in this manner, one can characterize correspondence methodologies inside vital ability system. As per Canale and Swain (1980), vital capability is "verbal and non-verbal correspondence procedures that might be called without hesitation to adjust for breakdowns in correspondence because of execution factors or to inadequate fitness" (30). Scattergood (2003) trusted that vital fitness is developed if educators make a dialect classroom in which correspondence techniques are instructed and rehearsed.

The issue of correspondence methodologies has been and still is a vital theme in SLA. Van Lier (1988) believed that SLA happens through L2 students' dynamic support in discourse occasions. Rababah (2005) affirmed that raising awareness of CS is critical for various reasons; one being that it prompts learning by "evoking obscure dialect things from the conversationalist" (p. 194). He kept on saying that "... fruitful dialect learning is not just a matter of creating linguistic, sociolinguistic, and semantic capability, yet in addition the vital skill which includes the utilization of CSs ... " (p. 194). Additionally, Maleki (2007) trusted that utilization of correspondence methodologies is conducive to dialect learning and that "correspondence procedure preparing ought to be joined into school syllabuses ... " (p. 594). Different specialists, for example, Bialystok (1990), Dörnyei and Thurrel (1992), Dörnyei (1995), Oxford (2001), and numerous more have all commended the positive part of correspondence methodologies in instructing and taking in a moment dialect, particularly English.

B. *Taxonomy of Communication Strategies (CSs)*

Since the 1970s correspondence procedures have been the focal point of consideration in SLA look into. Around then investigation was centered around interlanguage and outside talk, both of which included the interactional idea of human correspondence (Tarone, 1977). These early investigations concentrated on distinguishing, characterizing and arranging CS into scientific categorizations. Later investigations, be that as it may, were focused on the connection between correspondence techniques and dialect training, particularly in EFL/ESL settings. When all is said in done there are two ways to deal with the investigation and arrangement of correspondence methodologies: the phonetic approach (interactional approach) and the subjective approach. Tarone (1977) was one who surprisingly recommended the phonetic approach, which was later extended by Faerch and Kasper (1983). As indicated by Tarone (1977), students' phonetic deficiency warrants CS use by conversationalists who attempt to pass on an importance being referred to each other. In this interactional approach, Tarone (1980) explained more on the meaning of CS by saying "... common endeavors of two questioners to concur on significance in circumstances where the imperative importance structures don't appear to be shared" (p. 419). As per her, "... importance structures incorporate both phonetic and socio-etymological structure" (Tarone, 1980). Then again, psychological way to deal with CS is put inside psycholinguistic structure.

Faerch and Kasper (1983) clarified that correspondence procedures are forms happening inside the L2 speakers themselves with an attention on discourse recognition and arranging and execution in discourse creation at whatever point they experience issues (p. 212). Consequently, their portrayal of subjective approach is more student focused and

informative techniques are seen as means for settling issues of self-articulation. Notwithstanding, as Mali (2007) put it "The CS execution process may begin off as psychological and result in connection" (p. 41). Also, Poulisse (1993) contended that one and a similar procedure sort can have components of both control and investigation (p. 171). The last is accentuated by Kellerman (1991) who considered correspondence procedures as appearances of the improvement of subjective procedures of examination and control. The etymological (interactional) and the psychological ways to deal with the examination of correspondence systems can be utilized to create typologies for the recognized CS. Tarone (1977, 1980) and Bialystock (1990) gave the most generally referred to scientific classification of correspondence systems, which are additionally talked about beneath. Tarone (1980, p. 429) outlined sorts of correspondence systems under five fundamental classes, alongside their subcategories. The rundown goes as takes after:

A). Paraphrase

Paraphrase includes three subcategories which are described below.

(a) Approximation: The use of a target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares semantic features with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (e. g., "pipe" for "water pipe").

(b) Word coinage: The learner's making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (e. g., "airball" for "balloon").

(c) Circumlocution: The learner's describing the characteristics or elements of an object or action instead of using the appropriate TL structure (e. g., "She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what its name is. That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of").

B). Transfer

Transfer has two elements in it.

(a) Literal translation: The learner's translating word for word from the native language (e. g., "He invites him to drink" for "They toast one another").

(b) Language switch: The learner's using the NL (native language) term without bothering to translate (e. g., "balon" for "balloon" or "tirtil" for "turtle").

C). Appeal for Assistance

This refers to the learner's asking for the correct term or structure (e. g., "What is this?").

D). Mime

Mime refers to the learner's using non-verbal strategies in place of a meaning structure (e. g., clapping one's hands to illustrate applause).

E). Avoidance

Avoidance consists of two subcategories described below.

(a) Topic avoidance: The learner's by passing concepts for which the vocabulary or other meaning structures are not known to them.

(b) Message abandonment: The learner's beginning to talk about a concept but being unable to continue due to lack of meaning structure, and stopping in mid-utterance.

A series of other strategies called "achievement strategies" were proposed. They were named as so because it was believed that learners use their language resources to convey meaning, whether what they say is grammatically or socially correct. Mali (2007, p. 48) listed achievement production strategies as follows:

- Code-switching and gesticulation
- Literal translation and foreignizing
- Word coinage
- Simplification
- Generalization
- Paraphrase
- Restarts and approximation
- Establish foreign identity
- Appeal for repair and confirmation

C. Speaking Skill

For dominant part of individuals, the capacity of talking a remote dialect is synonymous with realizing that dialect since discourse is for them the essential instrument of human correspondence. English students never again expect the customary approach of their instructors in light of growing principally the syntactic fitness and utilizing system well known previously. Today, educators are relied upon to furnish their understudies with valuable dynamic information of the remote dialect, not only hypothesis about the dialect.

Open approach concentrates on a harmony amongst familiarity and precision and is the most reasonable for those understudies whose point is to pick up trust in talking and conversational capacities. In any case, talking in an outside dialect has regularly been seen as the most requesting of the four abilities. "While tuning in and perusing include the capacity to effectively get messages and are subsequently alluded to as open abilities, talking and composing, then again, include dialect generation and are alluded to as profitable aptitudes" (Harmer, 2000, p. 16).

Delivering talked dialect has regularly implied a trouble and a snag for English students. There might emerge an inquiry why. The appropriate response is self-evident. In the regular talked dialect understudies are required to know

about attributes of familiar discourse, for example, diminished structures, utilization of slang or expressions, settled expressions, collocations and above all the pace of discourse. These must be mulled over while honing discussion in class. Without these, our talked dialect would sound academic and unnatural. To maintain a strategic distance from this, it is basic to present and practice "genuine" correspondence with our understudies inside the learning procedure. In the event that it is dismissed, it might be a motivation behind why understudies are regularly stunned and disillusioned when utilizing a remote dialect interestingly while cooperating in outside condition. They have not been set up for unconstrained correspondence and couldn't adapt to the greater part of its synchronous requests.

The embarrassment is usually caused by students' inability to adjust to native speakers' speech. This is natural and adjures patience while learning to speak or communicate in a foreign language. As I already mentioned, native speakers are a great support and the opportunity to communicate with them means even greater encouragement for our students. Although it is quite demanding for students to keep up in conversation with them, they take it as an advantage in their studies. Most English students are really acquainted with the way that the most ideal approach to propel their talking aptitudes is changing in accordance with it in an English talking condition.

VII. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 60 language learners who were selected among 120 intermediate students from Parsyan English language institute. English institute was located in Ahvaz, Iran. Participants' age range was from 12 to 20. They have been studying English as a foreign language for at least five years. Their level of English language proficiency was determined on the basis of their scores on the Oxford Placement Test (OPT). The learners were randomly divided into three groups including two experimental groups of Approximation, Appealing for the help and one control group. In each group both females and males were included.

B. Instrumentation

The first instrument of this study was the OPT (Appendix A). The validity of the test is self-evident. This test enabled the researcher to select those learners who were compatible with the conditions of the study. The OPT was used to assess students' language level. It also enabled the researcher to have a greater understanding of their level of proficiency (i.e., elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate). According to the OPT, the learners whose scores were 39 and above (out of 70) were considered as the intermediate learners.

The speaking section of Preliminary English Test (PET) was selected for the pre-test and post-test of the study. The speaking section contained four parts. Each candidate interacted with the interlocutor. The interlocutor asked the candidates questions in turn, using standardized questions. The questions included giving information of a factual and personal kind. The candidates responded to questions about present circumstances, past experiences, and future plans. In the second task, candidates interacted with each other. Visual stimulus was given to the candidates to aid the discussion task. It should be mentioned that KR-21 formula was used to compute the reliability of pre-test and post-test. The results of computation revealed that the reliability of pre-test and post-test was 0.73 and 0.75 respectively. The validities of the pre and post-tests were confirmed by three English experts. It is worth nothing that before distributing the final version of the pre and post-tests among the target population, they were piloted on the similar group on the other English institute.

C. Procedure

First OPT was administered in order to manifest the participants' homogeneity in terms of English language proficiency. Sixteen participants out of 120 were chosen for the target population. The participants were then randomly assigned to three equal groups- two experimental groups and one control group. The groups were pretested by a speaking pre-test. Then, the participants of experimental groups received the same materials, speaking instruction, and the same amount of time was spent teaching speaking in each experimental class. Regarding the treatment, the experimental groups were taught by using the communicative approach techniques including approximation and appealing for the help. One experimental group received instruction on how to appeal for the help if their competence cannot come up with the exact word. For example, if students could not remember the correct target word like Smartphone, they were taught questions like "What do you call this in English?", "What does it mean in English?", "What's this/that?", "What are these/those?", "How do you say ... in English?", etc.". This technique can help speakers participate in the conversation and hold the floor and find correct answers for the questions they face.

The other experimental group received instruction on how to compensate failure in conversation by using approximate words. For example, in case of forgetting the exact word they used an approximate word or phrase like using "boat" instead of "ship" or "pipe" for "water pipe". Approximation strategy aids learners to find replacement for the vocabulary they either do not know or they have them in their passive reserve but are not able to remember them. This, in turn, will help students learn to hold their ground and do not stop the conversation.

However, the participants in the control group received traditional activities in learning speaking such as question and answer, topic discussion, dialogs and role playing. The treatment took 10 sessions of 45 minutes each under the guidance of the supervisor. Then control group and experimental groups took the post-test of PET. Their speaking

activities (e.g., 2 or 3 minutes for each learner) on using the communicative approach techniques were recorded and scored by two raters through the speaking checklist (Hughes, 2003). Then the data were analyzed to get the results.

D. Data Analysis

When the collection of data through each method was finished, the data were processed and entered on the computer for data analysis. Finally, to analyze the collected data and measure the effects of communicative approach techniques on Iranian EFL learners' speaking skill, One-way ANOVA and Post-hoc Scheffé test were run to provide logical answers for the research questions.

VIII. RESULTS

In order to analyze the gathered data, the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) software was used.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (THREE GROUPS)

Groups	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Appeal-Pretest	20	5.00	16.00	12.7500	3.00657
Appeal-Post-test	20	10.00	20.00	17.0500	3.06894
Approx-Pre-test	20	4.00	17.00	12.6500	4.36825
Approx-Post-test	20	7.00	20.00	14.0500	4.14824
Control-Pre-test	20	4.00	19.00	12.7000	3.68639
Control-Post-test	20	7.00	19.00	13.2000	3.60701
Valid N (listwise)	20				

Based on the descriptive statistics in the above table, all three groups' performance in the speaking pre-test was almost the same; their means show that they were at the same speaking proficiency level before applying the treatment. But regarding their speaking performance after the treatment, they did differently. The two experimental groups-appealing for the help and approximation- got better scores in their post-test. The mean scores of appealing for the help group and approximation group are 17.0500 and 14.0500 respectively in the posttest but the mean of control group is 13.2000.

TABLE 2.
ONE-WAY ANOVA (PRE-TEST)

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.100	2	.050	.004	.996
Within Groups	792.500	57	13.904		
Total	792.600	59			

Table 2 shows the scores of the three groups in the pre-test. Since the observed F (.004) is less than the critical F (3.15) with $df=2/57$, the difference between the groups is not significant at ($p<0.05$). In fact, they performed the same in the pre-test.

TABLE 3.
ONE-WAY ANOVA (POST-TEST)

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	163.633	2	81.817	6.192	.004
Within Groups	753.100	57	13.212		
Total	916.733	59			

The above table indicates the post-test scores of both control and experimental groups. Since the observed F (6.191) is greater than the critical F (3.15) with $df=2/57$, the difference between the groups is significant at ($p<0.05$). The experimental groups got better scores in the post-test of speaking. It can be claimed that the treatment affected the performance of the experimental groups in the post-test. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the researcher taught some techniques ("What does it mean in English?" and finding a replacement for the target vocabulary; "pipe" for "water pipe") to the experimental groups to compensate for their failure in conversation when they cannot remember the target word or when they do not know the exact English word. This table proves that the mentioned techniques brought success for the students of experimental group.

TABLE 4.
POST-HOC SCHEFFE TEST, MULTIPLE COMPARISONS (POST-TEST)

(I) VAR00003	(J) VAR00003	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Appeal-Post-test	Approx-Post-test	3.00000*	1.14945	.040	.1109	5.8891
	Control-Post-test	3.85000*	1.14945	.006	.9609	6.7391
Approx-Post-test	Appeal-Post-test	-3.00000*	1.14945	.040	-5.8891	-.1109
	Control-Post-test	.85000	1.14945	.762	-2.0391	3.7391
Control-Post-test	Appeal-Post-test	-3.85000*	1.14945	.006	-6.7391	-.9609
	Approx-Post-test	-.85000	1.14945	.762	-3.7391	2.0391

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Appealing group is significantly different with other groups but the Approximation group is not significantly different with the control group ($p < 0.05$). The group which received instruction on appealing for the help to compensate their conversational failures got better scores in the post test in comparison to the other two groups.

Table 4 compares the scores of all groups in the post-test. Based on the above table, there is a significant difference between the post- test scores of appealing group and the post- test of approximation group ($p < 0.05$). There is a significant difference between the scores of the appealing group and the post- test of control group ($p < 0.05$). There is a significant difference between the post- test scores of approximation group and the post- test of appealing group ($p < 0.05$). There is not a significant difference between the post-test of approximation group and the post- test of control group ($p < 0.05$). There is a significant difference between the post-test of control group and the post- test of appealing experimental group ($p < 0.05$). There is not a significant difference between the post-test of control group and the post-test of approximation group ($p < 0.05$).

IX. DISCUSSION

To discuss the results of the research, the research questions are referred to as follows:

RQ 1. Does communicative approach technique of approximation have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' speaking skill?

Based on the results of the present study, the experimental group of approximation had more speaking proficiency than control group on the post-test. According to the data analysis, both experimental and control groups had almost the same scores in the pre-test but their scores in the post-test was different. Experimental group who received the instruction on using the communicative approach technique of approximation performed better in the post-test in comparison to the control group; they could speak English more fluently. The results proved that approximation helped the participants of experimental group to do better in the post-test.

The findings of the present study are in line with Maleki (2007) who investigated the teachability of CSs for university students. He used a textbook which dealt with specific CSs such as approximation, circumlocution, foreign zing, word coinage, appeals for assistance, and time stalling devices for the experimental group. The control group used a textbook without CS use. After four months, the experimental group performed better on the Cambridge ESOL speaking test and a house-made achievement test than the 66 'Free' to Choose: Communication Strategy Use in EFL Classrooms in ... control group. It was suggested that teaching CSs could be effective and conducive to English language learning.

This study also supports the findings of Saemian (1991); he investigated the relation between the effects of proficiency and the use of CSs among Iranian EFL learners. The researcher found statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of both frequency and types of CSs employed. The high proficiency group resorted to more circumlocution and approximation. Yet, the low proficiency group used more repetition, paralinguistic, avoidance, and code-switching.

RQ 2. Does communicative approach technique of appealing for help have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' speaking skill?

This study had two experimental groups; one of them received the instruction to compensate their speaking breakdowns through using "appealing for help". After analyzing the collected data it was proved that the mentioned group outperformed both the control group and the other experimental group. Appealing for help technique helped them to keep on their conversations despite of their English deficiencies.

The results of the study are compatible with the Majd's findings (2014), she investigated the effects of teaching communication strategies- Circumlocution, Approximation, Word coinage and Appeal for help- on anxiety level and motivation of Iranian students. In her study, a Cambridge Proficiency Test was used and 40 Iranian homogeneous participants among learners who were 12-14 years of age were selected. According to the results of the proficiency test, they were at intermediate level. The learners were taught how to use CSs during communication in the foreign language. At the end of 3-month teaching and applying these strategies to the class activities, oral and written Cambridge Proficiency Test were held again to determine whether there was an improvement in their communication skills. A five point Likert Scale questionnaire was also used to measure their anxiety level and motivation during communication in

English after learning and using CSs. The findings of the study confirmed that teaching CSs to EFL learners and applying them to the class activities is a practical way to improve students communication skills, increase their motivation and decrease their anxiety level.

RQ 3. Is there any difference between the EFL learners who receive communicative approach techniques of approximation and appealing for help in learning speaking skill?

The participants of experimental groups received the same materials and speaking instruction, and also the same amount of time was spent teaching speaking in each experimental class. Regarding the treatment, the experimental groups were taught by using the communicative approach techniques including approximation and appeal for the help. One experimental group received instruction on how to appeal for help if their competence cannot come up with the exact word. The other experimental group received instruction on how to compensate failure in conversation by using approximate words. The results in chapter 4 shows that those students who used appealing for the help technique had better performance in the post-test of speaking in comparison of approximation group and also the control group. In fact, both strategies helped the students to improve their speaking skill. The results of this study support the findings which were discovered by Yarmohammadi and Seif (1992). They undertook research into the application of different CSs for solving students' oral and written communication problems. The researchers identified that strategies of literal translation, approximation and topic avoidance developed students' writing, while code switching, appealing for the help and approximation strategies improved oral tasks. The findings of the present study revealed that CSs can help Iranian EFL learners to learn speak English language more easily. So applying the CSs is suggested in Iranian English classes.

X. CONCLUSION

The present study tried to measure the effect of the communicative approach techniques of approximation and appealing for the help on speaking skills of some Iranian students. As mentioned in statement of the problem-Chapter One, different factors have made Iranian students unable to speak English fluently and appropriately. Among these factors is the dominance of traditional methods. A possible answer to this problem would be implementation of the communicative approach techniques of approximation and appealing for the help. After the implementation of communicative approach techniques of approximation and appealing for the help in the present study, the experimental groups outperformed the control group with a statistically significant difference. Overall, such results yielded an evidence of the positive effect of the communicative approach techniques on students' ability to understand and speak the target language effectively. Therefore, the present study recommends effective implementation of the communicative approach techniques with careful control of any constraints.

Generally it can be appeared from this information that correspondence system preparing was a compelling instrument for helping understudy's scaffold correspondence holes. By learning diverse procedures and an arrangement of center articulations, understudies turned out to be more sure about their capacity to convey, even in circumstances where they didn't completely see all the dialect, or when the individual they were speaking with did not comprehend them.

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Construction of ESP Teaching System

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Abstract—This article explores into the mode of fostering interdisciplinary talents' practical English skills in the universities of science and engineering under the background of internationalization of higher education and economic globalization. On the basis of discussing the current situation of ESP teaching and the investigation of teaching demand, the author of this paper analyzes how to construct the ESP teaching system from the four aspects of teaching materials, teaching methods, teacher training and evaluation. The creation of personalized teaching materials and multiple activities can help all students enjoy the pleasure of learning and make students really feel the charm of English.

Index Terms—ESP, teaching system, construction

I. INTRODUCTION

With the internationalization of higher education and the economic globalization, the international exchange and communication has more frequently happened, so the requirement for college students' English ability has been gradually turned to the promotion of the ability to solve professional problems in English. Therefore, how to construct a new College English teaching system of training applied talents with high English proficiency has become an urgent topic to the English teachers in the universities of science and engineering.

Nowadays, the main criticism faces with College English teaching is that the teaching content is divorced from the students' professional knowledge and daily life. Our English teaching is still the exam-oriented teaching mode, which has been existing from primary schools till senior middle schools. The repetition in certain content and the sustainable focus on the basic communication skills cause the students' low enthusiasm in English learning and motivation.

In the year of 1987, Hutchinson & Waters firstly proposed that EFL (English as Foreign Language) consist of two branches: GE (General English, which is also called EGP) and ESP (English for Specific Purposes). Later, Jordan (1997) further divided ESP into EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes). And there are also some other scholars who have discussed their opinions on the divisions of ESP.

As to the difference and relationship between EGP and ESP, EGP/GE refers to English for General Purpose, which includes English language skills of reading, listening, speaking, writing and translation. The main purpose of EGP is to develop learners' basic English language skills. ESP, the abbreviation of "English for specific/special purposes", which originated in the 1960s, is based on the learner's specific purpose and needs of the learners. It is a course referring to a specific profession or discipline related to English. Halliday, McInish and Stevens define ESP as: "English for civil servants; for policemen; for officials of the law; for dispensers and nurses; for specialists in agriculture; for engineers and fitters". In one sentence, ESP is used in a specific field by professionals.

It is the combination of EGP teaching with one aspect of professional knowledge or a certain subject, which is the inevitable development of College English teaching. According to our *National medium-and long-term education reform and development Planning Framework (2010-2020)*, only by extending the teaching of EGP to ESP, can we cultivate international talents with global vision, familiarity with international rules, participation in international affairs and International Competition.

The construction of College English teaching system in universities is essentially a topic of how universities keep up with our social development. Historically, the university's social service function has shifted from passive response to active adaptation, which means universities should instruct the students to serve the society with their knowledge. Under this circumstance, some scholars put forward that College English should transit from EGP to ESP.

II. CURRENT SITUATION OF ESP TEACHING RESEARCH IN CHINA

In recent years, Chinese scholars and teachers have done a lot in ESP research. Liu Wenjun (2012), LAN (2013), Fu Qiang (2014) and so other scholars explored ESP curriculum design, teaching management, teacher training and teaching practice according to the different specialities of their universities respectively. Zhu Meiping and Shen Yuewen (2010) introduced the problems encountered in ESP teaching in Beijing Foreign Studies University and discussed the strategies. Liu Mei (2013) probes into College English teaching based on ESP course system, and proposes a continuum model of College English teaching in five stages.

Some other scholars studied different teaching methods. Zhou Dongbiao (2014) and Li Shujun (2014) discussed the application of Constructivist teaching mode and thematic teaching mode in college English teaching in application-oriented institutes. Cui Chuanming and Shi Lei (2011) discussed Task-based English teaching and displayed its classroom practice. Nan Hongyan (2006), He Yue (2012) respectively proposed the network plus interaction and

classroom display method and teaching models.

The above-mentioned studies have probed into the establishment and orientation of college ESP course and teaching methods from different perspectives in universities. The studies provide us with the practical and methodological guidance of the ESP teaching, and the researches have done a lot on the difficulties in classroom teaching from the theoretical level. However, there are some limitations in the existing research: firstly, how to define the teaching orientation of ESP course in different types of colleges and universities, especially in the aspects of teaching material construction, teaching content, evaluation methods and teacher training. Secondly, there is still a lack of empirical research on the research of ESP course in Engineering colleges.

Meanwhile, there are also some other factors that affected the ESP teaching in our country. Because of the long absence of theoretical research, ESP teaching system has been in a chaotic state for many years, in our universities, highlighting the The lack of clarity in teaching purposes and the absence of two of syllabus.

Although there are numerous scholars have done research on ESP in our country, but our theoretical research on it has not been emphasized. To make ESP develop in universities teaching, firstly we should strengthen ESP theoretical research, to find the effective way of improving ESP teaching method and practice it, and then our ESP teaching can really make great progress. All in all, the transition from EGP to ESP needs a lot of practice.

From the 1960s, ESP research abroad has established a relatively complete system, and there are representative scholars and works at every stage of the ESP development, but the concept of ESP and division method have not been agreed. In the teaching practice, many colleges and universities in Britain and America aim at teaching the language knowledge and skills needed for academic English before the foreign students contact the specific course, which is mainly to help learners to improve the language comprehensive ability and academic writing, including written assignments, classroom discussions and presentations, and paper writing skills, to help foreign students to get through the difficulties of listening to English lectures and courses before class. At the same time, in many other countries and regions, such as Singapore, Italy and Hong Kong of China, ESP curriculum design, textbook preparation, outline formulation are complete, and ESP teaching has gradually come into the mainstream in order to provide language ability for foreign exchange and cooperation. However, in the ESP teacher training, most countries have not established the system to train professional ESP teachers.

III. SURVEY ON ESP LEARNING NEEDS

Before the implementation of *College English Curriculum Requirements*, our College English is mainly General English, whose purpose is to help students develop proficient language skills. With the rapid development of China's economy and increasingly frequent international exchanges in recent years, our society put forward higher requirements on the comprehensive English ability for College students. College English teaching has shifted its focus to improve students' English comprehensive practical ability. Meanwhile, College English credits are greatly compressed under the new situation, which decreased from the original 16 credits to 12 credits. It is beneficial for college students to have more energy to learn some other English courses so as to promote the overall English proficiency.

The author of this study randomly investigated some students of different majors so as to know their evaluation of the current College English learning and their expectations and attitudes to English learning. Some graduates were also interviewed to get information about the practical use of English in real life. The results are as follows:

A. *Students' Understanding of the Current College English Learning and the Motivation and Attitude to ESP Learning*

More than half of the students interviewed think that through the previous 10-odd-years English learning, they have grasped some basic skills of English listening, speaking, reading and writing, and mastered the basic phonetic grammar knowledge and a considerable number of words. In the following years in universities, they hope the English teachers can teach them some knowledge related to their future study and work. They believe they should continue with EGP learning, some basic English skills still need strengthening so as to further consolidate the foundation. In the second year, basic ESP teaching should be the aim in order to meet the different needs of various professionals, whose main content is to teach how to use the EGP and ESP knowledge to achieve professional proficiency in certain fields.

The main motivation for most students to learn ESP is the need for work in the future, and few students think that the only motivation of their ESP learning is to pass the final exam to get credits. Their motives belong to instrumental motives, that is, to learn English well so to find a good job for the future personal development. This is in line with the ESP characteristic, namely, the goal is clear, the pertinence is strong and the practical value is high. More than fifty percent of the students think that learning ESP is to learn more about English as a tool, which also shows that most students realize the importance of English as a skill to professional learning.

In order to continue to improve their English, most students are willing to learn this course. They think it is necessary to learn ESP courses, and they are interested in it and confident to learn ESP well. They are aware of the importance of ESP, believing that more and more jobs in the future will combine English with the working fields, and they have a positive attitude towards learning such courses.

B. *ESP Learning Objectives*

Most students hope to mainly improve their listening and speaking ability through ESP courses. The results of this

investigation are related to the target orientation of their professional English teachers. Due to the lack of English teaching background, professional English are instructed by the Professional teachers, who basically follow the teaching theory of grammar translation. They pay attention to the vocabulary, reading and translation. The lack of the English teaching methods lead to their difficulty in helping students practice listening and speaking, and so most students expect to improve their communicative competence in ESP with the help of English teachers. Most students hope that through the ESP course learning can exchange professional information in English and read English professional material, which illustrates that the students want to learn practical English skills for their future professional work.

Many students believe that the content of the ESP learning should be closely relevant to the their majors, which is in line with the definition of ESP presented by Hutchinson and Waters (1984), who proposed that ESP should be related to a specific profession or occupation.

Most students hope that in the ESP class, teachers and students could communicate more frequently and do some real situational dialogue practice, rather than just listening to the teacher to explain and translate the text. So the teachers must create English situational atmosphere in English class. If teachers use Chinese in ESP teaching, the effect is equivalent to the grammar translation method teaching, which is difficult to achieve the goal of English communication.

After interviewing some graduates, we find most graduates think that the professional comprehensive ability and proficient ESP ability can be beneficial to their profession. Therefore, College English should follow the social needs to strengthen students' basic ESP literacy to meet the social needs.

IV. ESP TEACHING SYSTEM CONSTRUCTION

The construction of ESP teaching system includes teaching material, teaching methods, teacher training and teaching evaluation.

A. Teaching Material Construction

Due to various specialities and different English levels of the students, College English teachers should choose different teaching materials of ESP course for students. The application of ESP teaching materials should focus on the transition from College English to professional English, highlighting the language skills training and aiming at using English to obtain professional knowledge.

For example, in Printing English, the lexical part of the textbook should analyze the lexical features of Printing English in terms of common vocabulary, interdisciplinary vocabulary and professional vocabulary, so as to make the students master the vocabulary usage.

(1) Common words

There will always be some common core content in language, such as the following commonly used vocabulary in printing and packaging: paper, paperboard, material, plastics and so on. Some are not commonly used in daily life, but are commonly used in the printing industry, such as corrugated paper, Bristol paper (high quality paper, glossy paper), newsprint, cover paper, Kraft/brown paper, foil paper.

(2) Interdisciplinary vocabulary

Everything in the world is interrelated, the same with professional disciplines. Many disciplines need to be supported or based on other disciplines, and the printing profession is no exception. For example, as the main raw material of printing, the physical properties of paper determines the quality of ink color, which has an important impact on the the quality of the product printing. Understanding the physical properties of paper can guarantee the quality of printed products. Similarly, printing technology can not be separated from chemical knowledge. For example, printing and chemistry are inextricably linked. As an important branch of natural science, chemistry is a discipline that specializes in the study of the structure, nature and application of matter. In the printing technology and production, it involves many branches of chemistry, such as physical chemistry, organic chemistry, inorganic chemistry, analytical chemistry, dye chemistry and so on.

For example, in this sentence: Paperboard has the following advantages: recyclable and biodegradable; Produced with different degrees of opacity.

Some of the terms in this sentence may appear in chemistry, physics, biology, materials and other disciplines. And due to their relevance to these professions, many of the relevant words are frequently found in printed professional English materials, such as recyclable, biodegradable, opacity, and so on. They are more common vocabulary, its meaning rarely change with the subject and professional.

Today the world's printing technology is developing rapidly, if someone wants to learn about the latest industry developments in the foreign countries and to master the advanced technology, he/she must have the ability to read professional materials in English. The printing major students are the future practitioners and technicians in this industry, their professional English level directly affects the degree of international exchange with foreign counterparts. Therefore, English and professional needs should be combined to train talents in the course of ESP construction.

(3) Professional vocabulary

There are two types of professional vocabulary in the field of printing: one is the specialization of common vocabulary and the other is vocabulary solely to the printing-related professional.

The specialization of common vocabulary refers to the new professional meaning and special pragmatic function in

the field of printing. For example: makeup, ordinary words can be said “cosmetics”, while in printing terms, it means “imposition”. Substance, a common word for “material” in daily life, but in printing professional terminology, the expression refers to “paper quantitative; a standard weight of paper”. Another expression “Platebed” are everyday words in daily life and are closely related to our life. However, in the jargon of printing, the expression refers to a device, flat-pressed or round-flattening printing machine for the installation of a printing plate platform. These words are common words in our daily life, but when diverted to the printing professional English, special meanings derive.

In addition to these single words, some combination of two or more words is produced in printed English. According to statistics, the synthetic terminology of EST constitutes the 80-90 percent of all the terms. In most cases, one can infer its meaning literally, such as plastic duplicate plate (plastic version), Ink-water balance (balance between water and ink), printing trouble (printing failure). The meaning of only a small number of synthetic words is far from the literal meaning, such as out of the Register (Misregister) and so on.

The other case is professional vocabulary only used in the field of printing, which is usually defined but narrow in meaning scope, often with only one interpretation in the specific profession. These professional terms must be translated in accordance with the specifications of the printing profession. Such words can be divided into three categories:

General professional vocabulary in the field of printing, such as: lithography (lithographic printing), laminating (laminating), perforating (punching), etc.

Abbreviation: The development trend of modern science and technology English style is to simplify the expression of words, and to use abbreviations to accord with the development trend of simplicity. Therefore, a large number of abbreviations can be seen in the professional English vocabulary of any subject. Abbreviations in terminology are commonly used in the professional and technical ranks, such as: SBS (solid bleached sulphate, copper paper jam), WCC (waxed corrugated containers, surface wax corrugated box), CCNB (clay coated news back, a recycled material made with gray matter coating cardboard), cckb (Clay Coated Kraft back, a white board cardboard), CCWB (clay coated white back, gray core cardboard). These words are often summed up in the use of words, it will be easy to remember: cc= clay coated,

Directly borrowed loanwords: Collotype printing was originally mainly for the printing of prints, invented by the Germans in 19th century and was introduced into China in the early Qing Dynasty. As a result of the use of gelatin in the production process, so the Greek word “Collo” was used to mean glue (gum). In fact, the term literally means “glass plate printing”.

These terminologies are best used to establish a printing professional corpus. As a professional field of English, its terminology has its own meaning. Since the United States Brown corpus was built in the 1960s, with the development of computer technology, corpus has been widely used in all aspects of language research. One of the achievements of corpus research is the context. Its KWIC technology provides contextual words for the search of keywords, and the word is shown to the reader. Because the corpus is the language material which appears in the real language use, its context may provide the translator with the reliable understanding information, so it plays a more and more important role in the modern linguistics research. Based on the above advantages, the printing industry’s technical practitioners should jointly develop the printing professional English corpus, which will play an extremely important role in the teaching of English for printing majors.

B. Teaching Methods

According to the characteristics of engineering students and different teaching contents, different methods can be used in ESP teaching, such as immersion, task-based approach, communicative method and so on, adhering to the principle of practicing as the center. Through the diversified design of teaching methods, ESP teachers can help to improve the students’ interest and practicality of classroom teaching. Using the methods of real communication, written writing and situational simulation to test the students’ learning effect, and using self-evaluation and peer evaluation to measure the students’ English practical ability can arouse students’ interest and enthusiasm.

According to the characteristics of ESP teaching, it emphasizes the learner-centered organization according to learners’ needs, and the cultivation of the students’ ability of language application. Therefore, teachers should pay attention to the classroom organization and classroom teaching in the teaching process. In ESP teaching, discussion, writing and oral expression are considered as the three most difficult learning skills. These skills are the ability that people can take with them anywhere to help them cope with the new situation. The foreign ESP teaching pays more attention to the combination of the comprehensive skills training and the sub-item skills training simultaneously in the teaching practice.

In Chinese ESP teaching, the traditional language skill-centered and the teaching-centered are still deeply rooted. Through the investigation of professional English class, we can see most teachers are still using the traditional method of grammar translation, while neglecting the communicative competence. Therefore, we urgently need to explore effective teaching methods. ESP teaching should establish a student-centered teaching method according to the students’ needs. The emphasis should be on cultivating students’ pragmatic competence, and teachers should lay emphasis on the combination of language knowledge and language use in teaching. Attention should be paid to the process of developing the students’ ability to use language in activities. That is, the activities including information conversion, summarizing the gist of the article, drawing conclusions, reasoning, problem solving and so on should be the goal. The

teacher also should give feedback and evaluation to the students. If the knowledge and skills learned by the students are only related to individual decision-making, instead of getting recognition or criticism, then it is not conducive to the improvement of the students' interest in learning. In this way, teachers and students are both in interactive state in the process of activities, which can enhance language acquisition and professional knowledge. Therefore, we should pay attention to the teaching method of ESP, so that the teaching practice can be in line with the characteristics of students and professional characteristics of teaching methods.

C. Teacher Training

The level of teachers' ability directly determines the teaching efficiency of ESP, so the quality of the teachers is the most important factor in the teaching. Nowadays, many universities are faced with the same problem in ESP teaching, that is, teachers are not professional enough. The College English teachers have a solid basic knowledge, but lack expertise in the field; While the professional teachers have rich professional knowledge, but lack language skills and English teaching methods and experience, so both cannot meet ESP teaching requirements. In order to improve the teaching quality of ESP, combining the two kinds of teaching resources and implementing cooperative teaching would be a good choice, that is, relating the English proficiency of College English teachers with expertise of professional teachers, the cooperation of the teachers can help complete the compilation of teaching materials, the design of instructional tasks and the selection of teaching methods, so as to improve teaching quality to a large extent. I believe that through these efforts, the teachers will be fully qualified for the teaching of ESP.

Teachers who instruct ESP courses must undergo training, which should include two aspects: language training (language improvement) and professional training (professional development). The former refers to the improvement of language skills, and the latter refers to mastering the knowledge structure, teaching method and the stylistic features of the professional English taught.

In the specific teacher training, the following issues should also be paid attention to:

(1) ESP teachers should establish a correct attitude to the transformation from EGP to ESP. Some teachers are forced and unwilling to work for ESP teaching, and some English teachers are not very knowledgeable or interested in the new professions involved, and the lack of self-confidence and the spirit of active study in teaching also would lead to failure. Therefore, when choosing ESP teachers, we should respect the teachers' wishes and choose those who are willing to be engaged in ESP teaching. At the same time, these teachers should be made aware that they are facing the challenge of learning new subjects, and only with a positive attitude and full enthusiasm can they will be competent for teaching ESP as well as possible.

(2) The change of teacher's role. In the traditional English teaching, most teachers are just lecturers, students are only passive recipients. But according to the characteristics of ESP teaching, teachers should not only become good lecturers, but also should be a good guide to motivate students to learn, be a walking dictionary for the students and be the participants in the classroom activities. In a word, ESP teachers should have a good understanding of the multi-level teacher's role, which is also a prerequisite for ESP teachers.

D. Teaching Evaluation

The traditional teaching evaluation emphasizes the quantitative score and the summative evaluation method, which not only neglects the guiding and stimulating function of teaching evaluation, but also deemphasizes the evaluation of students' thinking ability, problem solving ability, mutual cooperation and communication ability, which leads to the unilateral development of students. ESP learning is prepared for the future use in the industry. According to the individual differences and learning needs of students, to construct a variety of evaluation methods to measure the teachers' teaching and students' learning results comprehensively throughout the whole process, is an effective way to improve the ESP teaching. Therefore, ESP teaching evaluation should adopt the model of formative evaluation and summative evaluation. The formative evaluation combines with the students' situational practice ability and professional language knowledge acquisition in order to promote the study and improve the learning efficiency; Meanwhile, the teachers can use formative evaluation to analyze teaching effect, arrange teaching progress and teaching method rationally to improve teaching efficiency.

The authenticity standard can not be neglected in ESP curriculum evaluation. Creating a real context is an effective way to improve the students' ESP learning. The purpose of ESP course evaluation is to test the learners' capacity in the real language environment. Therefore, the ESP evaluation performer should understand what kind of language ability the ESP real user should have in the real environment, what kind of professional knowledge should be mastered, what language tasks to complete. Through such reliable evaluation, the students can realize the gap between their study and needs. There is no doubt that adherence to the principle of authenticity can guarantee the validity of ESP course evaluation. If conditions permit, in the ESP course evaluation, some industry evaluation should be introduced because the industry employers have more specific standards and requirements for the ESP talents. Only the evaluation based on the standards of the enterprises and on the ability or quality of the relevant vocational posts can be the scientific evaluation mechanism for ESP learners.

V. CONCLUSION

As the designers of ESP teaching activities, teachers should make clear the importance of the demand analysis in the ESP course, investigate the students' learning needs, select suitable teaching material, arrange teaching process and choose comprehensive teaching evaluation methods so to try to meet the students' needs in ESP learning.

ESP teachers should be very cautious at defining students' learning needs, setting teaching objectives and selecting teaching materials. Learning needs is a prerequisite for curriculum design, each course should be designed to take into account the needs of students so that what they want to learn and should learn can be clear. According to the result of the requirement analysis, teachers can set up the teaching goal, arrange the teaching plan, and let the students reach their goal progressively. In this process, the choice of teaching materials must be based on the students' situation, curriculum objectives, course contents and so on.

Then the teachers can arrange the teaching process. Choosing a teaching method that is both suitable and welcomed by the students needs careful investigation and thinking. In the teaching mode, teachers should be able to arrange the teaching flexibly and the syllabus can be fine-tuned when appropriate to motivate learning. Meanwhile, ESP teachers should adopt the pluralistic teaching method for the students so that respect for the personality can be truly realized. Teachers should set up a pluralistic activity scene according to the theory of multiple intelligences, so that all students can enjoy the joy of learning and experience the charm of English.

Curriculum evaluation is an inseparable part of all the curricula. It is the step to check whether the students have acquired what should be grasped, to test teachers' teaching, curriculum arrangements and the degree of completion of teaching objectives. It can help teachers find the defects in the teaching process and the gap between the teaching goals and students' learning results. The evaluation guides the teachers to make adjustments to future teaching. But in the ESP teaching evaluation, the evaluation of students' achievement should not be judged only by the final paper. The teachers should take into account the students' daily behavior, their response in class and participation in the learning process.

The feasibility and the scientificity of setting up ESP teaching system between EGP and professional English teaching depend a lot on the College English teachers to carry on the massive creative work, because there is no ideal model for our reference. ESP also belongs to English language, so we should probe into the common part between EGP and ESP to find out something we can make good use.

All in all, in the establishment of ESP curriculum system, we should pay attention to all the steps in the teaching process, making good use of each individual's intelligence, applying multiple teaching methods.

The study of ESP course has realistic significance. ESP teaching is an inevitable trend as a result of China's opening-up, international exchange and education reform. Although it is just a bud and we are still faced with many problems and difficulties in its teaching, we have a lot of expectations on it if we can carefully analyze the current situation, establish an effective method of ESP teaching and explore a suitable way to improve the students' ESP learning.

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Multilingual Instructional Model of Pesantren Schools in Indonesia

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Abstract—The study investigated the multilingual instructional model of *pesantren* schools. It employed qualitative study by applying grounded theory. This study was conducted at the three of *pesantren* schools in the city of Makassar, Indonesia (*Pesantren IMMIM, Pondok Madinah, and Pesantren Darul Arqam Muhammadiyah Gombara*). The respondent of the current study were four non-native speakers of English, Arabic, and Mandarin teachers who have the ability to speak and to communicate in three or more languages. In collecting the data, the researchers employed three primary data collection techniques, they are observation, interview, and examining the record. The results found that the multilingual instructional model of *pesantren* schools applied simultaneous-sequential model with some phases to generate the students changed from monolingual to multilingualism and at the end, they become mono multilingualism.

Index Terms—multilingual, instructional model, *pesantren* school

I. INTRODUCTION

The success of learning cannot be separated from the role of an instructional model of learning implemented by a teacher in teaching. The instructional model is defined as a conceptual framework that guides teachers about the step-by-step learning procedures to achieve the objectives of learning and more specific outcomes. In other words, the instructional model is a conceptual framework of the systematic teaching and learning procedures in managing the students' learning experiences to achieve the learning objectives more effectively. Thus, learning program which does not adopt a particular model will lead to unsuccessful learning and far from the objectives of learning to be achieved (Gunter, et al., 1990; Joyce & Weil, 1980; Burden & Byrd, 1999; Bin-Tahir, 2012).

The application of a teaching model will, of course, vary among teachers especially in teaching in a class with multilingual and multicultural students. Therefore, it is required the sufficient teacher's competence (personal, social, pedagogical, intercultural, emotional, and professional) in teaching a lesson, because it will bridge and determine the success and failure of the learning process and achievement especially in multilingual and multicultural language learning as well as in *pesantren* schools (Herdina & Jessner, 2000; Ringbom, 2001; Bin-Tahir & Rinantanti, 2016).

Most *pesantren* schools have multilingual teachers who are competent in teaching the multilingual subject but they faced the complicated curriculum of *pesantren* which adopted two or three kinds of curricula; DIKNAS (Minister of National Education) curriculum, DEPAG (Ministry of Religion Affairs) curriculum, and *Pesantren* curriculum (Bin-Tahir, 2011). The three curricula were implemented separately on a certain day, different schedule, and with different teachers. Likewise in language curriculum of *pesantren*, the students were compelled to learn hard in fulfillment the need of those curricula. It means that the students were dazed to learn languages such as Indonesia, Arabic, English, and local languages based on the three curricula in the different schedules with the different teachers and different books. The schools also faced some obstacles in arranging the schedule and they needed more teachers to teach those languages, whereas most of their teachers have the multilingual competence to be empowered in languages teaching to fulfill the need of *pesantren* (Bin-Tahir, 2015a; 2015b).

Based on the results of preliminary studies in foreign languages teaching at *pesantren* schools shows that the success of language learning is determined by the way of the teacher choices a familiar topic and simple dialogue that is absolutely used by the students in their daily life at *pesantren* environment (Bin-Tahir, 2011: 34). This is supported by the consistency of *pesantren* policy in applying English learning in the field of science, Arabic learning in religious subjects, and Indonesian language in the field of general subjects or the social studies, while in daily interactions, they used those three languages in communication (Tahir, 2015; Amri, et al., 2017).

The success of multilingual learning at *pesantren* schools is also caused by language teachers who implemented multilingual teaching through a combination of immersion, transitional, dual language, and pull out techniques; The implementation of multilingual teaching at *pesantren* consisted of four main specific teaching strategies; a) Teacher-Student Communication in which the teachers listen carefully to the students, and support them to use short simple sentences and nonverbal cues while speaking, and also correct the student's pronunciation; b) Student-Student Relationships in which teachers give the students opportunities to try out their new language with other students without error correction by the teacher or other students; c) Daily Routines to establish and maintain communication in the target language supported by the *pesantren's* rules inside or outside the classroom, and d) Language-Group Time activities in learning through the *Muhaadharah* (speech practicing), language camps, and meeting clubs (Bin-Tahir, 2017).

Based on this background, the researchers are interested in further studying how the successful of multilingual instructional models are applied by language teachers at that schools before further undertake a study on the development of multilingual learning materials and learning models. The results of this study will certainly contribute the information and theory for researchers themselves in developing a model of multilingual teaching and learning appropriate for *pesantren* schools and also give the contribution of information and references for further researchers who want to study the languages learning under the umbrella of multilingual education.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The instructional model is a plan or a pattern that is used as a guide to planning the learning process in the classroom. In other words, learning is a planning model or pattern which can be used to design the patterns of face-to-face teaching and learning in the classroom and to determine the learning material including books, and media as a course to learn. Bin-Tahir (2012) stated that each model leads teacher in designing learning to help learners achieve the learning objectives (p.23). Joyce & Weil (1992) stated that instructional models are models of learning to help the students acquire information, ideas, skills, values, the way of thinking and tools of expressing themselves (p.1). While Arends (2014) prefers the term of instructional model based on two important reasons; first, the term model shows a broad range of meanings rather than approaches, strategies, methods, and techniques. Any development of approaches, strategies, methods, and techniques in a systematic procedure is what is called a model. Second, the model is an important means of communication, for both the process and procedures of teaching in the classroom, presenting the material, discussing, observing, and controlling the students practicing the languages.

Multilingual is defined as the ability of a person to speak or communicate in three or more languages, either separately or in different levels of code mixing, where different languages are used actively in everyday communication within a multilingualism society (McArthur, 1992; Edwards, 1994; Vildomec, 1963; Kemp, 2009). Multilingualism is not about what several languages can do for the people but it is about what people can do with several languages (Cruz-Ferreira, 2010). This means that there are some people who master multiple languages but they are not actively using them in daily communications so they are called mono multilingual.

Multilingual instructional models are generally adopted the models of bilingual instruction such 1) ESL program models consisted of ESL pull-out, ESL class period, and ESL resource center, 2) Bilingual program models consisted of early-exit programs, late-exit programs, two-way programs, 3) Sheltered English or content-based models, and 4) Structured immersion models. There is no reason to claim that one model is better than other models since the application of a combination of multiple models could be more effective. It depends on how to choose the level of school that the program will be implemented by considering the students' needs carefully (Collier, 1992; Ramirez, Yuen, and Ramey, 1991).

One of the most urgent issues that must be considered by stakeholders or teachers who will apply multilingual teaching is determining what language will be used as the language of instruction. For EFL/ESL learners, the Mother Tongue-Based (MTB) model is the right choice as the language of instruction and the learner's first language (L1), then the transition will be planned gradually into the second language (L2) and then into the third language (L3). The MTB learning model usually takes place exclusively in the language that the students well-known about it. In the MTB model, students have the opportunity to learn the core concepts especially in familiar language, and then they learn the vocabulary for those concepts in the new language (Malone, 2009).

Furthermore, Malone (2009) describes MTB's multilingual learning model that allows learners to establish a strong foundation on their L1 by bridging gradually to new languages (3rd language taught as the subject, but not used as instructional language) (p.71). This phase establishes students' fluency and confidence in oral L1, then teaches speaking L1 by introducing reading and writing L1, and then teaches speaking and writing L1 while introducing speaking L2, then teaching oral and written L1 and L2 orally while introducing reading and writing L2. Then teaching oral and written L1 and L2 besides introducing the oral L3, finally, teaches students' fluency and confidence in using L1, L2, and L3 for everyday communication as well as introducing reading and writing L3.

This study will focus on the Malone MLE model which adds the new languages, new content, new ideas, and new ways of thinking as a "good bridge" between language and interaction is an additive process and not a subtractive one.

III. METHOD

This research employed a qualitative study by applying grounded theory. The qualitative research is to collect data on the subject of research in order to obtain deep insight of the phenomena of interest. The data collected will be analyzed and interpreted descriptively or narrative (Gay, *et al*, 2006). Grounded theory is a systematic methodology involving the discovery of theory through the analysis of data (Strauss and Corbin, 1997).

This research was conducted at the three *pesantren* schools in the city of Makassar, Indonesia (*pesantren IMMIM*, *Pondok Madinah*, and *Pesantren Darul Arqam Muhammadiyah Gombara*). The subject of the study was four of non-native English, Arabic, and Mandarin teachers who have the ability to speak and to communicate in three or more languages. Thus, we took four teachers as the informant (two teachers from the *Pesantren IMMIM* and one teacher from the respective of *Pondok Madinah* and *pesantren Gombara*). The four teachers are male. They have the ability to speak in local language, Indonesian, English, and Arabic, while the one of the *pesantren IMMIM*'s teacher has the ability to speak in some of the local languages, Indonesian, and some of the foreign languages such English, Arabic, and Mandarin. The data gained from documentary record of their teaching activities in the classroom and data interview with them and the students.

The researchers themselves were the primary data collection instrument (Gay, *et al*, 2006) as an observer and an interviewer (p.425). The secondary instruments of collecting data were an observation and interview protocol.

The researchers used three primary techniques of data collection, they are:

A. Observation

Here, the researchers as nonparticipant observer or external observer in which they did not directly involve in the situation being observed. They wrote field notes in all classroom activities during the learning process. In addition, they also used a videotape to record verbal and nonverbal communication between teacher and students which later be confirmed and adjusted to field notes, and also a volunteer assisted them in the interview section.

The researchers' role as nonparticipant observer in which they did not involve directly in the teaching and learning process. They wrote field notes in all classroom activities during the learning process. In addition, they also used a videotape to record verbal and nonverbal communication between teacher and students which later be confirmed and adjusted to field notes, and also a volunteer assisted them in the interview section.

B. Interview

The researchers interviewed the teachers by using voice recorder. The kind of the interview was a semi-structured interview, it means that the researcher prepared some questions as a guide before interviewing the informant and some additional questions will be developed on the spot based on the informant answers. The teacher's interview was used to collect qualitative data or confirmation toward what had been observed, it was done at the end of every meeting. And students' interview was aimed to obtain the students' perceptions of the teacher's multilingual instructional model in languages teaching. The way to interview the students was by doing the group interview.

C. Examining Records

In addition to the observation and interview, the information was gathered through documentary evidence. This third primary data collection technique was examining records.

To analyze the data, the researchers employed a grounded theory technique suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1997), it consisted of three steps; open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. Open coding is a process of labeling the phenomena of multilingual instructional model implemented by the teachers in the multilingual classroom which in turn revealed the categories. Axial coding is a set of procedures whereby data on teachers' instructional model are put back together in new ways after conducting open coding by correlating those categories. Selective coding is a process of selecting from core category and connecting them with another category.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The instructional model for languages learners in *pesantren* schools occupies a continuum with the multilingual model at simultaneous-sequential and Target Language-only based on the students' grade or level. Among them, there are several gradations, depending on the of students' need. The table 1 below illustrates the program phase in a multilingual learning model set for *pesantren* students.

TABLE 1.
INSTRUCTIONAL MODELS FOR PESANTREN SCHOOLS

Model and Goals	Program	Languages of instruction
Multilingual: Developing students' literacy in Multilingual (Indonesian, English, Arabic) simultaneously	- Multilingual Immersion - Multilingual maintenance - Multilingual pullout - Developing multilingual immersion	Both foreign languages (Arabic and English) and students' native language (Indonesian) used in the first grade of junior high school at <i>pesantren</i> simultaneously
Target Language-only: Developing literacy in target language	Languages development	English and Arabic
	Sheltered languages instruction	Target language which adapted to the students' level supporting by body language, gesture, visual and movie, etc. The students' first language supporting is provided in certain times.
	Target Languages is as second and foreign language immersion	All the instructional language provided in target language based on the students' level of competence. Besides, the L1 may be used separately
	Target Languages as second and foreign languages pullout	Target language; Students are taught in the main classes with ESL instructional support.
Bilingual with transitional support: English and Arabic acquisition; transfer to the certain Foreign languages-only in the classrooms based on the certain subject	Transitional bilingual education	Both English & Arabic. After transition, there is no further instructional language use in L1 (Indonesian). It means that in the end of the level, the students turn to be mono multilingualism

The multilingual instructional model of *pesantren* schools implemented the MTB model in the teaching and learning foreign languages namely English and Arabic. The program varies in students' intensity and duration to join this class. This multilingual model developed student skills in three languages simultaneously in the first phase. They provide Indonesian, English and Arabic lessons with equal proportions that aim to strengthen the students' mother tongue and to encourage the development of their second and third languages. This model impacted to an additive multilingual environment in which all students are expected to develop their multilingual capabilities. (Teachers present some academic content in three languages (Indonesian, English, and Arabic) simultaneously so students are interested and eager to develop their language skills). It can be seen in extract 1 below:

Extract 1: Teacher: السَّلَامُ عَلَيْكُمْ وَرَحْمَةُ اللَّهِ وَبَرَكَاتُهُ
 Students: وَ عَلَيْكُمْ السَّلَامُ وَرَحْمَةُ اللَّهِ وَبَرَكَاتُهُ
 Teacher: *Selamat pagi anak-anak*
 Students: *Selamat pagi, Pak*
 Teacher: *Good morning students*
 Students: *Good morning, Sir*
 Teacher: كَيْفَ خَالِكُمْ الْيَوْمَ؟
 Students: بِخَيْرٍ، الْحَمْدُ لِلَّهِ
 Teacher: *Bagaimana kabar kalian hari ini?*
 Students: *Baik, alhamdulillah*
 Teacher: *How are you today?*
 Students: *We are fine*
 Teacher: أَتَعْرِفُونَ مَا سَنَدْرُسُهُ الْيَوْمَ؟
 Students: لَآ، يَا أَسْتَاذَ
 Teacher: *Tahukah kalian apa yang akan kita pelajari hari ini?*
 Students: *Tidak, Pak*
 Teacher: *Do you know what will we learn today?*
 Students: *No, Sir*
 Teacher: طَيِّبٌ، اسْتَمِعُوا حَيِّدًا
 Students: نَعَمْ، يَا أَسْتَاذَ
 Teacher: *Baik, dengarkan baik-baik*
 Students: *Iya, Pak*
 Teacher: *Well, listen carefully!*
 Students: *Yes, Sir*

The extract 1 shows that the multilingual instructional model applied by teachers was using simultaneously exposing the various languages instruction or by translating the target language (TL) into the students' L1 concurrently. This is meant to increase both the students' interest and motivation to master those languages and to make them familiar and confident in using those languages in their daily communication. This multilingual instructional model has offered many languages to be mastered at the beginning of learning (e.g. Indonesian, English, Arabic, and local languages), and it can help students to maintain their native language and cultural background while developing their academic and linguistic skills in English and Arabic by enriching their vocabulary and expressions.

In the second phase of multilingual instruction in *pesantren* was Target Language (TL)-only model. This model describes the programs that offer the language teaching to the learners in their target language. Their mother tongue

does not play a significant role in the target language-only program, although multilingual teachers and instructors may provide some supports, such as providing instruction in their mother tongue to assist them acquiring the language skills. This model aims to focus on one target language or as a stabilization process of acquiring target languages.

The last stage of multilingual teaching in *pesantren* was a bilingual transition program. Students can receive second language instruction only in two languages (early-exit) or (late-exit) along with third language teaching. The proportion of language usage may vary from 50-50 (students get 50% of teaching in English and 50% in Arabic without their mother tongue) to 60-40 or 70-30 portions, depending on the *pesantren* or school policy. The Early-Exit program differs from Late-Exit in focusing more on directing the learners' target language to TL-only quickly and less in maintaining students' native language proficiency.

It is so easy to transition students from the bilingual teaching to the mainstream of TL classroom depending on their skill level in English and Arabic. The language learners of *pesantren* often show the declining of their academic achievement during the transition year. Without the support they get during the transition period, TL learners may need continued assistance in their native language and further support in the development of the TL of their first class. For example, students may have sufficient English language proficiency, but their academic English is insufficient to complete the tasks related to the content of knowledge without support. The high school students may find the transition to teaching English particularly difficult because of the high school academic content becomes more difficult. Students need knowledge of literacy and sufficient of English knowledge in making the meaning from their textbooks and classroom experiences.

In multilingual instruction models of *pesantren* above, when compared to the multilingual instructional model proposed by Malone (2005), it will be found the opposite of the Malone's model, where the initial instruction given to new students by using the simultaneous multilingual instruction for the purpose of enriching vocabulary and phrase mastery by students. The next phase is stabilization on each target language that will eventually focus on foreign language, namely English and Arabic. It can be seen in figure 1 below:

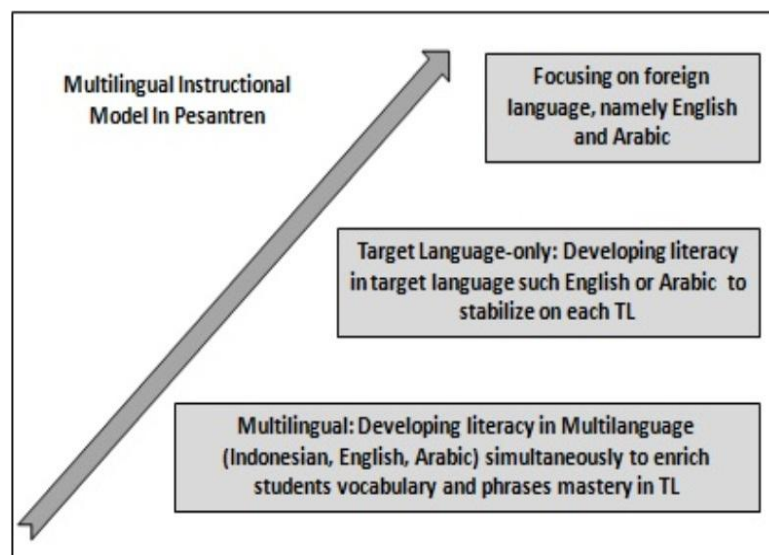


Figure 1: Multilingual Instructional Model of Pesantren Schools

The Figure 1 shows that the multilingual instructional model of *pesantren* schools applied simultaneous-sequential model with some phases to create students from monolingual become multilingualism and then be a mono multilingualism. It began by building the students' fluency and confidence in using L1, L2, and L3 orally for everyday communication, continue building oral L1, L2, and L3 by introducing reading and writing L2, and L3, continue building oral and written L2 and L3 specifically and separately, continue building reading, written, and oral L2 and L3, continue building fluency and confidence in using L2 and L3 in monolingual classroom.

This multilingual instructional model in *pesantren* schools was only based on the observation of languages teaching and learning activities which cannot be generalized and it still needs some further studies to develop and measure the effectiveness of its implementation.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the results and discussion, the researchers concluded that the multilingual instructional model of *pesantren* schools applied simultaneous-sequential model with some phases to induce the students changed from monolingual into multilingualism and at the end, they become mono multilingualism. It begun through some phases i.e. building the students' fluency and confidence in using L1, L2, and L3 orally for everyday communication, then teaching speaking L2, and L3 by introducing reading and writing L2, and L3, then building speaking and written L2 and L3 specifically

and separately, continue teaching reading, written and speaking L2 and L3, then building the students' fluency and confidence in using L2 and L3 in monolingual classroom based on the field of the subject.

The results of the qualitative analysis cannot be generalized to the other schools and situations. Thus, the researchers suggested measuring the effectiveness of this study quantitatively to reinforce the results that will be proposed by the researchers themselves in conducting need and situational analysis before applying research and development (R&D).

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Application of Psychological Contract in English Film Appreciation Course

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Abstract—English Film Appreciation Course, as a selective course, has the responsibility of broadening students' horizon and helping them understand world culture better, but the present situation of this course is that the teachers and students usually take it as a pastime, the culture and students' psychological reaction are not given enough attention. This paper tries to discuss the construction of English Film Appreciation Course with the help of psychological contract. It also discusses the forming of psychological contract in the teaching process of English film appreciation course, and then puts forward suggestions on the teaching of the course so as to better carry out similar teaching in the future.

Index Terms— psychological contract, English Film Appreciation, elective course

I. INTRODUCTION

English Film Appreciation is an important part of the public English curriculum system in colleges and universities. As a special teaching material, the film has an advantage that other carriers, such as paper textbooks, cannot match. Because of effective combination of language, culture, and other information delivery and construction of the real scene of language learning for students through sound, image, and the combination of many elements, this course inspires students' interest in learning and improves the effect of language teaching.

II. PRESENT SITUATION OF THIS COURSE

In a survey delivered by the author of this paper, more than 87 percent of the students who attended this course wanted to improve their listening and speaking ability, not just take it as an entertainment. And teachers want students to be able to capture the language information as much as possible while appreciating English films, and to experience different cultural elements. In view of the positive psychological expectations of these two aspects, the author intends to analyze and construct the course of English Film Appreciation with the help of psychological contract.

A number of colleges and universities have taken this course into elective courses, but its status is still in a state of being neglected. It is normal for students to take leisure in order to take credit. Teachers mostly choose classic movies and organize the teaching in accordance with the pattern of "watching movies and writing reviews", which leads to the university education's common emphasis on knowledge learning and the neglect of knowledge output. There are few large-scale studies of English film teaching, relative methods and scientific research, so that the unique role of film and television appreciation course has not been discovered, and the teaching effect is not very good. This has led some people to think that this course is not essential.

A. Analysis of Students

1. Being in deep anxiety and suppression

A large number of students lose their orientation after attending college and lack good study habits and effective learning methods. They become more anxious in class, which has a negative effect on their psychology.

2. Lack of interest in learning

Interest is the practical driving force for the exploration of knowledge. If students are interested in learning, they will have positive learning motivation, thus form good study habit and harvest positive learning effect. According to author's survey, only 40 percent of students have a certain interest in English. But there is another phenomenon that cannot be ignored, that is, roughly 95 percent of students expect to improve their English during college life.

3. Low level of speaking and listening ability

Listening and speaking are complementary. The author finds that listening is the Achilles' heel in students' exams, the students also show strong anxiety in listening and speaking classes.

4. Lack of cultural background information

The questionnaire shows that the students have little knowledge of western culture and social background.

B. Analysis of Classroom Teaching

Considering the importance of culture edification in language learning, as a supplementary course for college English teaching, English film appreciation course is quite popular with the students, almost every university or college has such kind of course. However, in practical teaching, there are many unavoidable problems in this course. For example,

teachers don't pay enough attention to the interaction with students, most of the time they show entertaining films. After appreciating the film, the students do not have full discussion, so that the input of cultural knowledge quickly fades and even is forgotten. As college English teacher, the author found that, in addition to entertainment or relaxation, many students expect that this course can help them improve their English level and help them understand the culture of English-speaking countries. The problems of this course are as follows:

1. Randomness in selecting textbooks

In selection of the film, the teacher is very casual and lacks the overall thinking and planning. Some colleges and universities, based on their own lecture notes, avoid the problem of randomness, but neglect the time of the works, and the teaching content is not updated for a long time.

2. Separation of course design

As the name implies, this course is composed of appreciation and analysis. Some universities only appreciate not analyze, this course has become appreciation course. Some universities only analyze not appreciate, thus the advantage of the information carrier of this course is completely lost, as a result, it just becomes the variation of intensive reading or extensive reading course.

3. Obsolescence of teaching model

Teachers still have not changed "cramming" teaching mode, and pay no attention to stimulating the students' subjective initiative. Students passively accept knowledge and fail to give full play to the role of their background knowledge and life.

4. Singleness of teaching purpose

Teachers tend to lay much emphasis on the acquisition of words, sentences and texts, ignore the cultivation of students' comprehensive ability. They often think they have finished the teaching task after explaining the words, phrases, grammar and some of the classic lines in the films.

III. TASKS OF THIS COURSE

This course is mainly expected to fulfill the following tasks:

A. Enlarge Vocabulary and Improve Listening and Speaking Ability

The film and television works are from the life, so, through the appreciation of the English film, the students' vocabulary will increase. Vocabulary is the basis of all languages, and only with a certain amount of vocabulary, students can improve their listening and speaking ability accordingly. The language in the movie ranges from pronunciation, intonation, liaison, proverbs, idioms, to even dialects. Coupled with lively images, standard pronunciation, and colorful contents, the English films create a very strong atmosphere of English.

B. Enrich Background Knowledge

Language learning also includes the understanding of the cultural background behind it. The obstacle of English learning, to a certain extent, is not the language itself, but the understanding of the social and cultural knowledge, and on the ability of analyzing the ideological content of the target language, reasoning, and evaluation. This course really caters to the requirements of context teaching, provides the best learning environment for students, and makes students form the habit of thinking in English language in formal language environment.

C. Inspire Students' Learning Interest

Interest is the best teacher. Only if students are interested in the content, will they be willing to learn, have a positive attitude to learning, achieve good learning effect, and form a virtuous cycle of interaction between teachers and students. The wonderful music and wonderful pictures in English movies will encourage students to forget their troubles and pressure and release themselves, which will help stimulate students' interest in learning.

D. Inspire Students to Think

The amount of information contained in a movie of about two hours or so is more than an intensive reading of 1000 words. In addition to excellent and living language, shooting angle, the characteristics of the characters and the plot set choreography in English films are all enough to arouse the students' active and comprehensive imagination, thinking and evaluation. Students can be encouraged to analyze movie plot arrangements, review the performance of actors, and to adapt or write the end of the movie based on their own understanding. Teachers can even choose a topic that is strongly debated, and allow students to debate, inspire, train and improve their ability to think.

E. Enrich Teaching Methods

Traditional English classes mainly focus on comprehensive English teaching materials, with some in-depth argumentative papers, but the content is boring and the teaching methods are relatively monotonous. Because of the vividness of the English films, the teaching methods can be flexible. Facing different genres and styles of film and television teaching materials, teachers can use such colorful teaching methods as dictation, dubbing and role-playing in class. According to the plot of the movie, the students can be guided to describe the plot. In view of the more controversial film and television works, teachers can guide students in heated discussions and hold debates, etc..

IV. DEFINITION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

Psychological contract is a concept based on contemporary research by organizational scholar Denise Rousseau (1989). It represents the mutual beliefs, perceptions, and informal obligations between an employer and an employee. It is distinguishable from the formal written contract of employment which, for the most part, only identifies mutual duties and responsibilities in a generalized form.

Although Rousseau's 1989 article as highlighted by Coyle-Shapiro (2008) "was very influential in guiding contemporary research" (P. 17-34), the concept of psychological contract was first introduced by Argyris (1960) – "Since the foremen realize the employees in this system will tend to produce optimally under passive leadership, and since the employees agree, a relationship may be hypothesized to evolve between the employees and the foremen which might be called the 'psychological work contract'. The employee will maintain the high production, low grievances, etc., if the foremen guarantee and respect the norms of the employee informal culture (i.e., let the employees alone, make certain they make adequate wages, and have secure jobs)" (P. 213). However, only within the last ten to fifteen years has it become more popular and more research been done on the subject (Christeen, 2010).

Psychological contracts are formed by beliefs about exchange agreements and may arise in a large variety of situations that are not necessary employer-employee (Rousseau, 1998). These contracts can cause virtuous and vicious circles in some circumstances. Multiple scholars define the psychological contract as a perceived exchange of agreement between an individual and another party (Rousseau, 1998). Psychological contract can be influenced by many things like mutual or conflicting morals and values between employer and employee.

In language teaching, psychological contract relationship is based on expectations, responsibility and love, which are very effective in promoting the relationship between teachers and students. The construction of psychological contract relies on the teacher's role of not only teaching but also cultivating. It helps realize mutual encouragement between teachers and students, pays close attention to the demand of students' growth and development through communication and association, and achieves harmony in relationship between teachers and students. The essence of building of psychological contract relationship is love and confidence, which can be late but should not be absent.

V. PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT BETWEEN TEACHERS AND STUDENTS IN ENGLISH FILM APPRECIATION COURSE

A. *Characteristics of Psychological Contract*

First of all, the psychological contract has the characteristics of the subjectivity. The content of the psychological contract is individual's perception of mutual responsibility, or a kind of subjective feeling, rather than the fact that mutual responsibility itself. The individual has their own unique experience and insights to the relationship between themselves and organizations, as a result, individual psychological contract may do not agree with the content of the employment contract.

Secondly, psychological contract has dynamic characteristics. Formal employment contracts are generally stable and rarely change. But the psychological contract is in a state of constant change and revision. Any change in the way the organization works, whether physical or social, affects the psychological contract. The longer people work in an organization, the wider the scope of the psychological contract covers.

Thirdly, there is a difference between psychological contract and expectation. The psychological contract has not only the expectation, but also the commitment and reciprocity of responsibility and obligation. It includes what employees believe they deserve. Distinguishing between these two concepts has practical significance, and the expectation of the unrealized is mainly the sense of loss. When psychological contract is violated, it produces a stronger negative emotional reaction and follow-up behavior. The core of the psychological contract at this time is an angry emotion, thus employees feel that the organization is perfidious and is treated unfairly.

B. *Psychological Contract in English Film Appreciation Course*

Psychological contract is, through a variety of psychological suggestion, to make mutual perception and recognition of their respective expectations without showing in the form of direct and explicit expression, thus form a kind of invisible relationship between rights and obligations of the agreement. Thus, the psychological contract between teachers and students should include the following aspects:

First, both teachers and students have their own psychological expectations. The psychology of teachers and students in this context refers to teachers and students' expectations and expectations of the content and effect of this course.

Second, there is a mutual expectation and a tacit understanding between teachers and students. Not all expectations can be identified and accepted by each other, only when teachers and students accept each other for their own some expectations, can both sides reach a tacit understanding on some aspects of mutual responsibility. It is important to note that the tacit understanding is not always positive. If one side, by suggestion, releases negative signal which is accepted by the other side, a negative tacit understanding even a vicious cycle is formed. As a result, it becomes the main factor affecting the effect of classroom and classroom atmosphere. If the students show their learning attitude through absence from class, sleeping, and the teacher is indifferent, and convey the approval hint to all students, decadent and tacit understanding quickly formed in the class. It can be concluded that a kind of relaxed and active classroom atmosphere needs the joint efforts of both sides between teachers and students, and to prevent the production of a dull classroom

atmosphere, teachers' unilateral action is particularly important.

Although as an elective course, English film appreciation is not like other required courses which have many requirements, but it does not mean that students and teachers can be in casual and loose state. The mutual expectation among teachers and students is transformed into a mutual rights and obligations relationship. This mutual rights and obligations form a dynamic balance between teachers and students, thus create the effect of "invisible" discipline. Compared with actual discipline, it can play a more normative role in normal classroom order and teaching, which has greater restraint and incentive effect on teachers and students.

C. *Effects of Psychological Contract in Elective Course of English Film Appreciation*

Psychological contract can not only reasonably explain the behavior motivation of individuals and organizations, but also is one of the best ways to improve the efficiency of individual and organizational behavior. The psychological contract between teachers and students is an important factor affecting the behavior and attitude of teachers and students in class. A positive psychological contract is like a link between teachers and students, it not only can reduce the blindness and randomness of the curriculum content arrangements, but also can improve students' satisfaction toward classroom learning, make highly engaged in film English learning, and increase the cohesion of class organization activities.

First, Cohesive function. In Chinese culture, it is generally believed that relationships are more important than written contracts. The important reason for determining the retention of employees is whether the two parties can establish a good psychological contract. Surveys show that the main reason that new employees leave in a year is because they think the organization has failed to deliver on its promises. If he thinks the facts are contrary to expectations, he will choose to leave the company because he thinks that the organization has violated the psychological contract; On the contrary, it will enhance corporative cohesion, generate low turnover rate and high performance. In the same way, in English film appreciation course, the cooperation and satisfaction of expectations from both teachers and students will definitely promote cohesive force.

Second, the restrictive function. The intangible psychological contract in English film appreciation course can regulate the classroom behavior of teachers and students on a deeper level than the tangible discipline. Different from required courses, because of its large number of students, in this course, general discipline can play very limited role. Sometimes, out of consideration of continuity, the break is flexible, so that a great number of students in the process of film show an excuse to leave or skip classes, which interrupt the entire classroom atmosphere. If the teacher can, according to the actual situation of students, set scientific teaching rhythm, choose the works which meet students expect, and reasonably adjust course arrangement according to students' feedback, then students' needs are met, learning interest is triggered, learning enthusiasm is driven, thus reach tacit agreement with the teachers, this kind of psychological contract is obviously better than all the disciplines.

Third, repair function. As mentioned above, students are not interested in English, but hope to express their views in fluent English, which shows the students hold positive psychological expectations; while teaching language knowledge, teachers also want students to cooperate actively, and also have positive psychological expectations. So, in a way, the two kinds of expectations coincide. As for the reason why we did not achieve the ideal state of teaching and learning, it is because of the lack of repair or means of communication. What's more important is how to make the positive psychological expectations between teachers and students a positive strength to encourage both sides to face rather than to avoid the bottleneck of teaching or learning problems. This course is the ideal learning medium, and the theory of psychological contract is the ideal theoretical guidance for the positive psychological expectation between teachers and students.

Fourth, incentive function. Students' learning enthusiasm and degree of cooperation were positively correlated with the attractiveness and interest of the films shown in the class. In other words, if a student is interested in the film shown, the information the teacher introduced, and the discussion in which they were involved last class, they will take positive attitude to meet the learning in the following class. Therefore, the teacher can fully take advantage of students' positive psychology to respond to students' classroom learning.

VI. CONSTRUCTION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT IN ELECTIVE COURSE OF ENGLISH FILM APPRECIATION

Rousseau (1989) believes that the construction of the psychological contract is an understanding of each other's rights and obligations, or the construction of relevant beliefs. While the scholars argue about the nature of the concept of psychological contract, they also carry out extensive research on its contents. According to the empirical study of Robinson et al. (1996), employees believe that the organization's obligations are mainly summarized as: rich content, fair pay, growth and promotion opportunities. Employees believe that their obligations mainly focus on their loyalty, overtime work, volunteer work, and job transfer, etc. After analyzing the organization and its obligations, they found two common factors: transactional factors and relational factors. In other words, psychological contract is divided into two main categories: transactional psychological contract and relational psychological contract. They differ in focus, time frame, stability, scope and clarity (Rousseau, 1995). Recent research has shown that psychological contracts can be recognized from three aspects: transactional obligation, training obligation, and relational obligation. In English film appreciation course, we can construct the class from the following aspects:

A. Transactional Obligation

Transactional obligation focuses more on the explicit elements of the contract without accounting much for intrinsic qualities of workers. It is based on the direct exchange, both sides have clear and specific purpose and expect immediate rewards. Because of the elective nature of this course, the transactional psychological contract has been established once students have chosen this course on the elective system. Students expect to learn something and earn credits from teachers by promising attendance, following disciplines and fulfilling requirements of this course. Therefore, in the first class, it is very necessary for teachers to make clear about what will be introduced, what can they learn from this course, and emphasize the necessity and importance of disciplines and the relevant punishments of violation of discipline, clear performance evaluation methods, so as to eliminate their doubts and make them clear about this course. During the whole semester, the teacher shall strictly fulfill the teaching task, strengthen the supervision of attendance and the evaluation of the performance of the classroom, and realize the students' long-term and effective "self-discipline". Of course, the transactional obligation can only play a limited role in controlling absences and skipping classes and so on, which is a less stable and lower psychological contract.

B. Relational Obligation

Relational obligation stresses interdependence of the organization and level of social exchange. In this course, it is based on the emotional exchange between teachers and students and more stable, and once the stability is formed, students of this kind of psychological contract have higher degree of cooperation and loyalty to classroom activities. In contrast to the constraining effect of the transactional obligation, the relational psychological contract can play a stimulating role. For quite a number of students, the purpose of taking the course is to relieve anxiety, regulate the tense rhythm of life, and improve expressive ability. Teachers should make full use of students' psychological demand to create active, effective and lively classroom atmosphere, stimulate students' interest in learning English. The author found that the students are more interested in the latest release of blockbusters, thrillers, comedy, such as campus romance films. Therefore, the main objective of the appreciation is to focus on the above subject matters, which will be really conducive to the perfect combination of teaching and learning. In addition, the communication between teachers and students is also an important way to construct a relational psychological contract.

C. Training Obligation

Training Obligation is a kind of dynamic and open psychological contract. It largely depends on teacher's high quality of teaching and students' high quality of acquisition of knowledge. Both sides have high expectations for each other. Among the students in the English Film Appreciation course, there are quite a few students who have chosen this course for purely academic purposes. They either want to improve their listening or spoken English, or hope to further strengthen their English level, or want to learn the new ideas and ways of thinking, or want to know about western language and culture. In short, they hope that this course will provide long-term benefits for their future development. Students with such high expectations can't satisfy their thirst for knowledge if only show them some entertainment films. This requires teachers to make the content of the classroom more interesting and informative to give them specialized and high-quality training. In the process of film appreciation, we can select the video clips with larger amount of knowledge, stronger cultural representation and richer language materials to have deep explanation and discussion. At the same time, according to different students' interest, students can be divided into a number of different study groups, the study group can assume different spoken English, listening, and learning tasks to practice, teacher can also give them corresponding guidance. In addition, the teachers should also train themselves and strengthen their own professional skills, choose movies of different categories, and according to students' classroom reaction, adjust course content, promote the psychological contract between teachers and students.

VII. CONCLUSION

To summarize, students' learning interest and enthusiasm were aroused by teachers' performing their desired behavior and improving their teaching quality, while students' learning initiative and efficiency might be ruined when teacher's desired behavior lost. Psychological contract, a special contract form, is based on the emotional communication and reaches an invisible agreement about rights and obligations. The results in this paper reflect that psychological contract between teachers and students has a good application value in the teaching of English Film Appreciation course.

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The Reading Strategies Used by EFL Students: A Case of Iranian Advanced English Language Learners

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Abstract—The present study aims at identifying reading strategy choice of Iranian advanced English language learners. To this end, the main instrument was Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARS) Questionnaire. It was given to 110 Iranian advanced English language learners, male and female, at 19 English language institutes in northern part of Iran. Students had to choose among the five different options for each strategy type in order to specify whether they “I never or almost never do this.”, “I do this only occasionally.”, “I sometimes do this.”, “I usually do this.” or “I always or almost always do this.”. Among the three different groups of strategies namely support reading strategies, problem solving strategies and global reading strategies the findings indicated that student at this level of English proficiency have a tendency toward using support reading strategies than other types.

Index Terms—reading, strategy, metacognitive awareness, EFL learners, problem solving

I. INTRODUCTION

The core principle of the grammar translation method was teaching Reading and ever since this skill has gained much attention. In addition, in 1929 Coleman Report changed the game with shifting the intention of reading as reading for translation towards reading without translation. The logic that lies behind was developing an idea of independent silent reading and in order to expedite reading speed of individuals. Reading skill based on Krashen (1985) was mostly considered as comprehensible input which is the mere reason to paving the way for obtaining competence in productive skills, namely speaking and writing. With this regard Krashen (1985) also emphasized voluntary reading as an approach that can cover a range of communicative language competence to academic language competence.

A psycholinguistic view of reading was generated by Goodman et al. (1995) where reading was mostly defined as an interactive process between the reader and the writer. The significance of Reading can be justified by language learners' need to read academic texts. Learners try to recall background knowledge, have an aptitude of text schema, terminology and grammatical awareness, and their personal objectives as various sub skills to grasp the meaning of the written material which is why reading is defined as an interactive process. (Grabe, 1991)

Because the reading skill is more or less a key skill in academic context, this study investigates to deliver different kinds of reading strategies advanced English language learners tend to use in Iranian EFL context. With regard to implementations of the findings of the current study, syllabus designers, material developers and lesson planners can benefit from them. Throughout the literature there has been no study resembling the current one which is conducted in an Iranian setting on Iranian advanced English language learners.

Research questions

The questions that this study intends to address are as follow:

1. What are the most and least reading strategies used by the Iranian advanced English language learners?
2. What groups of strategies do the Iranian advanced English language learners prefer?

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A. Reading, the Reading Process, Reading Strategies

According to Ransom (1978) reading is “a conversation between the writer and the reader” (p. 14). Besides, Nuttall (1996) explains it “the process of getting out of the text as nearly as possible with the message the writer puts into it” (p. 4)

with this regard, Williams (1996) outlines that reading is “a process through which one looks at and understands a written text” (p. 2). Reading is defined as a compound process of gaining meaning from a text for several objectives in various contexts (Allan & Bruton, 1997.)

Following definition is given by Mikulecky (2008) with regard to reader's role:

Reading is a conscious and unconscious thinking process. The reader applies many strategies to reconstruct the meaning that the author is assumed to have intended. The reader does this by comparing information in the text to his or her background knowledge and prior experience. (p. 1)

A reader examines a text with an enormous pool of prior knowledge and experience, consisting of preconceptions about the uses of language in both spoken and written form. All of an individual's prior knowledge, experience, and values are organized in classes, or schemata. Each category, or schema, is connected to many other schemata in a complex mental network. As the reader notices particular ideas or facts in a text, he matches that information with background knowledge and is able to construct a version of the text's meaning. (Mikulecky 2008)

In addition, in the reading process, readers take advantage of their background and their linguistic knowledge about the topic to meet the objective of the reading (Peregoy & Boyle, 2001).

reading strategies according to Garner (1987) are actions or series of actions implemented in order to draw meaning out of a text. Readers mostly use a variety of strategies to acquire, store and retrieve the information. Readers can confront some comprehension difficulties and apply these strategies to overcome their hurdles. Every individual benefits from different strategies and some of them lead to target in a faster and clearer way. (Tercanlioğlu, 2004)

Difficulties EFL learners usually confront when reading consists of insufficient vocabulary, inefficiency lexical items, grammatical complexity, inaccessibility of language, poor reading skills, lack of background knowledge, and Learners' lack of interest.

B. Types of Reading

1. Academic Reading

Academic life covers different areas as such are the various examinations each student has to pass. These examinations usually require the learner to understand a given passage which follows some questions require learners to answer based on the information they obtain from the passage. (Grellet, 1996)

2. Non-academic Reading

Non-academic reading as opposed to academic reading is defined by any sort of reading an individual would like to start with no intention for passing any examinations. This kind of reading is open and readers can select from a wide range of reading materials according to their preferences, options for choice and the amount of time they can spend reading.

3. Intensive Reading

Readers extract specific information from quite short passages. According to Brown (1989) "intensive reading calls attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships" (p. 41).

4. Extensive Reading

Extensive reading is defined as an individualized approach to reading improvement. Students choose their own reading material and read at their own pace. Williams (1984) defines extensive reading as the "relatively rapid reading of long texts" (p. 82). Extensive reading is actually a private and personalized task in which the reader is willing to dwell in his private world of reading for his very own interest. Extensive reading helps the readers to improve their reading skills, serves a different atmosphere for the students and provides them with enjoyment (Nuttall 1996).

Extensive reading according to Day and Bamford (1998), in a second-language curriculum can play the role of "a separate course; as part of an existing reading course; as a non-credit addition to an existing course; and as an extracurricular activity" (p. 41.). The focus is on the quantity of reading materials and the readers' enjoyment of their reading. There is no formal assessment in extensive reading.

C. Approaches to Reading

Scholars in text comprehension have implemented an information-processing comparison to understanding how people think, learn, and remember what they read. When an individual reads, two aspects of this "human information processing system" unceasingly interact. When the reader focuses primarily on what he or she already knows, this is called a concept-driven or "top-down" mode. Top-Down processing is to comprehend the universal meaning of the text through cues in the text and the reader's good prior knowledge. Reader's expectations of the text play an essential role in this process. The reader brings his personal experiences which highly affect the way of interpreting a text. Top-down approach uses the meaning brought by the reader, namely, it is reader-driven. (Mikulecky 2008)

Nevertheless, the most effective model is the interactive model that is a combination of both bottom-up and top down elements. (Anderson, 1999)

III. METHOD

The current study aims at determining the kinds of reading strategies that the Iranian advanced English language learners use to accomplish in reading assignments and tasks. Needless to say, syllabus designers, material developers and lesson planners can benefit from the outcomes of this study.

A. Participants

The study was conducted at 19 English language institutes in Tonekabon, Chaloos and Nowshahr. The participants were 110 Iranian advanced English language learners. The mean age was 27. The variety of gender was as follows: 80% of the participants were female while 20% of them were male teachers.

B. Instruments

Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSİ) Questionnaire was the main instrument used to collect data about the readers' awareness and use of reading strategies when reading academic materials.

The MARSİ Questionnaire (Mokhtari and Reichard, 2002) measures three classes of reading strategies which is consisting of:

(1) Global Reading Strategies (GLOB), which can be categorized as generalized or global reading strategies that is defined to set the stage for the reading act.

(2) Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB), delineated as focused problem solving or repair strategies are mostly used with the inception of different problems in understanding textual information, and

(3) Support Reading Strategies (SUP), that are known as the support mechanisms and function as sustaining responsiveness to reading.

The internal consistency reliability coefficient of the 30-item questionnaire ranged from 0.89 to 0.93 which was validated by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002). It is a five point Likert scale questionnaire ranging from 1 (I never or almost never use this strategy) to 5 (I always or almost always use this strategy). The flowing statistics were measured using SPSS program: frequency, means and standard deviation.

IV. FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The following table illustrates the most and the least reading strategy used by Iranian advanced English language learners.

TABLE 1.
READING STRATEGIES REPORTED BEING USED THE MOST AND THE LEAST

Items	Group	N	M	SD
When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	PROB	110	4.38	1.14
I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	SUP	110	4.14	0.94
When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	SUP	110	3.88	0.9
When text becomes difficult, I reread to increase my understanding.	PROB	110	3.49	1.05
I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	SUP	110	3.28	1.2
I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	SUP	110	3.17	1.16
I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	PROB	110	2.86	0.99
I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	GLOB	110	2.62	1.08
I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	PROB	110	2.19	1.1
I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding	SUP	110	1.91	0.93

According to the findings students pay closer attention to what they are reading when the text gets more difficult firstly and in the next move they would read the text aloud to help them understand it and reread to increase their understanding. As far as the support reading strategies go, students would rather take notes while reading to understand and underline or circle information in the text to help them remember. As the tabulated findings suggest students have more tendency toward the usage of support reading strategies than problem solving strategies and global reading strategies are the least used strategies based on the findings.

TABLE 2.
THREE THE MOST AND THE LEAST USED READING STRATEGIES REPORTED BY MALES AND FEMALES

Items	Group	N (male)	M	SD	N (female)	M	SD
When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	PROB	22	4.22	1.2	88	4.36	0.97
I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	SUP	22	3.98	1.08	88	4.11	1
I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	PROB	22	3.67	0.98	88	3.85	1.02
I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	SUP	22	3.21	1.1	88	3.40	1.04
I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	GLOB	22	2.8	1.21	88	3	0.9
I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding	SUP	22	2.04	0.96	88	1.8	0.94

In terms of the two groups of male and female language learners, the findings suggest that more female learners tend to use support reading strategies than problem solving strategies and global reading strategies. In this case both groups have a high tendency to pay closer attention to what they are reading when the text gets difficult.

TABLE 3.
ITEM STATISTICS OF GLOBAL READING STRATEGIES

Items	N	M	SD
I use typographical aids like boldface and italics to identify key information.	110	4.1	1.2
I have a purpose in mind when I read.	110	3.67	1.05
I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	110	3.24	1.08
I preview the text to see what it is about before reading it.	110	3.13	0.98
I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	110	3.08	0.91
I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	110	2.87	0.94
I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information.	110	2.66	1.23
I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	110	2.47	1.14
I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	110	2.29	0.93
I try to guess what the material is about when I read.	110	2.18	0.91
I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	110	2	1.1
I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	110	1.88	0.97
Total		2.79	

Global reading strategies that are used by Iranian advanced English language learners are tabulated in table 3. The findings show that the readers use typographical aids like boldface and italics to identify key information as their mostly used global reading strategy. They have a purpose in mind to help them decipher the text when they are reading. In order to understand a text better they try to use context clues which are used more than tables, figures and pictures. Minimum number of participants think about what they know to help them understand what they read.

TABLE 4.
ITEM STATISTICS OF SUPPORT READING STRATEGIES (SUP)

Items	N	M	SD
I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	110	4.4	0.98
I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read.	110	4.08	1.1
I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	110	3.87	1.2
I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding	110	3.64	1.07
I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text.	110	3.39	1.13
I go back and forth in the text to find relationship among ideas in it.	110	2.79	0.94
I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	110	2.64	1.03
When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	110	2.2	0.9
I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	110	1.98	0.99
Total		3.22	

In terms of the use of support reading strategies which were picked most often by the participants the most SUP strategy was underlining or circling information in the text in order to help them understand the text. The other way that advanced readers take in order to understand their reading material is to use dictionary. Paraphrasing or restating the ideas in their own words stand in the next rank according to the findings illustrated in table 4.

TABLE 5.
ITEM STATISTICS OF PROBLEM-SOLVING STRATEGIES (PROB)

Items	N	M	SD
I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	110	4.32	1.06
When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	110	3.89	0.99
When text becomes difficult, I reread to increase my understanding.	110	3.78	1.01
I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	110	3.51	0.89
I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	110	3.42	0.93
I read slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I am reading.	110	3.1	1.08
I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	110	2.8	0.91
I guess the meaning of unknown words by separating different parts of a word.	110	2.67	0.97
I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	110	2.01	1.1
Total		3.32	

Problem solving strategies are tabulated in table 5 and as it indicates students most often adjust their reading speed to what they are reading. When the text gets difficult they pay closer attention to what I am reading and reread to increase my understanding. Advanced Iranian language learners think about whether the content of the text fits their reading purpose or not. As the least used strategy they get back on track when they lost concentration.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Since advanced students have already had this chance to get exposed to various texts they must be talented good readers to accomplish requirements in academic studies. Based on the findings, there is a reasonable awareness of all the reading strategies. In fact, all the skills are approximately of the same importance to the readers.

As the most striking strategy, when text becomes difficult, readers pay closer attention to what I am reading. Besides, the participants reread to increase their understanding, as an alternative when the text becomes more complicated.

Ozek and Civelek (2006) conducted a study on identifying the reading strategies that are mostly used by ELT students between the 1st and 4th year students in Turkey. Their findings suggest that each stage of reading namely pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading stages was dealt with using different reading strategies. Unlike the present study, they found out that substantial differences exist on the use of cognitive reading strategies in case of students' gender, age, and proficiency in reading, school source, and duration in learning English.

Four-year technical college students were the main participants in the study Hsu (2007) conducted in Taiwan in order to investigate the use of English reading strategies. Metacognitive strategy was the most often used reading strategy based on his findings followed by social/affective strategy category. There was a tendency toward taking advantage of some specific kinds of strategies comparing the two groups of effective and ineffective language learners. While both groups generally use problem solving strategies, they do not choose to use support reading strategies. Although the two groups pay closer attention to what they are reading and underline and circle information in the text, they do not prefer to skim the text first. In terms of gender, there was a tendency to use cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies in females but no significant difference between males and females in general use of strategies.

Unlike the findings of the present study Amer et al. (2010) found that participants tend to underline or circle information in the text to help them remember the information. Furthermore, they pay closer attention to what they are reading and reread the text, when text becomes problematic.

On the other hand, Li (2010) found that in each individual category as well as combined sub-categories female readers show higher use of reading strategies than males. Furthermore, female participants are more careful and considerate.

Support Reading Strategies and Problem solving strategies were mostly picked by Iranian advanced EFL learners and global reading strategies were almost neglected by them. In terms of the two groups of males and females although there was not a significant difference in strategy choice, females had more tendency toward support reading strategies than the male group.

Li (2010) conducted a study with senior middle school students in China in order to investigate their awareness of reading strategy. Unlike the findings of the current study, he found that students preferred Problem Solving Reading Strategies rather than Global and Support Reading Strategies and they were moderately aware of all the strategies.

Amer et al. (2010) did a research on the online reading strategies of Omani EFL university first-year students and senior student teachers. The findings illustrated a statistically significant difference between fourth-year students and first-year students only in global reading strategies. High-proficient readers have a tendency to use global strategies than readers with low proficiency. First-year students also picked more support strategies than senior students.

Sarıçoban (2002) investigated the strategy choice of effective readers in pre-reading, reading and post-reading stages of instruction in classroom language learning. Global reading strategies were the first preference of successful EFL learners.

The already mentioned reading strategies can be implemented in education context as well as any other extensive or intensive reading activity. The participants of the current study were groups in very good and good readers therefore the results and strategy choices can be picked up by any other language readers. Although identifying the strategy type for each stage of reading can be the purpose of other studies, there should be a desire to design reading activities in a way to make it possible for the students pick up any of these strategies which can make their language learning atmosphere more meaningful.

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Test for English Majors-band 8 (TEM8) in China

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Abstract—As a prominent test in China, TEM8 has already been paid much attention to. There are many researches about the qualities of TEM8 at home and abroad. However, few of them have a comprehensive evaluation of TEM8. Therefore, this article attempts to analyze TEM8 in a more comprehensive perspective and provide more information about the qualities of TEM8. Based on Bachman & Palmer's mode of test usefulness, this article reviews TEM8 in terms of its reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality, giving implication to test developers.

Index Terms—TEM8, test quality, test usefulness, review

I. INTRODUCTION

Test purpose: TEM8 is designed as an achievement to measure the overall English proficiency of senior undergraduates majoring in English Language and Literature in China and to decide whether these students meet the requirements of English language abilities and professional knowledge of English as specified in the National College English Teaching Syllabus for English Majors (NACFLT, 2004).

Administration: TEM8 is administered by the National Advisory Committee for Foreign Language Teaching (NACFLT) on behalf of the Higher Education Department, Ministry of Education, People's Republic of China. TEM8 is administered once a year in March and the total test time is 195 minutes before 2016 (there are exceptions: the actual testing time in 2005 is 190minutes, in 2006 and 2007 195 minutes).

Scoring: TEM8 is a criterion-referenced test, so it gives test takers feedback in the form of grades (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010). Its scores are reported to the Academic Affairs Office of the participating universities. If the test taker's score is or above 60, he or she will receive a certificate from the NACFLT. The proficiency level of test takers which is reported on certificate includes three ranks, that is, "excellent" (score 80 or above), "good" (score between 70 and 79) and "pass" (score between 60 and 69). Since it is each participating university that is responsible for reporting scores to test takers and its scores are just used for improving the English teaching and learning in its own university, TEM8 has the diagnostic feature.

Development: TEM8 was officially launched in 1991 after the publication of the first national teaching syllabus for English majors. Due to the rapid economic development, English language had been paid much attention to for quite a long time. Therefore, as a national test for English majors, TEM8 was widely accepted among universities in mainland China. After several years of improvement and development, nowadays, TEM8 has become a very popular English test which plays important role in English learning and teaching in Chinese universities.

For TEM8, the test items have changed a lot within 25 years since it was launched. When it was first launched, the test methods included listening, reading, proofreading, translating and writing. In 2005, a new test method was added, that is, general knowledge. Actually, the changes of the test methods and content are in accordance with the development of TEM8 syllabus. There are three main changes of TEM8 syllabus. The first one was published in 1994. After its publication, the related departments made some studies and then, in 1997 after some careful revision according to the study results, the second one were designed and published. In 2000, a new edition of Teaching Syllabus for English Majors was adopted, which had great effect on the English teaching and thus for TEM8. Therefore, in order to comply with the teaching requirements set by the 2000 edition of Teaching Syllabus, in the 2004, a new edition of Syllabus for TEM8 was designed and published. This version is more comprehensive and detailed than the first two versions. Therefore, the following tests are designed according to this syllabus for many years. However, in 2016, the test methods are changed again. The general knowledge which was added in 2005 has been canceled. There are also little or big changes for the other five test tasks.

II. TEST TASKS AND METHODS

The following evaluation will mainly focus on TEM8 in 2016, so the test tasks and methods of TEM8 of 2016 are presented in Table 1.

The total time for TEM8 is 195 minutes for former versions. In 2016, the test time is adjusted to 150 minutes and the test content and format are also changed a lot.

Listening: Before 2016, *Listening* includes three different task types: mini-lecture, interview and news broadcast. The first task requires test takers to listen to a lecture taking notes and then fill the ten blanks according to the notes. The second has one conversation and asks test takers to answer five multiple choice questions. The third includes several

news broadcast and five MCQs. However, in 2016, only the first two task types are remained. For completing the first task, test takers are required to listen to the lecture and fill the fifteen blanks at the same time. The second asks test takers to listen to one or two conversation and finish ten MCQs. Though the test task type is changed the time allocation and the talking speed of the recording is remained as before.

Reading: Before 2016, the *Reading* part only has four passages for multiple choice questions, while in 2016 this part is changed a lot and it has three passages for two different reading tasks. That is to say, reading comprehension comprises two task types: multiple choice questions and short answer questions. Test takers are required to read three passages and then answer fourteen MCQs and 8 short answer questions. The time allocation is the same as before.

General knowledge: It was added in 2005 but cancelled in 2016. It includes ten MCQs about the culture and literature of English speaking countries and linguistics. The cancellation of this part may lead to the changes of the whole test quality.

TABLE 1
TEST TASKS OF TEM8

Task	Input	Format	%	time
Listening	1 mini-lecture, listen once, 150wpm 1 interview, listen once, 150wpm	Filling in the blanks	15	25m
		MCQ	10	
Reading	three passages totaling c. 3000 words A passage of 250 words	MCQ	30	45m
		Short answer questions		
Language Usage	A text of 150 characters	Error identification and correction	10	15m
Translation	Materials	Translation C-E	15	20m
Writing		An article of 300 words	20	45m

Note. wpm = words per minute; MCQ = Multiple Choice Questions; C = Chinese, E = English.

Language usage: It was used to be called “proofreading” before 2016. It requires test takers to add, delete or change one word of each sentence to correct grammatical errors. There are ten sentences that they need to correct.

Translation: Before 2016, *Translation* part has two translating tasks, that is, translating Chinese into English and translating English into Chinese, and the total time for this part is 60 minutes. In 2016, the revised version only has one task-translating Chinese into English and the time is adjusted to 20 minutes.

Writing: Before 2016, the *Writing* part gives test takers a topic and requires them to write an article about 400 words, while the revised version provides materials and enough context and asks test takers to write an article about 300 words based on the given materials.

The change of the test task and method would lead to the change of the test qualities of TEM8, therefore, it is necessary to make a study on it and provide some information to the related departments and persons in the field of English teaching and learning. For the test qualities, there are some different modes to measure it, among which the test usefulness and test fairness are very widely used. The former was proposed by Bachman & Palmer (1996) and the latter was proposed by Kunnan, A.J. (2004). The following evaluation and analysis focus on the former, that is to say, the review in this article is about the test usefulness of TEM8.

III. TEST QUALITIES

The usefulness is the most important quality of a test (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Based on the test qualities of TEM8, many studies have been carried out in China (Xu, 2012; Zou, Peng & Kong, 2009; Zou, 2003). However, few of them have a comprehensive evaluation of the quality of TEM8. Among these studies, the content validity, construct validity and the washback are emphasized while the other qualities are always neglected. Therefore, this article attempts to analyze TEM8 in a more comprehensive perspective and provide more information about the qualities of TEM8.

Bachman & Palmer (1996) proposed a mode of test usefulness in terms of six main qualities: reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact, practicality. This model will be used in this article to review TEM8. The reason why this mode is used is that this mode is very comprehensive for assessing a test and the six qualities in this mode are interrelated. For TEM8, this mode is very practical and authoritative. In other words, TEM8 is needed to be analyzed by this mode so as to provide some suggestion for further improvement.

1. Reliability

Reliability is often defined as consistency of measurement (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). A reliable test should (1) be consistent in its conditions across two or more administrations; (2) give clear directions for scoring; (3) have uniform rubrics for scoring; (4) contain items that are unambiguous to the test taker (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010).

According to the teacher participated in the interview, TEM8 has clear holistic scoring for subjective test items which amount to 35% in 2016. Compared with 40% in the former tests, the decrease of the subjective items would help to improve marker reliability since it makes the scoring more objective. What's more, from 2009 TEM8 has adopted

computer-assisted online scoring, which makes the scoring more efficient and reliable. The scorers of TEM8 receive professional and specific training before scoring. For example, during the training, they all score one test paper at the same time, if someone gives very high or low score, he or she will be reminded and provided another guidance until almost all scorers have similar scores for one test paper. Besides, the scorers are required to conform to the criteria of scoring specified already to make sure the fairness of the scoring. Therefore, the inter-rater reliability and intra-rater reliability could be enhanced greatly compared with the traditional scoring. Especially for inter-rater reliability, the new machine scoring makes it possible that at least two people score the same paper. And the scorers are monitored by computer, if one's score is much higher or lower than the whole group, he or she will be reminded or stopped. All of these strengthen the reliability of scoring. For the test items, according to the teacher, they are clear enough for test takers to avoid the misunderstanding. After the reformation of TEM8 in 2016, a document about the change of test format and techniques has already been notified, so that the test-takers of 2016 are also familiar with them.

Reliability can be quantified in the form of a reliability coefficient (Huges, 2003). For this, statistics from the test center show that the averaged internal consistency coefficients from 2008 to 2010 are 0.815 for TEM8 which is reasonably high for most test uses (Jin & Fan, 2011). Though the inconsistencies cannot be eliminated entirely, the test developers could control the potential sources of inconsistency, especially the characteristics of the test tasks. As a very prominent test in China, certainly, with so many years of development, it can be expected that consistency coefficients of TEM8 would be much higher.

It can be found that as a popular and important national language test, the developers of TEM8 has been tried their best to ensure the high reliability of it.

2. Construct validity

A construct refers to any theory, hypothesis, or model that attempts to explain observed phenomena of language ability (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010). Construct validity is used to refer to the extent to which one can interpret a given test score as an indicator of the ability or construct, one wants to measure (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

It's not easy to measure the construct validity of a test. In China, some scholars have used the quantitative approach combined with the qualitative approach to measure the construct validity of TEM8. Zou, Peng and Kong (2009) analyzed the correlation and representativeness of *General Knowledge* and based on EQS and BILOG, and in this study, they made Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis. According to their research results, the test items of *General Knowledge* have relatively high correlation and representativeness. However, some items are much easier or harder, which threatens the whole construct validity. In 2016, *General Knowledge* is cancelled. It is likely that the whole construct validity of TEM8 will be changed, which needs more studies to measure it.

Han (2014) measured the construct validity of *Reading* of TEM8 by analyzing the number of passages, total words and the type of tested items. From the analysis result, it can be found that *Reading*'s construct validity is high. However, Han thought that it could be improved by adding other test items like short answer questions. In 2016, *Reading* has been changed as Han expected. Maybe the construct validity of 2016 is higher than former versions.

As an achievement test, actually, there is something else that is also very important for TEM8, that is content validity. Content validity and construct validity are closely related. Investigation of a test's content validity provide evidence for construct validity (Huges, 2003). Therefore, it is necessary to have a look at content validity. A test is said to have content validity if its content constitutes a representative sample of the language skills, structures, etc. with which it is meant to be concerned (Huges, 2003). Compared TEM8 content with its syllabus, it can be found that the former almost completely meets the requirements specified in the latter. Therefore, to some extent, it can say that TEM8 has relatively high content validity, thus the construct validity. Besides, construct validity is also related to interactiveness. According to Bachman & Palmer (1996), interactiveness provides the vital link with construct validity. It not suitable to measure the construct validity of a test from the single perspective, which makes it is difficult to measure the construct validity of a language test. Therefore, more empirical studies should be made to provide useful information to the test developers of TEM8.

3. Authenticity

Bachman and Palmer (1996) defined authenticity as "the degree of correspondence of the characteristics of a given language test task to the features of a target language task". An authentic test should (1) contain language that is as natural as possible; (2) have items that are contextualized rather than isolated; (3) include meaning, relevant, interesting topics; (4) provide some thematic organization to items; (5) offer tasks that replicate real-world tasks (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010).

The language of TEM8 is natural basically. In detail, the language for *Listening* is natural and close to the real life. Besides, the situation and context of the lecture or the conversation are also similar to the real world, which meet the requirements of Syllabus for TEM8. However, in order to evaluate the kinds of translation skills and ensure the validity of test items, the language of passage in *Translation* is unnatural to some extent; most often, the passages in this part are taken from the literatures. The writing topics of TEM8 are interesting basically. And the writing task of 2016 is closer to the real world than that in the former tests. In fact, each test language and topic couldn't be as nature as the language of real life. It is impossible to do that because each test has to test some skills and abilities specified in test specifications or syllabus already. However, with the development of TEM8, the test designers have tried their best to make the language and topic as natural as possible. They tend to choose the materials whose topics are very interesting and

natural enough to make the test takers be involved in. Take the writing task of 2016 as an example, test takers are asked to write an article about *Ice Bucket Challenge*, an activity initiated to raise money and awareness for the disease ALS. This activity has strong repercussions and most test takers may already hear about it. What they need to do is that expressing their opinion towards the activity, especially whether the problem found with this kind of activity will finally undermine its original purpose. Compared with the former task type, this task is more natural and free for test takers to express their feeling and thought. Therefore, from this perspective, the authenticity of TEM8 is getting higher.

4. Interactiveness

Bachman and Palmer (1996) defined interactiveness as “the extent and type of involvement of the test taker’s individual characteristics in accomplishing a test task”. They thought that the interactiveness of a given language test task can be characterized in terms of the ways in which the test taker’s areas of language knowledge, metacognitive strategies, topical knowledge, and affective schemata are engaged by the test task.

For *Listening* of TEM8, it has relatively high interactiveness, according to the interview results. When test takers participate in TEM8, before listening materials, they are encouraged to be relaxed. There are recordings before the test which will help them to be familiar the atmosphere of the test and make sure that their equipments are on work. Therefore, social affective strategies have an influence on their results. For *Reading*, metacognitive strategies are involved in. Test takers often adjust their reading strategies and reading speed or control the time when they finish different reading tasks during the test. The time of TEM8 is very limited so the use of metacognitive strategies is very necessary for them to finish all test items within the limited time. Especially in 2016, the first reading passage is about *Gatsby* which is a character in literature learnt by most students majoring in English Language and Literature, their literature knowledge could help them to finish tasks. The changed version of writing in 2016 is also more interactive than the form ones, since test takers could express their feeling more freely. However, according to the interview, TEM8 does not have very high interactiveness since test takers always don’t know how to use the metacognitive strategies or affective schemata. In other words, students don’t recognize them when participating in the test.

5. Impact

The impact of test use operates at two levels: a micro level, in terms of the individuals who are affected by the particular test use, and a macro level, in terms of the educational system or society (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). An aspect of impact that has been of particular interest to both language testing researchers and practitioners is washback. Huges (2003) defined washback as “the effect that tests have on learning and teaching”.

As a curriculum-based achievement, it is no doubt that TEM8 has some positive washback. Universities would adjust the course plan and teaching content based on the Syllabus for TEM8 and the testing results. Specifically, the colleges pay much attention to improving student’s reading speed and accuracy. Listening comprehension also is attached importance to since for this part student’s scores are relatively low for several years according to the statistics from the Test Center. However, TEM 8 also has negative impact on English teaching in university yet it is much less than the positive one. For example, in order to improve the score of writing, teachers pay much attention to the writing skills, which constraints students a lot in terms of the form and thought. In China, English teaching has being always paid much attention to. Therefore, some teachers and scholars have separately studied the washback of TEM8. For example, Xu (2012) investigated the washback of TEM8 through questionnaire surveys among 5 foreign language experts about 700 English discipline leaders. This study also suggests that in general there is a positive attitude towards the washback of TEM8 but the unfamiliarity with the marking criteria and the limited information provided in the test reports may lead to some negative washback.

In a word, as a prominent English Language test in China, TEM8 really has positive impact on English teaching and learning.

6. Practicality

Practicality refers to the logistical, down-to-earth, administrative issues involved in making, giving, and scoring an assessment instrument. These include costs, the amount of time it takes to construct and to administer, ease of scoring, and ease of interpreting/reporting the results (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010).

Since TEM-8 was launched in mainland China, students from different universities have taken part in it. In order to carry out it easily and efficiently, National Advisory Committee for Foreign Language Teaching adopted the way that the Academic Affairs Offices of the participating universities are responsible for registration and test administration and are answerable directly to the Test Center (Jin & Fan, 2011). Similarly, TEM8 test scores are reported to the Academic Affairs Office of the participating university and through the English department of their own colleges, test-takers could get to know their scores and ranking. Having been administered by this way for many years, TEM8 is a widely and orderly administered test in mainland China.

As have mentioned above, the carrying out of the computer-assisted scoring helps to improve the efficiency of it. The scoring of TEM8 has become more quickly and fairly. Therefore, it can be concluded that TEM 8 has quite high practicality.

IV. CONCLUSION

Based on Bachman & Palmer’s mode of test usefulness, this article attempts to review TEM8 in terms of its reliability, construct validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality. From the above analysis, it can be

found that from the perspective of usefulness, TEM8 has attained a relatively high standard in certain aspects of test qualities. However, there still exist some weaknesses needed to be improved. For example, the test reliability and validity could be balanced and improved.

In conclusion, the TEM8 developers have strived to make it much better and enhance the usefulness of it. Being a criterion-referenced test, the designing of TEM8 strictly conforms to the teaching requirements specified in the Syllabus (NACFLT, 2000). Besides, more attention should be paid on the effective and comprehensive evaluation of TEM8, giving implication to test developers.

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Investigating the Students' Strategies in Developing Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) Model in Indonesia University Context

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Abstract—The study investigated the students' strategies in increasing intercultural communicative competence (ICC) model. The researchers employed qualitative research method by applying grounded theory design. The participants of this research were four students from different grade levels of English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompnu-NTB. There were five data collection techniques used: interview, observation, field note, audio recording, and documentation. The result of this research indicated that the participants have different strategies to improve ICC model. The A.M. participant has sixteen strategies, the Y.A. participant has nine strategies, A.S. participant has seven strategies, and E.D participant has ten strategies.

Index Terms—ICC, students strategies, and model of strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century, it is predicted that there are around 360 million people who speak English as the first language, amongst 375 million people use English as their second language and 750 million people learn it as a foreign language (Graddol, 2000, p. 10). Indonesia has complicated cultures. There are 726 different languages in this country (Crystal, 2000, p.4). It means that there are 23 million native speakers and 140 million second language speakers. These speakers speak with diverse cultural dialects and have a large number of international communities (Malay, Chinese, Japanese, Singapore, etc.) that made their daily interaction become more intercultural communicative competence (ICC). ICC becomes a vital issue since the human interaction occurred. Intercultural communication refers to communications between people from different ethnic, gender, social, and cultures within the same and different nation. Intercultural communication has been found within the group of the students when they communicate in daily engagement both in and outside the classroom with the increasingly diverse students' cohort. Intercultural is now ubiquitous. They occur within neighborhoods, across national borders, in face to face interactions, through mediated channels, in various sectors. Intercultural competence can end disputes, save lives, radically transform the existence of millions of people. Intercultural communication can lubricate the wheels of education, industry, and business. Intercultural competence has been defined as the ability to interact with people from different cultures (Guilherme, 2000).

Based on the preliminary observation at English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompnu-NTB, it was found that the majority of the students have fairly good command of the English grammar, sentence structure, and list of vocabulary items (Lexis) but they have less competence for the language use. Lecturers tend to focus mainly on teaching the macro-language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) and micro-language skills (vocabulary and grammar) without emphasizing on the increasing of the students' ICC. There are at least two important reasons for studying ICC. Firstly, it builds the personal interaction with people of different cultures in more particular manner. Intercultural communication is the process of exchanging thoughts and meanings among people of diver's cultures. Secondly, it helps the colleges and universities in designing programs aiming at increasing students' leadership. The researchers have realized how important to incorporate the culture into strategies for models of ICC. The lack of strategy to improve the attitude, knowledge, skills, and awareness (dimension of ICC) of our student, made us think about, how culture can be interestingly taught using various strategies at the institution. Lecturers cannot teach language without a strategy of intercultural background. There are many strategies for increasing ICC model. In this research, the researchers investigated the students' strategies for increasing ICC model.

The researchers' interest in this field came from a variety of sources. Firstly it derived from our traveling experiences to increase our ICC in diverse settings, which led us to the process of examining cultural assumptions of cultural beliefs, values, and worldviews. Secondly, it came from our experiences in Malaysia when we became the presenters in an Asia TEFL and Asia EFL conferences for increasing our strategies to improve our attitude, knowledge, skills, and awareness which related to the ICC with different cultures, learning another cultures, languages, situations, environment, etc. These experiences opened up our minds towards the strategies and models of ICC of language learning for our student. The purpose of this study was to investigate the strategies used by the students of English Study Program of STKIP Yapis Dompnu-NTB, Indonesia in increasing their ICC model. It attempted to identify the different strategies in accelerating the ICC model of the students.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Culture Conceptualized

1) Definition and Perspective of the Culture

A culture, according to Tylor (1871 as cited by Holliday, 2010) is defined as the complex blend of knowledge, customs, arts, moral, norms, beliefs and the other abilities as well as the habits those acquired by people as the member of society. Similarly, Holliday defines culture as the beliefs, values, and concepts that enable the group to understand its life and give it a clue how to live (Fay, 1996 in Holliday, 2010). While according to Nakayama (2010) culture is defined as the patterns of behavior and attitude learned by a group of people. Therefore, culture is a universal orientation system that shows the characteristics of society, organization or group. Hence, culture greatly influences the perceptions and the thinking as well as and evaluates the action of all its members. Thomas (2006 as cited by Franklin, 2009, p.14-15) contends that culture is the structure of a specific field-oriented system of action for those who feel affiliated with this culture and thus creates a prerequisite for developing its own way to cope with its environment. While Franklin (2009: 15) himself perceives that beside culture is displayed by different kinds of intermittences, in which some of them are more explicit than the others, it is also connected with the social groups where there were no individuals in the group have exactly similar cultural characteristics. Further, Franklin (2009) adds that culture influences both the behavior of people and the behavior explication. According to him, culture is gained and or built through the people's interactions.

2) Components and The Element of Culture

According to Kendall (2001, p.72) and Samovar et al. (2010, p.24), even though the details of an individual culture differ comprehensively, all cultures have similar non-material cultural components such as verbal and nonverbal symbols, norms of behavior, value systems, language styles, religious types, history and social organizations. These components contribute to both harmony and conflict in intercultural communication or a cross-cultural environment. Tuleja (2005, p.5) mentions the beliefs, values, and attitudes as the elements that as the basis for the norms and rules of social interaction, all of which translate into behavior. Knowing something about other cultures will help individuals to understand another person's worldview and the most basic assumptions he or she holds regarding others who are different. The main goal is to have more successful cross-cultural interactions, to become more culturally literate (Tuleja, 2005, p.5).

B. ICC Conceptualized

1) Increasing ICC

There are various ways to increase ICC. Durant (1997) argues that tasks assigned to schools such as interaction with members of targeted cultures, recording the testimony of members of the target culture, visiting a certain country, conducting ethnographic and survey research, searching data on history and politics and collecting statistical information. The way people dress up and the style of the target culture is one of the ways to increase the ICC of students.

According to Byram et al. (2001), to increase the students ICC can be done through cultural learning. Cultural learning is the process of comparing cultures that encourage to be more aware of the cultural phenomena in their communities and in the target culture. Cultural learning is more emphasized on developing the ability to analyze and interpret cultural data from the target culture. Students are given the opportunity to obtain authentic data either through the exploration of resources available in their own communities or by using technology to obtain the cultural data with distant cultures. Hence, literature was considered particularly useful in developing intercultural understanding (Byram et. al., 2001). In order to be able to successfully develop ICC, teachers and organizers should consider the three separate phases of exchanges and the various activities which each part involves the preparatory phase, fieldwork phase, and follow-up phase (Byram et.al., 2002).

2) Model of ICC

The dimensions of ICC consist of attitude, knowledge, skills, and behavior (Byram, 1997, p.55). Risager (2007) as cited by Shoman and Mahmud (2011, p.36), describes the ICC in terms of ten different competencies and skills. These competencies are linguistic (lingua structural) competence, linguistic and resource competencies, translation and interpretation, textual interpretation (discourse), use of ethnographic methods, transnational cooperation, language knowledge as critical language awareness, also as citizens of the world, and knowledge of culture and Society and critical cultural awareness, as well as citizens of the world.

According to the Intercultural Communication and Assessment (INCA), there are six dimensions of the IC namely: tolerance for ambiguity, behavioral flexibility, communicative awareness, knowledge discovery, respect for other aspects, and empathy. In conducting the manual assessment, INCA simplifies the six dimensions of the IC into three, namely openness, knowledge, and adaptability (Byram, Kuhlmann, Muller, Jacquier, and Budin as quoted by Shoman and Mahmoud M, 2011: 39-40). Fantini (2006) and Edi (2016) focused on knowledge (positive), attitude/influence, skill, awareness, and behavior.

3) *The Concept of Attitude*

Attitude has a close relationship with motivation and interconnected each other. Rinantanti (2015, p.93) asserts that attitude is one of an important element of learning a language. Attitude is belief and opinion that can influence individuals to behave in a certain way (Ellof and Ebersohn, 2004, p.35). Attitude is characterized by a large proportion of emotional involvement such as feelings, self, and the relationship in the community (Brown, 2001, p.61). Attitude is an evaluative reaction to some reference objects that are inferred based on individual beliefs or opinions about referrals. Attitudes are gained through experience and have a direct effect on behavior (Bin-Tahir, 2015a, p.210). A strong and positive attitude can predict behavior that is more effective than weak or negative, and attitudes shaped by personal experience are often stronger in nature (Bin-Tahir, 2015b, p. 45).

Student attitude is commonly believed to hold a central role in ICC. The attitudes towards the target culture those are learned by students will greatly affect the students' motivation level in learning the target language. The positive attitude will sustain students in learning foreign languages and will also be part of the successful language learning outcomes from the non-linguistic field. Byram (1997, p.34) asserts that attitude (as the prerequisite for intercultural interaction) which is necessary for successful intercultural interaction not only the positive attitudes (positive prejudices can hinder the mutual understanding) such as openness, belief in the behavior of others, but it also requires a sense of full of curiosity, distrusting people's behavior and judging the meaning. Byram (1997, p.50) emphasizes that attitudes that are part of intercultural communicative competence are an inquisitive feeling about something and the openness and readiness to delay distrust of other people's cultures and beliefs. Thus, it can be said that attitude is a person's disposition or mental. As an ICC component, attitudes include tolerance of ambiguity, empathy, and non-judgment. According to Nakayama (2010, p.469), someone's attitude contributes to the competence of intercultural communication, including tolerance of ambiguity, empathy, and non-judgment.

4) *The Concept of Knowledge*

Knowledge can be defined as facts or information acquired by a person through experience or education. It can also be defined as the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject (Rinantanti & Suhirman, 2017, p.106). In the context of ICC knowledge refers to the individual and social group, practice with people who have the different culture to improve the knowledge of ICC (Byram, 1997, p.35). They are two types of knowledge required for ICC. Firstly is knowledge of the social groups and the culture in one's country and in the one's interlocutor's countries. Secondly is the knowledge of the processes of interaction at societal and individual levels.

The knowledge component consists of various aspects of cognitive communication competence. This involves what we know about ourselves and others and about the various aspects of communication. Knowledge related to the competence of intercultural communication, knowledge of how people from other cultures think and behave will also help someone becomes more effective communicators (Nakayama, 2010, p.468). There are two broad categories of the cultural knowledge that the language learners required. First, is the knowledge about the social groups, what they practiced and produced both at their own culture and the other cultures. Second, is the knowledge about the process of interaction both at the individual and community level (Byram, 1997, p.35).

5) *The Concept of Skills*

Skills are the abilities acquired in the form of innate that is perfected in learning and practice. Skills can occur in various areas of life, whether in the field of science, art, manual activity and so forth. Everyone has basic skills that can be improved by training, persistence, and effort. There are also people who do not have the ability to learn but are very good at other fields. Learners need to have skills that suit their ability. Learners who have the ability to interact with people who have the same or different cultures are part of the communication skills. Byram puts forward two sets of skills, which reflect the two general categories. Firstly, the skills to interpret and relate: the ability in interpreting, explaining and correlating a document from one's own culture or event from another culture. Secondly, the skills to discover and interact: the ability in gaining new cultural knowledge and practices as well as the ability in operating knowledge, attitudes, and skills within the real-time communication and interaction constraints. (Byram, 1997, p. 52).

6) *The Concept of Awareness*

Awareness is a social activity that receives signals from the people around to be able to influence each other in order to achieve greater mutual awareness. Awareness as a characteristic of systematic action achieves to increased daily activities. Meanwhile, Tomlison and Masuhara (2004) assert that intercultural communication will result in cultural understanding and sense of cultural equality itself. According to them, intercultural communication can enhance the cultural understanding, the sense of cultural equality and facilitate the language learning through the provision of a positive and empathetic learning experience that provides motivational exposure to the language use (Tomlison and Masuhara, 2004, p.7). While intercultural awareness according to Knapp and Meierkord (2002, p.22-23) is a conscious understanding of the role of culture-based forms, practices, and frameworks in intercultural communication, and the

ability to apply these conceptions flexible and specifically within the context of communication in real time. Tomalin and Stempleski (1993, p.3) identify the three elements deemed necessary in the quality of cultural awareness. They are the awareness of their own cultural behavior, the awareness of the cultural behavior of others and the ability to explain cultural perspectives with regard to this, Byram asserts that a critical cultural awareness is one's ability to critically evaluate and based on the perspectives, practices, and products of explicit criteria in one's culture and other cultures (1997, p.233).

C. Strategies to Develop ICC

1) Definition and Strategy Competence

A strategy is a planned series of actions for achieving something. The strategy in the educational context can be defined as a plan, method, or series of activities designed to achieve a particular educational goal. The strategies of learning include all the ways those directly correlated to learning (cognitive) or those indirectly involve in the process of learning (meta-cognitive) (Rubin, 1987). There are five ways that can be used to learn a language. These strategies are management and planning, cognitive, communicative-experiential, interpersonal, and effective. The purpose of communication-experiential strategy according to Stern, (1992) is to direct the overflow of communication. According to Canale and Swain (1980, p.30), strategic competence can be described as strategies of both verbal and non-verbal communication that can be used to compensate the breakdown of the communication due to the learners' performance variables or the learners' insufficient competence.

2) Models and Strategies in ICC

Strategies are often consciously and purposefully combined; however, in other cases, the choice of specific evaluative modes sometimes naturally combines strategies. The various strategies and tools are employed throughout the process to ensure a more accurate, more complete, and more reliable assessment result (Fantini, 2000, 2001, and 2006). Assessing intercultural competence requires the combined use of a variety of modes and strategies as the following: (1) Strategies that involve objective scoring; (2) Oral and written activities; (3) Active and passive activities; (4) Individual and interactive activities in pairs or small groups; (5) Dialogs, interviews, presentations, etc; (6) Demonstrations, poster sessions, simulations, role plays; (7) Structured and unstructured field tasks and other experiential activities; and (8) Questionnaires that require self-evaluation, peer evaluation, group evaluation, teacher evaluation, and/or host evaluation (triangulation).

III. METHOD

The study used qualitative methods by applying grounded theory design. The researchers investigated the student's strategies in developing the ICC model. Data were obtained from participant observation, interview, field note, and audio recording as well as documentation. There were four English study program students of STKIP Yapis DompunTB (AM, YA, AS, and ED) involved in this research. The students generally come from various tribes in the east of Indonesia with different ethnics, gender, social, cultures, and languages. The data gained were analyzed descriptively.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The study revealed that:

A. Students A.M. Has Sixteen Strategies in Developing ICC Model

His strategies were: (1) Creating a comfortable feeling when talking with people who have different languages and cultures (skill); (2) Creating a pleasant situation when communicating with people from different languages and cultures (skill); (3) Showing a polite attitude toward foreigners (attitude); (4) Showing the knowledge of social groups (attitude); (5) Showing the skill to understand people from different cultures (skill); (6) Being aware of a negative actions of people who have a different languages and cultures (awareness); (7) Changing to nonverbal behavior such as eye contact when the situation requires it (behavior); (8) Building a serious communication when people of different languages and cultures that are not paying attention (skill); (9) Using slang when speaking to people from certain countries like Australia and Japanese and speaking using formal language in a slowly (skill); (10) Respecting and appreciating the different (attitude); (11) Creating a cozy atmosphere (skill); (12) Providing an opportunity to speak (skill); (13) not changing the topic when foreigners are talking (skill); (14) Respecting their science, knowledge, and religion (attitude); (15) Following the direction of the conversation and not allowed to come out of the contents of the conversation (attitude); (16) Participating in the various conference including national and international on cultural diversity (awareness).

B. Students Y.A. Has Nine Strategies in Developing ICC Model

His strategies were (1) to understanding the contents of the conversation (knowledge); (2) Explaining something with a single words (skill); (3) Understanding the attitude, knowledge, skills, and awareness as a basic communication with people who have different languages and cultures (knowledge); (4) Changing to nonverbal behaviors such as eyes contact when situations require it (behavior); (5) Changing to nonverbal behavior when getting difficult to communicate (skill); (6) Controlling nonverbal behavior based on one's own culture (skill); (7) Using body language to solve

problems (skill); (8) Teach in abroad at elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school (skill); (9) Participating in national and international conference (awareness).

C. Students A.S. Has Seven Strategies in Developing ICC Model

His strategies were (1) Knowing the contents of the conversations (knowledge); (2) Listening to what they have to say (skill); (3) when strangers give advice based on their culture, if it does not fit to our culture, then we give an explanation according to our culture (knowledge); (4) Knowing clearly the attitude, knowledge, skills, and awareness even behavior as a basic communication with people from different languages and cultures (knowledge); (5) Changing to nonverbal behavior like eyes contact when communicating with people from different languages and cultures (behavior); (6) Using nonverbal behavior based on situations and conditions (skill); (7) Participating in national and international conference continuously (awareness).

D. Students E.D. Has Ten Strategies in Developing in ICC Model

His strategies were (1) Showing a good attitude towards foreigners (attitude); (2) Showing a good personality towards foreigners (attitude); (3) Communicate with polite words (skill); (4) Act reflexively to please the foreigners (skill); (5) Knowing that the attitude, knowledge, skills, and awareness even behavior as a basic communication when communicate with people from different languages and cultures (knowledge); (6) Using nonverbal behavior such as eyes contact when situation requires it (behavior); (7) Using nonverbal behavior when getting difficulty in communicating with people who have a different languages and cultures (skill); (8) Participate in national and international conferences (awareness); (9) Studying in abroad (awareness); (10) Studying informally through Youth Exchange programs (awareness).

Based on the findings of this study, the strategies used in improving students' ICC were dominated by the skills dimension with eighteen strategies, followed by the attitude and awareness dimension with seven strategies, and the knowledge and behavior dimension with 6 and 4 strategies respectively.

A.M. participant has the same strategy with E.D. In the attitude dimension both participants used showing a polite attitude toward foreigners. Y.A. and A.S. had the same strategy in the dimension of knowledge. Both of them used knowing the content of the conversation. Participants Y.A., A.S. and E.D. had the same strategies in the dimension of knowledge. They used understanding the attitude, knowledge, skills, and awareness as a basic communication with people who have different languages and cultures. Participants Y.A., A.S. and E.D. had the same strategies in the skills dimension those were changing to nonverbal behavior when facing difficulties to communicate. Participants A.M. Y.A., A.S. and E.D. had the same strategies in the awareness dimension. They used participating in the various conferences including national and international on cultural diversity and the last participants A.M. Y.A., A.S. and E.D., had the same strategies in the behavior dimension. They used changing to nonverbal behavior such as eye contact when the situation requires it.

The participants of this research had different strategies for increasing ICC. A.M. participant had four strategies in attitude dimensions to increase the ICC. These strategies were (1) Showing knowledge of social groups; (2) Respecting and appreciating the different; (3) Respect their science, knowledge, and religion; (4) Following the direction of the conversation and not allowed to come out of the contents of the conversation. E.D. participant had one strategy in attitude dimension that was showing a good personality towards foreigners. Y.A. and A.S. participants did not have a different strategy in the attitude dimension. A.M, Y.A, AS, and E.D participants did not have different strategies in the knowledge dimension. A.M. Participant had eight different strategies on the skill dimension. Those strategies were (1) Creating a comfort feeling when talking with people who have different languages and cultures; (2) Creating a pleasant situation when communicating with people from different languages and cultures; (3) Showing the skill to understand people from different cultures; (4) Building a serious communication when people of different languages and cultures that were not paying attention; (5) Using slang with people from certain countries like Australia and Japanese and speaking using formal language slowly; (6) Creating a cozy atmosphere; (7) Providing an opportunity to speak; (8) not changing the topic when foreigners are talking. Participant Y.A. had four different strategies on the skills dimension. They were (1) Explaining something with a single word; (2) Controlling nonverbal behavior based on one's own culture; (3) Using body language to solve problems; (4) Teaching at the elementary school, junior high school, and senior high school abroad. A.S. participant had two different strategies on the skills dimension. These were (1) Listening to what they have to say; (2) If foreigners give suggestions, give them advice. A.S. Participant had two different strategies on the skills dimension, those were (1) Communicating with polite words; (2) Act reflexively to please the foreigners. A.M. Participant had one different strategy on the awareness dimension. It was being aware of negative actions of people who have different languages and cultures. E.D. Participant had two different strategies on the awareness dimension. They were (1) Studying abroad; (2) Studying informally through Youth Exchange programs. Y.A. and the A.S. Participant did not have different strategies in the dimensions of awareness. All participants did not have strategies that differ in the behavioral dimension.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The findings of the research indicated that the way the students of English study program of STKIP Yapis Dompun-TB developed ICC model encompasses attitude, knowledge, skills, awareness, and behavior. The individual participant had his own strategies in improving the ICC model. A.M. Participant had sixteen strategies to develop ICC model, Y.A. had nine strategies, A.S. had seven strategies and E.D. has ten strategies.

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Rich Feature Analysis as an Enabling Tool for Composition Teaching

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Abstract—Exploring the usage of language in light of its functions in specific pragmatic contexts, Systematic Functional Grammar (SFG) can be a promising tool for language teaching. Relying on this tool, teachers can promote learners' linguistic awareness from the level of passive rule-following to that of explicit understanding, a level where they can see linguistic expression's functional significance as explanation of their effectiveness. This paper is intended as a demonstration of such an explanatory procedure. Employing a SFG-based Rich Feature Analysis to examine students' composition, it aims to show how we can efficiently and convincingly identify and explain some problematic constructions in their writing.

Index Terms—rich feature analysis, systematic functional grammar, writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Form is explained by function--if the kernel of SFG can be simplified in this way, its potential for language teaching is enormous. As language teachers, we often come across various linguistic features in our students' writing, which, depending largely on an intuitive judgment, are stamped pathological. Yet when facing the question "why such expressions are abnormal?", we found our intuitive knowledge too weak for launching a persuasive explanation. "It's the convention, so just do it!", this kind of answer brings nothing constructive to composition instruction. This gap between observation and explication, between instinctive rule-following and explicit understanding, can be well filled by a SFG-style analysis, for where traditional grammar and prescriptive rules of composition fail, it manages to overcome such problems by relating the textural to the contextual, the formal to the functional, and the abstract convention to the living usage. This is exactly the **aim** of this current small-scale analysis. Deploying one of the common discourse analysis tools, rich feature analysis, and targeting at four samples of student writing, it sets out to identify those linguistic features differentiating inferior pieces of writing from their superior peers in the academic context; by relating these features to their functional significance, it tries to arrive at a sound and persuasive explanation of their infeasibility. This whole project is also intended as an exemplification of deployment of discourse analysis tools and functional understanding of the difference between written and spoken language to address practical pedagogical problems. But before a full launch into this project, a brief introduction to rich feature analysis is necessary.

Rich feature analysis, our **method** involved here, is a common discourse analyzing tool combining qualitative and quantitative study. It identifies in a linguistic sample "a rich feature or a set of related rich features; defines the features linguistically by focusing on structure, function, or both; describes the conventional meaning or significance of the feature(s); establishes and verifies the patterns of the feature(s) within a set of texts; and explains how the resulting discourse analysis is interesting for the field of composition theory and pedagogy" (Barton, 2004, p.75). Its target, rich feature(s), are defined as "particular features in a text or a set of texts that are associated with conventions of meaning and significance in context", possessing both "linguistic integrity (i.e., they are structural features of language, so they can be defined in linguistic terms and then categorized, coded, counted, and otherwise analyzed empirically) and contextual value (i.e., they can be conventionally connected to matters of function, meaning, interpretation, and significance)" (ibid). The relation between a rich feature's linguistic form and contextual value is the focus of rich feature analysis.

The **object** of this study comes naturally behind this belief introduction to the method. It consists of a mini-corpus of pairs of weaker (text A & B) and stronger (text C & D) argumentative essays by secondary school students. Text A and C share the topic of decline in the quality of education, while text B and D deforestation. The two weaker texts received impressionistic comments from the teacher such as "write just the way they speak", or "this gives the impression you're chatting with someone instead of writing an essay", while the stronger texts received praise from the teacher like "you show a good command of academic writing". From a personal perspective, such comments possess an affective but not a persuasive value. They impressionistically passed judgments on the quality of the students' writing, but failed to point out the hidden causes waiting to be dug out. As it's been stated at the beginning, this is the gap this study intended to fill.

Following the approach of rich feature analysis and considering local characteristics of the object, the **procedures** of this study mainly consists of five steps. Firstly, through a detailed examination of the mini-corpus, it identifies three rich features of the weaker sample texts, namely, excessive usage of personal pronouns, misuse of verbal process, and a loose way of information packing (lexical density). Each this identification, it provides a structural definition and

analysis of the specific rich feature concerned. Then its distributive pattern over the sample texts will be drawn out and a contrast of its distribution between the weaker and the stronger texts will be made. After that, drawing on the literature on spoken and written modes of language and related research on discourse analysis, the identified rich feature's functional significance in the academic writing context will be addressed. At last, the resulted pedagogical implication will be discussed. So far the aims, method, object, procedures of this study has become quite clear, let's proceed from the first rich feature, excessive use of personal pronouns.

II. EXCESSIVE USE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The most salient feature shared by the two weaker texts (text A & B) is the widespread use of personal pronouns. In text A, the use of first-person pronoun "I" and the second-person pronoun "you" is abundant. In text B, the phenomenon is slightly different, with the use of "I" and "you" alleviated a little, but the abundance of the first plural pronoun "we" makes the situation equally serious. To demonstrate this observation, here are some examples from these two weaker texts:

1. *I believe, and I am sure most of you do, that the young people today are not getting a fair go with the low educational standards in many schools. (text A, Para. 2)*

2. *Every day you can see that teachers are not able to keep their students in check, and so their classes become chaotic, and then some students become so disruptive that the others cannot concentrate and have trouble learning. (text A, Para. 2)*

3. *I think that every child must be taught these skills and when we reach the upper grades we should go further and learn more advanced things. (text A, Para. 3)*

4. *But if we go ahead and remove trees in more parts of our rainforests we can acquire more usable land. (text B, Para. 2)*

5. *Think of the many things we can produce from the trees in the rainforest, starting with basic stuff like paper, which we use to write on and it's also necessary for the books we read. (text B, Para. 3)*

6. *I hope I have convinced you that you should support deforestation, because I am certain that if you do, you will see how much it can benefit our people. (text B, Para. 4)*

A brief analysis will help to classify the use of pronouns in the two weaker texts into three groups:

Self mention: the use of first person pronouns and possessive adjectives to make explicit authorial stance. The "I"s in the examples above are mostly of this usage.

Reader engagement: the use of personal pronouns, usually second-person pronouns for involvement of reader. The "you" and some of the "we" above are instances of this usage.

Coalition forming: the affective use of personal pronouns, usually the first plural "we", to bind the writer and reader together, and to send a signal of fellowship by textually constructing both the reader and the reader as participants with similar understanding and goals" (Hyland, 2005, p.182). Most of the "we" above, except for reader engagement, are also of this usage.

Contrasting the distribution of personal pronouns (only *I*, *you*, *we*, and *us* are counted) in the two weaker texts with that in the two stronger texts, the difference is more than significant. The result is presented in the following chart:

CHART 1
USE OF PRONOUNS

	Text A	Text B	Text C	Text D
N ¹ (total number of sentences)	11	13	12	14
N ² (number of sentences with a personal pronoun or more)	10	11	0	0
Percentage N ¹ /N ²	90.9%	84.6%	0	0

The chart above presents the result clear enough. Although the respective number of sentences of the four sample essays are relatively stable, the ratio of sentences with at least one pronoun in the two weaker texts is quite high. In contrast, in the two stronger texts, existence of personal pronouns can hardly be located. It must be added that while counting sentences with pronouns, the related adjective pronouns like *my*, *your*, and *our* are not included for the sake of convenience. If counted in, the ratio concerned could turn out more startling in the two weaker texts.

So much about the statistics, what is the significance of this rich feature? What does its prominence or absence in certain texts mean? Remember at the beginning of the study the teacher's comments on the two weaker texts were mentioned, does this feature, the excessive use of personal pronouns has anything to do with the impression that their authors "write the way they talk" and their writing looks like "they are chatting with someone rather than writing an essay"? This issue can be addressed from the following angles.

Firstly, the use of personal pronouns is related more to a spoken rather than a written mode of speech. The most obvious difference between a spoken and a written mode of texts, as Hammond (1991, p.32) put it, is that "the former are normally jointly constructed by two or more participants, while the latter are essentially monologues". Spoken texts are collaboratively created by interlocutors sharing the same physical context and are organized in a turn-shifting structure. In this linguistic mode, the frequent appealing to the "you" is made possible by the close spatial and temporal distance between the interlocutors, and "you" here is tangible. Also the conversational cooperative, turn-shifting

structure requires the “I”, who’s speaking, to frequently go back to the “you”, who’s both a listener and contributor, to check understanding, engage attention, seek consent, and ask for contribution. In contrast, for a written mode of language, the writer and the reader are both spatially and temporally removed from each other, so the writer “cannot depend on a shared context to convey anything of the meaning”, therefore “the meaning must be contained within the text itself” (ibid). In this mode, if the “I”, who’s writing, constantly appeals to “you”, who is absent and often anonymous, this appealing would be empty and only gestural, and excessive use of it may damage the intactness of the written message. Thus Halliday’s (2002, p.340) comments: “speech and writing as forms of discourse are typically associated with the two modal points on the continuum from most spontaneous to most self-monitored language, spontaneous discourse is usually spoken, self-monitored is usually written.” This said, the relation between the overuse of personal pronouns in the two weaker texts and the teacher’s impression of them become obvious.

Secondly, this feature’s impertinence also has something to do with the argumentative genre. Any argumentation prescribes a potential dissenting reader, for controversy is its innate motivation. To put it frankly, if there isn’t a potentially disapproving reader or listener, there is no need to launch an argument. The potentially dissenting reader could be the most important reader of any argumentative essay. This said, the excessive use of “we” in the weaker texts seems rather imposing. As Hyland (2005, p.182) puts it, the use of “we” sends a clear signal of membership by textually constructing both the writer and the reader as participants with similar understanding and goals”. With the widespread use of “we”, the potential dissenting reader’s reluctance to hastily join the ally before being soundly persuaded is trampled overhead. The same can largely said of the excessive use of “you”.

Finally, for an argumentative essay, the over use of “I” will weaken its persuasive power. As it is said before, an argument presupposes difference of opinions, so there comes the need to demonstrate a certain opinion’s soundness. This demonstration, for an optimal consideration, should follow a reasonable procedure for both sides, and draw on evidence and facts objective for both sides. Frequent turning back to one’s own subjective perspective is not constructive for resolving the controversy at issue. The frequent use of “I” just gives the speaker’s argument a subjective hue. If every evidence, every step of reasoning is contained inside a subjective frame, how can its objectivity be recognized? To write in this way is more of an exchange of personal ideas rather than persuasion. This may explain the teacher’s comment that the authors of the weaker texts seem like chatting with someone rather than writing an essay.

III. MISUSE OF VERBAL PROCESS

The second rich feature surfaces first as a general impression: in the two weaker texts, there are too many “I think...”, “I believe...”; and there are a lot of happenings there but rarely any relation between such happenings. As to the pervasive presence of “I think...” and “I believe...”, the following paragraph from Text A suffices as a superb example:

I believe, and I am sure most of you do, that the young people today are not getting a fair go with the low educational standards in many schools. In my school I have noticed that there is a big problem with discipline. Every day you can see that teachers are not able to keep their students in check, and so their classes become chaotic, and then some students become so disruptive that the others cannot concentrate and have trouble learning.

As for the phenomenon of too many things happening but scarcely any reasoning, the following paragraph from Text B helps to make the case:

First of all we need to consider that our rainforests take up a huge area of our country, and all this space cannot be utilized in order to benefit our people. But if we go ahead and remove trees in more parts of our rainforests we can acquire more usable land. Once we get more land, farmers can grow crops to provide us food and medicines, and the land can also be used to provide housing. The trees of the rainforests give us building material and at the same time as the trees are cut down, the land gives us the area for houses. We have to build more houses because our population is growing fast as more and more migrants come into our country.

Deploying Halliday’s transitivity theory to a brief analysis of the main clauses from these two short samples will easily reveal why they tend to give us such an impression.

CHART 2:
TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF TEXT SAMPLE FROM TEXT A

Participant(s)	Verb(s)	Other participant(s)	Process(es) involved
I	Believe, be sure	clause	mental
I	notice	clause	mental
you	see	clause	mental

CHART 3:
TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF TEXT SAMPLE FROM TEXT B

Participant(s)	Verb(s)	Other participant(s)	Process(es) involved
we	consider	clause	mental
we	can acquire	more land	material
farmers	can grow	crops	material
The land	can be used		material
The trees of the forests	give	us, Building material	material
The land	give	us, building materials	material
we	have to build	more houses	material

The results presented above demonstrate that the initial impression triggered by these two texts is not of an accidental nature. In the sample from Text A, all the main clauses involve a mental process. As it is well known, mental processes are mainly processes of sensing or perceiving, which “may be construed as either flowing from a person’s consciousness or impinging on it”, and “the person who does the thinking, feeling, or perceiving is the experiencer and what is thought, felt, wanted, or perceived is the phenomenon (or experience)” (Coffin et al., 2009, p.303). The mental process inevitably gives what is perceived or sensed a subjective hue, thus a text’s excessive reliance upon this process for its structuring naturally appears less objective, or, in the case of an argument, less persuasive.

With the case of material process, it brings in more “going-on”, as “the presence of material clauses means that people or things are “doers” (i.e. agents): they act and do and, as a consequence; there are changes: the emerging account feels more dynamic” (ibid, p.295). Therefore, the world represented through a material process appears more of a world in process, a world of happening. This type of process is usually associated with the spoken mode of language, as “written language represents phenomenon as if they were products”, while “spoken language represents phenomenon as if they were process” (Halliday, 2002, p.344). This said, a text reliant too heavily on material process will give its reader a sense of its being spoken rather than written. This is also what the teacher’s comment over the two weaker texts implied. However, this doesn’t mean material process has no place in the written mode. In some genres which focusing on an account of happenings, actions, or motions around the world, it naturally become the recommended choice. Of such genres, narrative is a superb representative. For argumentative writing, whose focus should be on reasoning about the happenings instead of the happenings themselves, over reliance on the material process for its development normally seems impertinent.

Does this mean the material process is absolutely poisonous for an argument? The answer is still no. Properly used, it can actually enhance an argumentative writing’s reasoning power. A transitivity analysis of some sentences from one of the stronger texts in our little corpus will serve as a good demonstration:

CHART 4:
TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES FROM TEXT C

Participant(s)	Verb(s)	Other participant(s)	Process(es) involved
Combined classes and honours programmes	allow	gifted students the opportunity to...	material
This (learning support programmes giving students with learning difficulties extra encouragement)	has not only led to	better exam results, but also an increase in the capabilities	material
The abolishment of the practice of canning...	has not brought about	a dramatic fall in standards of discipline	material

The three sentences from text C shares the same kind of process with those earlier analyzed sentences from text A & B, a material process. The key difference lies in the participants involved. Here the active participants are not real human or thing in the world, but nominal constructions representing state of affairs. They are more of concepts abstracted from, therefore elevated above, real things in the world. As a result, the action verbs following them are not actually used to represent real, material process of happening or action, but to reveal the logical, causal relations between states of affaires. Their function is more like that of conjunctive devices. For instance, if translated into a more spoken version with the causal relation between its participants explicitly expressed, the first sentence could turn into this:

There are combined classes and honor programs, and because of this, the gifted students get their opportunity to realize their full potentials.

In this version, not only the sentence become much longer, but as its grammatical complexity increased, and some explicit conjunctive devices representing causal relation are also needed. Comparing these two versions, one can instantly observe the causal relation is intact in both cases, but the first version is more concise and condensed. This is typical for both the writing mode of language in general and writing in the academic context, for, as Schleppegrell (2004, p.64) put it, “...the way logical relationships are indicated differs between interactional and school-based registers, as school-based texts less use explicit conjunctive links and more often incorporate the logical relation in nominal or verbal elements”. Reasoning with verbs also reminds one of the phenomenon of “grammatical metaphor”, where “one kind of process has been dressed up by the grammar to look like a process of a different kind” (Halliday, 2002, p.346). Written language, Halliday (ibid, p.347) comments, “tends to display a high degree of grammatical metaphor, and this is perhaps its single most important characteristic”.

To sum up, the two weaker texts displays incompetence in verbal process deployment; their texts contains too much use of the mental process and material process. Because of the former, their texts sound more subjective and spoken-like; because of the latter, more dynamic and more narrative-like.

IV. LEXICAL DENSITY

Comparing the two weaker texts with the other two, a third rich feature comes up. It also comes first as a general impression: what the stronger texts can express in a single word will cost the weaker texts a sentence; what the stronger

texts can express in a simple sentence, it will cost the weaker texts a fat one with clusters of clauses. SFG possesses a specific term for the description or measurement of such density or looseness of information in a text: lexical density.

Lexical density is “the proportion of lexical items (content words) to the total discourse” (Halliday, 2002, p.329). It is measured in various ways, of which one of the most widely adopted is the number of lexical items (relative frequency ignored) as a proportion of the number of clauses (embedded clauses ignored) (ibid). As stated above, the two weaker texts give one the impression of its looseness of information-packing, so hopefully an analysis of the lexical density of two pieces of sample from them may help to reveal the hidden reason:

Also many of us can't even read, write or do math properly, which leaves us with poor exam marks. I think that every child must be taught these skills and when we reach the upper grades we should go further and learn more advanced things... (from text A, Para. 3)

First of all we need to consider that our rainforests take up a huge area of our country, and all this space cannot be utilized in order to benefit our people. But if we go ahead and remove trees in more parts of our rainforests we can acquire more usable land... (from text B, Para. 2)

Clause complex boundary ///
 Clause boundary //
 Embed clause []

Lexical items show in **boldface**

CHART 5:
 RESULTS OF LEXICAL DENSITY ANALYSIS (SAMPLES FROM TEXT A & B)

	Lexical items	Clauses	Running words	Lexical density
Sample/text A	20	7	45	2.9
Sample/text B	19	7	51	2.7

The analyzed samples from the two weaker texts are of approximately the same length, and their lexical densities are also close to each other, with both slightly below 3. To get a better sense of the significance of the results, it's better to do a similar lexical density analysis of language samples from the two stronger texts and make a contrast:

Furthermore, despite much argument to the contrary, the abolishment of the practice of caning in schools has not brought about a dramatic fall in standards of discipline. Punitive measures like detention and internal suspension are more than enough to stop most problem students... (from Text C, Para.3)

In addition to the provision of greater opportunities for work, the removal of trees in some parts of the rainforests could also assist in the securing of land for farming and housing in cost-effective ways. Housing provides the necessary homes for a steadily and rapidly increasing population... (from Text D, Para. 2)

CHART 6:
 RESULTS OF LEXICAL DENSITY ANALYSIS (SAMPLES FROM TEXT C & D)

	Lexical items	Clauses	Running words	Lexical density
Sample/text C	20	2	43	10
Sample/text D	23	2	47	11.5

Comparing the results of the two analyses, one can instantly observe the significant difference. The lexical density of the samples from the two stronger texts is approximately 3-4 times that of the samples from the two weaker texts. The statistics clearly demonstrate that information in the two stronger texts is more densely packed. Higher lexical density is conventionally a property of the written mode of language, as Halliday (2002, p.329) put it, “since written language is characteristically reflective rather than active, in a written text the lexical density tends to be higher; and it increases as the text becomes further away from spontaneous speech”. Thus the lower lexical density of the two weaker texts serves as another proof to support the teacher’s initial comments.

However, if analysis of this feature in the students’ essays ends at this point, it will serve little practical purpose. Even if the students know the significance of lexical density in the academic writing context, without understanding where they are from, the possibility of improvement is still only in the air. A further research into the high lexical density of the two stronger texts reveals that it mainly a result of one important textual feature termed by Halliday (2002, p.345) as **grammatical metaphor**. It influences a text’s lexical density at two levels at the same time. On the syntactic level, it enables verbal, nominal, and prepositional elements to represent logical relations, thus reduces the number of clauses and conjunctive structures. This issue has been addressed in the previous part dealing with verbal process, but another example would do no harm. Here is a sentence from the sample D analyzed above:

a) *...the removal of trees in some parts of the rainforests could also assist in the securing of land for farming and housing in cost-effective ways.*

Here *assist in* is actually representing a causal relation. If we rewrite it using conjunction words, as it is usually done in spoken, informal language, its structure would become much more complicated involving a complex sentence with two subordinate clauses:

b) *Because trees in some parts of the rainforests are removed, land for farming and housing is secured in cost-effective ways.*

Using one grammatical form to accomplish the same function of another for the sake of economy and effectiveness

of expression, this is typical of grammatical metaphor. In the example above, an action verb is used to do the job of expressing a causal relation, which is usually accomplished through using clauses in conjunction. Although in this way reliance upon syntactic structure for information packing is alleviated, more work is demanded of the lexical items. To avoid loss of information, it has to be packed into the lexical level. Here grammatical metaphor again plays a major role. Nominalization is a typical instance. In the above example, what is expressed in the latter version through two clauses is packed in the first version into two nominal groups, taking up places traditionally called subject and object. Through such analysis, we can see grammatical metaphor as one of the hidden sources of a text's higher lexical density, the ultimate motivation of which is perhaps written language's need of dense information packing.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

The analysis above of four students' texts has demonstrated our analytical method's promising potential for composition instruction. This potential can be approached from two directions.

Firstly, for teachers, rich feature analysis and related SFG analytical resources will help them get an in-depth, rational grasping of the problems in their students' writing. As teachers, when we pass our judgments onto our students' writing, those comments tend to be impressionistic. There certain language features are diagnosed as pathological, but the reason why they appear so is often hard to explain. Our own competence and familiarity enable us an instinctive haunch to hunt down those features making a certain piece of writing good or bad. But the point of composition instruction is not making such judgments even if they are accurate, for if it were so, then composition instruction would turn out to be a form of testing instead of teaching writing. To develop learners' competence, teachers not only must know what their problems are, but also how such problems come forth. The pathological symptoms must be traced to their sources, only then can a cure be developed. Rich feature analysis, starting from surface language features, proceeding to define them in linguistic terms, verifying their pattern across texts, and seeking their significance in contexts, is a handy tool for teachers to rationally diagnose such problems. In case of our study above, through the lens of rich feature analysis, the impression triggered by the weaker texts, that they sounds like their authors are chatting with somebody, actually points to the students' unfamiliarity with the writing mode of language and the argument genre.

Secondly, for students, this kind of analysis will help them to identify the essential causes for their writing's weakness, thus enable them to know at least where to start for improvement. Impressionistic comments like "you write as you speak" will not get them far on the path to competent writers. More likely, it will only bring in negative effects like discouragement and loss of motivation. Reasoning with analytic tool like rich feature analysis will convincingly demonstrate to them certain language use's pertinence or impertinence in certain contexts. It will also demonstrate to them that composition is not a matter of following sets of prescriptive rules, but a matter of efficient language use in contexts. For instance, as it is mentioned in our analysis, the use of pronouns is often associated with the spoken mode of language, and they serve tangible purpose there enabled by the close temporal and spatial distance between interlocutors. Knowledge of this kind will enable them to realize what they are learning is not blind following of rules prescribed by some unknown authority, but rules of real world communication. This will boost their motivation.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this study, we employed rich feature analysis to look into four pieces of student composition, and three rich features of these texts were focused on: the use of pronouns, verbal processes, and lexical density. Starting from close-reading of these texts, the study then set out to identify the three features, define them in linguistic terms, verify their distributive pattern across texts, and reveal their conventional significance in contexts. Through such a process, a rational ground for comments on these texts was established, and an in-depth diagnosis of the weaker texts' problems was accomplished. Results show the problems faced by the weak students are mainly their unfamiliarity with the difference between written and spoken modes of language. Apart from that, their lack of understanding of the argumentative genre is also an important cause. Through this study, we can see rich feature analysis' promising potential in assisting teaching and learning composition. In the near future, we hope to see this methods' pedagogical application further explored.

APPENDIX. MINI-CORPUS OF PAIRS OF WEAKER (TEXTS A & B) AND STRONGER ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS (TEXTS C & D) BY SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

Text A Has there been a decline in the quality of education?

1. As you know, people have recently been writing in the newspapers about the standards of current school leavers. I support all those writers who have been arguing that we young people do less well academically, because as a student myself I can see it happening.

2. I believe, and I am sure most of you do, that the young people today are not getting a fair go with the low educational standards in many schools. In my school I have noticed that there is a big problem with discipline. Every day you can see that teachers are not able to keep their students in check, and so their classes become chaotic, and then some students become so disruptive that the others cannot concentrate and have trouble learning.

3. Also many of us can't even read, write or do math properly, which leaves us with poor exam marks. I think that

every child must be taught these skills and when we reach the upper grades we should go further and learn more advanced things. But this is not happening, and what makes it worse is that our teachers are not held accountable, and they are also often blind to the fact that the number of illiterate people in our country is rising.

4. To all the parents out there, I'd like to say that we cannot afford to ignore this problem but must grasp it and face it head-on so that the situation in our schools will be fixed. I am one of the students affected, and so are most of my classmates, and I urge you to do something about it. Let us defend the educational standards of our young people, look into the aspects I have mentioned and make sure that things will be better in the future.

Text B In support of deforestation

1. Currently a lot of people are debating whether or not we should remove trees from our rainforests. I am going to discuss why I believe that those in favour of deforestation make the stronger case and that theirs is the better way for us to go.

2. First of all we need to consider that our rainforests take up a huge area of our country, and all this space cannot be utilized in order to benefit our people. But if we go ahead and remove trees in more parts of our rainforests we can acquire more usable land. Once we get more land, farmers can grow crops to provide us food and medicines, and the land can also be used to provide housing. The trees of the rainforests give us building material and at the same time as the trees are cut down, the land gives us the area for houses. We have to build more houses because our population is growing fast as more and more migrants come into our country.

3. Deforestation can also boost our economy. Think of the many things we can produce from the trees in the rainforest, starting with basic stuff like paper, which we use to write on and it's also necessary for the books we read. And deforestation supports our economy in other ways because we don't just use all those products from the rainforests ourselves but we sell them to other countries. Also let's not forget that the trees are cut down by loggers. These people would be out of a job if there was no deforestation, and so they wouldn't be able to support their families, plus many of the small towns in which they live would suffer and maybe even vanish.

4. I hope I have convinced you that you should support deforestation, because I am certain that if you do, you will see how much it can benefit our people.

Text C Has there been a decline in the quality of education?

1. There has been an ongoing debate in the local press about the standard of current school leavers, with especially employers insisting that young people who leave school today have a lower level of educational achievement than in the past. However, this issue is highly complex and must be considered from various angles.

2. Most schools today are more concerned with academic achievement and the provision of a range of course choices than ever before. In this day and age many educational pathways are open for students of different interests, background and capabilities. On the one hand, combined classes and honours programmes allow gifted students the opportunity to realize their full potential. On the other hand, there are learning support programmes which give students with learning difficulties the extra encouragement that they need to reach the next level of their education. This has not only led to better exam results, but also to an increase in the capabilities students have in the areas of reading, writing and mathematics.

3. Furthermore, despite much argument to the contrary, the abolishment of the practice of caning in schools has not brought about a dramatic fall in standards of discipline. Punitive measures like detention and internal suspension are more than enough to stop most problem students. If one adds to these measures incentives like enrichment programmes for students that have behaved to an acceptable standard to this, the problems with discipline can be quite readily solved.

4. While the standard of some current school leavers may be low, the majority of students succeed in completing their academic studies with a higher level of educational achievement than in the past. Looking at the issue objectively, the quality of education received and the standard of achievement are not dropping; they are equal or even superior to those of the past.

Text D Deforestation: Yes or No?

1. In recent years there has been a great deal of debate in Australia over whether rainforests should be logged. While conservationists argue for the protection of the rainforests as habitats for valuable plants and wildlife, the logging industry has made a case in favour of strategic deforestation. A closer examination of the arguments of the proponents of the two sides reveals that the issues at stake are by no means straightforward.

2. To put their main arguments in a nutshell, those in the logging industry contend that it is necessary for some rainforest areas to be removed because of the employment opportunities which their removal can create and the economy which can be sustained as a result. In addition to the provision of greater opportunities for work, the removal of trees in some parts of the rainforests could also assist in the securing of land for farming and housing in cost-effective ways. Housing provides the necessary homes for a steadily and rapidly increasing population, and farming can supply a wide range of products that are required for everyday living, such as meat, milk, vegetables and wool. These are all vital necessities for Australia's continuing economic development and the improvement of the standard of living of its population.

3. Those who insist on phasing out the practice of logging offer as their most important argument its destructive impact on the environment. According to these conservationists, logging affects the rainforest ecosystem in a number of

ways. First, the clearing of rainforest means the loss of large quantities of unique plant and animal species. Despite their diminishing area, the rainforests of Australia still retain the greatest number of flowering plant species in the world. Extinction of these plant species will result in radically altered ecosystems which are unable to recover easily from environmental stress. Secondly, logging operations have contributed to the extinction of many animals directly and indirectly through the destruction of their habitats. Thirdly, logging has also been shown to increase the level of environmental pollution.....

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English Pronunciation Instruction: Views and Recommendations

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Abstract—Despite decades of advocacy for greater attention, research into pronunciation instruction in English language teaching continues to be restricted. This article provides a comprehensive review of some important issues of English pronunciation instruction. The purposes of this review are (a) to explain different views of pronunciation instruction, (b) to elaborate the role of pronunciation in language teaching methods, (c) to discuss native-like pronunciation, and (d) to mention some recommendations for the better teaching of English pronunciation. The review of the literature of this paper indicated that the objective of pronunciation instruction is not to gain native-like pronunciation and speak exactly like native speakers of English. Instead understandable pronunciation should be the ultimate aim of oral communication.

Index Terms—pronunciation instruction, views, methods, native-like pronunciation, recommendations

I. INTRODUCTION

The key role of English pronunciation has been an important discussion throughout the last years. Some researchers such as Burrill (1985) and Krashen (1982) were against pronunciation instruction, but other researchers have different views over pronunciation instruction. Researches done by Perlmutter (1989), Macdonald, Yule, and Powers (1994), Derwing, Munro, and Wiebe (1998), Silveira (2002), Couper (2003), Gilbert (2008), Liu (2008), Hayati (2010), Abbasian and Bahmanie (2013), Abdolmanafi-Rokni (2013), Gooniband Shooshtari, Mehrabi, and Mousavinia (2013), Behzadi and Fahimniya (2014), Mirzaei, Jahandar, and Khodabandehlou (2014), Nosratinia and Zaker (2014), Pourhosein Gilakjani (2014a), Pourhosein Gilakjani (2014b), Pourhosein Gilakjani (2016a), and Farhat and Dzakiria (2017) indicate that pronunciation instruction improves EFL/ESL learners' oral production.

According to Pourhosein Gilakjani (2016b), Sadeghi and Mashhadi Heidar (2016), and Haghighi and Rahimy (2017), pronunciation is one of the most difficult skills in the learning and teaching of English language. Farhat and Dzakiria (2017) says that pronunciation has been overlooked and no serious attempt has been made to indicate its worth to both teachers and learners. English pronunciation is one of the least favorite areas for teachers to teach in their classes (Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2012). Intelligible pronunciation is an important part of communicative competence. If learners do not have perfect pronunciation skills they will not be able to communicate effectively (Morley, 1991; Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2016b).

Teachers often do not pay enough attention to English pronunciation. There are some reasons for this claim. Some teachers do not have enough knowledge (Breitkreutz, Derwing, & Rossiter 2002; Fraser, 2000a; Macdonald, 2002). They think that pronunciation instruction does not work because they have tried it a lot and have not been successful (Fraser, 2000a). They say that pronunciation instruction is not appropriate, because it is purely a motor-skill (Brown, 1987) and its practice is not related to the communicative competence of language (Morley, 1991). They also believe that it is not necessary to teach pronunciation and accurate pronunciation is not related to the identity and respect for the learners (Porter, 1999).

According to Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996), Derwing and Munro (2005), Fraser (2000a), Morley (1991), Pennington (1998), and Pourhosein Gilakjani (2016b), pronunciation can and should be taught and it is an important part of communication that has a key role in Communicative Language Teaching. According to Frasers (2000a), English pronunciation is a cognitive skill that all persons can learn it if appropriate opportunities are given to them. Jenkins (2000), Deterding (2013), and Thir (2016) state that the reason for teaching pronunciation is that it has been found to be the main cause of communication breakdowns or misunderstandings in ELF interactions which makes its instruction an area where the necessity for a stronger orientation towards ELF communication is very important. Hismanoglu (2006) says that pronunciation instruction has a key role in oral communication. Pronunciation is an important component of communicative competence.

In this paper, the researcher reviews some important issues related to pronunciation instruction. They are different views over pronunciation instruction, the role of English pronunciation in language teaching methods, native-like pronunciation, and recommendations for teaching English pronunciation.

II. DIFFERENT VIEWS ABOUT ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

According to Brown (1987), there are two different views of pronunciation. The first view is called a narrow view which regards pronunciation as the production of the right sounds in the right order. This view includes learning the individual vowels and consonants. The second view refers to a broad view which says that pronunciation is an important part of communicative competence. This view involves all the vowels and consonants, and suprasegmental features like word stress, sentence stress, and intonation (Morley, 1991). The narrow view of pronunciation concentrates on individual sounds and the motor skills that are involved in producing them. Brown (1987) says that they are separate from the acquisition of the communicative aims of language. As a matter of fact that, Brown does not regard pronunciation as an important component of communication. In this view, pronunciation is recognized with the production of individual sounds and somehow with the stress and intonation patterns of the target language.

Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996) declares that the broad view of pronunciation includes a focus on how pronunciation is really used to communicate. This has been supported by Pennington and Richards (1986) who express that pronunciation is considered as an important element of expressing referential meaning and a key component of the interactional system of communication. Based on this idea, we should not separate pronunciation from communication and other features of language usage, because sounds are absolutely necessary for communicating and understanding lexical, grammatical, and sociolinguistic meaning. Therefore, it can be said that pronunciation consists of a complex interplay between perceptual, articulatory, and interactional elements.

According to Derwing and Munro (2005), this view has resulted in intelligibility and was accepted as the most important consequence of teaching pronunciation. There are two separate points here and we should clarify them. They are accent and intelligibility. Derwing and Munro (2005) defined accent is a complex feature of language that impacts speakers and listeners in perception and production. An accent is a manner of pronunciation characteristic of a particular individual, location, or nation (The New Oxford American Dictionary, 2005). According to Lippi-Green (1997), an accent is specified with the place in which its speakers live, the socio-economic status of its speakers, their ethnicity, their social class, or influence from their first language.

According to Collins and Mees (2013), an accent is a pronunciation variety typical of the speech of a group of persons. Walker (2010) denies an accent as a variety of a language that is the outcome of differences in pronunciation between a speaker or a group of speakers. It can be regional or social. Munro and Derwing (1995) and Yazan (2015) define intelligibility as the extent to which the speakers' intended utterance is understood by listeners; comprehensibility as the listeners' understanding of the degree of problem faced when trying to comprehend an utterance; and accentedness as the listeners' realization of how different a second language (L2) accent is from the variety of English spoken in the society. Based on the above conceptualization, intelligibility refers to listeners' actual understanding, comprehensibility and accentedness refer to listeners' perceptions.

According to Yates (2002) and Nikbakht (2011), three basic elements of intelligibility are accentedness; the degree to which the listener understands what is being told; and interlocutor load or the problem the listener has in comprehending what is stated. When the accent is familiar to the listeners, even a strong accent can be easily perceived. Therefore, we can understand that intelligibility is a 'two-way process' between the speaker and the listener. A speaker may be incomprehensible because of their accentedness or due to something about the listener that stops the comprehensibility (Yates, 2002).

Kenworthy (1987) emphasized the necessity of 'comfortable intelligibility', i.e., helping learners to communicate effectively without putting excessive pressure on the listener. She says that different contexts of learning English impact not only the aims of teaching pronunciation but also the relative probability of comprehension between speakers and listeners. Morley (1991) expresses that native-like pronunciation is not attainable for a lot of adult learners and can have a detrimental effect on learning, due to the negative effect it can have on learners' and teachers' motivation. Kenworthy (1987) and Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994) have not emphasised that achievement of native-like pronunciation is not possible, but that accent is so bound up in a person's identity, that many learners are reluctant to change their pronunciation.

In brief, pronunciation intelligibility is to gain a level of pronunciation which does not prevent the learners' ability from communication (Morley, 1991; Nikbakht, 2011). Therefore, in order for teachers to gain intelligibility as the ultimate aim of teaching pronunciation, its components should be incorporated into the syllabus of English pronunciation.

III. LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS AND THE ROLE OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

The role of pronunciation in language teaching has modified as various teaching methods have come and gone (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996). In the Grammar-Translation method and reading-based approaches, the ultimate aim of teaching and learning was to get a reading knowledge of the target language because literary language was superior to spoken language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Therefore, the basic skills to be expanded were reading and writing and. Grammar and vocabulary were given special importance. Speaking and listening were ignored and pronunciation received almost no attention (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Oral communication was not the main aim of language instruction. Therefore, little attention was given to speaking and pronunciation.

In the Direct Method, oral work is strongly emphasized and pronunciation receives great attention from the beginning of the course (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Pronunciation is taught by intuition and imitation. Students mimic a model

such as a teacher and do their best to be close the model by imitation and repetition. The Reform Movement emphasized the priority of the spoken language over the written language. The reformers considered phonetics as the basis of the study of language and correct pronunciation as the basis of learning. The significance attached to the mastery of accurate pronunciation persuaded teachers and learners to acquire knowledge of phonetics. Therefore, the phoneticians agreed that training teachers and learners in phonetics would result in establishing good pronunciation habits (Finch, 2000; Howatt, 1984).

In Audiolingualism, language was recognized with speech and the oral/aural skills were emphasized (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The mastery of correct pronunciation and grammar of the target language were also greatedened (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Listening and speaking exercises were designed to focus on pronunciation and oral proficiency is connected with accurate pronunciation and grammar (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In the Oral Method, teachers and learners should be phonetically trained and the application of phonetic transcription should be extensive. Teachers and learners should be seriously concerned with the mastery of accurate pronunciation. In the Situational Language Teaching (SLT), language lesson started with the focus on pronunciation. Pronunciation accuracy was considered as important and practice techniques involved guided repetition, substitution activities, and controlled oral-based reading and writing tasks (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The Cognitive Approach considered language as rule-governed behavior rather than habit formation. Grammar and vocabulary were superior than pronunciation because native-like pronunciation was an unreal goal and could not be attained (Scovel, 1969). In the Silent Way, the accuracy of production of both the sounds and structures of the target language is emphasized. The learners' attention is concentrated on the sound system without having to learn a phonetic alphabet or a series of linguistic information (Gattegno, 1976).

In the Community Language Learning (CLL), correct pronunciation receives special attention to the learners. Pronunciation approach in CLL is intuitive-imitative and the only difference is in the content and degree of practice which is learning-centered and controlled by the learner (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996). In Total Physical Response (TPR), students would start to speak when they were ready. They were expected to make errors in the early stage and teachers tolerated them. In Natural Approach, the central focus on listening without pressure to speak gave the learners the chance to internalize the target sound system (Su Tseng Lee, 2008).

The Communicative Approach holds that since the main aim of language is communication, the use of language to communicate should be of the greatest importance in all classroom language instruction. This attention on language as communication is of great urgency to pronunciation instruction, since evidence reveals that there is a threshold level of pronunciation for nonnative speakers; if they fall below this threshold level, they will have oral communication difficulties without paying attention to their excellent grammar and vocabulary (Hinofotis & Bailey, 1980).

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) placed great emphasis on communication rather than the mastery of language forms. The dominance of CLT pushed pronunciation to the sidelines (Jones, 2002). According to Jones (2002), focused instruction on pronunciation is at best useless and at worst harmful. He said that the factors influencing English pronunciation are mainly acquisition variables which cannot be impacted by focused practice and the instruction of formal rules (Jones, 2002).

Generally, the above section demonstrated that the role of pronunciation in the language teaching greatly depends on the kind of methodology used. For example, pronunciation was regarded to be of great importance in the Audiolingual curriculum but its position was decreased in the CLT method. In addition, it is possible to make an accurate guess as to the status of English pronunciation if we know the language teaching method that is used in the classes. For example, if a lesson is related to the principles of SLT, we can expect that the spoken language is viewed as primary and pronunciation is important for the second language skills. Thus, the acceptance or rejection of a specific teaching method by a teacher can be a useful indicator as to the teacher's stance towards English pronunciation.

IV. IS NATIVE-LIKE PRONUNCIATION ACHIEVABLE?

Based on the traditional view, the goal of pronunciation instruction is to eliminate learners' L1 accent. This view is called the nativeness principle which says that it is possible and desirable to attain nativelylike pronunciation in a foreign language (Levis, 2005; Thir, 2016). This view has a profound effect on non-native teachers in order to be good models for their learners (Isaacs, 2014; Thir, 2016)). It has been claimed that the goal of teaching pronunciation should not be the mastery of native speakers' norms, but international intelligibility. As a result, native speakers' accents are no longer seen as the sole suitable pronunciation models and native-like pronunciation is no longer considered as a necessary condition for a good pronunciation teacher (Jenkins, 2000; Thir, 2016; Walker, 2010).

According to Pourhosein Gilakjani (2011), Pourhosein Gilakjani (2016a), and Pourhosein Gilakjani (2016b), the aim of teaching pronunciation is not to attain native-like pronunciation. Instead understandable pronunciation should be the ideal goal of oral communication. Thir (2016) expresses that what teachers need is a certain linguistic and pedagogic knowledge and skills that help them to promote international intelligibility in their classes. Consequently, teacher education should provide teachers with enough training on intelligibility rather than achieving a native speaker accent. According to Levis (2005), native-like pronunciation in a foreign language is only achieved by a small number of adult learners, even if these learners indicate a high level of language proficiency in other areas. The main reasons for the

difficulty of acquiring a native-like accent are not known. The completion of brain lateralization after puberty may make the acquisition of a native-like accent very difficult for adult learners (Lenneberg, 1967; Scovel, 1969).

Some researchers agree that a native-like accent cannot be considered as an attainable aim for adult learners (Dalton & Seidlhofer, 1994b; Levis, 2005; Setter & Jenkins, 2005; Ur, 1996). Some teachers and learners believe in the nativeness principle. As Levis (2005) says that in language classrooms, learners like to get rid of their accents. Many teachers may see some learners who attain a native-like accent as an achievable goal. Therefore, some teachers and learners may be disappointed when they see that they cannot meet their own anticipations. Teachers may think they could not teach pronunciation effectively and blame their learners for the lack of success in learning pronunciation. When adult learners become aware of the difficulty of achieving a native-like accent in English language, may think that they will never be able to succeed in pronunciation learning.

The other problem is that native-like pronunciation puts extra pressure on English teachers who would not be able to achieve a native-like accent in English. Levis et al. (2016) carried out a study and indicated that it is not necessary for teachers to speak with a native-like accent in order to teach English pronunciation effectively. A lot of teachers believe that only a native-like accent will make them good pronunciation teachers for their learners and think that their L1 accent can be a threat to their professional identity (Canagarajah, 1999; Golombek & Jordan, 2005). Consequently, teachers sometimes are worried about teaching pronunciation (Medgyes, 1994; Tang, 1997) which may cause them to prevent from teaching English pronunciation (Murphy, 2014).

V. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION INSTRUCTION

In order to teach pronunciation appropriately and effectively, teachers should

1. know the information about pronunciation. For example, how speakers' mouths move when they produce the sounds of language, and how word stress, rhythm, connected speech, and intonation work.
2. understand and be able to predict the types of difficulties their learners might have with pronunciation and why they occur.
3. know many ways to teach pronunciation to their learners, adapting their methods to fit them and their needs, and helping them practice effectively to overcome any difficulties they might have (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010).
4. use different ways of learning—through sight, sound, and movement—to help learners understand and remember better.
5. keep lessons practical. For a lot of students, technical explanations are difficult to understand and are easily forgotten. Concrete demonstrations followed by a lot of practice produce better outcomes. Lessons should fit learners' level of understanding.
6. teach their learners that slow speech with good pronunciation is much better than fast speech with wrong pronunciation. Learners should know that understandability is more important than fast speech (Rasekhi Kolokdaragh, 2010; Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2016b).
7. include communicative practice whenever possible. Learners should work toward using their new pronunciation in real speech. In the class, teachers should help their learners practice in activities that are similar to the real communication.
8. incorporate pronunciation with oral communication, that is to say, communicative approaches to pronunciation instruction in order for nonnative speakers to communicate both effectively and understandably with native speakers (Morley, 1987; Otlowski, 1998).
9. focus on meaningful practices within communication mode. One good way is to find means of better incorporating pronunciation instruction with other components of instruction (Celce-Murcia & Goodwin, 1991).
10. pay attention to pronunciation-oriented listening instruction (Morley, 1991). According to Gilbert (1984), there is a close relationship between listening comprehension and pronunciation. If speakers do cannot be understood, they are cut off from conversation with the native speakers.
11. use technology for pronunciation instruction such as Computer-Assisted Pronunciation Teaching (CAPT). A lot of researchers have accepted the advantages taken from CAPT pedagogy (Chun, 1989; Hismanoglu, 2006; Pennington, 1988; Pourhossein Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2014a; Pourhossein Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2014b) since it provides learners with a stress-free environment through which they can have access to unlimited input, practice at their own pace and receive instantaneous feedback through the use of Automatic Speech Recognition (ASR).

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, the researcher reviewed some important issues pertinent to English pronunciation instruction. This review paper indicated that pronunciation instruction should concentrate on long-term goals and short-term objectives should be developed with reference to long-term goals. The aim of pronunciation training is to bring learners gradually from controlled-based performance to automatic-based performance. Pronunciation shapes a link to other features of language use like listening, vocabulary, and grammar and the methods of emphasizing this interdependence in instruction should be thoroughly investigated. Intelligible pronunciation is an important part of communicative competence and teachers should urge their learners towards understandable pronunciation not exactly native-like

pronunciation. Therefore, teachers should set attainable aims that are appropriate for the communication needs of learners. They should act as the pronunciation model, give feedback to their learners, and urge them to gradually improve their pronunciation. From the literature review of this paper, it can be concluded that more investigations into the different features of English pronunciation instruction are really needed. This paper will serve to motivate not only teachers and learners, but also all researchers to carry out similar researches designed to expand the knowledge base of this significant area of English language teaching.

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