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Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- Problems and Issues Related to Teaching Japanese to Students with Disabilities: Lessons Learned 1
Carlos L. Pimentel
- Training Japanese Speakers to Identify Nasal Coda of Mandarin Chinese 7
Ruining. Yang, Hiroaki. Nanjo, and Masatake. Danstuji
- Assessing Content in a Curriculum-based EFL Oral Exam: The Importance of Higher-order Thinking Skills 16
Henrik B øhn
- Finnish Children Producing English Vowels — Studying in an English Immersion Class Affects Vowel Production 27
Katja Immonen and Maija S. Peltola
- Foreign Languages and Creativity — The Quiet Connection in a Globalized/Interconnected World 34
How focusing on "deep work" can help foster creativity, and foreign language competency
Kathleen Stein-Smith
- EFL Instructors' Beliefs and Practices of Formative Assessment in Teaching Writing 42
Zelalem Berhanu Guadu and Emily Joy Boersma
- The Use of Contrastive Discourse Markers in Academic Writing by English-major Saudi Female Undergraduates at Qassim University 51
Rehab Hassan Al-Owayid
- Using Audiobooks for Developing Listening Comprehension among Saudi EFL Preparatory Year Students 64
Manal Mohamed Khodary Mohamed
- Pre-service Teachers' Perception of Teaching Future EFL Students: A Micro-ethnography Approach 74
Widya Ratna Kusumaningrum
- Researching Innovations in English Language Writing Instruction: A State-of-the-art Review 80
Weiyu Zhang and Yin Ling Cheung
- Values Implied in the *Wratisasana* Palm Manuscripts as Guideline of Politeness in Language of the Character Education: A Study of Theo-Ethno Pedagogy 90
Relin, I Wayan Rasna, and W.S. Binawati
- The Validity of Hybridity in Derek Walcott's *A Branch of the Blue Nile* 97
Zohreh Ramin and Monireh Arvin
-

A Study on the Intercultural Communicative Competence Cultivation Strategy of International Secretarial Personnel under the Background of Globalization <i>Qiuping Wang</i>	108
Research Material Development of Drama Appreciation Based on Local Wisdom on Student in Indonesian Literature and Language Education Program at Muhammadiyah University of Makassar Indonesia <i>Anzar, Anshari, and Juanda</i>	113
On Translation Strategies of English Movie Titles <i>Zhihong Bai</i>	119
Language Function Used in ELT Textbook Focused on Medical Conversation <i>I Gusti Ayu Agung Dian Susanthi, I Wayan Pastika, Ida Bagus Putra Yadnya, and Made Sri Satyawati</i>	125
Operationalising the Concept of Mediation in L2 Teacher Education <i>Ghasemali Azadi, Reza Biria, and Mehdi Nasri</i>	132
A Study of Humor in Bone Regency: A Socio-pragmatic Review <i>Andi Muhammad Taufiq, Anshari, and Ramly</i>	141
An Analysis of Characteristics and Relationships of the Characters in the Big Bang Theory from the Perspective of Turn-taking Mechanism <i>Tingting Shi</i>	147
Local Wisdom Values in Balinese Folktales That Are Relevant to Character Education for the First Grade at Primary School <i>Relin, Rasna, I. W., and Binawati, W.S</i>	155
The Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Gender on Writing Proficiency of Iranian EFL Learners <i>Zohreh Mohammadi and Siros Izadpanah</i>	164
On the Relationship of Students' English Learning Beliefs and Learning Strategy in the University <i>Zhen Zhou</i>	175
The Efficacy of Pair Interaction in Teaching Communicative English Grammar <i>Suhartina R</i>	181
A Study on the Application of Paraphrase Strategy in the Translation from Chinese to English <i>Yue Yan</i>	192
Research Methods in TEFL Studies: Descriptive Research, Case Study, Error Analysis, and R & D <i>Haryanto Atmowardoyo</i>	197
Incorporating Humor to Develop EFL Learner's Speaking Ability and Willingness to Communicate <i>Ali Akbar Khomejani Farahani and Zahra Abdollahi</i>	205

Problems and Issues Related to Teaching Japanese to Students with Disabilities: Lessons Learned

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Abstract—With increased advancement in assistive technologies, an increased number of students with disabilities are attending postsecondary institutions. This has resulted in more of these students taking foreign language courses either out of interest in the subject or in order to fulfill university or college requirements. While research has shown that some faculty members have received training in providing accommodations to these students, most feel inadequately equipped and unprepared to handle the teaching of such students. The present paper explores the problems and issues associated with teaching Japanese to college students at a large midwestern university with three different disabilities: PTSD, cerebral palsy, and complete visual impairment. The paper discusses problems facing each student as they learned Japanese, challenges for instructors, accommodations provided, and some solutions.

Index Terms—Japanese language pedagogy, disabilities, accommodations, universal design for learning

I. INTRODUCTION

In the United States, the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990, Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, and advances in assistive technologies (AT) have served to diversify the student population at American universities, and make postsecondary education more accessible to those with disabilities. According to the U.S. Department of Education, “colleges and universities are required to provide students with appropriate academic adjustments and auxiliary aids and services that are necessary to afford an individual with a disability an equal opportunity to participate in the school’s program.” Surveys by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) indicate that both in 2007-8 and 2011-12, 11% of undergraduates reported having at least one disability (U.S. Dept. of Ed.). Despite increasing numbers of students with disabilities enrolling in colleges and universities, a survey by Leyser, Vogel, Wyland and Brulle (1998) revealed that more than 40% of faculty felt they had limited knowledge of how to accommodate students, 55% lacked familiarity of their institution’s services and resources for students with disabilities, and 82% said they had limited or no training in addressing the needs of these students. According to West, Kregel, Getzel, Zhu, Ipsen and Martin (1993) a lack of understanding regarding accommodations, and how to implement them, can create obstacles for students with disabilities in colleges and universities. Lewis and Farrell (1999) point out that postsecondary institutions have provided some training for faculty, however there is still a lack of research regarding the specific problems and issues that students with disabilities have in specific disciplines of study. In particular, there is a paucity of research in the United States on the problems and issues associated with teaching foreign languages to students with disabilities. This paper will discuss problems, issues, and lessons learned related to teaching Japanese to students with three types of disabilities.

Recent research dealing with Japanese language instruction to students with disabilities involves case studies by researchers at Japanese universities whose students are exchange students from other countries. Kanayama’s (2003) study describes the accommodations made, and the teaching materials used at International Christian University for the university’s first visually impaired student enrolled in a summer language program. Kanayama and her colleagues used tape recordings, Japanese Braille, and screen reading software to teach the student the sounds of Japanese. Tanaka’s (2006) study at Tsukuba University also describes the accommodations made for a visually impaired Japanese language learner attending an intermediate reading class. She states that the student requested that she be sent copies of the teaching materials by e-mail in advance, and that the instructors mention specific objects while teaching rather than using deictic pronouns such as *kore* (‘this’) and *sore* (‘that’). The student also asked the instructors to “speak aloud anything they wrote on the blackboard.” Nakagawa (2009) details the challenges associated with teaching elementary Japanese to a student with attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). A common challenge for the researchers and educators at these institutions has been the lack of knowledge of the incoming students’ disabilities, thus leading to an inability to gather the resources necessary to provide the proper accommodations. These Japanese educators expect to follow the lead of the instructors in the students’ home institutions with respect to how accommodations are handled, but more often than not, there is a lack of sharing of information that often leads to instructors having to extemporaneously modify lesson plans, instruction methods, learning assessments, and learning outcomes. Furthermore,

in 2016 Japan began enforcement of the law known as *Shōgaisha Sabetsu Kaishōhō* (障害者差別解消法) banning discrimination against persons with disabilities and mandating that public and private institutions provide these individuals with reasonable accommodations. This has prompted Japanese institutions to look for further guidance from the institutions where their exchange students are coming from.

The following three sections of the paper report on the case studies of three students studying Japanese at a large university in the Midwestern United States. Each student has been studying Japanese for at least one year, and has expressed interest in studying on a yearlong exchange program in Japan. All of the students were registered with the campus Office of Disability Services for Students (DSS) and so instructors were aware of the accommodations for each student at the beginning of the semester. The course curriculum followed a communicative, student-centered pedagogical approach emphasizing the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The students were in a fifteen-week course that met four times per week for fifty minutes each. The average class size was twenty students. The typical student in the Japanese language program began their Japanese learning with no prior knowledge of the language before entering the university. This is the case for the three students that will be discussed. The instructors were a mix of experienced Japanese language professors and part-time instructional staff. The textbooks used were Banno, Ikeda, Ohno, Shinagawa and Tokashiki's *Genki I (2nd edition)* (2011) and *Genki II (2nd edition)* (2011). The case studies discuss the problems facing each student as they learned Japanese, the challenges for instructors, and the accommodations provided. The final section offers some solutions and unrealized benefits that a Universal Design for Learning (UDL) approach to teaching can offer to future students with similar disabilities.

II. CASE STUDY 1: "JOHN"

John was a 2nd-year Japanese major, and Iraq and Afghanistan war veteran who suffers from Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). His performance in his Japanese language classes was below average. His PTSD led to insomnia resulting in his inability to wake up in time to attend his Japanese classes. Furthermore, he suffers from anxiety and found it difficult to speak in Japanese in front of the other students. Many of the in-class activities focused heavily on speaking, and thus it became difficult for instructors to adequately assess his oral performance in the target language. In terms of accommodations, John was given double the amount of time to complete his exams, was allowed to tape lectures, and was allowed to take exams in a separate testing room at DSS. He was also allowed to miss up to 5 homework assignments per semester, and up to 5 class days without being penalized.¹ When John came to class his PTSD made it such that he would have to sit close to the door, and he felt more comfortable when the door was open. Despite the door being behind him in the classroom, he often seemed distracted—periodically look over his shoulder toward it. The separate testing room allowed John to take the extra time needed to complete his exams, and it also made him feel more at ease since he could take his exam with the door open. This also allowed the other students to take their exams in the classroom undisturbed from possible outside noise.

John's difficulty in communicating in Japanese in front of others made it difficult to adequately grade his spoken performance during in-class pair practice exercises, and during the times when he had to perform a dialogue with another student. The dialogue performances were 15% of the students' final grade, and so he was anxious about not being able to adequately perform them. Students were graded on a 1 to 5 scale based on their fluency, naturalness of pronunciation, and ability to memorize the dialogue.

John's biggest challenge was that he would appear visibly anxious and then freeze in the middle of the performance without continuing to the end. In the beginning of the semester the instructor thought that he might be freezing up because he had failed to fully memorize the dialogue. John insisted that he had memorized it but that his PTSD was the cause for his anxiety. The instructors then made another accommodation, and allowed him to perform the dialogues with them during scheduled office hours. In the instructor's office John seemed more at ease, he was able to completely perform the dialogues, and his grade subsequently improved.

III. CASE STUDY 2: "SAMANTHA"

Samantha was a 3rd-year Japanese minor who has cerebral palsy and a speech impediment. As in the case of John, her performance in her Japanese language classes has been below average. Her cerebral palsy makes it difficult to process sounds, and she often needed to have phrases be repeated to her many times. The combination of her cerebral palsy and speech impediment made it difficult to assess her performance during speaking tests. During the tests she was usually presented with a context that would be used to elicit the most recent grammar and vocabulary that she learned. She often took more time than the other students to produce sentences. She was always given extra time to provide her oral responses, however, as with John, the instructors sometimes could not tell if she needed extra time because she had not fully memorized the material, or because of her disability. This was especially the case since there were certain days when her performance was markedly better than others.

Samantha also had difficulty pronouncing Japanese words containing double consonant sounds such as *kekkon* ("marriage") and *motto* ("more"). When she did she would often stutter at the beginning of the word resulting in her

¹ As per the attendance and homework policies in the course syllabus, students were allowed to miss up to four days of class and up to four homework assignments without penalty.

inability to fully pronounce the double consonant sound. Thus, *kekkon* and *motto* sounded like *kekon* and *moto*. In terms of auditory recognition she was able to recognize which words had double consonant sounds and which did not. This was confirmed when she was asked to write out words containing double consonants using the kana syllabary. Having realized this, her instructors then did not penalize her for making pronunciation errors such as these during the oral portion of her exams.

In speaking with her outside of class, she mentioned that she often looked at the mouths of her instructors and the other students to help her process the sounds of new vocabulary words. She then mentioned that it might be helpful if the instructors videotaped close-ups of their mouths while pronouncing new vocabulary words and phrases. The instructors agreed that this was a good idea and are currently making those videos. The series does not have a video component showing native speakers performing the dialogues in the texts, and so students must rely solely on in-class instruction and the audio files that accompany the textbook to acquire the sounds of Japanese.

IV. CASE STUDY 3: “XAVIER”

Xavier is a 4th-year Japanese major who is congenitally blind, and began his study of Japanese language without any previous knowledge. His performance in his Japanese language classes has been on par with the top students in the class. He is also the first student that we had with a complete visual impairment. One of the initial problems facing instructors dealt with how to effectively plan lessons. Most of the instructors’ lesson plans involved the heavy use of PowerPoint slides and photos to create contexts and situations designed to elicit previously learned Japanese. In order to convey the situations on the slides to Xavier, we had the other students explain what was on the slides in Japanese, or read the Japanese material on the blackboard. Instructors would also speak aloud any writing they did on the blackboard. Xavier was also given the materials that we would use in class ahead of time so that he could review them and prepare for each day’s lesson.

Another problem that needed to be addressed was how to relay the textbook information to him. Xavier relies on the VoiceOver program in his Mac computer’s operating system to read him materials in Japanese from websites, Microsoft Word files, and PDF files without pictures. Since Xavier was accustomed to using Word files to submit his assignments in other classes, we decided that this would be the best format for him to take quizzes, exams, and submit his homework assignments. He was able to obtain PDF copies of some of the textbooks, but not all, and in those cases the instructors had to copy the contents of the textbook into a Microsoft Word file so that the VoiceOver program could read it to him. This proved to be an extremely time consuming process that resulted in the hiring of a student-worker. The worker was a Japanese major who was in a more advance level than Xavier. He was paid to copy the text into a Word file, and also to describe any pictures that accompanied exercises in the textbook or workbook so that the context was clear enough for Xavier to successfully complete the exercises.

One example is from an exercise in Banno, Ikeda, Ohno, Shinagawa and Tokashiki’s (2011) *Genki II (2nd edition)*—the textbook that Xavier’s class was using. The exercise shows a picture of two activities that a textbook character named Michiko is engaged in. It calls for the learners to describe them using the grammar point *ながら (-nagara)*, which is used to describe two actions occurring simultaneously as in the sentence, “Michiko does X while doing Y.” In the example picture, Michiko is seen watching television with a book open in front of her and a pencil in her hand so that it seems that she is also studying. The textbook shows sentences (1) and (2) below as being the two possible sentences used to describe the simultaneous actions in the picture.

1. terebi-o mi-nagara benkyoo shimasu
television-ACC watch-while study do²
'(Michiko) studies while watching television.'
2. benkyoo shi-nagara terebi-o mimasu
study do-while television-ACC watch
'(Michiko) watches television while studying.'

The example shows that when presented with a picture that is devoid of any other context either sentence is possible. However, the order of the activities both in English and in Japanese does affect how the activities rank compared to each other. Jordan and Noda (1990) explain that “while” in English differs from *-nagara* in Japanese in that the activity preceding *-nagara* is the subordinate activity, and the activity following *-nagara* is the primary activity, whereas in English, the activity preceding “while” is usually the primary activity, and the activity following “while” is the subordinate activity. The *Genki II* textbook does not mention this difference, and the Japanese instructors did not teach this difference to the students.

Hypothetically, this lack of explicit information could lead visually impaired students such as Xavier to acquire the order of the verbs in the *-nagara* construction in three ways. They could either: (i) consider the order to be interchangeable regardless of the way the picture descriptions were explained to them (i.e. as per the example given in sentences (1)-(2) above), (ii) show a tendency to mimic the order of the verbs in the picture descriptions given to them, or (iii) attribute a main and subordinate rank to the activities and produce sentences accordingly, regardless of the ordering of the picture description sentences.

² In this paper ACC and TOP stand for accusative case particle and topic particle respectively.

Picture Description A: *Michiko is shown brushing her teeth. There is a radio playing music in the background.*

3. ha-o migaki-nagara ongaku-o kiiteimasu
teeth-ACC brush-while music-ACC is listening
'(Michiko) is listening to music while brushing her teeth.'

Picture Description B: *Michiko is eating breakfast. She is also reading a newspaper.*

4. asagohan-o tabe-nagara shinbun-o yondeimasu
breakfast-ACC eat-while newspaper-ACC is reading
'(Michiko) is reading a newspaper while eating breakfast.'

Picture Description C: *Michiko is singing. She is also washing dishes.*

5. uta-o utai-nagara osara-o aratteimasu
song-ACC sing-while dishes-ACC is washing
'(Michiko) is washing dishes while singing.'

Picture Description D: *Michiko is watching a movie. She is also eating popcorn.*

6. eiga-o mi-nagara poppukoon-o tabeteimasu
movie-ACC see-while popcorn-ACC is eating
'(Michiko) is watching a movie while eating popcorn.'

Sentences (3)-(6) are the Japanese sentences that Xavier produced based on the picture descriptions he was given. All of the sentences illustrate the equivalent pattern whereby the activity phrase preceding the *-nagara* clause corresponded with the first sentence listed in the picture description followed by the second activity phrase corresponding to the second sentence listed. In comparison, although all of the students were shown—through the textbook example given—that grammatically, either order was possible, the sighted classmates showed a tendency to produce sentences consistent with a primary and subordinate rank attribution. For example, when asked by the author, most of the sighted students said they treated the teeth brushing in sentence (3), the breakfast eating in sentence (4), the dish washing in sentence (5), and the movie watching in sentence (6) to be the main activity with the other activities being the subordinate ones. Interestingly, the students who made these ranked the activities in this way, followed the English word order in their Japanese sentences whereby the main activity preceded the *-nagara* clause, and the subordinate activity followed it. When Xavier was asked for his rationale for producing the sentences that he did, he also mentioned attributing a primary and subordinate ranking to the activities, however, he admitted that he felt that he needed to follow the order of the activities as they were presented in the picture descriptions. After learning the difference between the order in English in Japanese, he was able to produce his own sentences reflective of the natural Japanese order.

The lessons learned here are that it took the examination of a blind student's work to realize two important things: (1) there was a lack of instruction with respect to the critical difference between English and Japanese "while" constructions that needed to be addressed, and (2) the way in which visual information (pictures) is translated into words can sometimes influence how visually impaired students acquire the target language.

Writing Chinese characters (kanji) in Japanese presents another set of challenges for visually impaired students. In order to write in kanji using Microsoft Word, one switches the keyboard language from Romanization to the hiragana syllabary and then after a particular word or words is typed, the spacebar is used to toggle through a selection of kanji that represent those word(s). The return key is then hit to select that appropriate kanji. In this way, sight is required to choose the correct Chinese characters that go along with a particular word, however, despite never having seen the characters, Xavier's writing is accurate over 90 percent of the time. This is because most of the words that he switches from hiragana to kanji can be found after clicking the spacebar only once. This is the pattern he has followed when writing in Japanese. At the elementary level of Japanese this posed little problem, however, his mistakes increased as he moved to higher levels. The following is the result of an inadvertent error that Xavier made when translating the sentence in (7a) from English to Japanese.

7a. The mother made her children go to church.

- b. *母は 子供を 協会に 行かせた。³
Haha-wa kodomo-o kyookai-ni ikaseta
Mother-TOP children-ACC association-to made go
'The mother made her children go to the association.'

- c. 母は 子供を 教会に 行かせた。
Haha-wa kodomo-o kyookai-ni ikaseta
Mother-TOP children-ACC church-to made go
'The mother made her children go to church.'

Sentence (7a) shows the sentence that was to be translated into Japanese, and (b) shows Xavier's incorrect response. Sentence (7c) shows the correct translation. The only difference between (7b) and (7c) is the kanji associated with the word *kyookai*; a homonym in the Japanese language. Therefore, Xavier input the hiragana correctly and afterward made the incorrect kanji selection, but was unaware of it since the word that was read to him by the VoiceOver software has a

³ An asterisk (*) indicates that the sentence is ungrammatical.

sound identical to that of the correct kanji variant.⁴ Another problem with the Microsoft Word Japanese input software for the visually impaired is that once a kanji selection is chosen—either correct or incorrect—that selection will then appear at the top of the list of choices from that point forward when the same hiragana word is again selected for conversion into kanji. Thus the probability of continuing to make the same error within the context of a single assignment or piece of writing increases for students who cannot see the text. Pimentel and Kondo (2015) point out that there is a software program called PC-Talker that reads out each kanji on the screen and provides more information about the meaning of each character allowing a visually impaired reader to distinguish between characters with the same pronunciation. However, it is designed for Japanese native speakers, and so the explanations of the different characters would be beyond the skill level of a Japanese learner at the intermediate level.

In terms of accommodations, Xavier was given extra time for his exams and in-class written assignments, was allowed to tape lectures, and was allowed to submit all of his work via a Microsoft Word document. Due to his inability to visually distinguish between the various Japanese homonyms and the particular kanji associated with each, he was never penalized for making such errors, however the following is an example of an error that he did make where he did not receive an accommodation. Xavier was tasked with translating the following sentence into Japanese: “I can travel alone.” The translation that he gave is in (8a) below.

- 8a. *一人で 良好 できます。
 Hitori-de ryookoo dekimasu
 Alone-by good can do
 *‘I can by myself good.’
- b. 一人で 旅行 できます。
 Hitori-de ryokoo dekimasu
 Alone-by travel can do
 ‘I can travel by myself.’

Xavier’s error was in his production of the word for “travel” in Japanese, which is *ryokoo*, however, he typed it into Microsoft Word as *ryookoo*. Since he added an extra vowel sound, the wrong kanji combination appeared thereby giving the wrong meaning. Afterward, when he was made aware of his error, he said that he had initially learned the sounds of the word incorrectly and thought that the word for ‘travel’ consisted of a long vowel sound in the first syllable of the word. Any time he has made such errors, he is immediately informed, and has done well to correct his mistakes.

V. HOW A UNIVERSAL DESIGN FOR LEARNING APPROACH CAN HELP

The case studies above describe the problems facing students with disabilities in the Japanese classroom and the countermeasures that were taken to ameliorate some of those problems. Most of these took the form of some kind of accommodation (e.g. extra time for testing, a relaxation of the attendance policy, allowing the use of MS Word file homework submissions, etc.). Therefore, changes to the courses policies were taken as a direct result of having students with disabilities in the classroom. However, creating courses with these students in mind from the beginning could provide benefits to all types of learners. Rose, Hasselbring, and Zabala (2005) describe the universal design approach as one where we, “create products and/or environments that are designed, from the outset, to accommodate individuals with a wider range of abilities and disabilities than can be accommodated by traditional applications. Rather than retrofitting ramps to existing buildings, the universal design movement in architecture educated architects in how to design buildings that are inherently accessible.” The consequences of doing so inevitably end up benefiting a larger and more general population. For example, a building originally designed with ramps at the entrances and exits, serves to not only make the building more accessible to people with wheelchairs, but also makes it so for parents with strollers, people walking on crutches, and the elderly.

This idea of inherent accessibility is the foundation for designing courses and curricula with a Universal Design for Learning (UDL) approach in mind. When we design courses with all students—regardless of ability—in mind, from the outset, we make the material we are trying to convey more generally accessible. The case studies above show that UDL strategies, if implemented, could help disabled students and potentially benefit all students. Samantha was a student who wanted to view video close-ups of her instructors’ mouths as they pronounced Japanese. Showing these videos to all students could foster a better understanding of the manner and place of articulation in the mouth that is involved when producing the sounds of Japanese. Furthermore, by having students describe pictures to Xavier, and having them read information to him in class, they are incidentally developing their speaking and reading skills in the target language. Moreover, in this case, since the receiver of the information is blind, the students have to make a conscious effort to explain the material accurately, in as much detail as possible. This allows instructors to continue the lesson in a student-centered mode of teaching.

Implementation of these strategies has the even further benefit of making instructors aware of potential problems and deficits in our existing designs and teaching materials that might affect all of our students. In the case of Xavier, it was

⁴ It should be mentioned that when switching the word *kyookai* from hiragana to kanji in Microsoft Word, the first kanji that can be selected is the one meaning ‘church’ (教会). The second that appears is the one meaning ‘association’ (協会) and thus Xavier must have inadvertently hit the space bar key twice when writing his sentence.

description of the pictures in the textbook that led instructors to the realization that a crucial difference between Japanese and English was not addressed in the textbook. Xavier's responses in sentences (3)-(6) in section IV also serve to remind us that we must be constantly mindful of the manner in which we present information to our students. John's case teaches us that sometimes a change in setting might be necessary for our students to perform at their best.

VI. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this paper has looked at the problems associated with teaching Japanese to students with various disabilities. With the increased advancement of assistive technologies, an increased number of diverse students will be taking language classes out of interest or even to simply fulfill college and university requirements. Much more research in the fields of second language acquisition and applied linguistics must be done in order to help these students achieve their maximum potential in language classes. Finally, it is important not to forget that all students possess their own original motivations and reasons for taking our language courses. When planning courses and curricula, sometimes our perceptions of our students' limitations put us in danger of falsely assuming what those original motivations might be. As the author can attest, when Xavier was first taught Japanese, the assumption was that he would not be interested in learning about how Japanese and Chinese characters are written since he could not see them. This was actually far from the case. He mentioned to his instructors that learning Chinese and Japanese characters was a primary motivation for him to study Japanese language. Furthermore, he went on to take Chinese language courses, and participated in a Chinese calligraphy course. Learning to acknowledge disability while looking beyond it; this is a valuable lesson indeed.

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Training Japanese Speakers to Identify Nasal Codas of Mandarin Chinese

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Abstract—The aim of this study is to examine the effect of high variability training on “-n” and “-ng” in Mandarin Chinese. 46 Japanese native speakers who study Mandarin Chinese as a second foreign language at a university in Japan were divided into one experimental group and one control group. Participants assigned to the experimental group trained themselves using software, which was developed in our early research. Participants in the control group took Chinese lessons normally. Identification tasks (ITs) were conducted before and after the training. After 12 sessions, the average identification accuracy of nasal codas increased 7.1% ($p < .05$) in the experimental group, however, decreased 1.2% ($p > .05$) in the control group. Results of the training process prove that the training was effective for some participants, while had little effect on other participants. From the questionnaires, we found that there is a disagreement between the participants' subjective ability to identify nasal codas and the actual identification accuracy in ITs. Participants underestimate their ability to identify “-n” and “-ng” before training and overestimate their ability to identify “-n” and “-ng” after training. We made a formula to predict the accuracy of ITs (y) in the last 4 training sessions (x): $y = 2.13x^2 - 2.35x + 1.23$. This formula will help participants to grasp the training process and predict their identification ability.

Index Terms—Japanese speaker, nasal coda, Mandarin Chinese, training

I. INTRODUCTION

Second language (L2) learners usually face difficulties in distinguishing L2 contrastive phonetic sounds (Best & Strange, 1992; Guion, Flege, Yamada & Pruitt, 2000; Best, McRoberts & Goodell, 2001), in the case that the L2 contrastive phonetic sounds are both categorized to a single first language (L1) phoneme (Aoyama, Flege, Guion, Yamada.T & Yamada.R, 2004). In L2 learning, it is a significant issue for L2 learners to notice the differences between such phonetic sounds and distinguish them properly. This paper addresses how to train Japanese native speakers to be able to distinguish these kinds of L2 contrastive sounds.

There are studies that try to train Japanese English learners to identify such L2 sound pairs, specifically, English r and l (e.g., Lively, Pisoni, Akahane-Yamada, Thokura & Yamada, 1994; Bradlow, Pisoni, Akahane-Yamada, Thokura, 1997). Also, we can find studies about training a tonal contrast of Mandarin Chinese (e.g., Wang, Spence, Jongman & Sereno, 1999; Wang, Jongman & Sereno, 2003; Li, 2016), and pitch-accent patterns in Tokyo Japanese (e.g., Shport, 2016). They demonstrate that perceptual training could be effective in helping L2 learners to discriminate the confusing contrasts. In this paper, we deal with the training of L2 contrasts, with a particular focus on nasal codas in Mandarin Chinese.

In Mandarin Chinese, there are two types of nasal codas, “-n [n]” and “-ng [ŋ].” Both nasals always appear after a single vowel or a diphthong in the coda position. The discrimination of these two nasal codas is very clear in Mandarin Chinese and the misuse of nasal codas sometimes brings about the confusion in understanding. For instance, suppose we pronounce the word “bú xìn” as “bú xing,” the meaning of the utterance would be “unhappiness” rather than “do not believe.” The wrong pronunciation causes misunderstandings in communication. Thus, the discrimination of nasal codas is quite significant; however, less attention is paid to the contrast of “-n” and “-ng” in Mandarin Chinese.

A few studies have explored the issue of nasal codas from different perspectives. For example, Nozawa & Cheon (2012) verified the identification of nasals in a coda position by native speakers of American English, Korean and Japanese. They compare Japanese speakers' identification accuracy of final syllable non-native nasals to that of English and Korean speakers. They report that Japanese speakers have lower identification accuracy, and they identified [ŋ] most poorly; [ŋ] is often mis-recognized as [n]. In Japanese, [ŋ] is always an allophone of the phoneme /N/ and [n] is also an allophone of /N/ (Hatori, 1984, Hokama & Sagawa, 1984); thus, Japanese speakers may recognize [ŋ] as [n]. Aoyama (2003) reported that Japanese speakers had difficulty in discriminating [ŋ] from [n] at the final position of

syllable. The results of these study indicated that the L1 phonology of listeners strongly affects the identification of nasals in the coda position. Likewise, Japanese native speakers have difficulty in perceiving the nasal codas of Mandarin Chinese.

Ren (2006) reports perception experiment results for 50 Japanese speakers who learn Mandarin Chinese. The learners leaned to perceive “-ng” as “-n.” Wang (2002) reports the relationship between perception and production with Mandarin Chinese nasal codas. In both the perception and production experiments, the identification accuracy of “-ng” exceeds that of “-n.” In perception experiments, Japanese learners of Mandarin Chinese tended to perceive “-n” as “-ng.” As just described, most of the previous research focused on the characteristics in the process of perceiving nasal codas and tried to investigate the error patterns of Japanese native speakers, and few research proposed an effective solution regarding the ability to discriminate between “-n” and “-ng” for Japanese native speakers. This is the first study to examine the effect of high variability phonetic training of Mandarin Chinese nasal codas “-n” and “-ng” for Japanese native speakers.

A high variability training paradigm was first introduced by Logan, Lively & Pisoni (1991), which uses a variable sound stimulus consisting of a lot of phonetic environments with different talkers. Lively, Pisoni, Akahane-Yamada, Thokura & Yamada.T (1993) extends the findings of Logan, Lively & Pisoni (1991), and suggest that the high variability training paradigm encourages a long-term modification of listeners’ phonetic perception. Training is not only limited to segmental features, but also suprasegmental features. For example, Wang, Spence, Jongman & Sereno (1999) train American listeners to perceive Mandarin tones and show that the training leads to an improvement of 21%, and it is effective. Shport (2016) trains native English listeners on Tokyo Japanese pitch-accent contrasts and verifies that the training leads to a greater improvement than mere exposure. These studies verify that a high variability training paradigm is effective in aiding L2 learners to discriminate between confusing contrasts. However, most of the previous studies just focus on the total improvement for the duration of the training, and pay little attention to the learning process of the participants. In this study, we investigate the training process of the participants and observe the characteristics during the training sessions.

Based on this background, in this paper, we investigate the issues as follows:

- (1) Can Japanese speakers learning Mandarin Chinese improve their ability to perceive nasal codas “-n” and “-ng” via the high variability training, and how do they improve during the training process?
- (2) Can an L2 learner understand his/her own identification ability of nasal codas “-n” and “-ng” appropriately?
- (3) Is it possible to predict an L2 learner’s identification ability at each training stage? If possible, we, as L2 learners, understand our own abilities and this should help us to recognize when we should finish the training.

There is no research that investigates the above three issues, and our research is novel in terms of above three points. We discuss the efficacy of the training to different learning levels of Mandarin Chinese, which is also original research.

In this paper, in section II, we describe the procedure and the preparatory work of the study. In section III, we introduce the experiments and results, giving the answers to the first research question. In section IV, we discuss the questionnaire and answer the second research question. In section V, we make a formula to predict the ability of distinguishing nasal codas during the training and answer the third research question. Finally, we conclude in section VI.

II. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

In this paper, we train Japanese native speakers so that they can discriminate the nasal codas “-n” and “-ng” of Mandarin Chinese. In this section, first of all we describe the procedure, and then, the Chinese utterances (stimuli) and training/testing software which we developed and used in the experiments are described. Also, the specification of participants in the training is described.

A. Procedure

We recruit Japanese native speakers as participants. First, they are asked to take part in the first identification task (IT-1) of “-n” and “-ng,” and to answer a background questionnaire. Then, participants are divided into two groups: an experimental group and a control group. Participants assigned to the experimental group are asked to train themselves with our developed training software (Yang, Nanjo & Dantsuji, 2017), which is described in section C. In the training period, they are required to work on the assignment 12 times. In this paper, we call everyday practice (assignment) a “session.” Thus, the participants in the experimental group tackle 12 sessions in total. In every session, they first take a pre-test about “-n” and “-ng” identification, and then work on their discrimination abilities by listening to Chinese utterances (stimuli), and after the training, they take an identification test again (post-test). After the training period, participants assigned to the control group join the participants of the experimental group, and they take part in the second identification task (IT-2).

B. Stimuli

The stimuli used in the training are isolated utterances of one syllable (monosyllables) that could exist in Mandarin Chinese, all of which end with nasal codas. The reasons why we chose monosyllables as training stimuli are as follows. First, monosyllables easily cover real words and pseudo words. Second, monosyllables are not easily influenced by

tones. If we use disyllables, we have to consider the influence of tones on the first syllable and the second syllable. Tones may influence the results of the identification tasks (ITs); in this study all the stimuli are pronounced in the first tone. Third, if real disyllable words are applied in the test, participants may infer the characters of the words and judge these disyllables from Pinyin. There are many possibilities of characters that are equivalent to monosyllables, but limited combinations of characters for disyllables.

The total number of sound stimuli is 173. The stimuli were digitally recorded using a TASCAM HD-P2 recorder in a sound-proof room with a sampling rate of 44,100 Hz. Three female native speakers and two male native speakers of Mandarin Chinese produced the stimuli (the three female native speakers are from Hebei Province, Shanxi Province and Heilongjiang Province, the two male native speakers are from Hebei Province and Beijing). All the producers of the stimuli are from areas in which nasal codas “-n” and “-ng” were discriminated clearly. We asked another 10 native speakers of Mandarin Chinese who are all from North China to judge “-n” and “-ng” for all the recorded stimuli, and we found that there was no problem with the stimuli.

The utterances of three native speakers (two females and a male) were selected as training stimuli and the utterances of the two remaining native speakers were used as stimuli of the ITs. In the ITs, 25 syllables were selected as test stimuli. Each stimulus was presented six times randomly; thus, the numbers of stimuli for the ITs is 150.

C. Training Software

To conduct the ITs and training sessions, we used our training software (Yang, Nanjo & Dantsuji, 2017). The training software runs on a Windows operating system as a GUI (Graphical User Interface) program. Users are instructed to listen to a Chinese syllable and to identify the final consonant in each utterance. There are two modes: a test mode and a practice mode. Both modes only allow users to click buttons, and the sounds in both modes can be replayed as many times as the users need. There was no problem with the usability of the training software (Yang, Nanjo & Dantsuji, 2017). Unlike our previous training software setup (Yang, Nanjo & Dantsuji, 2017), the number of utterances in the test mode is set to 20 to estimate the user’s “-n/-ng” discrimination ability more effectively. Also, as for the difference to previous setup, we adopted three native speakers to increase a variability of the training stimuli.

There are 20 utterances in both the pre-test and the post-test and a two-alternative forced-choice IT is applied in the training session. Users might remember the order and give correct answers even if they cannot actually discriminate between “-n” and “-ng.” Therefore, in the training software, the utterances in the pre-test and post-test are shown randomly.

The training software is also used for testing, that is, IT-1 and IT-2. In the ITs, the number of utterances is 150 (25 syllables × 6 times).

D. Participants

We recruited 48 Japanese native speakers as participants. They are undergraduate students taking Chinese as a foreign language class at a public university in Japan: Kyoto University. They received rewards for their participation. The summary of the experiments is given in Table 1. The number in the experimental group and the control group is 16 and 30, respectively. Eleven participants in the experimental group are beginner students who have been learning Mandarin Chinese for about only 1 to 2 months at IT-1, which is conducted before the training period. The other 5 participants are intermediate students who have been learning Mandarin Chinese for about 1 year at IT-1. The 30 participants in the control group are all beginners. At their Chinese class (beginners’ class), the pronunciation and perception of Mandarin Chinese syllables is the main task for the first month. They have learned Pinyin—the Latin alphabet to show how to read a Chinese character—as a basis. All the participants received their knowledge of Mandarin Chinese from the same teacher; the instruction on nasal codas was conducted in a class.

The participants assigned to the experimental group are required to train themselves using the training software, which is installed on a CD-ROM. The participants are allowed to conduct their training at any place and any time. They are obliged to take 12 sessions during the training period (23rd May–7th June). The session duration is set to 15 minutes, which our software calculates and shows on a computer screen with the date of the training session. They are also obliged to send their training results to the author by email after each session. Specifically, screen shots of pre-test and post-test results, which our software automatically generates including the “-n/-ng” discrimination score and the date and time, are required to be submitted.

TABLE 1.
SUMMARY OF THE EXPERIMENTS

		Training Experiments	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
Procedure	Identification Task(IT-1) 150 stimuli	✓	✓
	Training Each session	✓	N/A
	➤ Pre-test (20 stimuli) ➤ Practice (15 mins) ➤ Post-test (20 stimuli)	12 sessions During 23 rd May to 7 th June 2016	
	Identification Task(IT-2) 150 stimuli	✓	✓
Participants		16 (11 beginners and 5 intermediates)	30 (all beginners)

III. EXPERIMENTS

A. Results of the Experimental Group and the Control Group

For the experimental group, the identification accuracy of IT-1 was 57.3%. After the 12 training sessions, the identification accuracy of IT-2 increased to 64.4%. The paired sample *t*-test was used in these results and there was a significant difference between the identification accuracy. For the control group, the identification accuracy of IT-1 was 55.1%, and the identification accuracy of IT-2 was 53.9%. Contrary to increasing, the identification accuracy decreased a little. However, there was not a significant difference between the identification accuracy in the two ITs. The statistical results are given in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
THE STATISTICAL RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP

	Accuracy	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Effect size
Experimental group	57.3–64.4%	2.2498	15	0.0399	0.56245
Control group	55.2–53.9%	-1.3907	29	0.1749	

The high variability training paradigm in this study is effective for some Japanese speakers, while it seems to have a little effect on other participants. Twelve participants in the experimental group obtained an increase in the scores from IT-1 to IT-2. However, with regard to those participants whose identification accuracy ranged within 1%, it is difficult to say whether they made progress or regressed. Due to limitations of space, some typical cases are given below. For example, participant J made a great improvement from 45.3% to 93.3%. His training results are given in Fig.1. Rise and fall could be seen during the training period. In each training session, it was not necessary for participants to see an improvement after the training. Training results were analyzed every four sessions. The average accuracy increased gradually and remained stable from the sixth training onwards. When the standard deviation became smaller, the perceptual ability of “-n” and “-ng” also increased to a stable level.

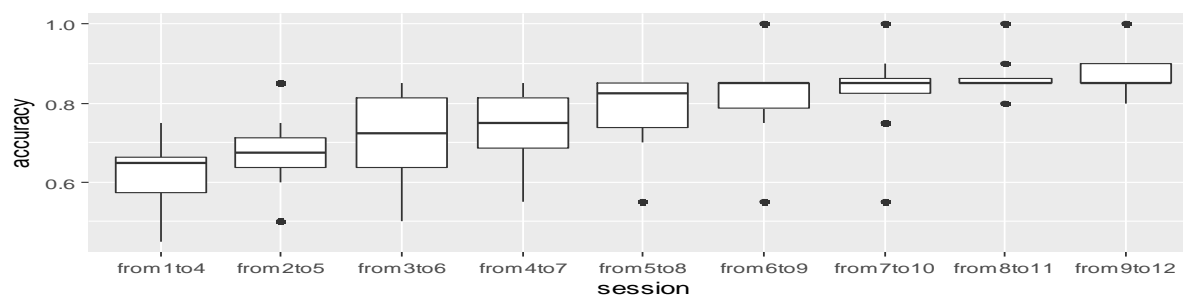


Figure 1. Training results of participant J

Boxplots: box region indicates the interquartile range; whiskers extend to extreme values; solid bar indicates the median; solid circle indicates the outlier.

However, from the training results of participant P (Fig. 2), we know it is not necessarily effective for every participant. The results of the post-tests did not show a great improvement, and the identification accuracy of 150 items in IT decreased from 58.7% to 54.0%.

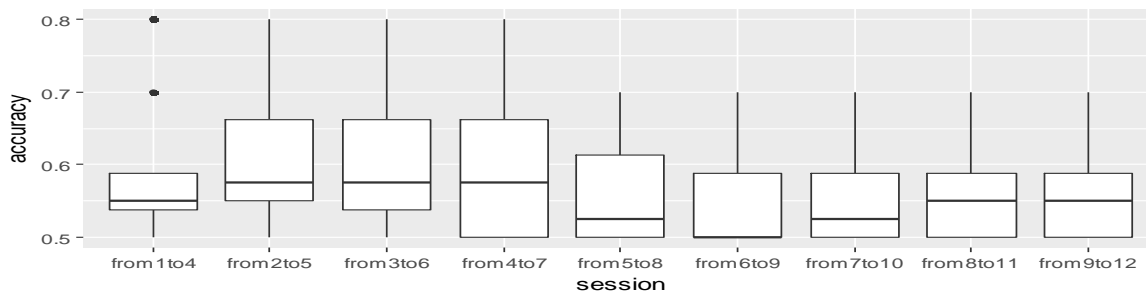


Figure 2. Training results of participant P
Boxplots: Conventions as in Figure 1.

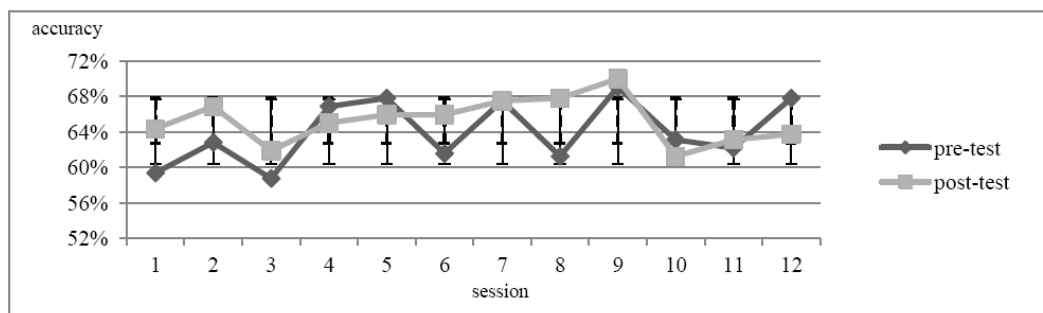


Figure 3. The average identification accuracy of training session
Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean.

The average identification accuracy of all the participants in every training session is shown in Fig 3. Average identification accuracy increased from 59.4% to 63.8%. During all the training sessions, the highest identification accuracy reached 70% after training. In the pre-tests, the identification accuracy was unsteady, rise and fall could be seen in almost every training session. We found that identification accuracy returned to the original level every few times. In Perrachione, Lee, Ha & Wong (2011) and Iverson, Hazan & Bannister (2005), although with some decrease occasionally, the results of training increased gradually. As regards our study, after 12 training sessions, a stable increasing curve has not been seen from the data. Training results may be related to the conditions of the participants, After the 12 training sessions, participants were still in the process of a slow beginning, there is no sign of steep acceleration. With the training period extended, participants may make more progress than before. However, it is difficult for participants to understand which stage they are in simply based on these unstable training results.

B. Error Patterns

To investigate if there is any error pattern in “-n” and “-ng,” the identification accuracy of 150 items in IT were investigated respectively. Statistical results are shown in Fig.4. In the IT-1 of the experimental group, the identification accuracy of “-ng” was 58.9%, and the identification accuracy of “-n” was 55.9%. In the IT-2 of the experimental group, the identification accuracy of “-ng” was 66.2%, and the identification accuracy of “-n” was 62.7%. Moreover, in the IT-1 of the control group, the identification accuracy of “-ng” was 54.3%, and the identification accuracy of “-n” was 55.9%. In the IT-2 of the control group, the identification accuracy of “-ng” was 52.5%, and the identification accuracy of “-n” was 55.3%. No significant differences were observed between the results of “-n” and “-ng” in IT-1 and IT-2. It means learners have difficulties in perceiving both “-n” and “-ng” in Mandarin Chinese. This result is in accordance with the result of our previous study (Yang, Nanjo & Danstuji, 2016). Wang (2002) states that Japanese learners of Mandarin Chinese tend to perceive “-n” to “-ng.” However, this tendency is not seen in our research. In the experimental group, via the perception training of “-n” and “-ng,” the identification accuracy of both kinds of nasal codas had increased respectively ($p < .001$). In contrast, in the control group, the identification accuracy of “-n” and “-ng” remained stable.

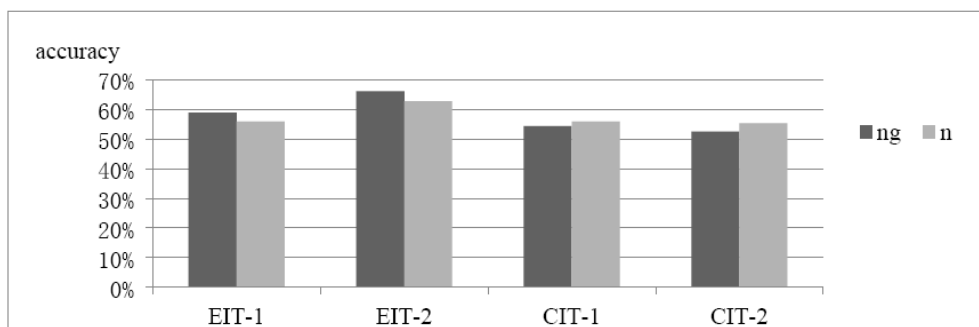


Figure4. Identification accuracy of “-n” and “-ng” in the experimental group and the control group
 EIT-1: accuracy of identification task before training of experimental group
 EIT-2: accuracy of identification task after training of experimental group
 CIT-1: accuracy of identification task before training of control group
 CIT-2: accuracy of identification task after training of control group

Via the results of the training and ITs, the answer to the first research question is very clear. “Can Japanese speakers learning Mandarin Chinese improve their ability to perceive nasal codas “-n” and “-ng” via the high variability training, and how do they improve via the training process?”

Compared with mere exposure, training is effective. However, observing the learning process and IT results of every participant, an increase was not obvious. Japanese learners of Mandarin Chinese can improve the ability to perceive the nasal codas “-n” and “-ng” via the high variability training. However, it is not effective for every participant. Some participants could make a great improvement through training, whereas some participants made no changes in identification accuracy during the training and ITs. For those learners for whom high variability training has little effect, another training paradigm should be considered. For example, more explanations could be given to learners before they start the training, or comparative example utterances should be included for learners to compare.

It is obvious that the Japanese learners of Mandarin Chinese could not distinguish these two nasal codas very well. However, after training with the software, the identification accuracy of experimental groups was upgraded to 64.4%. This result provided some support that high variability training that keeps learners listening to the multiple words of L2 produced by different native speakers is effective in perceiving the confusing pairs. We surmise that the training period has had an effect on the training results; if the training continues, the identification accuracy may continue to increase.

IV. QUESTIONNAIRE

After the training, all the participants in the experimental group were invited to answer a questionnaire about the nasal codas “-n” and “-ng.” Questions were asked about the identification accuracy by subjective judgment. Participants were also welcome to make suggestions about the training software.

In the questionnaire, 93.8% of the participants answered that they had learned the difference between “-n” and “-ng” in class. Participants were asked to judge how well they could distinguish the two pairs before and after the training, five choices were given from 0% (completely could not) to 100% (completely could). As shown in Fig.5, 43.8% of the participants considered that they could not distinguish the two pairs completely before the training. 31.2% of the participants considered they could distinguish the two pairs at a rate of 25 percent, and the rest considered that they could distinguish at a rate of 50 percent. After the training, 43.8% of the participants considered they could distinguish the two pairs at a rate of 50 percent, and 37.5% of the participants considered that they could distinguish the two pairs at a rate of 75 percent. All the participants considered that they had made an improvement of perceiving “-n” and “-ng” through this training and 93.8% of the participants considered this training was useful. They were also asked what factors they used to distinguish “-n” and “-ng” (they could select as many choices as they used). 81.3% of the participants considered that the length of the nasal codas was the distinguishing factor, and 43.8% of the participants used the length of the vowel to make a difference. It demonstrates that participants depend a lot on the factor of length to distinguish “-n” and “-ng.”

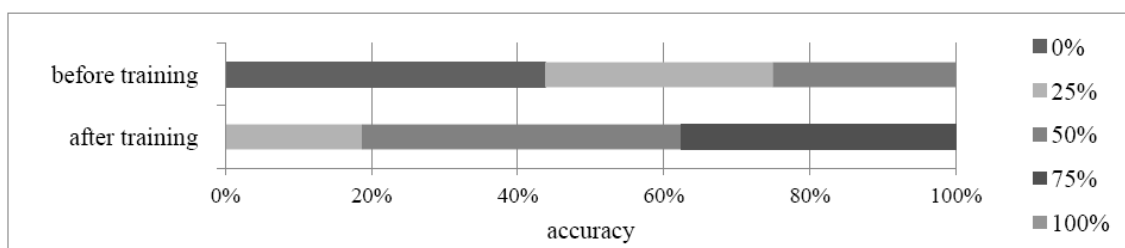


Figure5. Subjective identification accuracy before and after the training

Here we can answer the second research question “Can an L2 learner understand his/her own identification ability of

nasal codas “-n” and “-ng” appropriately?” The answer is no. Participants underestimate their ability to identify “-n” and “-ng” before training and overestimate their ability to identify “-n” and “-ng” after training.

The identification accuracy judged by participants subjectively is at variance with the results of the ITs. Even though participants both in the experimental group and in the control group could discriminate nasal codas “-n” and “-ng” at a percentage of over 50%, only few learners could judge their discriminating ability appropriately, and most participants considered they did worse than the actual identification accuracy. After the training, most participants considered that they could do better than before training. However, only 12.5% of the participants obtained a high identification accuracy of over 75%. The results of the questionnaire demonstrate that Japanese learners of Mandarin Chinese have difficulty in understanding how well they could discriminate “-n” and “-ng.” It is necessary to make learners recognize their current identification ability in order to train their perceptual ability effectively. We expect to predict the perceptual ability based on the results of the training so that participants can make full use of the training process.

V. DISCUSSION

A. Prediction of Discrimination Ability

We made a regression analysis on the average accuracy of the last 4 training sessions and the accuracy of IT-2 to verify their relationships. Based on the results of the 16 participants in the last 4 training sessions, the accuracy of IT-2 is 60% related to the average accuracy of the last 4 training sessions. A polynomial approximation was made to predict the accuracy of IT after training from the accuracy of the last 4 training sessions. We designate the accuracy of the last 4 training sessions as x and the accuracy of IT-2 as y . Participants’ identification accuracy of IT-2 is equal to formula (1) with $R^2 = 0.42$.

$$y = 1.98x^2 - 2.15x + 1.17 \tag{1}$$

To verify the formula, we asked another 6 participants who have no learning experience in Mandarin Chinese to conduct the training in totally the same way with the participants in the experimental group. The predicted results and the actual results are shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
PREDICTED RESULT, ACTUAL RESULTS AND RESIDUALS

Number	Actual result	Predicted result	Residual
Predict1	49.3%	59.5%	10.2%
Predict2	60.7%	60.0%	-0.7%
Predict3	63.3%	62.3%	-1.0%
Predict4	63.3%	65.5%	2.2%
Predict5	64.0%	61.4%	-2.6%
Predict6	72.7%	75.4%	2.7%

The data shows that the formula can be applied to predict the accuracy of IT after training based on the average accuracy of the last 4 training sessions. Except Predict 1, the accuracy of IT could be predicted comparatively correctly. To make the formula more accurate, we mixed the results of the 22 participants together and obtained a formula

$$y = 2.13x^2 - 2.35x + 1.23$$

with $R^2 = 0.45$ (Fig.6). Participants can use this formula to understand their training process and predict the identification ability of nasal codas at any session. They can set a goal and train themselves with this training pattern.

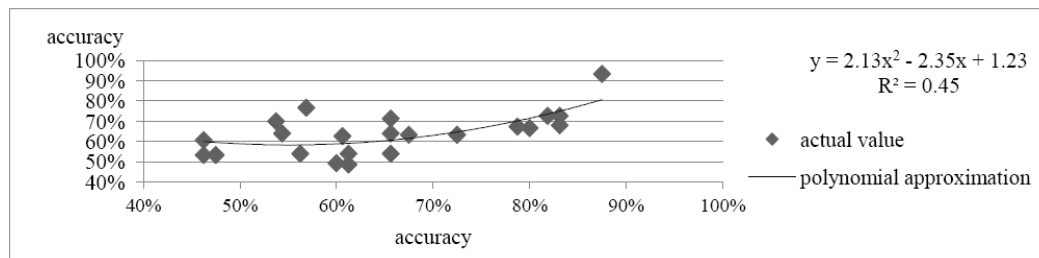


Figure 6. Perceptual predictiveness.

B. The Effect of Training on the Different Learning Stages of Mandarin Chinese

There were only two choices in the position of nasal codas, even though the participants knew nothing about Mandarin Chinese, they had a 50% chance to give a right answer to the question. Consequently, identification accuracy less than 60% was extremely low. Even though the identification accuracy among the intermediate level of Mandarin Chinese learners was higher than that of beginners of Mandarin Chinese, the identification accuracy did not reach 60%. As the study progressed, learners did not make considerable improvements in perception (Yang, Nanjo & Dantsuji, 2016).

As mentioned above, there were 5 learners of intermediate level of Mandarin Chinese (Group A) and 11 beginners of Mandarin Chinese (Group B) in the experimental group. To verify the formula, we also asked 6 participants who had no learning experience in Mandarin Chinese (Group C) to conduct the training. The average identification accuracy of Group A in IT-1 was 61.9%, whereas in IT-2 was 63.9%. There was not a significant difference in the Wilcoxon signed-rank test between the two identification accuracy. However, in Group B, the average identification accuracy of IT-1 was 55.3%, whereas in IT-2 was 64.6%. There was a significant difference in the Wilcoxon signed-rank test. The average identification accuracy of IT-1 in Group C was 56.9%, while in IT-2 was 62.2% ($p > .05$). Because of the limitation in the number of the participants, we could not obtain a significant difference to verify the influence that the learning period exerts on the training. However, participants in Group A whose learning period of Mandarin Chinese was the longest in the three groups demonstrated a weak increase after training and did not show an advantage from their learning experience. This problem should be included in future work. The statistical results are given in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
AVERAGE IDENTIFICATION ACCURACY OF DIFFERENT GROUPS

	IT-1	IT-2	Difference	<i>p</i>
Group A	61.9%	63.9%	2.0%	.19
Group B	55.3%	64.6%	9.3%	.02*
Group C	56.9%	62.2%	5.3%	.21

VI. CONCLUSION

In this study, we trained Japanese learners of Mandarin Chinese to perceive nasal codas “-n” and “-ng” using training software. The average identification accuracy of nasal codas in the experimental group increased 7.1% ($p = .0399 < .05$) after 12 training sessions; however, the average identification accuracy of nasal codas in the control group decreased 1.2% ($p = .1749 > .05$). It is effective for some Japanese speakers who took part in the training and made improvements in perceiving both “-n” and “-ng.” However, the identification accuracy remained the same as before training for some participants assigned to the experimental group. In view of the error patterns, Japanese learners have difficulties in perceiving both the nasal codas “-n” and “-ng” in Mandarin Chinese. We also demonstrated that participants with a longer learning period of Mandarin Chinese did not show an advantage over beginners in the training results. From the questionnaires, we found that there is a disagreement between the subjective judgement of the ability to identify nasal codas and the actual identification accuracy in the ITs. Participants underestimate their ability to identify “-n” and “-ng” before training and overestimate their ability to identify “-n” and “-ng” after training. As a result, we made a predicted formula to predict the accuracy of IT with the accuracy of the last 4 training sessions: $y = 2.13x^2 - 2.35x + 1.23$. This formula will help participants to understand the training process and predict their identification ability.

For the training paradigm, there are several places to improve. For example, more sounds of native speakers should be recorded and put into the program for listeners to get accustomed to the variations of the nasal codas. The influence of tones should be considered in the next experiments. Stimuli in disyllable should be included into the training to make the phonetic contexts changeable. According to the comments from the participants, it would be a good idea to explain how to distinguish “-n” and “-ng” in the program so that users can check the points while listening to the sounds. Moreover, the training period should be extended to verify whether a longer training period will lead to higher identification accuracy. Future work should be concentrated on these points.

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Assessing Content in a Curriculum-based EFL Oral Exam: The Importance of Higher-order Thinking Skills

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Abstract—In this study data from verbal protocols and semi-structured interviews was analysed to explore Norwegian EFL teacher raters' ($n=10$) orientations towards content in an oral English exam at the upper secondary school level, a context characterized by the absence of a common rating scale for the teacher raters. The content construct was mainly analysed in terms a subject matter dimension and a skills and processes dimension. The results indicated that the teachers were more concerned with the skills and processes dimension (e.g. analysis, reflection) than with the subject matter dimension (e.g. cultural knowledge). Moreover, their understanding of subject matter compared fairly well with the subject curriculum, despite instances of construct underrepresentation. The study points to the prominence of guidance for teacher raters in the assessment of content and to the significance of alerting students to the importance of higher-order thinking skills in language education at this level.

Index Terms—EFL, ESL oral L2 assessment, content, subject matter, higher-order thinking skills

I. INTRODUCTION

Aspects of content may be said to be involved in all language use (Bachman & Palmer, 2010, p. 41). Despite this, the role of content in second and foreign language instruction and assessment varies substantially from context to context. Historically, it has been considerably downplayed in language assessment, as the primary focus has been on the evaluation of language features. In fact, in some cases it has even been treated as a potential source of language bias (Douglas, 2000, p. 2). More recently, however, the assessment of content has been emphasized in a number of settings, for example in content-based instruction and specific purposes courses (Byrnes, 2008; Snow & Katz, 2014). Overall, language instruction and assessment may thus be regarded as a continuum from language-driven approaches to content-driven approaches (Met, 1998).

The concept of content is somewhat elusive, however. In the language assessment literature it has been related to, or used synonymously with, as diverse terms as 'subject matter', 'cultural knowledge', 'ideas', and 'framing', to mention a few (Bachman & Palmer, 2010 p. 41; Brown, Iwashita, & McNamara, 2005, p. 27; Kratwohl, 2002, p. 213). As for expected test taker response in the content area, the concept has been linked to performance features such as '[task] fulfilment', 'description', 'explanation', 'accuracy', 'elaboration', and 'development' (Bachman & Palmer, 2010, p. 218; Brown, 2000, p. 68; Douglas, 2010, p. 117; Eckes, 2009, p. 48; Frost, Elder, & Wigglesworth, 2012, p. 349). In other words, the concept is multifaceted and complex, and there is evidence that it is not well understood in all contexts (Frost et al., 2012). More research has therefore been called for (Snow & Katz, 2014).

The context of the present study is curriculum-related English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education at the upper-intermediate proficiency level (Common European Framework of Reference, level B1/B2) in Norway. This may be said to belong to the middle of the language-content continuum. A defining feature of this context is the lack of a common rating scale, or scoring rubric, to guide teachers in their assessment of oral performance. Little empirical evidence exists to describe how content is assessed in such settings. As knowledge of which performance aspects teacher raters attend to is important for the validity of the scoring outcomes (Bejar, 2012), as well as for understanding potential washback effects relating to what teachers may prioritize in the language classroom, this study looks more closely at *Norwegian EFL teachers' unguided orientations towards content* in an oral English exam at the upper-intermediate proficiency level.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The research literature on EFL/ESL raters' unguided orientations towards aspects of content in spoken performance is very scarce. This may come as no surprise as language tests are rarely, if ever, used without rating scales. Only four such studies were identified in the literature search for the present article. The first one is Pollitt and Murray (1996), which investigated five trained examiners' general assessment of different speech samples ($n=5$) taken from the Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English test. This is a non-curriculum based, high proficiency level oral examination. The results did not provide very elaborate descriptions of the examiners' assessment of content, but

indicated that the raters paid more attention to content, or ‘what’ was being said, at the higher levels of performance, whereas they attended more to linguistic features and associated notions of ‘correctness’ at the lower levels of performance.

The second study which was identified, Brown et al. (2005), examined the rater focus of 10 English for Academic Purposes (EAP) specialists’ in a pilot Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). The TOEFL test is an advanced level proficiency test used as an entry requirement to a number of English-medium universities. The authors used verbal-report methodology to uncover which performance features the raters paid attention to in 40 audio-recorded spoken student performances. The results showed that content was a major focus in the raters’ reports (together with linguistic resources, phonology and fluency). More specifically, content was associated with the following three performance aspects:

- (i) *Task fulfillment*, i.e. the degree to which the test takers were ‘on topic’ or ‘addressed the question’.
- (ii) *Ideas*, e.g. in terms of ‘relevance’ (cf. Table I, below)
- (iii) *Framing*, i.e. ‘the generic structure of test-takers responses’ in terms of an introduction and a conclusion’ (Brown et al. 2005, pp. 27-30).

The third study, Yildiz (2011), used interviews and open survey questions to examine both the exam format of an oral English examination at the upper secondary school level in Norway, as well as the general rater orientations of 16 teachers involved as judges in this exam. In other words, the context of the investigation was the same as for the present study. Overall, the study found that the teachers were concerned with five general criteria: (i) ‘Language competence’; (ii) ‘Communicative competence’, (iii) ‘Subject competence’; (iv) ‘Ability to reflect and discuss independently’; and (v) ‘Ability to speak freely and independent of manuscript’. In terms of the content-related criteria here, i.e. ‘Subject competence’ and ‘Ability to reflect and discuss independently’, the study found that ‘understanding’ and ‘[ability to] use the knowledge that [the students] have in a relevant manner’ was seen as important by the teachers (p. 55). As an example of ability to use knowledge, the teachers mentioned ability to discuss an unknown text with a topic similar to a syllabus text.

The fourth and final study identified in the present review, Bøhn (2015), also investigated unguided rater orientations in an oral English exam at the upper secondary school level in Norway. In the study semi-structured interviews were used to explore the general assessment focus of 24 teacher raters. The results showed that content was one of the aspects which caused the most variability among the teachers. Overall, the study showed that the majority of the teachers saw content as consisting of the following four aspects:

- (i) addressing task or problem statement;
- (ii) elaborated response;
- (iii) content structure;
- (iv) a Bloom-like taxonomy of reproduction, comprehension, application, analysis and reflection.

A comparison of the four studies shows several similarities. In Table I the major features of three of them have been listed. (Since Pollitt and Murray’s (1996) study provided little conceptual information on the content construct, it has been left out of the table.)

TABLE I.
RATERS’ UNDERSTANDING OF CONTENT IN BROWN ET AL. (2005), YILDIZ (2011) AND BØHN (2015)

Brown et al. (2005)	Yildiz (2011)	Bøhn (2015)
- <i>Task fulfillment</i>		- <i>Addressing task or problem statement</i>
- <i>Ideas</i> - amount of speech produced - response to functional demands of task - sophistication (independent) - relevance	- <i>Understanding</i> - <i>Ability to apply knowledge</i>	- <i>Elaborated response</i> - <i>Bloom-like taxonomy of</i> - reproduction - comprehension - application - analysis - reflection
- <i>Framing</i>		- <i>Content structure</i>

The comparison of findings illustrated in Table I shows that Task fulfillment in Brown et al.’s study parallels Addressing task or problem statement in Bøhn. Moreover, Brown et al.’s notion of Ideas, understood as ‘amount of speech produced’ has affinities with Bøhn’s concept of Elaborated response. Similarly, Brown et al.’s concept of Ideas, understood as ‘sophistication’, intersects with Yildiz’ categories Understanding and Ability to apply knowledge, and Bøhn’s notion of the Bloom-like taxonomy. The logic behind this argument is that the raters’ application of the Bloom-like taxonomy, which is apparent in both Yildiz and Bøhn, may be said to reflect a continuum of sophistication going from ‘reproduction’ at the lowest level to ‘analysis’ and ‘reflection’ at the highest level. Finally, the notion of Content structure in Bøhn has similarities with Framing in Brown et al.

Another interesting similarity between these studies is the fact that the categories developed mainly describe the skills or abilities involved in the handling of content. Except for the general references to ‘task’, ‘ideas’ and ‘problem statement’, very little is said about *what* should be tested. In Pollitt & Murray’s (1996) and Brown et al.’s (2005) studies this may come as no surprise. As the test takers were responding to proficiency tests (Douglas, 2010, pp. 1-2), they were

not judged on their knowledge of specific EAP topics, but rather on their language abilities and their capacity to handle whatever topic was under discussion. However, in Yildiz (2011) and Bøhn (2015) the oral exam used as a basis for the inquiries may be classified as an achievement test, as it is based on a subject curriculum (Bachman & Palmer, 2010, p. 213). Consequently, one may expect raters in such settings to comment on specific subject matter. No such comments were reported, however. Given that content is such an elusive concept, it is worth looking more closely into EFL teachers' understanding of this construct.

Against this background the present study investigates Norwegian EFL teachers' orientations towards subject matter content in an oral English exam at the upper-intermediate proficiency level. As part of the investigation the teachers' orientations will be compared with the aspects of content identified in the English subject curriculum.

III. ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

As was touched upon in section one, the concept of content is used in a number of different ways in the assessment literature. Traditional language assessment theory gives the concept scant treatment, but where mentioned, it is often related to Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model of communicative language ability (e.g. Douglas, 2000; 2010; Fulcher & Davidson, 2007; Green, 2014; Luoma, 2004; McNamara, 1996). In this model content is referred to as *topical knowledge* or *real-world knowledge* and defined loosely as 'knowledge structures in long-term memory' (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 65). Although Bachman and Palmer offer interesting perspectives on the testing of content, their focus is nevertheless predominantly on language aspects. Therefore, in order to broaden the analytical framework, I will briefly turn to the field of curriculum-related, content-based L2 language instruction, which provides richer theoretical support for the subsequent analysis.

In content-based instruction (CBI) the overall objective is typically to teach 'subject-specific curricular content', such as mathematics, social science or language arts, alongside a second language, in order to help students develop L2 for communicative purposes and to 'access academic content' in regular subject classes (Snow & Katz, 2014, p. 230). In this sense CBI belongs to the content side of the above mentioned language-content continuum. Exactly what the subject-specific or academic content is will depend upon the nature of the subject field, and it is of course impossible to make an inventory of all the different subject matter issues that may be treated. Overall, however, one may find content described in terms of words such as *facts, concepts, laws, principles and theories* (Chamot, 2009, p. 239). The reference to 'concepts' here is particularly noteworthy, as Chamot claims that '[c]ontent subject concepts and relationships are the *foundation of academic knowledge*' (p. 20, emphasis added). In passing, it is also worth observing that Chamot lists a number of skills and abilities needed to process subject matter content. Stressing the importance of teaching higher-order thinking skills, she claims that students should be encouraged to speculate, predict, synthesize and make judgements about the material they are learning, 'rather than merely recall facts' (p. 30).

Another relevant feature of curriculum-related CBI in this discussion is its focus on content standards (Chamot, 2009; Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2008; Snow & Katz, 2014). Content standards specify learning outcome objectives, which state what students should know and be able to do in relation to some defined subject matter content (Chamot, 2009, p. 16). As Kratwohl (2002) explains,

statements of objectives typically consist of a noun or noun phrase – the *subject matter content* – and a verb or a verb phrase – the *cognitive process(es)*. Consider, for example, the following objective: The student shall be able to remember the law of supply and demand in economics. (p. 213, italics added)

Learning objectives like the one Kratwohl mentions here offer a suitable framework for the assessment of content because they provide tools for identifying both *what* to assess (i.e. subject matter content) and *how* to assess it (i.e. the range of cognitive processes, or 'skills' or 'abilities' involved). In order to further specify this, it is relevant to briefly consider Bloom's taxonomy, which has been used as a basis for the development of content standards in many contexts, and which is frequently drawn upon in CBI (Chamot, 2009; Echevarría et al., 2008; Kratwohl, 2002). Here I will concentrate on the revised version of the taxonomy.

Bloom's revised taxonomy arranges learning outcome objectives in a two-dimensional grid (Anderson & Kratwohl, 2001). One dimension represents different types of knowledge (the *what*-aspects), and the other represents various types of cognitive processes (the *how*-aspects). The organization of knowledge and cognitive processes along dimensions is meant to demonstrate their hierarchical nature, from the simpler forms of knowledge and processes to the more complex. According to Kratwohl (2002), knowledge is related to subject matter content and can be divided into four types: factual, conceptual, procedural and metacognitive. Cognitive processes fall into the following six categories listed from the simple to the complex: remember, understand, apply, analyse, evaluate and create. Figure 1 illustrates how the two dimensions interrelate and places Kratwohl's example in this grid.

The cognitive process dimension

		<i>Remember</i>	<i>Understand</i>	<i>Apply</i>	<i>Analyse</i>	<i>Evaluate</i>	<i>Create</i>
The knowledge dimension	<i>Factual knowledge</i>						
	<i>Conceptual knowledge</i>	Remember the law of supply and demand					
	<i>Procedural knowledge</i>						
	<i>Metacognitive knowledge</i>						

Figure 1. Example of a learning objective represented in Bloom’s taxonomy table, as outlined by Kratwohl (2002).

In summary, the theoretical frameworks discussed in this section all point to important ways in which subject matter content can be understood. Both Chamot’s framework and Bloom’s revised taxonomy seem to be highly relevant, as they relate to curriculum-based contexts. More specifically, Kratwohl’s description of subject matter in terms of nouns and noun phrases provides a particularly useful tool for analysing content in the present study.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTION

Against the empirical findings and theoretical frameworks presented in the preceding sections the present study addresses the following research question: *What do EFL teachers at the upper secondary school level in Norway perceive as relevant subject matter content to be assessed in the GSP1/VSP2 oral English exam?*¹ As part of this investigation, the teachers’ orientations will be compared against the aspects of subject matter identified in the subject curriculum.

V. THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

In Norway, English is a compulsory subject for all students from the first grade onwards (age six). By the time the students start upper secondary school at the age of 16, they have on average reached an upper-intermediate proficiency level (CEFR B1/B2). The subject curriculum is centered on competence aims, which define what students are expected to master at the end of the different levels of instruction. Grades are mainly given in the form of overall achievement marks, awarded by each individual subject teacher on the basis of various forms of classroom assessment. In addition, around 20 per cent of the students are randomly selected to sit for a written exam, and five per cent are selected to take an oral exam. Whenever a group of students are assigned for the oral exam, their English subject teacher is required to act as an examiner. In addition, an English teacher external to the students’ school is assigned the role as assessor. Grades range from 1 (‘fail’) to 6 (‘excellent’), and performance is scored holistically.

The English subject curriculum, which works as a framework for the operationalization of the constructs (Bachman & Palmer, 2010, p. 211), stipulates a number of competence aims relating to subject matter content. At the level under investigation here, the GSP1/VSP2 level, 10 aims explicitly address content. These aims have been listed in Table II, with a corresponding description of the subject matter content as defined above.

¹ This upper secondary school exam is taken by students in their first year in the general subjects programme (GSP1) or by students in their second year in the vocational subjects programmes (VSP2).

TABLE II.
SUBJECT MATTER CONTENT SPECIFIED IN THE ENGLISH SUBJECT CURRICULUM (GSP1/VSP2 LEVEL)²

Competence aim	Subject matter content
<i>Assess and use different situations, working methods and learning strategies for developing one's English skills</i>	Metacognitive strategies
<i>Assess different digital resources and other aids critically and independently and use them in one's own language learning</i>	Resources
<i>Understand the main content and details of different types of oral texts about general topics and subject-specific topics related to one's own study programme</i>	General topics; subject-specific topics related to study programme
<i>Discuss cultural and societal conditions in a number of English-speaking countries</i>	Cultural and societal conditions in English-speaking countries
<i>Present and discuss current news from English-speaking sources</i>	Current news topics from English-speaking sources
<i>Discuss the development of English as a world language</i>	English as a world language
<i>Discuss different types of English-speaking texts from different parts of the world</i>	English-speaking texts
<i>Discuss English-speaking films and other cultural forms of expression from different parts of the world</i>	English-speaking cultural forms of expression
<i>Discuss texts by and about indigenous peoples in English-speaking countries</i>	Texts by and about indigenous peoples
<i>Select an in-depth study topic of one's own study programme and present this</i>	Subject-specific topic related to study programme

As can be seen in Table II, there is a very broad range of subject matter aspects. Not only are the students expected to handle a number of topics related to the English-speaking world, such as literary texts, cultural conditions and indigenous peoples, they are also expected to be able to understand the content of subject-general texts and subject-specific topics related to their own study programme. In addition, they are also required to know and to assess both metacognitive strategies and (re)sources.

As for the operationalization of the constructs to be assessed, there is a notable difference between the oral and the written exam. Whereas the written exam is administered nationally by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, the oral exam is controlled by the local education authorities in each of the 19 counties. This means that, for the written exam, there is a nationally developed rating scale and nationally designed test tasks, whereas for the oral exam, different types of locally developed scales and tasks exist. As a rating scale can be understood as an operationalization of the constructs to be assessed (Fulcher, 2012, p. 378; Luoma, 2004, p. 59), this means that the constructs are operationalized differently in the various counties (see e.g. Bøhn, 2015).

VI. METHOD

A. Research Design

The study used data from two sources of evidence: verbal protocols and semi-structured interviews (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Green, 1998), involving 10 EFL teachers at the upper secondary school level in Norway. A prompt in the form of a video-taped performance of a student taking the oral exam was used as a stimulus for the generation of verbal protocols. On the basis of this video-clip the teachers were asked to comment on the performance in real time (concurrent verbal reporting) and to give it a score. Directly after the protocols had been recorded, the teachers were interviewed by the researcher on their conceptions of content in the oral English exam. Both data sets were analysed using provisional coding (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014)

B. Participants

The teachers were recruited for the study through purposeful sampling (Creswell, 2013), in order to obtain variation in the sample with regard to school and county background, teaching and rater experience and study programme affiliation. The teachers were contacted directly by telephone, and all who agreed to participate did so on a voluntary basis, with no financial compensation. The participants were between 32 and 51 years of age ($M=40$), and their teaching experience ranged from one and a half to 26 years. They represented six different schools in three different counties. Three of them worked only in the vocational studies programmes (VSP), three worked only in the general studies programme (GSP) and four worked in both programmes. All of them were fully qualified teachers and had previously been involved as examiners.³

As for the video-taped prompt, a VSP student agreed to be filmed as she was taking her oral exam. The exam format consisted of three tasks: (i) a pre-planned monologue task in the form of a presentation, followed by a discussion of the presentation; (ii) an oral interview task based on a short story from the syllabus; and (iii) an oral interview task based on a listening comprehension sequence. For the pre-planned monologue task the student had been given 48 hours in advance to respond to the following prompt:

² The English subject curriculum can be accessed at <http://www.udir.no/kl06/ENG1-03?lplang=eng>.

³ Further information about teacher background can be retrieved from <http://www.fag.hiof.no/~heb/PhDArt3AppendixA.pdf>.

Choose a common health issue in today's society and make a presentation of the problems it causes the individual and in society. Use examples from fictional and factual texts as well as films from your reading list to illustrate your examples.

The student had chosen to give a presentation about HIV/AIDS in South Africa. As regards the topics of the other two tasks, the short story focused on obesity and eating disorders, and the listening comprehension sequence involved a discussion about English a world language.

C. Procedure

An interview guide was piloted and revised. The questions in the interview guide were formulated on the basis of the findings in Bøhn (2015), the analytical framework presented above and the content-related statements identified in the English subject curriculum (cf. Table II, above).⁴ The verbal protocols were generated by the teachers in individual think-aloud sessions (Green, 1998). The video-clip was shown to the participants on a lap-top computer, and a headset was provided in order to ensure good sound quality. Before the recording started, the teachers were instructed to verbalize their thoughts on the *general* aspects of the performance and then to give it a grade. They were also given five minutes to familiarize themselves with the equipment and the procedure. All the teacher comments were recorded on an Olympus DM-450 digital voice recorder.

Immediately after the think-aloud sequence, the teachers were interviewed on their judgments of the performance they had just seen, as well as on their assessment orientations more broadly. In the first half of each interview only open, 'nondirective' questions (Yin, 2016, p. 144) concerning general assessment criteria were asked, in order not to impose researcher-generated conceptions of content on the participants (see questions B1-3 in the interview guide, footnote 4). Thus, it was hoped that 'unsolicited' answers regarding content would emerge. Subsequently, the teachers were questioned specifically on whether and to what extent they considered content while rating. This included questions concerning what they regarded as content, how they thought it should be evaluated, and to what extent they found the subject matter identified in the curriculum to be relevant in the assessment of oral exam performance (see question B4-10 in the interview guide, footnote 4).

D. Data Analyses

After the verbal protocols had been recorded I transcribed, checked and segmented them (cf. Green, 1998). In the segmentation process the transcripts were divided into ideas units. An ideas unit can be defined as 'a single or several utterances with a single aspect of the event as the focus', i.e. a unit which is 'concerned with a distinct aspect of performance' (Brown et al., 2005, p. 13). The following excerpt, divided into five units (separated by '/'), serves as an illustration:

/Good vocabulary / She corrected herself. There was an error there / There was a Norwegian word there / She is doing well in terms of content / Here her pronunciation is not that good [...] There were some long words... loan words/

All the segments were then coded into categories, using the computer software package QSR NVivo 10. The transcripts were coded in two cycles (Saldaña, 2013). In the first cycle all the segments were assigned codes, using provisional coding based on the categories developed in Bøhn (2015) and the conceptual framework presented in the analytical framework section, above (cf. Miles et al., 2014; Saldaña, 2013). For example, the segments in the above quoted excerpt were coded as Vocabulary, Ability to repair, Compensatory strategies, Content and Pronunciation, respectively. After all the statements had been coded, the codes relating to content were sifted out and re-analysed in a second cycle in order to validate these categories. In this cycle ideas units were specifically checked for nouns and noun phrases relating to content, as specified by Kratwohl (2002) (cf. Analytical framework section). For example, in one statement, the following noun phrase occurred: 'She remembers the syllabus, so she has studied' Here, the noun phrase the syllabus was categorized as a subject matter item. More specifically, the unit was coded in the category 'Syllabus texts' (cf. Table III, below). In order to further validate the analysis, a colleague with prior experience as an EFL teacher at the upper secondary level was asked to code two transcripts, using provisional coding. The inter-coder reliability analysis yielded a Kappa estimate of .83, which may be regarded as very good (Landis & Koch, 1977).

The interviews were also analysed using provisional coding. First, they were transcribed and checked and then divided into two sections corresponding to the unsolicited and solicited answers to the open and specific questions that had been asked (cf. Procedure section). Next, these two sections were divided into ideas units, in a process similar to the verbal protocol analysis (VPA), and again the transcripts were coded in two cycles. In the first cycle the idea units were compared against the analytical framework developed in Bøhn (2015) and in the analytical framework section, whereas in the second cycle the content segments were separated out and analysed with a particular focus on nouns and noun phrases. The following extract gives an illustration (the segments have been separated by '/'):

Researcher: *How would you define content?*

Informant: */ First of all, that she answers the task, and that it is an answer which is relevant to the task / that it is an answer which shows that she has knowledge of English-speaking countries and English-speaking literature, something which this student doesn't have at all /*

⁴ The interview guide can be accessed at <http://www.fag.hiof.no/~heb/PhDArt3AppendixB.pdf>.

Here the first ideas unit contained the content-related noun phrases *the task*. It was coded as ‘Task / Topic statement’ (cf. Table IV, below). The second ideas unit comprised the noun phrase *knowledge of English-speaking countries and English-speaking literature*. However, as ‘knowledge’ in Kratwohl’s (Bloom’s) framework relates to the process dimension of learning objectives rather than to the subject matter dimension, this noun phrase head may be excluded. We are then left with the two noun phrases *English speaking countries* and *English-speaking literature*. These two phrases were coded as ‘Knowledge of culture and literature in the English-speaking world’ (cf. Table IV). In order to validate the coding, the above mentioned colleague agreed to analyse another two transcripts. The inter-coder consistency between my own coding and hers resulted in a Kappa estimate of .78, which may be regarded as substantial (Landis & Koch, 1977).

VII. RESULTS

A. Results from the Verbal Protocol Analysis

The VPA regarding relevant subject matter content to be assessed produced five specific subject matter categories, in addition to a general one (cf. Table III, below). The first one, which comprised a number of statements from all the participants, was labelled *Task / Topic statement*. This category reflects the fact that the teachers mainly commented on subject matter in relation to the three exam tasks: the presentation about HIV/AIDS in South Africa, the discussion of the text from the syllabus about eating disorders and the listening comprehension task about English as a world language. Hence, a large proportion of the statements were simply references to ‘HIV/AIDS’, ‘South Africa’, ‘symptoms’, ‘obesity’, ‘English around the world’, ‘accents’ and the like. Similarly, the teachers used a number of general descriptions such as ‘topic’, ‘theme’, ‘problem statement’ and ‘concepts’ to refer those task-related issues. Three statements illustrate this:

She is reflecting a bit on the consequences of HIV and AIDS and the fact that there is no proper cure. (Informant no. 10)

She shows understanding of the complexities of eating disorders. (Informant no. 3)

She’s managed to demonstrate that she understood some of what she has listened to. (Informant no. 5)

None of the other categories comprised nearly as many statements as Task / Topic statement. The second one, termed *Sources*, was commented on by six teachers. This category was found to be related to Task / Topic statement, but it was singled out as a separate category. The reason for this was that the teachers seemed to expect the student in the video-clip to reflect, or at least to comment on, the sources of her presentation. Hence, this analysis is consistent with the other categorizations made here, considering that Sources is realized by a noun and would fit neatly into Bloom’s taxonomy table as presented in Figure 1. A quote from informant no. 6 illustrates this point: ‘She doesn’t say much about her sources’. Comments like this one were only made in relation to the presentation task.

The third category, labelled *Personalized knowledge*, was developed from three teacher statements which pointed to the fact that the student in the video-clip related the topic of task three to personal experiences:

[She was asked] a question about whether she speaks English outside of Norway... She communicates o.k. when she speaks freely. That’s quite common... when they are allowed to speak about what they want, they usually do o.k. (Informant no. 8)

As may be observed, the underlined content aspect in this extract is not represented by a noun phrase, but rather by a nominal relative clause (Hasselgård, Lysvåg, & Johansson, 2012). However, such clauses have syntactic functions similar to noun phrases, and in this case it is seems clear that it denotes subject matter. The statement suggests that speaking about personal experiences is a type of subject matter which is sometimes seen as relevant by Norwegian teachers. Four informants made comments of this kind.

The fourth category, *Syllabus texts*, indicates that some teachers seem to expect students to remember, and possibly to reflect on, texts from the syllabus. As the informant quoted in the methods section put it, ‘She remembers the syllabus’ (cf. above). Again, this is an example which fits in Bloom’s taxonomy table presented in Figure 1.

The fifth category, termed *Knowledge of culture and literature in the English-speaking world*, suggests that some teachers expect students to be able to refer to culture-specific issues in their responses to the exam tasks. Commenting on the student’s response to exam task number two regarding English as a world language, one informant said:

[A] really good student would jump on that question and talk about different values and... how some people look up to posh accents, or might look down at another. But she’s not at all in that category of students. (Informant no. 5)

Only informant no. 5 made comments which were coded in this category, however. Finally, a general content category emerged, comprising statements where the teachers merely referred to ‘content’. In Table III, all the categories from the verbal protocol analysis have been listed, together with an example for each category.

TABLE III.
SUBJECT MATTER CATEGORIES DEVELOPED FROM THE VERBAL PROTOCOL DATA

Content category	Example
Task / Topic statement	<i>It is good that she is able to reflect, at least a little bit, on the task. (Informant no. 7)</i>
Sources	<i>[There are] sources [in the last PowerPoint slide] ... which are only URLs, nothing more. (Informant no. 4)</i>
Personalized knowledge	<i>But she is telling an interesting story here about a friend... with an eating disorder. (Informant no. 3)</i>
Syllabus texts	<i>She remembers the syllabus. So she has studied. (Informant no. 3)</i>
Knowledge of culture and literature in the English-speaking world	<i>[A] really good student would jump on that question and talk about different values and... how some people look up to posh accents. (Informant no. 5)</i>
Content – general	<i>It seems that she doesn't know the content very well. (Informant no. 8)</i>

B. Results from the Interview Analysis

The analysis of the answers to the unsolicited questions in the first part of the interviews yielded no additional subject matter content categories. As the teachers had only been asked to explain their general assessment orientations in this sequence, they mainly reiterated the aspects of content which they had reported in the VPA. However, when they were asked specific questions regarding content in the second part of the interview, other and more nuanced aspects emerged. The following exchange between the researcher and informant no. 3 serves as an example:

Researcher: *How do you understand content?*

Informant: *That you have understood some concepts and relationships and are able to show me that you understand by explaining on the basis of texts and examples. And in order to be able to do that, you obviously have to remember some texts and be able to remember some facts and stuff, but it's not particularly important that you have remembered the exact year [of an event] or the full name and title of a king, or an author or the like [...] And I would like you to know that it is Hemingway who has written the short story, but I would much rather that you really understand... why Nick Adams acts like he does, and why he has that relationship to his father... and if possible compare with another short story. (Informant no. 3)*

Here the informant relates relevant subject matter content to *concepts*, *relationships*, *texts*, *facts* and 'literary topics' and exemplifies with reference to a literary text from the syllabus. In the analysis, 'concepts' was coded as a separate category labelled *Concepts*, whereas 'texts' was classified as *Syllabus texts*. 'Literary topics' was coded in the category *Knowledge of culture and literature in the English-speaking world* (cf. Table IV). Interestingly, the emphasis placed on 'concepts' and 'relationships' is an echo of Chamot's (2009) claim that the ability to understand concepts and to see the relationship between them is the foundation of academic knowledge (cf. Analytical framework section). However, as the idea of 'seeing relationships [between concepts]' may have more in common with the process aspects (understand, analyse, evaluate etc.) than with the subject matter aspects of content, it was decided not to place "relationships" in a separate category in the analysis.

Similarly, 'facts' was not coded as a separate category, as the data also contained answers to a question concerning how the teachers perceived the notion of 'facts' (cf. the interview guide, Appendix B). Thus, it was hoped that more explicit features of subject matter could be discerned. In response to this question, one informant answered: 'Well, I think of general knowledge' (informant no. 2). This view that general knowledge is part of the content construct was supported by seven other informants. Hence, a separate category labelled *General world knowledge* was included in the analysis (cf. Table IV). In addition, on the question of facts, another informant explained:

Well, if you look at the English subject curriculum, there is no list of facts that you have to remember; absolutely not. You don't have to know that Sydney is the capital of Australia (sic) in order to pass in English [...]. But if you get that task, you are expected to find some information about Australia. (Informant no. 5)

As informant no. 5 quite correctly points out, the curriculum does not list any facts that students must remember. For him, this seems to mean that subject matter largely relates to the information that that the student has collected in preparation for the presentation task (task number one). Accordingly, it appears that this task is seen as central for the *what* to be tested. Another informant also mentioned the fact that detailed subject matter aspects are absent from the curriculum:

I had a student in an oral exam once who didn't know anything about the Tea Party [Movement]... and there is nothing [in the curriculum] about the Tea Party in the U.S. But he had to know something. Exactly what that 'something' is [...] isn't so important. But it has to be something. And what he or she shows... has to be thoroughly done... and be at a certain level... not just surface level knowledge. (Informant no. 4)

In this extract informant no. 4 does not mention the centrality of task one, but rather alludes to the very general and wide-ranging content aspects of the curriculum. A consequence of this appears to be that the *what*-aspects to be presented are seen as less important. What matters is *how* subject matter is presented. Elaborating on this point, she explained:

But then I also think that... every now and then... we are assessing general maturity. [...] ... content... how much do they actually understand of the world around them? And what is kind of... more a type of general intelligence or general knowledge, which is perhaps not always linked to the English subject. (Informant no. 4)

Here, the formulation ‘general knowledge, which is perhaps not always linked to the English subject’ suggests that any topic is potentially relevant for discussion. Moreover, the use of the phrase ‘actually understand’ again points to an emphasis on skills and processes. This view was, in fact, supported by several other teachers. For example, in a response to my question on whether good general knowledge could help improving a student’s score, informant no. 8 replied: ‘Yes... In fact, I would put it in the category “Having the ability to reflect”’.

Finally, as regards the relevance of the specific content issues identified in the curriculum (cf. Table II), all the teachers confirmed that the aspects listed there, except for Metacognitive strategies, were relevant features to be tested. However, the issue of Metacognitive strategies left most teachers hesitant. One teacher even categorically denied they were to be tested in the exam, calling such strategies ‘a meta-science’. Only one teacher clearly affirmed that these strategies were a relevant part of the content construct. That being said, it should be emphasized that the teachers did not appear to expect students to respond impromptu to detailed questions concerning all of these issues. Rather, they emphasized the importance of being able to analyse, reflect on and evaluate whatever subject matter that the task or question addressed.

In Table IV all the subject-matter categories which emerged from the interview analysis have been listed. As has been mentioned, the first one of these, Task / Topic statement was by far the largest one. Some, such as News topics, Syllabus texts and particularly Metacognitive strategies, were rather marginal.

TABLE IV.
SUBJECT MATTER CONTENT SPECIFIED IN THE ENGLISH SUBJECT CURRICULUM (GSP1/VSP2 LEVEL)

Content category	Example
Task / Topic statement	<i>Well, I [think of content as] her focusing on the theme that she has been given and actually talks about this topic. (Informant no. 7)</i>
Sources	<i>Content [relates to the student's ability to] use some sources... Because she doesn't say anything about that either. (Informant no. 2)</i>
Personalized knowledge	<i>But she is telling an interesting story here about a friend... with an eating disorder. (Informant no. 3)</i>
Knowledge of culture and literature in the English-speaking world	<i>[Content relates to the fact that] she has knowledge of the English-speaking world and of English literature. (Informant no. 6)</i>
English as a world language	<i>She didn't get the chance to sort of talk about the English language, as a world language and international language. (Informant no. 4)</i>
General world knowledge	<i>You will get a better grade if you have good general knowledge of the world. (Informant no. 6)</i>
Concepts	<i>[Content means] that you have understood some concepts [...] (Informant no.3)</i>
Indigenous peoples	<i>We could have asked a question like: "Have you learnt anything about indigenous peoples?" (Informant no. 5)</i>
News topics	<i>[Students should have] the ability to reflect on [news topics from] Fox news, right... those kinds of things. (Informant no. 4)</i>
Syllabus texts	<i>If I have taken some texts [...] from the syllabus [...] and they don't know anything about them [...] then they are in trouble, I'd say (Informant no. 9)</i>
Metacognitive strategies	<i>[Interviewer:] Does this mean that learning strategies could be tested? [Informant:] Yes, it's there [in the curriculum], isn't it? (Informant no. 1)</i>
Content – general	<i>I think part 1 [task 1] is good in the sense that she shows good knowledge (Informant no. 4)</i>
Miscellaneous	<i>Content in English [...] that's an inexhaustible field. (Informant no. 4)</i>

One final comment is worth making. It is interesting to observe the apparent discrepancy between the general agreement on certain assessment criteria – e.g. that answering the task is an important criterion – and the occasional disagreement on what kind of performance that is characteristic of a given level in relation to a criterion. For example, informant no. 2 reported in her verbal protocol: ‘She doesn’t mention film or literature at all. She is not answering the whole task’. In a response to this remark, which was presented to her in the interview, informant no. 10 replied: ‘Not answering the task? Well of course she does!’ In other words, the informants do agree that answering the task is important, but they do not agree on what kind of performance is indicative of task fulfillment.

VIII. DISCUSSION

Overall, in response to the research question *What do EFL teachers at the upper secondary school level in Norway perceive as relevant subject matter content to be assessed in the GSP1/VSP2 oral English exam?* the analyses showed that the teachers understand subject matter in very general terms. They confirmed that the aspects listed in the subject curriculum, apart from meta-cognitive strategies, are relevant features to be tested, but as a number of these aspects are very wide-ranging, the teachers pointed out that it is unrealistic to expect students to remember details from all kinds of potential topics. Consequently, they appear to adopt an assessment strategy where the testing of skills and processes (describing, analysing, evaluating etc.) becomes more important than the assessment of clearly defined subject matter. Simply put, the specifics of the subject matter are notably downplayed. This supports the finding in Bøhn (2015) which showed that the teachers’ operationalization of the content construct to a large extent involved skills and abilities.

On closer inspection, the teachers seemed to focus most of their attention on subject matter in the pre-planned presentation task. However, as some of them pointed out, the material that the students have prepared beforehand, for example PowerPoint slides, is not to be tested. Rather, it is their ability to present and discuss this material which should be the focus of the assessment. Such a position is consistent with stipulations made by the national educational

authorities, which specify that whatever the students have prepared beforehand is not to be assessed (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training [UDIR], 2014). This fact may further explain why the teachers seemed more concerned with the students' ability to present, reflect and analyse than with the specifics of what was being presented. In particular, they gave the impression of being preoccupied with the higher-order thinking skills of analysis, reflection and evaluation, as mentioned by Chamot (2009). A potential consequence of this line of thinking is that the subject matter construct is largely understood as *general world knowledge* and that a student with good general knowledge might obtain a high score in the exam as long as he or she possesses well-developed *higher-order thinking skills*.

As for the validity of the scoring process, the general agreement between the teachers' orientations towards subject matter and the aspects of content identified in the subject curriculum attests to fairly good correspondence between the teachers' cognitive processes and the intended construct to be measured (Bejar, 2012). One potential threat to validity, however, is the reluctance towards metacognitive strategies as an assessment criterion. Another is the variation in teacher perceptions regarding what kind of performance indicates proficiency at the different levels.

IX. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study has investigated Norwegian EFL teachers' conceptions of subject matter content in an oral exam at the upper secondary level and compared these conceptions with aspects of content specified in the English subject curriculum. The results show that the teachers have very general conceptions of content, something which corresponds well with the content construct as defined in the curriculum. Moreover, the findings indicate that the teachers are generally more concerned with the skills and process aspects of content than with specific subject matter. In particular, they seem oriented towards higher-order thinking skills, such as the ability to reflect on a given topic.

Three limitations of this study must be kept in mind. First of all, the teacher sample was small, something which makes generalizations to other contexts problematic. Secondly, although the teachers were interviewed on their orientations towards the content construct generally, they were probably influenced by the performance of the student in the video-clip. Therefore, had there been another student giving a different performance, the teacher responses may also have been somewhat different. Thirdly, introspective methods such as interviews and VPA, which were used in this study, do not automatically predict genuine teacher behaviour in authentic assessment situations.

The study has two major implications. The first one relates to the importance of higher-order thinking skills in upper-intermediate level L2 language education. As raters appear to be concerned with such skills in this context, teachers should take care to provide classroom tasks and material which let students develop their ability to analyse, reflect on and evaluate subject matter content. Secondly, the validity problems related to the role of metacognitive strategies in the test construct, as well as the differences in perceptions concerning what kind of behaviour that is indicative of performance at the different levels, need to be addressed. One feasible solution to these problems is the introduction of a common rating scale, which may better guide the teachers in their operationalization of the content construct (Fulcher, 2012). In addition, it seems that more rater training would be beneficial, as this is reported to have positive effects on reliability (Taylor & Galaczi, 2011).

An avenue for further research is the question of the interface between language and content. As current research is particularly concerned with how the language and content constructs interrelate (Snow & Katz, 2014), it would be relevant to explore further how the teachers understand this interrelation in EFL/ESL teaching.

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Finnish Children Producing English Vowels — Studying in an English Immersion Class Affects Vowel Production

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Abstract—The aim of this study was to examine how earlier second language teaching affects Finnish school children's pronunciation of British English vowels. Two groups of Finnish children between the ages of eleven and thirteen were tested. The early learners studied in an English immersion class in a Finnish elementary school while the control group attended a regular Finnish speaking class at the same school. The task consisted of twenty three English stimulus words which included the twelve monophthong English target vowels in voiced and voiceless environments. The words were repeated seven times during the task. The participants produced the words after a native model and the target vowel qualities were then acoustically analysed. Statistical analysis revealed a group main effect. More specifically the analysis showed that the groups differed significantly in the way they produced target vowel second formant (F2) values. The F2 difference was only significant in the voiced context. Closer examination of the groups' vowel qualities revealed that the control group tended to produce the F2 values higher than the early learner group in most of the target vowels. The higher F2 values can be an indication of more frontal tongue position or less lip rounding during vowel production.

Index Terms—children, vowel production, second language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

When learning to produce a second language (L2) an individual can face various challenges depending on the similarities and differences between the sound systems of his or her mother tongue (L1) and the target language. According to second language learning theories, although completely new speech sounds are evidently challenging to learn, the most difficult L2 sounds to acquire are the ones which acoustically and motorically resemble L1 sounds. For example, the Speech Learning Model (SLM, (Flege, 1987; Flege, 1995)) and the Perceptual Assimilation Model (PAM, (Best, 1994)) state that L2 sounds that are similar to L1 sound categories are most likely to be assimilated to one or more L1 categories, thus causing maximal learning difficulties in the perception and production of L2 sounds. When an L2 sound is similar to an L1 category, the L2 sound is assimilated to, i.e. perceived as an exemplar of, an L1 sound category. This assimilation of L2 sounds causes the speaker to replace the difficult L2 sounds with similar L1 sounds, resulting in possible difficulties in communication. These difficulties continue until the speaker learns to perceive and thereafter produce the L2 contrasts that are irrelevant in his or her L1.

Although L2 learning poses different challenges to speakers of all ages, previous research has provided evidence that children are, in fact, often faster and more successful L2 learners than adults. For example, Giannakopoulou et al. (2013) discovered that Greek children (7-8 years) showed more improvement in English phoneme identification and discrimination than Greek adults (20-30 years) after high-variability perceptual training. This suggests an enhanced plasticity for L2 learning in childhood. Studies have also shown that children are particularly successful when they need to learn to accurately produce L2 sound qualities in language immersion situations (Oh et al., 2011; Tsukada et al., 2005). The study of Japanese immigrants in the United States by Oh et al. (2011) showed that Japanese adults produced English vowels more accurately than children when tested shortly after their arrival in the US, but after a year of immersion the child participants already produced English vowels with higher accuracy than adult subjects, suggesting them to be more efficient language learners. In addition, Tsukada et al. (2005) found that Korean children learning English as an L2 learned to produce the phonetic properties of English vowels more native-like than Korean adults, when compared to age-matched native English speakers. Furthermore, it has been shown that children can benefit even from very short term production training in laboratory conditions when learning to produce a difficult L2 vowel (Taimi, Jähi, Alku, & Peltola, 2014). This finding indicates an ability to acquire difficult vowel contrasts efficiently through simple listen and repeat training even in unnatural learning settings.

Research has also provided evidence that early age of acquisition (AOA) correlates with more native-like L2 vowel production accuracy in early and late bilinguals (Piske, Flege, MacKay, & Meador, 2002). However, AOA is not the

only factor that affects L2 learning and pronunciation. For instance, it has been shown that the effect of the amount of L1 use on the degree of perceived foreign accent in L2 speech can in fact be stronger than the effect of AOA (Flege, Frieda, & Nozawa, 1997). This study compared two groups of early Italian-English bilinguals who immigrated to Canada as young children. The group who reported using Italian often was judged by native English speakers to have significantly stronger foreign accent in their L2 than the group who spoke Italian rarely. Taken together these results suggest children to be highly efficient and successful L2 learners, who can modify their pronunciation according to L2 phonetic information extracted from natural language exposure situations or from more explicit training situations.

Finnish children start school at the age of 7 and continue in elementary school for six years until the age of 13. Most children begin their first foreign language studies on the third grade at the age of 9. The first L2 for Finnish school children is usually English and it is taught for two to three hours per week. This means that by the end of elementary school, most Finnish children have studied English for three years. However, there are separate immersion language classes where L2 learning begins already on the first grade, so that all teaching is given in English or another L2. Therefore, children can have vastly different amounts of English experience at the end of elementary school. The Finnish National Agency for Education has implemented a reformation of the national core curricula which prepones English teaching to the first grade. In other words, children can start their English studies at the age of 7 as soon as they enter elementary school or later at the ages of 8 to 9 on the second or third grades. In the reformed national curricula English lessons are distributed evenly throughout elementary school, so that the overall amount of English teaching stays the same regardless of when children begin their L2 studies. Research on the sensitive period of language learning (Johnson & Newport, 1989) supports the idea of earlier L2 teaching, but there is not much research on how different language learning environments or immersion programs in school affect the development of L2 pronunciation. Some studies have focused on the effects of language immersion day care on L2 category perception and discrimination (Peltola, Kuntola, Tamminen, Hämäläinen, & Aaltonen, 2005; Peltola, Tuomainen, Koskinen, & Aaltonen, 2007). In these studies it was found that early L2 exposure in immersion day care might or might not alter the children's L2 perception. However, these experiments only focused on the perception of L2 sound categories and excluded the production aspect of L2 learning. Therefore, the question of how immersion classes and earlier L2 teaching affect the pronunciation accuracy of L2 sounds remains unsolved.

The aim of this study was to examine how earlier L2 teaching in an immersion language class affects Finnish children's pronunciation of British English vowels. The Finnish phonological vowel system contains eight vowels: /ɑ/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/, /y/, /æ/ and /ø/ (Suomi, Toivanen, & Ylitalo, 2008). British English Received Pronunciation (RP), however, has twelve monophthong vowels: /i:/, /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ɒ/, /u:/, /ɔ:/, /ʌ /, /ɒ/, /ɑ:/, /ɜ:/ and /ə/ (Deterding, 1997; Roach, 2004). Therefore, in the light of L2 learning models and theories, it can be hypothesized that Finnish speakers face difficulties when learning English vowels, since they have to learn to perceive and produce phonological contrasts that are irrelevant in their L1. British English vowels are theoretically maximally difficult for Finnish children to learn, since vowels can never be perceived by an L2 learner as completely new sounds, meaning they are initially always assimilated to L1 vowel categories (Peltola, 2003). It can be hypothesized that in the present study, the vowels /ɪ/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, /ʌ /, /ɒ/, /ɜ:/ and /ə/ of the twelve tested British English monophthong sounds would theoretically be the most difficult for Finnish children to produce, as these categories are phonologically irrelevant in Finnish and are likely to be assimilated to L1 vowel categories. Children who have studied in an English immersion class, however, may have benefited from the daily English exposure in school and might not encounter equal difficulties in the production of these theoretically difficult vowels as the children who have only studied English for three years as a separate school subject.

II. MATERIAL AND METHODS

A. Participants

The 32 participants in this study were 11-13-year-old Finnish school children who were on their last year of elementary school. The early learner group consisted of 17 participants (10 girls, aged 12;4-13;2, median 12;9), who all attended an English immersion class, where all school subjects were taught in British English. Most of the participants had attended the immersion class throughout elementary school (6 years). One participant had studied in the English speaking class for only 2 years and had lived in Australia for 3 years. Another participant had attended the immersion class for 3 years but had lived in the United States for 3,5 years. One participant had lived in the United States for 2 years before starting school and had attended the English speaking class for full 6 years. Almost all of the children in the early learner group had some contact with English outside school – two had attended an English immersion day care and many others had English speaking relatives or acquaintances. However, none of the children spoke English at home or had English speaking parents and none of them spoke English as an L1.

The participants in the control group were 17 children from a Finnish speaking class (8 girls, aged 11;9-12;7, median 12;2) from the same school. They had studied English since the third grade (3 years) as a separate school subject for 2-3 hours per week, according to the Finnish National Agency for Education's national core curricula. One participant had lived in Norway for a year and one reported speaking Arabic at home with family members. Two participants from the control group were excluded from data analyses because the language background questionnaire revealed them to be Finnish-English bilinguals – both had one English and one Finnish speaking parent and they had learned English from

birth. Thus data from 17 participants in the early learner group and 15 participants from the control group were included in the analyses. The participants' language backgrounds were not strictly controlled because the aim was to test two representative groups of Finnish school children from an average Finnish school.

All participants and their parents gave a written informed consent before the experiment and the study was conducted with permission from the Ethics Committee of the University of Turku.

B. Stimuli

The stimuli were 23 English words containing the 12 target British English monophthong vowels /i:/, /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ʊ/, /u:/, /ɔ:/, /ʌ/, /ɒ/, /ɑ:/, /ɜ:/ and /ə/. Each of the vowels, excluding the neutral central vowel /ə/, appeared in a fortis and lenis context in the selected stimulus words, i.e. before voiceless and voiced consonants. The stimulus words containing the target vowels are listed in Table 1.

TABLE I.
STIMULUS WORDS

	/i:/	/ɪ/	/e/	/æ/	/ʊ/	/u:/	/ɔ:/	/ʌ/	/ɒ/	/ɑ:/	/ɜ:/	/ə/
Voiceless	heat /hi:t/	hit /hɪt/	bet /bet/	hat /hæt/	foot /fʊt/	hoot /hu:t/	bought /bɔ:t/	hut /hʌt/	tot /tɒt/	heart /hɑ:t/	hurt /hɜ:t/	
Voiced	heed /hi:d/	hid /hɪd/	bed /bed/	had /hæd/	hood /hʊd/	who'd /hu:d/	board /bɔ:d/	hud /hʌd/	Todd /tɒd/	hard /hɑ:d/	heard /hɜ:d/	harder /hɑ:də/

Each of the target British English vowels, except the neutral central vowel /ə/, appeared in voiced and voiceless contexts in the stimulus words.

The stimuli were recorded from a native British English speaker (male) in an earlier study (Peltola, Lintunen, & Tamminen, 2014). The speaker produced each word seven times, 161 tokens in total. The recording paradigm included all seven repetitions of the 23 stimulus words in order to maintain natural variance in the stimuli and the target vowel qualities.

C. Procedure

The procedure was a simple listen and repeat task where the participants were instructed to listen closely to the English words that they heard and then repeat them aloud. The data was collected using a PC laptop computer running Sanako Student Recorder software (version 7.20) and a Beyerdynamic MMX300 headset connected to an Asus Xonar U3 soundcard. The experiment was conducted during school hours in the school library. No written prompt of the stimulus words was given during the task to avoid any orthographical interference in the productions. The 161 stimulus words were presented in a pseudorandomized order with an inter-stimulus interval (ISI) of 3000ms. There were two self-paced breaks during the task. The experiment lasted for 10-12 minutes in total, depending on the length of the breaks.

D. Analysis

All productions were acoustically analysed using Praat speech analysing software (version 5.3.01). The first (F1) and second formants (F2) as well as the fundamental frequency (F0) were extracted from the steady state phase of the target vowels, where the formants were not in transition and the vowel quality was stable. The formant values were measured from all seven repetitions of the stimuli (161 tokens per subject) and average target vowel formant values were then calculated for each subject. In addition, vowel durations were measured from the beginning of voicing or explosion to the start of occlusion at the beginning of the word final consonant. However, no further analysis was conducted on the duration data as the focus of the study was on vowel quality.

The vowel /ə/ was excluded from statistical analysis, since the word final position of the vowel resulted in creaky voice and poor quality in most of the productions, and therefore no formant frequency values for /ə/ could be extracted from much of the data. The F1 and F2 values for each of the remaining 11 target vowels from both groups were statistically analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics software (version 22). A repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted first for both groups and the analysis continued with further tests for statistically relevant interactions. Only significant findings are reported.

III. RESULTS

The formant frequency data was analysed using a Group (2) x Vowel (11) x Voice (2) x Measure (2) repeated measures ANOVA, which revealed a significant main effect of Group, indicating a difference between the early learners and the control group ($f(10,21)=2.715, p=0.026$). The analysis also revealed a Group (2) x Vowel (11) x Measure (2) interaction, meaning that the groups used F1 and F2 values differently in different vowels ($f(10,21)=2.399, p=0.044$). A Group (2) x Vowel (11) x Measure (2) analysis for the voiced and voiceless words revealed that the difference between groups was significantly larger in the voiced context, i.e. in the words where the vowel was followed by a voiced consonant ($f(10,21)=2.611, p=0.031$). A Group (2) x Vowel (11) analysis also revealed that, more specifically, the significant difference was produced in the F2 values ($f(10,21)=3.191, p=0.012$). In other words, the two groups used the F2 values differently in the production of the target vowels. The F2 difference was valid for the words with a voiced consonant context ($f(10,21)=3.056, p=0.015$).

The average formant values for each vowel from both groups and the stimuli produced by a native male speaker are listed in Table 2. A closer examination of the formant values revealed that the control group tended to produce the British English vowels with higher F2 values than the early learners, which might suggest a more frontal tongue position or less lip rounding during the production of these vowels. The control group produced higher F2 values especially in the vowels /i:/, /ɔ:/ and /ɒ/ but the formant values seem to differ largest in /i/ in the word *hid* (Early learners: F2= 2587 Hz, Control group: F2= 2712 Hz) where the absolute difference between groups is 125 Hz. These findings explain the statistical Group (2) x Vowel (11) interaction. In addition, the formant values also reveal that the control group produced the vowels /u:/ and /ɜ:/ with lower F2 values than the early learners, which could be an indication of either a more backed tongue position or a more rounded lip position during articulation. The average formant values of the stimuli produced by a native British English speaker differed from both subject groups' F1 and F2 values. This was to be expected, as the fundamental frequency in 11 to 13 year-old children is considerably higher than the pitch of an adult male speaker due to physiological reasons, resulting in higher F1 and F2 frequencies in the vowels produced by the children.

TABLE II.
TARGET VOWEL FORMANT VALUES

Vowel	Context	Formant	Native	Early learners	Control group
/i:/	/hi:t/	F1	269	398	428
		F2	2334	2773	2831
	/hi:d/	F1	269	397	418
		F2	2311	2749	2827
/ɪ/	/hɪt/	F1	378	457	454
		F2	2160	2572	2706
	/hɪd/	F1	333	443	449
		F2	2204	2587	2712
/e/	/bet/	F1	613	621	632
		F2	1916	2134	2230
	/bed/	F1	502	623	624
		F2	1964	2171	2228
/æ/	/hæt/	F1	950	897	915
		F2	1577	1826	1908
	/hæd/	F1	884	872	880
		F2	1511	1833	1890
/ɒ/	/fɒt/	F1	411	478	468
		F2	857	1299	1262
	/hɒd/	F1	351	454	449
		F2	967	1180	1220
/u:/	/hu:t/	F1	280	432	444
		F2	1398	1415	1404
	/hu:d/	F1	272	422	428
		F2	1256	1358	1272
/ɔ:/	/bɔ:t/	F1	403	515	548
		F2	678	1005	1087
	/bɔ:d/	F1	381	504	552
		F2	604	967	1029
/ʌ/	/hʌt/	F1	721	766	789
		F2	1079	1383	1433
	/hʌd/	F1	728	724	766
		F2	1114	1459	1483
/ɒ/	/tɒt/	F1	590	584	623
		F2	1134	1188	1285
	/tɒd:/	F1	507	579	614
		F2	856	1194	1271
/ɑ:/	/hɑ:t/	F1	651	720	751
		F2	985	1229	1259
	/hɑ:d/	F1	632	694	720
		F2	968	1214	1230
/ɜ:/	/hɜ:t/	F1	491	605	655
		F2	1415	1823	1785
	/hɜ:d/	F1	461	580	620
		F2	1480	1824	1774

The average target vowel F1 and F2 values (Hz) from seven repetitions of the test words from both subject groups and the native British English speaker who produced the stimulus words.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results show that the two groups tested in this study produced the eleven British English monophthong vowels differently. This is in accordance with the initial research hypothesis that the daily exposure to British English might be

reflected in the early learners' vowel productions even when compared to children who had studied English for three years in a classroom setting. The two groups used second formant values differently in the production of the target vowel qualities and the difference in F2 values was statistically significant. This finding supports the notion that age of acquisition and the manner of learning affect the attainment of L2 pronunciation. The results of this study suggest that the children who had started learning English at a younger age in an immersion style setting in an English speaking class had benefitted from the earlier and more extensive L2 exposure, which was reflected in their English vowel productions. Most of the children in the early learner group had been exposed to English from the age of 7 for six years and they had studied all school subjects in English during their time in the immersion class. The participants in the control group, however, had only studied English for three years as a separate school subject after beginning their L2 studies at the age of 9. Therefore the early learners had an average of three years more L2 experience and they had started acquiring the language at a younger age than the control group. In addition, the early learners had had more English exposure and input throughout elementary school, since they studied all their subjects in English. The control group, on the other hand, only studied English for 2 to 3 hours a week as a separate subject while all other subjects were taught in Finnish.

Statistical analysis revealed that the difference in the groups' F2 values was significant in the voiced but not in the voiceless stimulus words. There is no definite explanation for this finding, but there are a couple of possibilities that might explain the difference. Firstly, we have to consider the phonology and phonotactic rules of the Finnish language which greatly differ from those of English. Theoretically, the voiced stop consonant /d/ is phonological in Finnish. However, it is practically always realised as voiceless /t/ in regular speech. In addition, a voiced stop consonant can never appear in a word final position in Finnish, as a word can only end in a vowel or the consonants /t/, /n/, /s/, /l/ or /r/ (Suomi et al., 2008). Therefore, the voiced stimulus words used in this study ending in /d/ were probably particularly challenging for the control group from an articulatory point of view, as they were not used to producing a voiced stop consonant in a word final position. On the other hand, the early learners who had had more English experience, could better perceive and focus on the production of the target vowels as the production of voicing in the word final consonant did not require as much effort.

Another explanation could simply be that the vowel quality difference between groups was more easily measurable in the voiced target words due to the pre-lenis lengthening phenomenon found in British English phonology. Pre-lenis lengthening and pre-fortis clipping affect sound duration in the vowel preceding a consonant. When a vowel is followed by a voiced consonant, such as /d/, the vowel is produced slightly longer than before a voiceless consonant such as /t/. Therefore, it might be that the steady states of the target vowel formants were more stable in the words with voiced consonant context and this could have been reflected in the formant measurements. However, the duration of the target vowels in pre-lenis and pre-fortis environments was not analysed due to technical difficulties in obtaining the duration data from the recordings, and therefore no further conclusions of the effects of vowel duration on vowel quality can be drawn from this data.

Closer inspection of the formant values listed in Table 2 revealed that the groups' production of F1 and F2 frequencies in the target vowels differed especially in four of the vowels that are not phonological in Finnish (/ɪ/, /ʊ/, /ɔ/ and /ɜ/), i.e. vowels which are similar to Finnish vowels and were hypothesized to cause most differences between the two groups. This finding is congruent with the theoretical framework of second language learning and supports the prediction that L2 sounds that are similar, but not identical, to L1 categories are most challenging to learn. For example, the formant values for each target vowel in Table 2 revealed that the participants in the control group produced the vowel /ɪ/ with considerably higher F2 values than the early learners. In fact, the F2 values for the English vowel /ɪ/ in the words *hit* and *hid* are very close to the F2 values in the vowel /i:/ in the words *heat* and *heed*. This finding is in accordance with second language learning theories and models (Best, 1994; Flege, 1995; Kuhl, Williams, & et al, 1992) as well as previous research findings (Peltola et al., 2003; Peltola et al., 2014), which predict that the lax vowel /ɪ/ is one of the most difficult English sounds for Finnish L1 speakers to learn. Peltola et al. (2014) showed that university English students produced English vowels in a more native-like manner after explicit pronunciation teaching and the learning effect was best reflected in /ɪ/. A study by Ylinen et al. (2010) has also provided evidence that native Finnish speakers tend to use duration cues rather than spectral cues in the discrimination of the English /i:/ - /ɪ/ contrast, which can also be expected to be reflected in the production of these vowels. Looking at the results of the present study, it seems that the control group assimilated the English lax /ɪ/ to Finnish /i/ category and produced it as more frontal than the early learners, resulting in higher F2 values.

The formant values listed in Table 2 reveal that the control group did produce slightly lower F2 values for /ɪ/ than /i:/, but the difference between the vowels is not as clear as the difference produced by the early learners. This might indicate that the children who did not study in the English immersion class had more difficulties producing the two similar vowels as separate sounds, since they both were assimilated to Finnish /i/ sound category. The early learners, however, probably benefited from more extensive English experience and were therefore able to distinguish these two vowels better in their productions. These differences in the pronunciation of the vowel /ɪ/ most likely explain the Group (2) x Vowel (11) x Measure (2) interaction found in the statistical analysis.

All in all, the results of this study support the hypothesis that the L2 experience of the early learners from the English immersion class was reflected in their pronunciation, as their production of British English vowels differed significantly

from the vowels produced by the control group enrolled in a Finnish speaking class. Both the manner of learning and the age of acquisition explain the difference between the groups. In order to reliably draw conclusions of the pronunciation accuracy of the two groups, their productions should be compared to a third group of age-matched native British English speakers, which regrettably was not possible in the scope of the present study. However, it can be said that there is a significant difference in the way Finnish children from a Finnish speaking class and an English speaking class produce British English vowels and this difference can be explained by the differences in age of acquisition as well as English language experience and amount of exposure. This result supports the preponing of English teaching to the first grade, as guided by the new national core curricula from the Finnish National Agency for Education. Although the two groups tested in this study differed both in terms of age of acquisition and in manner of learning, the result gives reason to assume that children could benefit from earlier L2 teaching in terms of pronunciation even if it was provided only in separate L2 lessons.

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Foreign Languages and Creativity — The Quiet Connection in a Globalized/Interconnected World

How focusing on "deep work" can help foster creativity, and foreign language competency

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Abstract—This article examines the significance of foreign language learning and multilingualism in the development of those habits of mind that foster creative thought, critical thinking, and analytical skills, all needed in the globalized interconnected world and workplace -- particularly, the role of solitude and quiet in the development of creativity and critical thinking, as well as the deep, although seldom mentioned, paradoxical, significance of quiet, and even silence, in the foreign language learning process. In addition to the traditional and contemporary reasons for studying a foreign language for cultural and communicative reasons, this article demonstrates that foreign language as a discipline develops the ability to focus through often solitary "deep work" and "deep practice" on the development of foreign languages skills that can be generalized to other subjects and tasks across the disciplines and across linguistic and cultural boundaries. Many Languages One World (MLOW) offers an illustrative example of the ability of students who have mastered other languages to turn their ability to quietly focus, in solitude, to the creation of their winning essays, to collaborative teamwork in developing a UN presentation on the Sustainable Development Goals, and to the creation and delivery of their part of the team presentation. Future steps include incorporation of the silent period into foreign language education to foster sustainable creativity, as well as inclusion of this additional benefit of foreign language learning in promotion and advocacy for foreign languages at all levels.

Index Terms—creativity, multilingualism, critical thinking, analytical skills, foreign languages

I. INTRODUCTION

Creativity, highly sought after, yet elusive, demands "deep practice" and "deep work," often "quiet" and solitary, the very same skills developed by successful foreign language learners. However, the development of these very 21st century habits of mind is seldom recognized and discussed, or even mentioned as a reason for students to study another language

In an interconnected and globalized world, creativity, analytical skills, and the ability to work together are essential skills. Creativity is highly sought after, in demand across the disciplines, and the challenge is two-fold, not only to foster and encourage creativity from the earliest years, but to develop multiple pathways to sustainable creativity, critical thinking, and analytical skills in a globalized world. Pinker (2006) wrote that we are entering a conceptual age based on "inventive, empathic, big-picture capabilities" and characterized by "high concept" and "high touch," echoing and building on (Hall, 1976) the concept of "high context" culture.

Yet foreign languages are studied by fewer than 20% of K-12 students and only 8.1% of college and university students, and a mere 25% of Americans are able to hold a conversation in a language other than English.

Foreign language education and study could well be the bridge to creativity, critical thinking, and analytical skills, needed as global talent and necessary for global competitiveness, yet U.S. students lag behind.

However, creativity also needs to be sustainable, and the sustained effort over an extended period of time needed to develop foreign language proficiency and fluency may be an effective strategy to develop creative thought, critical thinking, and other skills and knowledge needed for success in the globalized workplace and world.

In addition to providing a pathway to intercultural understanding, needed both in the globalized interconnected world and in our multilingual communities, foreign language learning provides access to the habits of mind that foster creativity, critical thinking, and analytical skills, yet awareness of these latter linkages among potential foreign language learners.

II. FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING, CREATIVITY, CRITICAL THINKING, AND ANALYTICAL SKILLS -- THE NEED FOR FOCUS IN AN INTERCONNECTED WORLD

Cultural knowledge and communicative skills are traditionally linked to foreign language learning. In addition, the solitude and focus characteristic of the successful foreign language learner have been linked to creativity, and multilingualism has been linked to critical thinking, more rational decision-making, and creativity.

Newport (2016) has written that "deep work is the ability to focus without distraction on a cognitively demanding task. It's a skill that allows you to quickly master complicated information and produce better results in less time. Deep work will make you better at what you do and provide the sense of true fulfillment that comes from craftsmanship. In short, deep work is like a super power in our increasingly competitive twenty-first century economy. And yet, most people have lost the ability to go deep—spending their days instead in a frantic blur of e-mail and social media, not even realizing there's a better way." (instead of arguing distraction is bad, he instead celebrates the power of its opposite.

While there is more information available than at any other time in history, this abundance of streaming information, music, and media can be a distraction for many -- just as a competitive globalized workplace and marketplace have made innovation and productivity ever more highly sought after. Creativity, critical thinking and analytical skills all require focus.

Even as office spaces are routinely open-plan and classrooms are often built around group work, many of the most creative thinkers, including Charles Darwin, Steve Wozniak (Cain, 2012), Marcel Proust (Kaufman, 2015), and Ernest Hemingway (Simon, 2014) have accomplished their most important work alone, and many students who excel do so primarily through "deep practice" (Coyle, 2009) and individual work, or "serious study alone" (Cain, 2012). Productivity and accomplishment are often measured in terms of telling or understanding a story, yet "anything that occupies your working memory reduces your ability to think" (Kahneman, 2011), introverted leaders often produce the best results (Grant, 2012), and "open-plan offices have been found to reduce productivity and impair memory" (Cain, 2012).

Knowledge of other languages and cultures empowers students to look at things objectively, separating meaning from one specific form, or word, and the process of learning another language often provides insight into how another culture might approach analysis of information, as well as broader experience upon which to build thinking, analysis, and decision-making. (Kaufman, 2015) describes the importance of knowledge of other cultures in developing "integrative complexity," the ability and willingness to see new connections, essential to creative thought. In addition, foreign language skills are associated with critical thinking skills, better decisions and decision-making ability. (Keysar, 2012) wrote that "a foreign language provides greater cognitive and emotional distance than a native tongue does" in the decision-making process.

However, Americans are among the least likely in the world to have foreign language skills, or to study a foreign language. Fewer than 20% of K-12 public school students study a foreign language, only 8.1% of college and university students are enrolled in a class other than English, and only 25% of Americans are able to hold a conversation in a language other than English.

In a world, and workplace, where critical thinking, analytical skills, creativity, innovation, and the ability to effectively navigate a multilingual and multicultural environment are increasingly important, foreign language skills, always an advantage, have become a necessity, part of the skills set of global professional and of the global citizen.

It is interesting to note that, among U.S. companies valued at \$1B and more, the highest number are found in states with the largest percentage of the population who speak another language at home (CB Insights, 2017; CIS, 2014), yet the linkage between multilingualism and creativity remains largely unnoticed.

Traditional reasons for learning another language have included the development of a better understanding of the structure/grammar and vocabulary of our mother tongue, especially in the case of study of Latin, and the ability to appreciate literature in the original, especially in the case of modern languages including French. More recently, reasons for learning another language have included cultural and career advantages, as well as the need for a global citizenship mindset and values in an interconnected world.

However, the case for language learning may be, at the same time, much simpler, in that the very process of learning another language to the point of fluency and mastery, or even just to the point of proficiency, can serve as a model of the process that can be applied to the development of critical thinking and analytical skills, as well as creativity. Paradoxically, the key element enabling the generalization of the skills mastered in learning another language is quiet, reflective thought, and introspection.

Creative and innovative thought, and critical and analytical skills are both in demand and are highly rewarded, yet more elusive than ever, requiring focus and concentration in a distracting environment in the workplace, in our homes, and even in our educational institutions.

However, those who are proficient in, or have mastered, more than one language are particularly privileged in terms of both creative thought and critical thinking skills, due to their experiences in learning and in using more than one language.

In terms of innovation and creativity, bilinguals/multilinguals/successful foreign language learners have learned to look at concepts both routine and complex through several lenses efficiently and somewhat effortlessly, and their knowledge and experience of other languages and cultures often enhances acceptance and tolerance, as well as flexibility in envisioning differences and similarities among us all.

In terms of critical thinking and analytical skills, including decision-making, these same effective users of more than one language have learned to manage parallel systems of representation and thought somewhat effortlessly. Big data is certainly a buzzword in business and across the disciplines, and multilinguals effectively manage the analysis of data from multiple sources and in multiple formats on a regular basis. (Hayakawa, 2017) finds that "using a foreign language affects moral choice not through increased deliberation but by blunting emotional reactions."

However, an examination of this phenomenon can only aid in developing an understanding of why and how multilinguals develop this ease in perspective-taking and in developing alternative scenarios in the workplace and in their daily lives.

Mindfulness, listening, and focus are needed more than ever in a multi-tasking world. According to (Ophir 2009), frequent multitaskers tend to perform more poorly on cognitive tasks than those who multitask less frequently. (Tugend 2008) wrote that "while multitasking may seem to be saving time, psychologists, neuroscientists and others are finding that it can put us under a great deal of stress and actually make us less efficient."

Foreign language learning, creativity, and interdisciplinarity are characterized by integrative thinking. Dealing with all aspects of individual identity and collective culture, learning a foreign language is inherently interdisciplinary. The creative element in learning a language is that, in a sense, the language learner re-creates his identity with the framework of the learned second language. The report, *Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World* (MLA, 2007) recommended an integrative approach to the major, and foreign language is clear opportunity to teach these highly sought-after integrative thinking skills.

While foreign language learning has traditionally been associated with cultural knowledge and communicative skills, it is important to consider the value of the habits of mind learned by the successful foreign language learners -- focus, concentration, and solitary, quiet work -- in the development of highly sought-after skills of creativity, critical thinking, and analytical and rational decision-making in the globalized world and workplace.

III. THE PARADOXICAL ROLE OF QUIET AND SOLITUDE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

While the emphasis is often placed on active communication skills in foreign language learning, it is important to consider the significance of quiet and solitude in developing both foreign language skills as well as the concentration and focus that foster creativity and critical thinking.

The extrovert, the charismatic speaker, and collaborative play and work are hallmarks of modern culture. While no one denies that great artists, poets, writers, and thinkers spend lengthy periods of time working, and creating, alone, many classrooms tend to favor the outgoing talker among students, even in the foreign language classroom.

It is essential to better understand the process of learning another language and the psychology of the foreign language learner in order to maximize the impact of foreign languages on creativity, critical thinking, and analytical skills.

Paradoxically, many of the most successful foreign language learners spend long hours alone, reading the classics and modern works of literature and of non-fiction, which provides the framework for internalizing not only the grammar and vocabulary of the target language, but for absorbing the perspective and approaches to critical thinking and analysis and to the expression of complex thoughts, ideas, and concepts in the target languages, but also for developing an understanding of the culture and worldview prevalent among target language native speakers. (Kaufman, 2013) has examined the importance of practice and of deliberate practice in the development of expertise. (Csikszentmihalyi, 2013) describes the flow of creativity with "creative individuals are often quiet and at rest," capable of "great concentration," with periods of "reflection" an essential part of a learned process, similar to that of learning a foreign language. In (Porter, 2014), Sternberg describes creativity as a "habit," similar to the routine study and use of a learned second language that is necessary for proficiency and fluency.

The ability to engage in deep practice (Coyle, 2009) and deep work (Newport, 2016), primarily alone (Cain, 2012), is certainly learned by the effective foreign language learner and can be generalized to other pursuits and academic disciplines.

Young children typically listen and are exposed to language for some time before they attempt understandable utterances, and many language learners experience a quiet, or silent, period during which they hear and are exposed to language, and even study language before they actually produce language. During this pre-production period, they receive and analyze information without the distraction of participating in conversation.

Whether one learns a language as one's mother tongue or as a second language, typically there is a "quiet" period during which the learner, whatever the age, is exposed to the language and observes its use, developing an understanding of its system and structure. In the case of the second language learner in a classroom setting, the learner observes the language through the teacher and print/media/online materials with very little active use of the language during an initial period, followed by original conversational and, even written, output.

In addition to this quiet period of introspection, there is also an element of creative destruction as the foreign language learner deliberately steps out the security of the system and structure of the mother tongue to embrace and absorb a new one, and as Grant (2016) wrote, the first element in bringing about positive change is creative destruction.

As part of his input hypothesis, Krashen (1982) described the silent period of language acquisition, during which the language learner, while surrounded by input in the target language, does not necessarily yet speak. This receptive silent

period, during which the learner captures input and develops a sense of the language, sets the stage for the development of active language production by the learner.

In addition, the fact remains that many of the creative thinkers throughout history, including Tolkien and Hemingway (Simon, 2014) have had more than one language, and that many areas of the world credited with some of the most remarkable creations and innovations in history have been plurilingual, multilingual, or even polyglot (Weiner, 2016; Florida, 2008). In his McKinsey article, Feser (2017) discusses the importance of focusing on what matters most for leaders in the global workplace.

Perhaps it is by teaching foreign language learners the value of quiet – freedom from distractions – that foreign language learning increases empathy and understanding of others as well as critical thinking and analytical skills.

The value of quiet and solitary work in developing foreign language skills, as well as creative thought, critical thinking, and rational decision-making are not always linked in the minds of foreign language learners and other language stakeholders.

IV. LANGUAGES IN CONTACT -- CREATIVITY, COSMOPOLITANISM, AND MULTILINGUALISM IN THE GLOBAL CITY

The relationship of multilingualism and creativity extends beyond the individual into the community, characterizing some of the most iconic global cities in the U.S. and beyond.

As stated earlier, the highest number of US companies valued at more than \$1B are found in states with the largest percentage of the population who speak another language at home (CB Insights, 2017; CIS, 2014). These states include California, Florida, Illinois, Massachusetts, and New York (in alphabetical order). Although this linkage between multilingualism and creativity exists historically and globally, it remains largely unexamined.

The effects of a confluence of languages, whether within the individual or within the community, have been discussed in terms of personal identity, as well as in terms of creativity, innovation, and leadership. Most recently, Weiner (2016) has examined cities and cultures throughout history, many of which have characterized by a coexistence of languages, as centers of creativity, innovation, and genius. Engel (2014) examined contemporary clusters of innovation around the world where diversity, including multilingualism, is a driver of innovation. Livermore (2016) examined the importance of diversity in innovation. Florida (2008), building on earlier works on creativity and the creative class, focused on the importance of diversity in effective cities where innovation thrives.

(Kharkhurin, 2012) examined the relationship and linkages between multilingualism and creativity, as did the European Commission report (2009) and (Ghonsooly and Showqi, 2012), who demonstrated, “enhanced divergent thinking skills” among foreign language learners. Gardner (1993, 1995, 2006) linked creativity and leadership with linguistic intelligence and describes the ability of highly creative individuals to be fully engaged in and focused on their goal.

Ross and Jaumont (2012) examined the role of bilingualism in New York within the context of the *revolution bilingue francaise*, and Grosjean (2010) explained the wide range of linguistic skills and use that can called bilingualism. Gunesch (2008) examined the relationship between multilingualism and cosmopolitanism. Gardner (2010) examined motivation in second language learning from a sociological perspective.

However, the conversation of the nature and consequences of languages in contact is not limited to the contemporary context of the globalized world. Weinreich (1968) was among the first to discuss languages in contact and the concept of interlanguage -- where the language use of learner and the native speaker can be compared and contrasted -- in the current conversation. Mackey (1965) examined the impact linguistic interference within the bilingual context of Canada, and Fishman (1971) described the nature and consequences of bilingualism in the New York City area.

While the linkage between multilingualism and the creative city is well-known, it is necessary to include it even more widely in conversations with academic, governmental, and corporate language enterprise partners, as well as in foreign language education planning and in foreign language advocacy campaigns.

V. MANY LANGUAGES ONE WORLD (MLOW) – AN EXAMPLE OF THE CONVERGENCE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES, CREATIVITY, AND QUIET

The Many Languages One World Essay Contest and Global Youth Forum (MLOW) is a high-profile global example of successful foreign language learning outcomes and of successful foreign language learners. The MLOW winners exemplify the synergy of successful foreign language learning and creativity, critical thinking, and global skills.

MLOW, organized by the UN Academic Impact and ELS Educational Services, Inc., and launched in 2013, is intended to highlight the role and significance of multilingualism in global citizenship and to promote the continued study of the six official languages of the United Nations.

College and university students from around the world may submit essays on an assigned topic related to multilingualism and global citizenship in a learned second language. Finalists are interviewed by Skype, and winners are brought to the U.S., where they spend about a week on a local university campus preparing a presentation on an assigned topic relating to the principles of the UN Academic Impact (2014) or the UN Sustainable Development Goals - - SDGs (2015-2017) that they present in the General Assembly Hall of the United Nations.

MLOW is a wonderful example of the convergence of foreign languages and creativity, with the student winners demonstrating fluency in at least one, but often several learned foreign languages, through their winning essays and their presentations.

In addition to language mastery, the winning essays on the significance of multilingualism in the development of global citizenship are generally characterized by reflective thinking and, often, great depth of feeling, linking multilingualism, global issues, and the student's own life experience. Many of the students credit time spent reading both classic and modern works in the target language with the development of both linguistic skills and a more nuanced and sophisticated worldview.

However, it is in the development of the UN presentations that the interplay of multilingualism and creativity are even more readily apparent. Typically, the students will alternate between brainstorming in larger or smaller groups, and withdrawing to a quieter area to write and reflect as they refine their action plans for implementing one of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) in their home country.

The finished presentations demonstrate their linguistic skills, their knowledge of their topic, one of the SDGs, developed through reading, research, discussion, and reflection. Just as academic disciplines are characterized by their research methodologies, it is also possible to discern the linkage between the critical thinking and problem-solving approaches characteristic of the target language and culture as well as of the mother tongue of the student in their presentations. For example, the French and Francophone cultures have traditionally been well-known for the care with which an idea is presented, and a speech or presentation is built, and the structure and style of the student presentations in French reflect this.

The continuation of the MLOW initiative and its replication -- locally and among younger students -- is a future direction worth considering. It would be possible to replicate the spirit of MLOW, using multilingualism as a global competency as a tool to work together, across linguistic boundaries, to effectively address complex global issues. One example is the Student Essay Contest: Bilingualism and You, open to students in grades 7-11 in the New York City tri-state area, and part of the NYC Bilingual Fair (Frenchly, 2017).

While the impact of these student presentations on complex global issues in a learned second language is considerable, the camaraderie among students from so many different countries and with so many mother tongues, and their teamwork in preparing their presentations, are inspirational. In addition, there is a true sense of community and lasting friendships demonstrated by ongoing social media contact and local mini reunions.

However, it is the linguistic skill of the students, the heart of the event, that impresses the most, with the majority of student winners not only fluent in the language of their winning essay, but also in several additional local, regional, and international/global languages.

It is interesting to reflect on what sets these students apart from the many learners, especially in the U.S. and to some extent, in the rest of the Anglophone world (Yorke, 2017), who struggle with foreign language learning and fail to advance beyond elementary levels, if indeed, they study another language at all.

While the MLOW winners represent a broad spectrum of disciplines and come from all levels of college and university study, it is their ability -- and willingness -- to write an original 2,000-word essay in a learned second on an abstract topic, that is not required as part of their course of studies, that is both noteworthy and commendable, especially so when one takes into consideration the high level of thought and of expression.

The essays, and subsequent presentations, are characterized by the ability to effectively manipulate complex ideas and to express them in an academic and scholarly writing style, complemented by relevant references from the global scholarly literature. This high level academic writing and, at times, literary style are reflective of extensive reading in the target -- and additional -- languages.

It is interesting to reflect on the role of quiet and solitude in the work of the MLOW students, both during an often extended period of foreign language study and as busy students willing to take time away from social activities and social media to compose their winning essays. As (Cain, 2012) wrote, "introverts prefer to work independently, and solitude can be a catalyst to innovation."

Both the willingness to immerse oneself in a challenging writing project, in addition to the coursework assignments that characterize student life (the entrants are all full-time college or university students), and the extensive reading that forms the foundation for the thought and execution of these winning essays are reflective of self-selected quiet time to focus on an idea and goal.

It is also noteworthy that, even as the student winners are working together collaboratively in their language groups as they prepare their UN presentations, that much of the truly creative work that makes each presentation so unique, and so brilliant, is often accomplished alone, as the student revises after discussion and practice.

This model of foreign language learning excellence accompanied by a 21st century skills set including creativity, global competency, critical thinking, and analytical skills, as well as social and public speaking skills, is one that could be examined, deconstructed, and replicated.

VI. NEXT STEPS -- THE IMPORTANCE OF THE QUIET/SILENT PERIOD ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

In a distracted, multitasking world, the importance of quiet and solitary work should not be underestimated, as demonstrated by the excellence of the MLOW winners. Elements of the quiet, solitary work and "deep practice" needed to achieve excellence in foreign language learning can be used across the disciplines.

Kaufman (2015) wrote that "solitude is an important means for artists and thinkers to develop that inner focus. After all, it is only in the stillness of our own company that we can truly begin to truly bring our attention to the inner landscape of thoughts, ideas, and emotion that is a crucial wellspring of creativity."

It is necessary to recognize the importance of quiet, solitude, and focus for the foreign language learner, as well as the significance of these skills of deep work and deep practice across the disciplines in collaborative interdisciplinary and transnational teams, and in effectively addressing complex global issues. The habits of mind acquired by learning a foreign language can form the foundation for success in other academic disciplines and in the globalized workplace.

Just as traditional solitary reading and study characterize successful foreign language learning, online learning can support foreign language learning, whether it is in an academic setting or whether it is part of a program of independent self-directed learning.

Just as the language and subject matter experts working with the MLOW winners as they prepare their UN presentations are called facilitators, guiding and supporting students as they prepare their individual presentations, recognition and support of a silent period across the curriculum and beyond fosters the creative and innovative thought of the independent self-directed learner.

Exemplified in the language learning process, where successful foreign language learners absorb and internalize a linguistic system and way of thought before extensive speaking and writing, this concept can certainly be expanded beyond the foreign language classroom and applied in other content areas, skills, and in the workplace.

Mindfulness, the art of listening and paying attention, is also a skill learned as part of the foreign language learning process, and characterizes the understanding of other cultures so frequently present among successful foreign language learners. It can be generalized to other disciplines and to the workplace.

The creativity of teachers in imparting skills, knowledge, and strategies to learners is invaluable, so too is the creativity of our learners, the most creative of whom may not always thrive in a traditional classroom (Grant, 2012). In addition to learning activities, it is also important to leave time for quiet reflective thought, reading, and listening.

In order to maximize the impact of quiet reflection and of solitude, not only on our foreign language learners, but on all of us, it is important for us to plan for this in our offices and in our classrooms and empower teachers and other leaders so that solitude and creativity can thrive and give hope for the future.

While the reasons often given for learning a foreign language, or for requiring students or employees to learn one, are certainly valid, there are many more reasons that are not often mentioned, including the discipline, deep work, deep practice, and quiet needed for mastery. In addition to developing meta-linguistic awareness, an understanding of other cultures, and the ability to communicate directly with others without need of an intermediary translator or interpreter, it is equally important to value this acquisition of a habit of mind, a silent or quiet period, which fosters individual learning and creative thought.

It is this quiet time, a period of introspection, that both enables the language learner to internalize a new system and new data -- aka grammar and vocabulary, before becoming an effective producer or speaker/writer of said second language.

Thinking about the power of this process, these principles can be applied these principles of focus, mindfulness, and critical thinking to the way we approach our work and our lives in an interconnected globalized world.

Incorporation of quiet study, and independent and self-directed learning, into the curriculum beyond foreign languages, is yet another way to empower a broader cross-section of students to achieve excellence in a wide array of millennial skills, and foreign language educators can lead the way.

VII. CONCLUSIONS -- THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE/MULTILINGUAL CONNECTION -- CREATIVITY, CRITICAL THINKING, AND ANALYTICAL SKILLS IN A GLOBALIZED WORLD

The quiet solitary work, concentration, and practice needed to achieve proficiency and even fluency in another language are also linked to creativity, critical thinking, and analytical and decision-making skills, yet are not widely known among prospective foreign language students and language enterprise partners. Foreign language educators have the opportunity to lead the way in empowering students to develop a 21st-century skills set through the habits of mind learned in the reflective foreign language classroom.

In a globalized world where communication and creativity are key to effectively addressing complex global issues, in a multitasking world where maintaining focus and concentration is increasingly a challenge, and in an interconnected world characterized by social media making it more difficult than ever before to carve out the quiet time alone for creative thought, foreign language learning provides a pathway to developing and strengthening habits of mind conducive, not only to communicative skills and intercultural knowledge, but also to divergent and creative thought, to critical thinking and analytical decision-making, and to the ability to work and interact effectively as part of a transnational team.

In discussing the benefits of foreign language study with students, prospective students and their families, as well as with decision-makers at all levels, it is certainly appropriate to include the ability to generalize the habits of mind

learned and formed in foreign language study and in the use of another language to problem-solving, critical and analytical skills, and to creative and innovate thought in addition to the better-known advantages such as cultural understanding. It is important to teach students to work on their own and the value of individual work, in learning a foreign language, across the disciplines, and in the workplace.

As (Cain, 2012) wrote, “there's zero correlation between being the best talker and having the best ideas,” and the real learning may not only take place in class, but also in quiet, solitary study.

Reflective foreign language education, including a pathway to excellence in translanguaging and transcultural competency, and to creativity, critical thinking, analytical and other higher-level skills needed across the disciplines, in the workplace, and in the globalized world, can lead to empowerment for our learners.

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EFL Instructors' Beliefs and Practices of Formative Assessment in Teaching Writing

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was twofold: firstly to assess EFL instructors' beliefs and practices of formative assessment in teaching writing, and secondly to determine the relationship between their beliefs and practices of formative assessment. Utilizing a mixed methods approach and an explanatory design, both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered and analyzed. The data were generated from 25 EFL instructors teaching writing skills via a five point Likert scale questionnaire and semi-structured interview as well as students' assessment papers. The Data from the close-ended questionnaire were analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistics whereas those from open-ended questionnaire, interview and students' papers were analyzed through description and thematic categorization. The findings showed that writing skills teachers have a positive belief toward the importance of formative assessment, and they practice it at medium level. Moreover, the statistical analysis showed a positive, moderate and significant correlation between instructors' beliefs and their practices ($r(23) = .569, p < 0.01$). Nevertheless, the triangulation made with the qualitative data revealed instructors' beliefs and their actual practices are incongruent.

Index Terms—formative assessment, belief, practice, EFL instructors

I. INTRODUCTION

This contemporary world needs people to develop a high level of competence and knowledge to adjust themselves with the rapidly changing environment and the increasing demands of modern technological society. In this respect, English language plays two key roles. First, it is a global language which serves as a medium of communication among people of the world. Second, it serves as a learning tool at different levels of education. Literacy in writing in English is especially essential in the academic world as most of the activities require a good writing ability.

Although literacy in English is very essential at any level of education, its value at higher education level is more crucial because in a university, writing is not just a standardized system of communication; it is an essential tool for learning as well (Weigle, 2002). This is why the value of written communication in English is becoming increasingly essential (Cumming, 2009). Learning to write in English has become more important and consequential for academic study, work and communications than it was 30 years ago (ibid).

In the current Ethiopian education system, it is mandatory to learn English as a subject from grade one up to secondary school level and to use it as a medium of instruction from grades seven (for some subjects) and nine (for all subjects except Amharic-the national language of the country) up to university level. In addition to their long years of exposure to English language both as a medium of instruction and as a subject, all first year university students take two English language courses (Communicative English Skills and Basic Writing skills) with the intention of equipping them with the basic skills to ease the language challenge they face when they learn different subjects. Among the skills, writing has received more emphasis than others, may be, due to its pivotal role for students' success in learning. The more emphasis offered to the skill is evident from the fact that it is treated as the other skills in the 'Communicative English Skills' course, and writing alone is taught in 'Basic Writing Skills Course', which illustrates that more time and emphases has been given to the development of writing skill.

However, with all this exposure and instruction, Ethiopian university students often receive complaints from instructors and other bodies about their low level of English language skills among which writing is the more serious one. Instructors claim that the students' ability to use English for their studies, especially to write grammatically accurate and meaningful sentences is deteriorating (Haregewain, 2008; Bekele, 2011; Zewdu, 2012). In addition, Geremew (1999) and Alamirew (2005) state that graduates are unable to express themselves clearly and currently in writing in English. The present researcher also shares this concern from his experience of teaching writing courses at Debre Markos University.

To remedy such writing problem, instructors' beliefs and practice of assessment are potential areas for investigation because it is assumed that the students' academic failure in general and writing ability in particular is associated with teachers' assessment beliefs and their actual practice in the classroom. Abiy (2013), in this regard, underscores that

assessment practices shape the instructional processes, and as a result of this learning can be changed. This translates that assessment is the driving force of the teaching and learning process i.e. if there is good assessment practice, sound instruction will follow and this will result in effective learning.

In the teaching of writing, the implementation of formative assessment is fundamental as it links instruction to learning and to writing improvement (Cumming, 2009). In addition, since writing is a procedural activity, as advocated by proponents of the process approach, it needs continuous formative assessment (feedback) from different bodies, such as self, peer, and teacher at the different stages of the writing process so as to provide writers with opportunity to revise their writing. In recent years, the traditional assessment of writing which focuses on the written products or on how well or badly students performed the writing is giving way to the process-oriented one which utilizes the formative potential of assessment for promoting learning through the active involvement of learners and teachers at the different stages in the writing process (Lee, 2011). This implies that writing teachers need to use formative assessment with the process-oriented approach of teaching. This approach is believed to not only make students perform better in writing and be responsible for their own learning but also to contribute much in developing their self-confidence in writing (Sadler, 1989; Macfarlane-Dick and Nicol, 2006).

Understanding the close link between assessment and instruction, few attempts have been made locally to address assessment related issues. Mebea (2008) studied the challenges of implementing continuous oral assessment in EFL classes focusing Debre-Birhan teachers' college. The study revealed both the teacher-educators and student-teachers have positive attitude towards continuous oral assessment though it is a neglected area of practice. The study pointed out that students' linguistic background, structural constraints, absence of college level assessment policy, inadequate use of informal continuous oral assessment methods, negligence of formative continuous assessment were the major factors affecting the practice. Similarly, Dagne (2009) explored EFL instructors' practice of continuous assessment at Jimma Teachers College and indicated 70% of the teachers did not use continuous assessment due to inadequate training, workload, extra responsibilities and large class size. In addition, Habtamu's (2012) investigation of EFL instructors' implementation of continuous assessment in Dilla University showed that instructors in the university had inadequate knowledge about the principles and purposes of continuous assessment. The findings additionally showed that instructors used assessment devices mainly to judge students' language performance, not to gear the teaching and learning. Abiy (2013), on his part, studied high school teachers' and students' perceptions, attitudes, and actual practices of continuous assessment and concluded that continuous assessment was not properly implemented and its function to diagnose student's problems and modify the teaching was found to be very limited and even absent in most cases.

One can learn that the above few studies attempted to investigate assessment-related problems at secondary school and college settings; however, none of them touched up on EFL teachers' beliefs and practices of formative assessment in teaching writing in a university context. Therefore, the present study could fill this gap by investigate EFL teachers' beliefs toward formative assessment and their actual practice in the writing class with particular reference to Debre Markos University. The study aimed to answer the following three major questions:

1. What belief do EFL instructors hold on the importance of formative assessment?
2. To what extent do EFL instructors practice formative assessment in their writing class?
3. What is the relationship between EFL instructors' beliefs towards and their actual practices of formative assessment?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *What Formative Assessment Is*

The term formative assessment has been defined by different scholars. For Black and William (2003:2), formative assessment is "any assessment for which the first priority is to serve the purpose of advancing student learning." These scholars maintain that formative assessment does not aim to make schools accountable, or to provide students with certificates. Instead it targets generating feedback about teaching and students' learning for making improvements on the process. Sadler (1998), on his part, defined it as a kind of assessment that is intended to produce feedback on performance to enhance and accelerate learning. Black and Wiliam (2009) also defined it as an activity which refers to all activities undertaken by teachers, and/ or by students, which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged. Therefore, formative assessment is an activity whose major intent is not to measure students' proficiency (what they did wrong or right), nor to certify their achievement level or be accountable, but rather to advance student learning and instruction through identification of weaknesses and taking remedial actions to repair them.

B. *Difference between Formative Assessment and Summative Assessment*

In 2011, the Cross Sectoral Assessment Working Party stated that formative assessment is assessment for learning which is often used at the onset of an instructional period and during the process of instruction when teachers aim to check for student understanding. Through diagnostic tools, this kind of assessment determines what students already know and where there are gaps. Formative assessment also includes assessment as learning, where students reflect on and monitor their own progress. The information gained via this assessment guides teachers' decisions in how to

enhance teaching and learning. In addition, it enables students to learn through the process of feedback and provides opportunities to practice and improve. As students reflect on and monitor their progress this process effectively becomes assessment as learning and contributes to students planning future learning goals. As Campbell and Norton (2007) claim, the feedback which emanates from formative assessment raises performance in all sorts of learning.

However, summative assessment is different in that it is assessment of learning which is usually used towards and at the end of the instruction period. Teachers document the culmination of students' learning achievements through tasks that invite students to demonstrate their mastery and knowledge of the course content. The data from summative assessment provides teachers with information about how effective teaching strategies have been, time needed for instruction and how to improve teaching for future students, not for students of the present.

In summary, formative assessment differs from the summative one in that formative assessment targets how to improve learning and have prospective functions whereas summative assessment aims at making judgment about the teaching and learning and it is concerned with summarizing the achievement status of a student. Summative assessment is geared towards reporting at the end of a chapter or a course. In fact, if properly used, summative assessment can serve formative purposes provided that teachers take remedial actions based on the evidence from the summative assessment.

C. Teachers' Beliefs and Their Assessment Practices

EFL teachers' beliefs refer to teachers' behaviors with some individual teaching practices which reflect their beliefs about teaching and learning a foreign language (Bauch, 1984; Graves, 2000; Huang, 1997) quoted in Lumpur (2013). Substantial evidence from studies in the past two decades has shown that language teachers' beliefs are complex, dynamic, context-sensitive and systematic depending on the nature of the subject, their teaching experience, the context they teach in, etc. (Zheng, 2015). Teachers' beliefs are consistently shown to have a powerful influence on their practice, but a good number of studies have also shown that there are large discrepancies between teachers' reported beliefs and their observed classroom practice (Ibid), and the researches pointed out that this may happen so due to contextual factors, such as social, institutional, instructional and physical settings in which teachers work.

Teachers' beliefs have a key role in implementing assessment policy reforms as much of the policies are implemented by teachers. Their beliefs are mostly shaped by a person's interactions with peers in daily life as well as his/her personal experiences and interpretations. Teachers should utilize assessment information to modify their teaching based on students' needs and provide students with formative feedback that moves learning forward (Leahy, Lyon, Thompson & William, 2005) quoted in Lumpur (2013). Teachers need to understand the rationale for using assessment to improve learning. Thus, it is crucial to find out teachers' appreciation of assessment as well as their assessment roles.

D. Assessment and Writing

In second/foreign language writing, assessment has traditionally focused on the written products and how well (or badly) students perform in writing (Lee, 2011). Such assessment is more retrospective than prospective, that is, it gives information about what students did in the past and it does not point out anything regarding what learners should do in the future. Therefore, it holds little value for teaching and learning. Weigle (2002) quoting Bachman and Palmer (1996) implicates that language assessment, of which writing assessment is a subset, is carried out for two main purposes. The primary purpose is to make inferences about the students' language ability (performance), and the other is to make decisions based on the inferences. The decisions may be either to report the students' level of learning (summative purpose) or to plan remedial actions in order to fill the learners' learning gaps.

In recent years, with a major paradigm shift in assessment and evaluation in English language teaching, writing assessment informed primarily by a product and summative orientation, is considered increasingly inadequate because this kind of assessment fails to capture the formative potential of assessment for promoting learning. A formative approach to assessment, on the other hand, focuses more on inquiry (i.e. discovering, diagnosing and understanding) and the opportunities assessment provides for improving teaching and learning. To exploit the potential of formative assessment in the writing classroom, it is obvious that classroom assessment practices be geared towards enhancing student learning (Lee, 2011).

E. The Role of Feedback for Formative Assessment of Writing

Feedback, in the writing classroom, refers to "the information that comes back from readers to the writer" (Elashri and Elshirbin, 2013:4). This information can generally emanate from two main sources: Internal and external. The internal feedback comes from the writer (the student) assessing his/her work based on the previously set goal and success criteria. On the other hand, external feedback comes from peers, the teacher, etc reading and assessing that work. Whatever the source, the information by itself is not feedback; it becomes feedback only when it is used to close the gap between the current (actual) level and the reference level of learning. In other words, the feedback must be used for future adjustment of teaching or/and learning. Feedback has a pivotal position in the process of formative assessment (Sadler, 1989; Brookhart, 2008; Heritage, 2010) because what makes an assessment formative is the presence of feedback and how it functions for future learning and teaching.

Studies on the nature of feedback that is most beneficial to learning reveal that the structure, focus and amount of feedback are important points to consider (Black and Wiliam, 1998). During the teaching-learning cycle, some types of

feedback, for example, those that are evaluative and compare one’s performance with others’ can have a negative effect on learning and motivation by convincing students that they lack ability and reducing their desire to exert effort to learn (Ibid). Feedback should constitute three basic elements about a task: what was done well, what needs improvement, and how to improve it. This information can be communicated orally, in writing, or as a question that causes students to reflect. Effective feedback provision should focus on the learning goals and success criteria identified for accomplishing the task (Heritage, 2008).

III. METHOD

This study used a mixed methods approach in which both qualitative and quantitative methods of data gathering and analysis were applied. The study employed explanatory design which started with collection and analysis of quantitative data from close-ended questionnaire items and followed by the subsequent collection and analysis of qualitative data from open-ended questionnaire items, semi-structured interview and students’ sample marked paragraph and essay papers.

A. Participants of the Study

The total population for this study were 27 Debre Makos University EFL instructors (25 males and 2 females) teaching writing skills course. The samples’ teaching experience (in university and elsewhere) ranged from five to twenty years and all of them are qualified with M.A/M.Ed. in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). All of them were selected for the study using comprehensive sampling technique. Out of the 27 instructors, two of them (a male and a female) did not return the questionnaire and they were excluded from the study. Thus, the total size of the samples came to be 25 (24 males and 1 female).

B. Instruments

Three data gathering instruments, namely questionnaire, semi-structured interview and document were used for this study. The questionnaire included 33 adapted items (30 close-ended, 3 open-ended). The internal consistency of the items was checked to be Cronbach’s alpha $\alpha = .78$. The close-ended items of the questionnaire had three sub-scales. The first category included 10 items seeking instructors’ beliefs toward the importance of formative assessment to enhance instruction and student learning. The second category (11 items) aimed to know instructors’ perceived practice of formative assessment for monitoring student learning. The third one, consisting of 10 items, concerns identifying instructors’ perceived practice of formative assessment for scaffolding student learning. In addition to the close-ended items, three open-ended questions were employed to gather more data from the participants. Moreover, semi-structured interview and sample students’ marked paragraphs and essays were used as additional data gathering tools. The qualitative data helped to dig out further information about the respondents’ beliefs and practices of formative assessment and to triangulate it with the information obtained from the questionnaire.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Analysis of the Quantitative Data

In this section, data from the close-ended items of the questionnaire were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

To determine the level of instructors’ beliefs and their practice of formative assessment, the researcher set measurement criteria. Accordingly, over all mean scores of greater than or equal to 4.0, or greater than or equal to 80 % agreement was very good. Over all mean scores of between 3.0 and 4.0, or between 60% and 80% agreement was medium and those of less than 3.0, or 60% agreement was low.

TABLE 1:
TEACHERS’ BELIEFS ABOUT THE IMPORTANCE OF FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT

Item	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	SD	
	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Undecided		Agree		Strongly agree				
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			
1	Assessment results tell me how well I have taught my students.	0	0	1	4	4	16	10	40	10	40	4.22	0.82
2	Assessment and evaluation results are important for instruction.	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	36	16	64	4.64	0.49
3	My instruction is tied closely to student assessment results.	0	0	5	20	2	8	11	44	7	28	3.8	1
4	Assessment and evaluation create competition among students.	1	4	1	4	3	12	12	48	8	32	4.0	1
5	Assessments provide a valuable learning experience for students.	0	0	0	0	1	4	13	52	11	44	4.40	0.58
6	Assessment results have an important effect on student self-concept.	0	0	1	4	3	12	12	48	9	36	4.16	0.8
7	Assessment and evaluation improve students’ learning.	0	0	1	4	0	0	12	48	12	48	4.40	0.71
8	Assessments and evaluations make my students work harder.	0	0	0	0	4	16	9	36	12	48	4.32	0.75
9	I need a variety of assessment methods to assess my students.	0	0	2	8	0	0	8	32	15	60	4.44	0.87

As depicted from the above table, 80% of the respondents agree that assessment results tell them how well they have taught their students ($M=4.22$, $SD=0.82$) while only 4% of them disagreed. All of the respondents (100%) agreed that assessment and evaluation results are important for instruction ($M=4.64$, $SD=0.49$). Also, most instructors (72%) showed their agreement that instruction is tied closely to student assessment results ($M=3.8$, $SD=1$). Only 20% of them believe there is no connection between assessment result and instruction. The above responses generally demonstrate instructors' positive belief towards the role of assessment in informing teaching.

On the other hand, 80% of the instructors reported their agreement with the idea that assessment and evaluation create competition among students ($M=4.0$, $SD=1$) while 8% of them disagreed. Almost all instructors (96%) reported that assessments provides a valuable learning experience for students ($M=4.40$, $SD=0.48$) and none of them disagreed. Most of them (84%) answered assessment results have an important effect on student self-concept ($M=4.16$, $SD=0.8$) though only few (4%) disagreed. Again, almost all respondents (96%) agreed that assessment and evaluation improve students' learning ($M=4.40$, $SD=0.71$), but very few of them (4%) disagreed. On the other hand, most instructors (84%) agreed assessments and evaluations make students work harder ($M=4.32$, $SD=0.75$), and there is no respondent disagreed. Finally, 92% of the respondents reported that they need a variety of assessment methods to assess their students ($M=4.44$, $SD=0.87$) and only 8% of them disagreed.

Generally, all participants rated the items positively and the obtained mean scores were all above 4.0 except only one item and the overall mean was 4.26. All in all 86.5% agreed formative assessment is important for enhancing instruction and student learning, which reveals that the instructors' belief towards the importance of formative assessment is very good.

TABLE 2:
TEACHERS' PERCEIVED PRACTICE OF FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT (MONITORING)

Item											Mean	Standard deviation	
	1		2		3		4		5				
	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Undecided		Agree		Strongly agree				
F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%				
10	I encourage my students to reflect upon how they can improve their writing.	0	0	2	8	3	12	7	28	13	52	4.24	1.0
11	I involve my students in thinking about how they want to learn writing.	0	0	7	28	5	20	13	52	0	0	3.24	0.9
12	I give my students the opportunity to decide on their learning objectives.	0	0	9	36	4	16	10	40	2	8	3.20	1.0
13	I ask my students to indicate what went well and what went badly concerning their assignments.	1	4	3	12	1	4	18	72	2	8	3.68	0.9
14	I encourage students to reflect upon their learning processes and how to improve their learning.	1	4	7	28	2	8	12	48	3	12	3.36	1.0
15	I inform my students on their strong points concerning their learning.	1	4	2	8	4	16	11	44	7	28	3.84	1.0
16	I inform my students on their weak points concerning their learning.	0	0	5	20	3	12	12	48	5	20	3.68	1.0
17	I encourage my students to improve on their learning processes.	0	0	3	12	3	12	7	28	12	48	4.12	1.0
18	I give students guidance and assistance in their learning of writing.	0	0	1	4	0	0	10	40	14	56	4.48	0.7
19	I discuss with my students the progress they have made in learning writing.	0	0	1	4	0	0	10	40	14	56	4.48	0.7
20	Together with my students, I consider ways on how to improve on their weak points.	1	4	3	12	2	8	8	32	11	44	4.0	1.0

Table 2 shows that 80% of the teachers encourage their students to reflect up on how they can improve their writing ($M=4.24$, $SD=1.0$). Only 8% of them disagreed and 12% of them were hesitant whether to encourage their students or the other way round. Almost half of the respondents (52%) reported that they involve students in thinking about how they want to learn writing ($M=3.24$, $SD=0.9$) and 28% of them replied they don't involve their students where as the other 20% couldn't decide whether or not they encourage students. It was also reported that less than half of the participant teachers (48%) give their students the opportunity to decide on their learning objectives ($M=3.2$, $SD=1.0$), but 36% reported they don't give this opportunity. On the other hand, 80% respondents expressed that they ask their students to indicate what went well and what went badly regarding assignments ($M=3.68$, $SD=0.9$) while 16% of them reported that they do not do this. 60% encourage students to reflect upon their learning processes and how to improve learning ($M=3.36$, $SD=1.0$) where as 32% of the respondents do not give this chance for their students. The majority (72%) inform students on their strong points concerning their learning ($M=3.84$, $SD=1.0$) and only 12% of the teachers do not indicate the strong points. Similarly, 68% of the teachers show students the weak points in their learning ($M=3.68$, $SD=1.0$) whereas only few of them (5%) disagreed on the idea of this. 76% teachers encourage students to improve their learning processes ($M=4.12$, $SD=1.0$) and 12% of them do not. Almost all (96%) teachers reported to give students guidance and assistance in their learning of writing ($M=4.48$, $SD=0.7$), but only 4% replied that they do not. Likewise, 96% participants agreed that they discuss with students the progress they have made in learning writing ($M=4.48$, $SD=0.7$) and only 4% denied doing so. Most respondents (76%) replied that they consider ways on how to improve on their weak points together with students ($M=4.0$, $SD=1.0$) and only 16% replied they do not.

To sum up, participants generally rated the items positively but more than half of the means were below 4.0 and the overall mean was 3.84. What is more, all in all 74% agreed they monitor learners through assessment. It is possible to deduce here that teachers’ practice of formative assessment through monitoring was rather medium.

TABLE 3:
TEACHERS’ PERCEIVED PRACTICE OF FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT (SCAFFOLDING)

Item	Item	1		2		3		4		5		Mean	SD
		Strongly disagree		Disagree		Undecided		Agree		Strongly agree			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		
21	I adjust my teaching whenever I notice that my students do not understand a topic.	3	12	13	52	5	20	4	16	0	0	2.40	0.9
22	I provide my students with guidance to help them gain understanding of the content taught.	1	4	0	0	1	4	12	48	11	44	4.28	0.9
23	During my class, students are given the opportunity to show what they have learned.	0	0	2	8	1	4	10	40	12	48	4.28	0.9
24	By asking questions during class, I help my students gain understanding of the content taught.	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	60	10	40	4.40	0.5
25	I am open to student contribution in my class.	2	8	5	20	5	20	11	44	2	8	3.24	1.0
26	I ensure that my students know what areas they need to work on in order to improve their results.	0	0	4	16	3	12	11	44	7	28	3.84	1.0
27	I give my students opportunities to ask questions.	1	4	2	8	0	0	16	64	6	24	3.96	1.0
28	My students know what the evaluation criteria for their work are.	0	0	6	24	4	16	9	36	6	24	3.60	1
29	I ensure that my students know what they can learn from their assignments.	1	4	1	4	4	16	14	56	5	20	3.84	0.9
30	I can recognize when my students reach their learning goals.	1	4	5	20	5	20	14	56	0	0	3.28	0.9

The above table shows only 16% of the teachers adjust their teaching whenever they notice that students do not understand a topic (M=2.8, SD=0.9) and the majority of them (64%) disagreed with the idea of adjusting lessons based on how much their students understood from the teaching. Some of them (20%) hesitated whether to agree or disagree. Most of them (92%) agreed they provide students with guidance to help them gain understanding of the content taught (M=4.2, SD=0.9) and only one respondent (4%) reported that no guidance is given. Similarly, the majority of them (88%) reported students are given the opportunity to show what they have learned during class time (M=4.28, SD=0.9) while only 8% of them disagreed with the provision of this opportunity. All of the respondents (100%) agreed that they help students gain understanding of the content taught by asking questions during class (M=4.40, SD=0.5).

About half of the participants (52%) reported they are open to student contribution (M=3.24, SD=1.0) whereas 28% of them did not agree. However, the rest (20%) made no decision if they are open or the other way round. Again, the majority of them (72%) agreed they ensure that their students know what areas they need to work on in order to improve results (M=3.84, SD=1.0), but only few (16%) of them disagreed. On the other hand, 88 % teachers give students opportunities to ask questions (M=3.96, SD=1.0) while only 12 % of them disagreed with giving this chance to their students. 60% of the participants agreed students know what the evaluation criteria for their work are (M=3.60, SD=1.0) though 24% of them disagreed with the idea. 76% reported they ensure that students know what they can learn from their assignments (M=3.84, SD=0.9) while 8% denied ensuring what students can learn from assignments. Finally, 56% reported as if they can recognize when their students reach their learning goals (M=3.28, SD=0.9) whereas 24 % of them disagreed.

In summary, participants rated all the items positively, but more than half of the means were below 4.0, and overall mean was 3.71. All in all, 70 % of the teachers agreed on their practice of formative assessment through scaffolding. This implies that teachers’ practice of scaffolding students is medium.

TABLE 4:
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS’ BELIEFS AND PRACTICES OF FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT

Variables		Belief	Practice
Belief	Pearson Correlation	1	.569**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003
	N	25	25
Practice	Pearson Correlation	.569**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	
	N	25	25

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As displayed in the above table (Table 4), a Pearson correlation was calculated in order to examine the relationship between teachers’ beliefs and their actual practices. A moderate, positive, and significant correlation was found between the two variables $r(23) = .569, p < 0.01$, with a high level of instructors’ belief in the importance of formative assessment to enhance student learning associated with high level of their actual practice of formative assessment.

B. Analysis of the Qualitative Data

In this section, the data gathered through open-ended questionnaire items, semi-structured interview, and students’ paragraphs and essays were analyzed and interpreted using description and thematic categorization techniques.

1. Data from Open-ended Questionnaire Items

With the thirty close-ended questionnaire items, three general open-ended questions were used to elicit more information. Instructors expressed their belief that assessment assists to enhance students' learning and to improve the quality of instruction. They added that formative assessment is essential for students and teachers to locate their position in the process of teaching and learning and take remedial actions. Therefore, it can be said that teachers have a positive belief toward the importance of formative assessment.

Regarding their practice of formative assessment, however, instructors confessed that they do not have good practice of it due to a range of challenges. One of the challenges repeatedly mentioned was time constraint. They mentioned that the allotted time for the course is not adequate to assess students with a variety of tasks and to use the feedback from the assessment to shape teaching. The large class size which stretches up to sixty in a class and the students' illegible hand-writings were also found to be other common setbacks which obstruct teachers from giving a variety of tasks and timely feedback for students. As instructors explained, they usually give continuous objective tests which aim at judging the extent of students' achievement on the contents covered in the course, and the feedback from these test results is not used to identify learning gaps and fill them, but rather to collect marks for reporting grades.

2. Data from Semi-structured Interview

In addition to the data gathered through open-ended questionnaire items, three randomly selected instructors among the participants were subjected to semi-structured interview. Like the responses to the open-ended questions, teachers felt no doubt that formative assessment has a central role in the teaching/learning process. They justified that this kind of assessment helps students and teachers to identify gaps and take appropriate measures of remediation.

The interviewees think that they are practicing formative assessment to a great extent only because they give subsequent tests which include individual paper and pencil tests, performance tests, group assignment and final exam all of which for summative purposes only. As they articulated, sometimes students even take test after test without receiving feedback on the first one. Therefore, although the quantitative data showed that instructors have a positive belief about the importance of formative assessment and they moderately practice it, the qualitative data does not support this.

3. Data from Students' Assessment Papers

To consolidate the qualitative data from open-ended questionnaire items and semi-structured interview, examining real experience of instructors' formative assessment practice by looking in to samples of students' paragraphs and essays with teachers' feedback was vitally important. The analysis focused on which features (components) of the composition writing instructors paid attention to, and the manner the feedback is given.

Accordingly, the instructors' actual practice showed that they mostly give indirect feedback by just underlining, or circling the part of students' writing with a problem. Almost all the students' writing problems observed by instructors are mechanical (spelling, capitalization and punctuation) and some of them are grammatical (e.g. agreement & number). Feedback regarding the most important aspects in composition writing, such as content, organization and language use is nonexistent. In some cases, teachers give a direct feedback by crossing over the wrong expression and substituting the correct version above it. This sort of teachers' feedback practice ignores the basic components that formative feedback constitutes: what was done well, what needs improvement, and how to improve it. Therefore, these instructors' formative assessment practice is poor. Firstly, as teachers are not focused on aspects planned prior to the assessment, they are mostly attracted by easily observable mechanical errors. As a result, students' errors of basic composition writing components, such as content, organization and language use are left unrecognized. Second, the way they give feedback does not seem appropriate because only circling, underlining, or crossing over errors and writing the correct version above them has very little to do with tackling similar problems for the future. As a result, the feedback does not serve to adjust feature learning and teaching.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study aimed to assess EFL teachers' beliefs and practice of formative assessment in teaching writing skills. To this effect, it employed a mixed research approach with explanatory design. Data were gathered from participants through questionnaire, semi-structured interview and students' marked paragraph and essay papers. Analyzing the data from the three sources through descriptive statistics, inferential statistics (correlation) and thematic categorization, it was found that Debre Markos University writing skills teachers have a positive belief about the importance of formative assessment in enhancing student learning and instruction. It was found that 86.5% of the respondents agreed on the importance of formative assessment for enhancing instruction and student learning.

The teachers' practice of formative assessment through monitoring the students' learning is at medium level. Only 74% of the subjects agreed that they monitor learners through assessment which, according to the set criteria of formative assessment practice, is medium level. In addition, the teachers' practice of formative assessment through scaffolding the students with weaknesses was found to be at medium level, too. Only 70 % of the teachers agreed on their practice of formative assessment through scaffolding. This magnitude of formative assessment practice, according to the criteria, is labeled as medium. Statistically, the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their actual practice was found to be positive, moderate and significant ($r(23) = .569, p > 0.01$). However, the finding from qualitative data analysis contradicts this. There is a mismatch between teachers' beliefs and their perceived practice.

As the findings revealed EFL instructors have a positive belief on the importance of formative assessment to improve student learning, but their practice in terms of monitoring their students' learning and scaffolding when shortcomings arise was not found as such good. Writing instructors give continuous tests, rather than continuously assessing their students formatively in order to get insights about the teaching and learning. In the way these instructors are practicing assessment, there is no room for both instructors and students to remediate based on the feedback. This finding is consistent with Mebea's (2008) and Dagne's (2009) result that the practice of continuous assessment at their respective college was not promising. Likewise, Habtamu's (2012) and Abiy' (2013) findings of low practice of continuous assessment in Jimma University and high school EFL teachers, respectively match with the finding of the current study. In like manner, Öz's (2014) finding revealed that most teachers rely on conventional methods of summative assessment rather than formative assessment processes. This international reality of formative assessment practice is similar with the finding in the context of Ethiopia.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that writing skills instructors of Debre Markos University have a positive belief on the importance formative assessment. In other words, they believe that formative assessment is important for maximizing instruction and student learning. In addition, their perceived practice of formative assessment through monitoring students' learning and scaffolding learners with certain shortcomings was found to be at medium level, which revealed that there are limitations on instructors' practice in this respect.

The relationship between the instructors' beliefs and their actual practices of formative assessment, as determined from the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, was found to be moderate, positive and significant ($r(23) = .569, p < 0.01$). However, the data from open-ended questions, interview and document showed that the formative assessment practice in the writing class is not promising. It was also pointed out that there are setbacks which hinder the practice, which include time constraint to finish the contents of the course, the large and unmanageable class size to give subsequent and appropriate assessment (feedback), and the students' illegible hand-writing being tiresome to correctly mark and give feedback.

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The Use of Contrastive Discourse Markers in Academic Writing by English-major Saudi Female Undergraduates at Qassim University

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Abstract—Academic writing requires a skillful use of markers and linguistic features. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the efficacy of a one-time intervention on the use of contrastive discourse markers (CDMs) by Saudi female English major undergraduates. The present study also surveyed the opinions of writing skills instructors about CDM instruction and investigated factors that may affect the use of CDMs by undergraduates. A convenience sample of 100 students was selected from Levels 6 and 8: fifty students of each were recruited from the Colleges of Arts and Sciences in Buraydah and Onayzah cities, Saudi Arabia. Pre- and post-tests were used to collect data from student participants. Data from teacher-participants were also gathered through a questionnaire. Results of t-test analysis support the hypothesis of the significant impact of the intervention on the mean scores of the intervention group, $M = 10.90$ vs. $M = 6.24$, $t(98) = 12.03$, $p < 0.0001$. There were no significant differences by grade level. The writing skills teachers reported that the knowledge of the different meanings of CDMs affects students' use of the markers. Factors such as the inadequate practice of critical thinking skills, the types of writing tasks, and reading-writing connection may influence students' use of CDMs. The results suggest that the knowledge of CDMs and the different meanings that they signal can improve learners to perform better.

Index Terms—academic writing, contrastive discourse markers, EFL undergraduates, semantic relationships, writing pedagogy

I. INTRODUCTION

Academic writing is a highly demanding task that requires a skillful use of markers and linguistic features. The incorrect use of discourse markers (DMs) may create a gap in the communication between the writer and the reader. A poor realization of the relationships that discourse markers may signal is more likely to result in an incoherent interpretation of discourse sequence (Fraser, 1997). Today, both university and college English curricula incorporate writing/composition courses as one of their indispensable components (Barnawi, 2011). Obviously, in order to reach a university level of proficiency, EFL students need to practice writing effectively (Aljafen, 2013). At times, EFL students of English at tertiary level know the rules but they perform very poorly when they try to apply them (Tahaine, 2014). For example, they understand that contrastive discourse markers (CDMs) are used to mark contrast but, when they write, they most of the time, fail to use them in the right way. Tahaine (2014) further stresses that Arab university EFL students encounter 'syntactic/semantic' problems in the use of DMs in spoken and written discourse. There are cases in which the CDMs are used in a repetitive way, for example, the excessive restricted use of the marker *but* in essay writing of Arab EFL students (Modhish, 2012). And, in other cases, CDMs are handled incorrectly, for example, the faulty use of *however*, *but* and *yet* by Saudi pre-university students in spoken discourse (Al-Yaari et al., 2013). The reasons for the poor performance when students use CDMs may be ascribed to three factors: the inadequate practice of critical thinking and problem solving tasks, academic writing pedagogy and teaching styles, and the kind of assignments that students receive. In this regards, Barnawi (2013) suggests that critical thinking may not be emphasized explicitly within the Saudi educational system due to traditional teaching. Many studies have reported that one reason for the problems of learning English by Arab students may result from the "poor teaching methods" (e.g., Suleiman, 1983; Ezza, 2010; Khan, 2011; Al-Khairi, 2013a; Al-Khairi, 2013b). A great number of English departments in the Arab world place great emphasis on the sentence and its structure (Ezza, 2010). The increased focus of writing instructors on grammatical rules and spelling, rather than on an idea being expressed, may lead to students being able to recognize the rules, but not knowing how to apply them (Tahaine, 2014). In addition, Saudi EFL university students are not provided with different types of writing activities; this lack of practice may negatively affect their writing performance (Almansour & Alshorman, 2014). Al-Khairi (2013a) asserts that English major university undergraduates are usually engaged in academic writing that is limited to "sentence-level" or at the maximum "at paragraph-level." Al-Khairi in his studies demonstrated that EFL Saudi undergraduates are not introduced to various writing tasks that promote other necessary skills, such as developing arguments and critical thinking skills. The great influx of discourse markers in academic writing and the problems which EFL students face in utilizing them have created the need for more research on DMs. The present study examined one category of English markers that express contrast, namely, contrastive

discourse markers. Specifically, it investigated how the knowledge of CDMs affects the writing of English major Saudi female undergraduates (EMSFUs). The CDMs the present study sought to explore were *but*, *however*, *instead*, *on the contrary* and *yet*. The study scrutinized whether the previously mentioned markers indicated the same meaning once used.

A. The Context of the Problem

Little research has been conducted on the use of discourse markers by non-native speakers of English (Al-Yaari et al., 2013). The existing body of DM research revealed that the use of CDMs by EFL learners is limited; the research did not expand on the learners' knowledge of the meaning of CDMs (e.g. Al-Yaari et al., 2013; Daifallah & Albeshir, 2013; Modhish, 2012). In response to such a dearth in the literature on CDMs and their meaning, this study was undertaken to explore the use of CDMs by EMSFUs in academic writing. The study proceeded from Fraser's (1996) classification of DMs into four types of pragmatic markers: commentary pragmatic markers, basic markers, discourse markers and parallel markers. In a later study, Fraser (1999) identified among DMs which relate messages was a category that indicates contrast. Further, Fraser (2013) classified CDMs according to their semantic meanings. To Fraser, CDMs may signal general and specific contrastive meanings. He considered markers such as *but*, *however*, and *yet* as expressing general semantic relations whereas *instead* and *on the contrary* as showing a specific contrastive relation. The study was pedagogically inspired by the concern that Saudi EFL learners "use DMs randomly or for more than one purpose" (Al-Yaari et al., 2013, p. 18). Coupled with this concern was the contribution of Daifallah and Albeshir (2013) that EFL Saudi students at Qassim University (QU) at the Preparatory Year Program (PYP) encounter problems in applying DMs in their writing. Another compelling trigger to conduct this study resulted from Modhish's (2012) assertion that "DMs are not given the due importance they deserve by writing instructors or EFL teachers in general" (p. 59). The study aims to present a more comprehensive framework of DMs in the Arab EFL context that builds on and attempts to develop the existing studies. It hypothesized that understanding the subtle nuances of meaning that the markers signal affects Saudi EFL undergraduates' use of CDMs in writing. The study also assumed that the problematic use of CDMs by EMSFUs may possibly be linked to a number of factors, including: inadequate practice of critical thinking skills, the academic writing pedagogy, and the kinds of writing tasks that EFL students are assigned.

B. Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research question 1. What percentage of Saudi female English major undergraduates at QU are unaware of the appropriate use of CDMs and thus misuse them?

Research hypothesis 1. More than 25% of Saudi female English major undergraduates at QU are unaware of the appropriate use of CDMs and thus misuse them.

Null hypothesis 1. Less than 25% of Saudi female English major undergraduates at QU are unaware of the appropriate use of CDMs and thus misuse them.

Research question 2. Is a one-time intervention presentation effective in improving students' abilities in the intervention group to properly use CDMs in the post-test?

Research hypothesis 2. The one-time intervention improves students' abilities in the intervention group to properly use CDMs in the post-test.

Null hypothesis 2. The one-time intervention does not improve students' abilities in the intervention group to properly use CDMs in the post-test.

Research question 3. Is there a difference in the use of CDMs between the experimental and control groups before and after the intervention was introduced?

Research hypothesis 3. There is a difference in the mean scores between the experimental and control groups before and after the intervention and the difference is in favor of the intervention group.

Null hypothesis 3. There is no difference in the mean scores between the experimental and control groups before and after the intervention was introduced.

Research question 4. To what extent is there a relationship between students' grade levels and the degree of change in their abilities to properly use CDMs following the intervention?

Research hypothesis 4. Grade level is related to the amount of change observed in the use of CDMs following the intervention.

Null hypothesis 4. Grade level is not related to the amount of change observed in the use of CDMs following the intervention.

Research question 5. What are the attitudes of writing skills teachers towards CDM instruction? And, is there any difference in the attitudes of writing skills teachers towards the teaching of CDMs across the two settings?

Research hypothesis 5. There are differences in the attitudes of writing skills teachers towards the teaching of CDMs across the two settings.

Null hypothesis 5. There are no differences in the attitudes of writing skills teachers towards the teaching of CDMs across the two settings.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The study of DMs has received continuing interest over the past few years (e.g., Aijmer, 2002; Al-Yaari et al., 2013; Blakemore, 1987; Blakemore, 2002; Btoosh & Taweel, 2011; Fukushima, 2005; Hengeveld, 2012; Redeker, 1991; Schiffrin, 1987; Verdonik, Žgank & Peterlin 2008; Wang et al., 2007; Wang, 2009; Wei, 2011; Yan, 2011; Zhuang, 2012). In the study of DMs, Schiffrin (1987) and Fraser (1999) have been the most quoted scholars. Schiffrin (1987) is credited for describing DMs in a systematic way within a theoretical model of discourse. She investigated DMs with regard to their linguistic role in achieving coherence. Unlike Schiffrin (1987), Fraser (1990) developed a more pragmatic view. He approached DMs in relation to the meaning of sentences. To Fraser, the sentence meaning consists of two parts: content meaning and pragmatic meaning. He noted that DMs contribute to the pragmatic meaning. He further claimed that DMs did not have propositional meaning, thus, when deleted, the propositional content of a sentence would not be affected. The CDM *but*, for instance, does not have a semantic meaning; it rather conveys “encoded clues” that signal “the speaker’s communicative intentions” (Fraser, 1990; Fraser, 1996, p. 386). Fraser (1997) brought into the foreground that if a DM does not provide a relationship between discourse segments, incoherent interpretation of the discourse sequence will result. To provide some evidence, he gave the following illustrative example: “(2) a) A: Susan isn’t going to be here today. B: **But** [emphasis in original] Einstein liked pizza” (Fraser, 1997, para. 4). He also argued that each DM has a core meaning that is general with different nuances of meanings (Fraser, 1999; Fraser, 2006). Accordingly, the core meaning of a CDM is to express contrast and the various meaning nuances can be a contrast with a rejection of an inference or contrast and challenge of an inference. Fraser moved the analysis of DMs towards a better direction by classifying DMs into different categories among which were contrastive discourse markers. In doing so, Fraser reminded scholars that there was a gap in the existing body of research and paved the way for a rich area of investigation. Despite this recommendation, it needs to be acknowledged that most, if not all, of the available literature relevant to this study focuses on discussing DMs in general. This gap calls for a focused expansion of individual categories of DMs since each class plays an important function in the interpretation and development of a discourse. Generally, very few studies have tackled contrastive markers (Fraser, 1997; Fraser, 2013; Othman, 2000), however, the appropriate use of CDMs according to their different nuances of meanings is left unexplained. Although Fraser did not define CDMs, he provided a general framework upon which the current study is based. In terms of DM in Arab EFL literature, very few studies have investigated how CDMs are used by female university learners in academic writing in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA; e.g., Daifallah & Albeshar, 2013). With such research gaps in the EFL literature of Arab learners on the topic of CDMs, there was every reason to conduct an informative study on the effects of CDMs and their nuances of meaning in Saudi EFL writing. The available literature EFL literature suggests a positive relationship between the use of DMs and the quality of EFL learners’ discourse (Jalilifar, 2008; Daifallah & Albeshar, 2013; Tahaineh, 2014). It also stresses the relationship between DM use and language pedagogy (Aidinlou & Shahrokhi Mehr, 2012; Modhish, 2012). In Arab EFL contexts, studies of DMs reveal that among the CDMs that Saudi students used were markers such as *but*, *however* and *in contrast* (Daifallah & Albeshar, 2013; Al-Yaari et al., 2013). With EFL Saudi students in mind, Daifallah and Albeshar (2013) revealed that little is known about students’ use of DMs in writing. In their analysis of DMs, Daifallah and Albeshar (2013), pointed out the major categories of DMs according to their frequencies of use by Saudi EFL students in the test paragraphs. These categories were: adding (191 times), illustration (80 times), cause and effect (79 times) and contrast (77 times). The results of the study showed that the adding markers were the most preferred DMs by PYP EFL students. With regard to CDMs, the study reported that *but*, *however*, *on the other hand*, and *in contrast* were the most frequently employed contrastive markers. The results of their study revealed that the use of DMs by Saudi EFL students is limited. Such a finding lends great support to the study of CDMs in an EFL context. The findings of their study were in line with Al-Yaari’s et al. (2013) as both sets of researchers noted that Saudi EFL learners use DMs inappropriately.

III. OBJECTIVES AND PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

Given that “CDMs vary greatly” in signaling contrastive relationships between discourse segments, this fact raises the researcher’s interest to unravel this category of DMs (Fraser, 2013, p. 319). The purpose of this study was twofold: to find out if the intervention was effective in explaining the use of CDMs by EMSFUs, and to describe the views of writing skills teachers on the teaching of CDMs. More specifically, this entire venture: (a) explored the CDMs that Saudi female undergraduates use based on their performance in pre-/post-tests; (b) diagnosed the challenges experienced by the students in their attempts to use CDMs in writing; and, (c) surveyed writing teachers’ perspectives on the teaching of CDMs.

IV. PROCEDURES

To achieve the objectives of the present study, data collection occurred in four phases which were conducted in the College of Arts and Sciences of Onayzah (Setting B) first, with the same procedures being followed in the College of Arts and Sciences of Buraydah (Setting A). The collection of the pre-/post-test data began on 7th February, 2016 and was completed on 2nd March, 2016. These four phases were as follows:

1 Pre-test data. The first phase of the data collection process was a pre-test administered after obtaining informed consent from participants. The test was a 45-minute session.

2 Intervention. In the second phase, a one-session intervention was administered one week after the pre-test to the experimental group. The allotted time for the intervention was 35 minutes and it encompassed a presentation demonstration of some of the different meanings of CDMs. Some model texts were displayed and discussed to help ensure the participants' involvement.

3 Post-test data. Immediately after the treatment session for the experimental group, both groups were tested in the post-test phase.

4 Teacher questionnaire. The fourth phase included a questionnaire that was administered to 10 writing teachers to obtain information about their opinions of CDM instruction.

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The researcher of this study used a quantitative approach in which a pre- and post-test, quasi-experimental, and non-experimental designs were utilized. The quasi-experimental design sought to determine whether a one-time intervention would influence the outcome (Creswell, 2014). Since it was not feasible to conduct a true experiment, a quasi-experiment was utilized as the closest alternative to the true experiment design (Cook & Campbell, 1986). In this study, the intervention was limited to a non-random convenience sample of respondents who were available at the time of data collection and showed interest in participating as a treatment group. The non-experimental survey design involves one contact with writing teachers to provide an "overall picture" of their opinions about CDM instruction (Kumar, 2014). The cross-sectional questionnaire provided data on writing teachers' opinions about undergraduates' use of CDMS, CDM instruction, and the factors that may affect the use of CDMs by undergraduates.

B. Population & Sample

The target population of this study was all female Qassim university undergraduates (Levels 6 and 8) and their female writing teachers. To provide a workable estimate of sample size, the number of participants recruited for this study was compared to the sample size of a similar study conducted by Daifallah and Albeshir (2013). Based on the extant literature, it appears that the following sample size of participants was sufficient to test the research hypotheses. The present study recruited two types of participants: learner-participants and teacher-participants.

1 Learner-participants (n=100). To provide a representative sample group for this quantitative study, a total of 100 Saudi female English major undergraduates were selected from Levels 6 and 8 of both colleges; students at these levels have an average age between 20 and 25 years. At these levels, the students have already developed their writing skills and they can compose at the paragraph level. These two specific levels were chosen to determine how well students learned how to use CDMs as they progressed to a higher level of proficiency (Table 1).

TABLE 1
LEARNER-PARTICIPANTS BY COLLEGE AND CONDITION

	Buraydah		Onayzah	
	Level 6	Level 8	Level 6	Level 8
Experimental	14	11	15	10
Control	14	11	15	10

2 Teacher-participants (n=10). Ten female teachers who had taught writing at each branch of Qassim university took part in this research by completing a questionnaire. The participating teachers were chosen based on expert sampling; only instructors who had the experience of teaching writing to EMSFUs were recruited. The participating teachers were Master's degree holders and teaching assistants originally from Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, and Jordan. They had 4 to 15 years of professional experience.

C. The Instruments of the study

The researcher developed and used two instruments to collect research data. These included the pre- and post-tests and the teacher questionnaire. The data obtained through each tool allowed the researcher to better understand the phenomena and reach more relevant findings.

1 Pre- and post-test. In order to relate to participants' different levels of comprehension skills and improve the validity of the items, the pre/post-test was comprised of multiple choice, cloze reading, and meaning judgment items. The test was constructed by including items that had been formulated by the researcher and a reading component that was excerpted from LIKE Test Prep, (2013) a test preparation book (see Appendix A for the pre-/post-test items). The pre-/post-tests were conducted on the experimental group at two different times for 45 minutes for each test. The control group was tested in the same way as the experimental group, but they did not receive the intervention. In order to answer the test correctly, participants were expected to read, comprehend, analyze the context, use contextual clues, and judge the best CDM that would convey the required message. The results of pre-/post-tests were compared based on the standard deviation from the mean.

2 Writing skills teachers' questionnaire. The teachers' questionnaire was used to assess writing teachers' attitudes toward the teaching of CDMs. The questionnaire aimed to provide a comprehensive picture of writing teachers'

opinions of teaching CDMs. The teachers' questionnaire included 10 Likert items that were represented on a five-point scale from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree* (see Appendix B for the questionnaire survey items).

VI. VALIDITY & RELIABILITY

In an effort to minimize potential threats to the internal and external validity of this study in terms of research design, sample selection, sample size and instrumentation, the researcher undertook several steps. These included the use of a pre-/post-test design to determine the effect of the intervention and the degree of change in the scores of the experimental and control groups. The pre-/post-test design is more powerful in describing the magnitude of differences between the treatment and control groups compared to a post-test only design. In addition, the same measurement instrument was used in the pre-/post-test in the two settings to reduce instrumentation bias and the interaction of setting and treatment threats. The use of the same measurement instrument to test the experimental and control groups was also done to eliminate the threat of bias in a specific group. Avoiding the potential sampling threats to internal validity was dealt with by the selection of participants for both the experimental and control groups at the same time, and who were generally in the same age group (Levels 6 and 8), reduced the "maturation threat" to internal validity (Creswell, 2014). In an attempt to reduce threats to the external validity and allow for the generalization of data obtained from the sample to the population, the researcher drew participants from two settings and recruited more than one group. To ensure face validity of the measurements, the two instruments were sent to university experts and was amended accordingly for suitability of content and wording. A pilot test was also conducted for the two instruments in the College of Arts and Sciences at Albukayriah where participants had similar characteristics to the ones in the actual test groups.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS

The data were organized to answer the five questions of this research study. The dependent variable under analysis in the present study was students' scores while the independent variables were the intervention and grade level. Initially, after data cleaning had been completed, descriptive statistics were calculated for the demographic data gathered from the students. The data analyses were run using IBM SPSS software (Version 21) to examine the impact of the intervention on students' scores. The first research question and hypothesis was tested through descriptive statistics in which the frequency and percentage of misused CDMs in the pre-test were calculated to assess whether the value exceeded 25%. A one sample *t* test was conducted by constructing a new variable for the percentage of wrong answers against the hypothesized value of 25%. Following this, the second and third hypotheses were tested by the use of *t* tests. The *t* tests were used to determine if the scores between pre- and post-tests were significantly different, based on the intervention, and to identify if the change in scores pre-test to post-test represented a significant gain or loss. The fourth hypothesis was tested by an independent sample *t* test to compare the difference of the post-test mean score between the two levels among the experimental group. The fifth hypothesis was tested through a summary of the frequencies and percentages of the 15 questions on the teacher questionnaire and then analyzed by means of a chi-square test. The significance level was set at the standard value of $p < 0.05$. This value implies that if the p-value of the results was less than .05, then the research hypothesis is regarded as statistically significant and the null hypothesis would be rejected.

VIII. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the data analysis for the five abovementioned research questions is organized by the measurement tools.

A. Results of Pre-/Post-test

A frequency analysis for all CDM questions were examined and the percentage of incorrect answers was reported (Table 2). The analysis showed that, on average, 48.46% (SD = 17.73) of the participating undergraduates misused the markers, supporting the hypothesis that more than 25% of the participants were unaware of the appropriate use of CDMs. The frequency analysis of the percentage of incorrect answers of Part 2 (Word Choice) items shows that the percentage of incorrect use for the CDM but in this part of the test was 17%, which was less than the hypothesized 25%. A possible interpretation for this result is that students were aware of the use of but as a CDM to signal simple semantic contrast, however they were likely unaware of using the marker for expressing a degree of comparison, as was demonstrated in their incorrect answers to Part3 Q3 and Part4 Q3, with incorrect answers percentages of 42% and 75%, respectively. As Table (2) illustrated, 75% of the students were not aware of the meaning of but as a CDM for expressing a degree of comparison in the following item:

In language learning, knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical rules is important. But even more important is the employment of such knowledge in the right contexts.

The above CDM in bold is used to mean:

- a) Segment two is a simple contrast to segment one.
- b) Segment two is an alternative to segment one.
- c) Segment two is a denial to segment one to provide a correct interpretation.
- d) A degree of comparison.

The high percentage of participants who did not answer the question appropriately suggests that participants perceived the meaning of the CDM, but, as only expressing a simple contrast. The result of the analysis of the percentage of incorrect answers also reveals that in Part 4 (Meaning Judgment) of the test, students struggled to identify the meaning of *however* and *but* with 75 incorrect responses in the pre-test. On the other hand, the CDM *instead* (48 times) and *on the contrary* (54 times) were less frequently misused. These findings lent great support to Fraser's (2013) classification of CDMs into general and specific contrastive markers in terms of the relationships that they signal. As proposed by Fraser (2013), markers such as *but*, *however*, and *yet* impose fewer restrictions in the segments in which they occur, providing a meaning that may vary depending on the context. On the other hand, markers such as *instead* and *on the contrary* are more restrictive and signal a specific type of contrastive relationship between discourse segments that is transparent. The percentage of incorrect answers could also be an indicator that Saudi female English major undergraduates use CDMs in a random or restricted manner. This finding is similar to those of (Al-Yaari et al., 2013; Daifallah & Albeshir, 2013; Modhish, 2012) who concluded that Arab EFL learners use DMs, including markers, for expressing contrast randomly or in a limited way.

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PRE-TEST INCORRECT ANSWERS

Questions	Frequency of incorrect answers	Percentage of Incorrect answers
Part2 Q1	56	56.0*
Part2 Q2	50	50.0*
Part2 Q3	40	40.0*
Part2 Q4	17	17.0
Part3 Q1	29	29.0*
Part3 Q2	36	36.0*
Part3 Q3	42	42.0*
Part3 Q4	71	71.0*
Part3 Q5	37	37.0*
Part4 Q1	48	48.0*
Part4 Q2	75	75.0*
Part4 Q3	75	75.0*
Part4 Q4	54	54.0*

Note. * Indicates the percentage is more than 25%.

A new variable was then created in SPSS and the percentage of wrong responses for each question was entered and run against the value of 25% in a one sample *t* test. For the 13 CDM questions, on average, 48.46% ($SD = 17.73$) of the responses were incorrect, which was significantly greater than the 25% predicted at $t(12) = 4.769$, $p < 0.0001$ (Table 3). The null hypothesis is rejected, as more than 25% of Saudi female English major undergraduates at Qassim university were unaware of the appropriate use of CDMs in the pre-test, and thus misused them. The effect size was calculated using Cohen's *d* which interprets effect sizes of 0.2 as small, 0.5 as medium and 0.8 as large (Cohen, 1988). The effect size was medium at $d = 0.56$.

TABLE 3
ONE SAMPLE T TEST OF PROPORTIONS

Measure	Mean Difference	SD	95% Confidence Interval		<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
			Lower	Upper			
Percentage of pre-test wrong CDMs	23.462	17.73	12.74	34.18	4.76912	12	.000

To examine the efficacy of the intervention, an independent samples *t* test. The results indicated students in the intervention group made gains that were statistically significant when comparing the pre-test ($M = 7.40$, $SD = 2.195$) to post-test ($M = 10.90$, $SD = 1.48$) (Table 4). Therefore, the null that the one-time intervention would not improve students' abilities to properly use CDMs in the post-test hypothesis was rejected in favor of the research hypothesis. The effect size was extremely large at $d = 2.41$. This finding suggests that the one-time intervention had an impact on the mean of the intervention group. It further supports the main research hypothesis of the present study that hypothesizes the significant impact of the intervention. Consequently, an assumption can be made that awareness of the different meanings that CDMs signal may lead students to perform better in academic tasks.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T TEST, MEAN DIFFERENCE IN POST-TEST SCORES BY GROUP

Group	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> (Sig.)
Intervention	50	10.90	1.48	98	12.030	0.000
Control	50	6.24	2.30			

A paired samples or dependent *t* test was then conducted to compare the pre- and post-test scores within the intervention and control groups. As shown in Table (5), there were differences in the mean scores among the experimental and control groups before and after the intervention; the difference was in favor of the intervention group. The mean difference (pre-test minus post-test) of the two groups indicated a significant increase in the intervention

group ($M= -3.500, SD= 2.178$), but there was no significant increase in the mean difference score of the control group ($M= -0.240, SD= 2.479$). Comparing the pre- and post-test mean scores of the two groups suggests that the intervention had a positive impact on students' scores. This is important because such findings support the research hypothesis of a difference in favor of the intervention group. Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected because the paired mean difference analysis in the intervention group revealed significant increase from the pre-test score to the post-test score for the intervention group.

TABLE 5
 PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST OF STUDENTS' DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR PRE-/POST-TEST

Group	Mean Difference	SD	95% Confidence Interval		t	Df	p
			Lower	Upper			
Intervention	-3.500	2.178	-4.119	-2.880	-11.361	49	0.000
Control	-0.240	2.479	-0.944	0.464	-0.684	49	0.496

To examine the difference in the mean values between students of Level 6 and Level 8 with respect to their post-test scores, an independent samples *t* test was conducted. By comparing the difference of the post-test mean score between the two levels, it was found that there was no significant difference between the mean score of Level 6 versus Level 8. Participants in Level 6 had a relatively higher mean score in the post-test of ($M= 7.41, SD= 2.656$) compared to the mean of those in Level 8 ($M= 7.19, SD= 2.412$; Table 6). Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected in that grade level is not related to the amount of change observed in the post-test scores of the two groups. These results revealed no relationship between grade level and the amount of change in post-test average scores. Previous research by Daifallah and Albeshir (2013) found that there were no differences in the use of DMs when students in the preparatory year at Qassim university moved from Level 1 to Level 2. Similarly, students in Level 6 and Level 8 of the present study did not use CDMs differently. This finding may imply that students in Levels 6 and 8 had insufficient awareness of the use of CDMs and the meanings that they signal. This finding of no difference by grade level was unexpected. The finding of insignificant variance in the post-test mean score of students in Levels 6 and 8 may further suggest that CDMs are not addressed by writing instructors resulting in a definite gap in students' knowledge of CDMs.

TABLE 6
 INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T TEST RESULTS BY GRADE LEVEL

Measure	N	M	SD	df	t	P
Level 6	58	7.41	2.656	98	.431	0.667
Level 8	42	7.19	2.412			

B. Results of Questionnaire Survey

Table 7 illustrates the frequency distribution of the teachers' views on Saudi female university undergraduates' use of contrastive discourse markers (Part 2 questions). Out of 10 teachers, 30% ($n = 3$) indicated that students do not use CDMs frequently while another 70% ($n = 7$) described the use of CDMs as somewhat frequent. On the other hand, 60% ($n = 6$) stated that education level affects students' use of CDMs while another 40% ($n = 4$) of the respondents have stated an opposite view. In addition, 60% ($n = 6$) of the participants responded that students use CDMs randomly while 40% ($n = 4$) of the participants exhibited that students are aware of the meanings of CDMs. With regards to students' use of a restricted number of CDMs, 60% ($n = 6$) out of the 10 participants agreed with this statement while 40% ($n = 4$) felt that students do not use a restricted number of CDMs. Lastly, 70% ($n = 7$) out of the 10 participants indicated their support to the statement that: "DMs are not given the due importance they deserve by writing instructors or EFL teachers in general" while 30% held the opposite opinion.

TABLE 7
 FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION FOR PART II

Question	Opinion	Frequency	Percent
1- How frequently do students use CDMs in their writings?	Not very frequently	3	30
	Somewhat frequently	7	70
2- Are there any differences in the way in which students in Levels 6 and 8 use CDMs?	Yes (education level affects students' use of CDMs)	6	60
	No (students in both levels appear to use CDMs similarly)	4	40
3- How would you describe students' use of CDMs in their writings?	Students use CDMs randomly	6	60
	Students are aware of the meanings of CDMs	4	40
4- When students write, they tend to use a restricted number of CDMs repetitively.	Yes	6	60
	No	4	40
5- Do you agree with this statement: "DMs are not given the due importance they deserve by writing instructors or EFL teachers in general"	Yes	7	70
	No	3	30

The majority of the participating teachers attributed the inappropriate use of CDMs by EMSFUs to some factors that may not be promoted in classrooms such as critical thinking skills, reading-writing connection, and interactive activities (Table 8). Clearly, there was an emphasis on the importance of critical thinking skills. All participants responded that

critical thinking skills affect students' application of CDMs in their writings. This finding confirms similar results by Barnawi (2011), and Ezaa (2010) who stressed the importance of developing critical thinking skills in order to alleviate EFL writing difficulties.

TABLE 8
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION FOR PART III

Question	Opinion	Frequency	Percent
1. Students' critical thinking skills affect their application of CDMs in their writings.	Strongly agree	6	60
	Agree	4	40
2. The weak writing proficiency level of Saudi female English major undergraduates can be attributed to the teachers' increased focus on teaching grammar.	Strongly agree	2	20
	Agree	4	40
	Uncertain	4	40
3. There is a dominance of learning by memorization in the teaching in Saudi English major settings that may have negative affect students' writings.	Strongly agree	5	50
	Agree	2	20
	Uncertain	3	30
4. The teaching of writing can affect Saudi EFL undergraduates' reading skills.	Strongly agree	5	50
	Agree	5	50
5. As a writing skills teacher, I apply instructional strategies which require students to read extensively for their writing class.	Strongly agree	2	20
	Agree	6	60
	Uncertain	2	20
6. One way to develop students' use of CDMs is through engaging students in argumentative writing tasks.	Strongly agree	4	40
	Agree	4	40
	Uncertain	2	20
7. Students' performance in writing changes when interactive activities and technology are implemented.	Strongly agree	4	40
	Agree	6	60
8. Students' knowledge of the different meanings which CDMs signal (e.g., "but" as a CDM to signal simple contrast, a denial of expectation or a degree of making comparison) may affect their writings.	Strongly agree	5	50
	Agree	4	40
	Uncertain	1	10
9. CDMs as part of the grammatical structure of a text are best taught in a grammar class.	Strongly agree	1	10
	Agree	3	30
	Uncertain	2	20
	Disagree	4	40
10. Students learn how to use CDMs as they write and should not be taught in any theoretical way.	Strongly agree	5	50
	Agree	2	20
	Disagree	3	30

In order to test if there were differences in the attitudes of writing skills teachers towards CDM instruction across the two settings, a chi-square Goodness of Fit test was used. The null hypothesis was not rejected since the results indicated that writing skills teachers show similar attitudes towards the teaching of CDMs across the two settings, therefore the null hypothesis was supported ($X^2 = .136$, $df = 1$, $p = .712$; Table 9).

TABLE 9
CHI-SQUARE GOODNESS OF FIT

Chi-Square	.136 ^a
Df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.712

Notes. a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 132.0.

IX. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Conclusions

Discourse markers literature indicates that the use of CDMs by most Arab EFL students is limited (Al-Yaari et al., 2013; Daifallah & Albeshir, 2013; Modhish, 2012; Tahaineh, 2014). It has identified DM frequency of use by Arab EFL students, but has not identified the extent of students' knowledge of the different meanings of CDMs. The findings of the present study expanded previous studies in the area of DM use among Arab EFL students. The significance of this study lies in the recognition that knowledge of CDMs and their different meanings significantly influence how students perform academically. It may be concluded that the one-time intervention had a significant impact on students' scores since participants in the intervention group had significantly higher post-test mean scores. Further, the study revealed that it was not possible to demonstrate a relationship between changes in the mean values of the test scores and grade level. This finding suggests that Saudi EFL undergraduates may have inadequate knowledge of CDMs. This finding is consistent with the findings of the previously cited researchers (Al-Yaari et al., 2013; Daifallah & Albeshir, 2013; Modhish, 2012; Tahaineh, 2014).

The data from the writing teachers, on the other hand, revealed support for the integration of CDMs in teaching rather than teaching the markers theoretically. Implicit instruction of CDMs may be effective in developing students' use of the markers. Results have also pointed to some factors that may influence students' use and knowledge about CDMs. These factors included the inadequate practice of critical thinking skills, the types of writing tasks, and reading-writing connection. The findings of the present study have provided empirical evidence that knowledge of the different

meanings of CDMs affects students' performance. Given that students in the present study experienced improvement after exposure to the intervention, further research is recommended to replicate the study with a different sampling technique that is more representative of the population in Qassim university.

B. Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study identify several potential links between students' knowledge of CDMs and their academic performance. Among these is the link between an understanding of CDMs and their different meanings with stronger academic performance. The findings of the present study also offer insights into strategies that appear to positively influence CDMs instruction. In particular, this study suggests that an implicit approach to the teaching of CDMs may improve writing skills. In implicit teaching, students are provided with different writing tasks that ask them to contrast, argue, and analyze different passages. The questionnaire data and the inclusion of a cloze reading item in the test instrument all suggest that supplying students with opportunities to practice reading can help them to realize form and meaning relations, and hence improving their writing skills. This finding may imply that although there are courses on writing and others on reading skills, this fact should not by any means indicate that each skill should be taught separately. In addition, the findings imply that students should be offered opportunities that encourage them to read in order to become better writers. Writing teachers are advised to provide environments that encourage students to think critically. The finding that there were no differences by grade level may suggest the importance of addressing CDMs by writing instructors in their teaching. It also suggests areas for further research.

C. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the present study, several suggestions and recommendations are made for future research. First, to minimize the limitation which a one-time session may have, future studies are advised to implement several treatment sessions that may indicate the impact of the intervention at a more detailed level. A follow-up phase to the post-test is suggested to verify the impact of the intervention. Future studies are also recommended to measure the impact of the treatment on students' awareness of other CDMs. The results of the present study may be expanded by examining students' essays as a measurement tool to investigate how students employ CDMs in their writings. Second, to improve the generalizability of the results, further studies are advised to employ different sampling techniques. A study with a stratified random sample that includes participants from different settings of Qassim university or recruits Saudi EFL students across different geographic areas would potentially generate a more representative population. Replicating the study with different grade levels and including male participants would enhance generalizability. Third, a mixed method approach incorporating interviews with writing teachers and observations of real classroom practices may generate greater understanding about CDM instruction and students' awareness of the markers and the nuances of meanings which they convey. Additionally, research that incorporates the views of native English instructors is strongly recommended. Finally, writing teachers are recommended to address CDMs in their teaching practices by incorporating an implicit approach, providing activities designed to boost students' critical thinking skills, and integrating extensive reading activities.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study endeavor is part of my master's thesis to investigate whether the knowledge of the different meanings of contrastive discourse markers (CDMs) affects English-major Saudi female undergraduates' (EMSFUs) performance.

APPENDIX A. STUDENTS' PRE-/POST-TEST

Students' Pre-post-test

(Designed by the researcher)

This test is for educational research. Please answer all the items below.

Part One: Demographic information

Please write responses which best describe your situation

Name: _____

Age _____

Level _____

Name of college _____

Parts two, three and four below test your knowledge of contrastive discourse markers, such as instead, yet, but, however and on the contrary.

Part Two: Word choice

Please circle the suitable contrastive discourse marker (CDMs) in parentheses:

1- Crazy diets are not a solution to stay in shape (On the contrary – However – Instead), you should eat healthy and exercise regularly.

2- Today, traveling is a good (yet – on the contrary – however) expensive option for leisure.

3- Reading a book cover to cover can be a real thrill. (Contrary to – Instead – However), some books are designed to be reference sources, others may appear very technical or written in a convoluted style.

4- Success is a very pleasant experience. It is easy to feel the pleasure of success (but– Instead –contrary to), difficult to tolerate the discomfort of failure.

Part Three: Reading The reading text below is about whether it is important to have luxurious items such as designer label clothes. Read the text carefully and fill in the blanks with the best CDMs given below:

(*But, However, Instead, Contrary to/On the contrary and Yet*)

There are many ways to spend our money. Some of those ways are on expensive beautiful things, such as fancy cars and designer label clothes., it is not important, to me, to have these items due to all the negatives that surround these luxurious items; they take away from the real important things in life, they aren't necessarily quality items, and they send a bad message to those around us.

First of all, having expensive things takes money away from the more important things. In life, we have basic needs to meet. Some examples of these needs are food, shelter and companionship.

Secondly, just because something is beautiful and expensive, it doesn't mean that item is a quality item. Let's take designer clothes for example. We go out and pay hundreds and hundreds of dollars worth of clothing that we assume is a good quality because of the name that is sewn on it., within a few months, that clothing wears away just as quickly, if not quicker, than the clothing bought at a less expensive department store.

Finally, having all of these luxury items sends the wrong message to those around us. When we buy high-dollar value items, it says that we are a rich person and that we waste our money on frivolous things. Don't we want to raise our children to know that looks are not what is important in life? We should be teaching them that it is what is inside a person that counts. I am not denying that a person who looks rich will have more friends than a person who looks poor. our mind and body, versus improving our clothing line and garage stock. (1)

Part Four: Meaning Judgment

Please make your judgment based on your knowledge of contrastive discourse marker (CDMs) to figure out which of the following meanings each of the CDM in bold signals. Note that segment one is what proceeds the CDM and segment two is what comes after the CDM as indicated below:

[Segment one (S1), **CDM**, segment two (S2)]

1- A diet full of processed food can be detrimental to your health due to the contained amounts of salt and sugar (S1).

Instead, you should include more fresh fruits and vegetables (S2).

The above CDM in bold is used to mean

- a) A denial of expectation in which segment two cancels or denied the interpretation of segment one.
- b) Segment two is an alternative to segment one.
- c) Segment two challenges segment one.
- d) Segment two is factually relevant contrast to segment one.

2- Today, many people have jobs and earn a lot of money. **However**, most of them live in small apartments.

The above CDM in bold is used to mean

- a) Segment two is a simple contrast to segment one.
- b) Segment two is an alternative to segment one.
- c) Segment two contradicts segment one to eliminate its assumption.
- d) A degree of comparison

3- In language learning, knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical rules is important. **But** even more important is the employment of such knowledge in the right contexts.

The above CDM in bold is used to mean

- a) Segment two is a simple contrast to segment one.
- b) Segment two is an alternative to segment one.
- c) Segment two is a denial to segment one to provide a correct interpretation.
- d) A degree of comparison.

4- Stress is not a disease. **On the contrary**, it is a root cause of depression

The above CDM in bold is used to mean

- a) Segment two is a simple contrast to segment one.
- b) Segment two is an alternative to segment one.
- c) Segment two challenges segment one to provide a correct interpretation.
- d) A degree of comparison.

Thank you for your participation in this test

APPENDIX B. TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

(Designed by the researcher)

CONTRASTIVE DISCOURSE MARKERS TEACHING SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Writing skills instructors and the teaching strategies that they employ determine to a great extent how students actually write. This applies particularly to EFL students who need an ongoing help from their writing skills teachers. This questionnaire surveys the opinions of writing skills teachers on how Saudi female university undergraduates use contrastive discourse markers (CDMs) such as, "but, however, on the contrary", etc. In addition, it invites writing skills

instructors to express their opinions about whether undergraduates are aware of the different meanings of CDMs that can contribute to the textual, semantic, and pragmatic values of students' academic writings. The present research focuses on CDMs in terms of the frequently misused markers by Saudi female English major undergraduates at Qassim University (QU); the College of Arts and Sciences in Buraydah and the College of Arts and Sciences in Onayzah, levels 6 and 8, in academic writing and whether a one-time intervention presentation can result in a statistically significant difference in the use of CDMs between the experimental and control groups. The research will further assess how students' grade levels affect the way they use CDMs, it also highlights the different meanings of CDMs, and examines writing skills teachers' perceptions about CDMs instruction. The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data about teachers' perceptions of the teaching of CDMs and the methods of CDMs instruction that may help EFL learners to use CDMs appropriately in academic writing

Your participation is highly appreciated and will greatly contribute to the findings of this research and their implications. Your responses will remain confidential. If there is a query you do not want to answer, simply skip it. I hope you will respond to as many queries as possible.

Part One: *Demographic information*

Age group: <input type="checkbox"/> 30 – 35 years <input type="checkbox"/> 35 – 45 years <input type="checkbox"/> 46 or older	Teaching experience: <input type="checkbox"/> Fewer than 7 years <input type="checkbox"/> 7 – 15 years <input type="checkbox"/> 16 or more years
Institution: <input type="checkbox"/> College of Arts and Sciences in Buraydah <input type="checkbox"/> College of Arts and Sciences in Onayzah	Professional status: <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's degree holder <input type="checkbox"/> Master's degree holder <input type="checkbox"/> PhD holder

Part Two: *The following items require your perspectives as a writing skills instructor on how Saudi female university undergraduates use contrastive discourse markers?*

Item	Question	Responses
1.	How frequently do students use CDMs in their writings?	<input type="checkbox"/> Never <input type="checkbox"/> Not very frequently <input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat frequently <input type="checkbox"/> Very frequently
2.	Are there any differences in the way in which students in Levels 6 and 8 use CDMs?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes (education level affects students' use of CDMs) <input type="checkbox"/> No (students in both levels appear to use CDMs similarly)
3.	How would you describe students' use of CDMs in their writings?	<input type="checkbox"/> Students use CDMs randomly <input type="checkbox"/> Students are aware of the meanings of CDMs
4.	When students write, they tend to use a restricted number of CDMs repetitively.	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No
5.	Do you agree with this statement: "DMs are not given the due importance they deserve by writing instructors or EFL teachers in general." (Modhish, 2012, p. 59) If No, please explain: _____ _____ _____	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No

Part Three: *The items below invite your opinions about CDMs instruction and the factors that may affect undergraduates' use of CDMs*

#	Question	Responses				
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Students' critical thinking skills affect their application of CDMs in their writings.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The weak writing proficiency level of Saudi female English major undergraduates can be attributed to the teachers' increased focus on teaching grammar.	1	2	3	4	5
3	There is a dominance of learning by memorization in the teaching in Saudi English major settings that may negatively affect students' writings.	1	2	3	4	5
4	The teaching of writing can affect Saudi EFL undergraduates' reading skills.	1	2	3	4	5
5	As a writing skills teacher, I apply instructional strategies which require students to read extensively for their writing class.	1	2	3	4	5
6	One way to develop students' use of CDMs is through engaging students in argumentative writing tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Students' performance in writing changes when interactive activities and technology are implemented.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Students' knowledge of the different meanings which CDMs signal (e.g., "but" as a CDM to signal simple contrast, a denial of expectation or a degree of making comparison) may affect their writings.	1	2	3	4	5
9	CDMs as part of the grammatical structure of a text are best taught in a grammar class.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Students learn how to use CDMs as they write and should not be taught in any theoretical way.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you very much for your time in responding to this questionnaire survey.

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Using Audiobooks for Developing Listening Comprehension among Saudi EFL Preparatory Year Students

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Abstract—The current study investigated the usefulness of using audiobooks on developing listening comprehension among Saudi English as a Foreign Language (EFL) preparatory year students. It employed the quasi-experimental design which included two groups: an experimental group (n = 44) and a control group (n = 44). The participants were EFL preparatory year students at Arar Branch, Northern Border University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Before conducting the treatment, the experimental group and the control group were pre-tested by using the pre Listening Comprehension Test (LCT) for equivalence of listening comprehension. By the end of the treatment, the experimental group and the control group were post-tested by using the post LCT. The t-test was used to calculate the differences between the mean scores of the pre and post LCT. The results showed that a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group on the post LCT in favor of the experimental group. The results also revealed that a statistically significant difference was found in the mean scores of the experimental group between the pre and post LCT in favor of the post LCT. Thus, it can be concluded that the audiobooks helped the experimental group develop listening comprehension as they exceeded the control group on the post LCT and they achieved a better result on the post LCT than the pre LCT.

Index Terms—audiobooks, listening comprehension, Saudi EFL preparatory year students

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening is considered the most important language skill for achieving effective communication and good academic achievement among learners. It is a highly integrative skill because it is generally the first skill which learners develop (Oxford, 1993; Vandergrift, 1999). It has been emphasized as an essential component in the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) process (Vandergrift, 2003). It has a great role in the construction of language abilities of a Foreign Language (FL) learner (Rost, 2002). It has acknowledged a great importance in FL classrooms (Richards & Renandya, 2002; Rahimi, 2012). The role and importance of listening in SLA exceeds acquiring meaning from sounds because it does not only mean recognizing the sounds but it also involves detecting, conveying and comprehending the information and it allows comprehending the world and creating social relationships among humans (White, 2006). In spite of the importance of listening, it did not get concern in language teaching for many years (Richards & Renandya, 2002; Nation & Newton, 2009). It was the least understood and the most overlooked of the four skills (Nation & Newton, 2009; Wilson, 2008). Moreover, listening is the most difficult task for learners when they begin to learn a FL and it is the most challenging skill to be developed (Berne, 2004; Vandergrift, 2007).

Listening comprehension is a complex dynamic process in which a listener has to distinguish sounds, comprehend vocabulary, understand grammatical structure, infer stress and intonation and relate them into the context (Vandergrift, 1999). It denotes the ability of a listener to comprehend a text read aloud or narrated on an audio recording which she/he listens to (Kintsch & Kintsch, 2005). Though it is necessary to develop listening comprehension among language learners, they were seldom taught how to listen effectively (Vandergrift, 2007). Moreover, listening comprehension has received the least attention in language teaching, learning, research and assessment although it is considered the most essential skill in a language (Oxford, 1993; Mendelsohn, 2001; Clement, 2007; Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). Finding good techniques and strategies for teaching listening comprehension has been emphasized in research conducted by some researchers (e.g. Graham, 2006; Vandergrift, 2007).

The researcher worked as an associate professor at Northern Border University (NBU) in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) and she taught English Language course to EFL preparatory year students at Arar Branch. The researcher realized that most of her preparatory year students had weaknesses in listening comprehension. Besides, the instructors at this university complained of the weaknesses in listening comprehension among their preparatory year students. The listening comprehension weaknesses among EFL preparatory year students were revealed in their inability to comprehend the information which they listened to through listening to any materials of any type such as listening to the English news on the radio and the TV or during watching an English film on a video because they could only remember the first sentence of the listening material and missed remembering the rest of the material. They could not also express the information which they listened to in written and oral forms.

In order to investigate the existence of the listening comprehension problem among EFL preparatory year students at NBU, the researcher checked their scores on previous listening comprehension exams and found that their scores on these exams were very low compared with their scores on other EFL skills exams. Then, the researcher interviewed 19 preparatory year students at NBU on the weaknesses in listening comprehension they had. They pointed out that to them listening did not receive a considerable attention from their EFL instructors who neglected teaching listening comprehension to them since they did not receive practice on proper activities for doing listening comprehension. They indicated that their weaknesses in listening comprehension could be a result of the unsuitable strategies for teaching listening comprehension provided to them by their EFL instructors. They also revealed that although they were provided with listening materials such as CDs, audio cassettes and books that included questions to be used for practicing listening and which might support the teaching of listening comprehension, they had weaknesses in listening comprehension.

The researcher conducted an interview with 5 EFL instructors at the preparatory unit at NBU to investigate the existence of the listening comprehension problem among their EFL preparatory year students. The instructors indicated that although their EFL preparatory year students were exposed to spoken English and to listening to materials of various types, they failed to understand most of the information which they had listened to and they were not capable of developing listening comprehension. They pointed out that their students suffer from weaknesses in listening comprehension because no effective listening strategies nor suitable listening activities were given to them to help them develop listening comprehension. Thus, they thought that it is necessary to determine good techniques and effective strategies for teaching audio input to EFL preparatory year students to help them develop listening comprehension. They also revealed that their students had listening comprehension weaknesses although they were provided with appropriate English Language labs supplied with computers and listening materials of various types to support practicing of listening comprehension. The researcher reviewed previous studies conducted on the problem of listening comprehension among Saudi university students. She realized from her review that studies carried out by Alotaibi (2014), Batel (2014) and Hamdan (2015) were done because Saudi university students suffered from weaknesses in listening comprehension.

A. Statement of the Problem

The pilot studies done on investigating EFL preparatory year students' problem with listening comprehension showed that they suffered from weaknesses in listening comprehension. In order to find a solution for this problem, the researcher conducted the current study to reveal whether audiobooks could improve listening comprehension among EFL preparatory year students.

B. Hypotheses

1. There would be a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between the mean scores of the experimental group and the control group on the post Listening Comprehension Test (LCT) in favor of the experimental group.
2. There would be a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in the mean scores of the experimental group between the pre and post LCT in favor of the post LCT.

C. Aim

The aim of the current study was to explore the usefulness of audiobooks on enhancing EFL preparatory year students' listening comprehension.

D. Significance of the Study

The results of the current study could be vital to EFL preparatory year students because they might give them a new methodology represented in using audiobooks in listening and repeated listening while reading a printed version of the listening text in order to develop their listening comprehension. They might also be significant to EFL instructors because they could offer them an effective tool represented in audiobooks to be used in teaching listening to EFL preparatory year students so as to help them improve listening comprehension. Furthermore, the results could be significant to curriculum developers as they might reveal to them the usefulness of audiobooks in developing listening comprehension among EFL preparatory year students and thus they showed them the importance of designing suitable audiobooks for students to practice listening and develop listening comprehension.

E. Delimitations of the Study

1. This study was carried out at the preparatory year unit, Arar Branch, NBU, KSA because the researcher worked at this university.
2. EFL preparatory year students at Arar because the researcher taught them English Language course.
3. A limited duration for conducting the treatment (10 weeks, 3 hours for each week) as requisite to train the experimental group on using audiobooks to help them develop listening comprehension.

F. Variables

In the current study, the independent variable was audiobooks whereas the dependent variable was EFL preparatory

year students' listening comprehension.

G. Definitions of Terms

1. Audiobooks: The researcher operationally defined audiobooks as a printed book's audio recorded versions of the narration which a user listens to as well as does repeated listening while reading the printed copy of the book.

2. Listening comprehension: The researcher operationally defined listening comprehension as an active process through which listeners connect the information that they listen to with their prior knowledge and information of the aural input while applying various strategies and techniques to comprehend the listened material.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. History of Audiobooks

Audiobooks were previously referred to under the term "talking book". Talking books were first presented around the 1931s and they were implemented by the American government to be used as "Books for the Adult Blind Project" introduced for free to help the blind readers. The term "audiobook" appeared in 1970s with the demand of audiocassettes (Rubery, 2011). Audiobooks went through several developments. The first recordings of the talking books appeared in 1934 and involved sonnets by Shakespeare and short stories by Hasty and they were followed by a recording called Learning Ally which Macdonald founded in 1948. Several companies were established in 1952 with the purpose of making and selling spoken recordings which were in the form of poems, plays and short texts. Other companies such as Listening Library were founded in 1955 in order to distribute children's spoken recordings to libraries and schools. Cassette tapes were invented in 1963 and a wide spread in making them occurred since 1970s and they were followed by technological innovations such as videos. CDs replaced cassette tapes and they were widely used from 2003. The advent of the Internet helped in the prevalence of the downloads of audiobooks from 1990 and they became available to be easily downloaded at any time (Rubery, 2011).

Audiobooks are recently considered as a dominant literacy tool and as one of the most essential resources in the FL learning process because they might help construct language skills among learners (Serafini, 2004). They have been regarded as a scaffold tool used for enhancing literacy among users (Blum, Koskinen, Tennant, Parker, Straub, & Curry, 1995; Jacobs, 2006; Hett, 2012). The use of audiobooks has spread since they were implemented in classrooms to develop reading comprehension among kids and struggling readers (Koskinen, Blum, Bisson, Philips, Creamer, & Baker, 2000; Harris, 2001; O'Day, 2002; Stone-Harris, 2008). They have been widely used in all stages of education (Beers, 1998; Wolfson, 2008). Most previous studies on using audiobooks were carried out on young learners (Kartal & Şimşek, 2011). Previous studies on using audiobooks with university students primarily focused on their effects on their reading comprehension and learning of vocabulary (Marchionda, 2001; Woodal, 2010; Thoof, 2011).

B. General Advantages of Implementing Audiobooks in Language Learning

There are numerous general advantages of implementing audiobooks in language classes. One of the general advantages is providing a learner with a chance to learn new vocabulary because she/he encounters to new words when she/he reads and listens to a text and therefore these new words become part of her/his oral and written vocabulary (Serafini, 2004). Another advantage of audiobooks encompasses of helping learners learn the pronunciation of words which they listen to delivered in appropriate intonation and pronunciation and which they see in print (Saka, 2015; Tagninezhad, Khalifah, Nabizadeh, Shahab, 2015). Moreover, audiobooks can provide learners with opportunities to increase active listening, enhance listening skills and develop reading skills, writing skills and critical thinking skills (Jakobs, 2006; Türker, 2010; Kartal & Şimşek, 2011).

Advantages of audiobooks also involve giving learners a chance to enhance their level of independent reading and to read fluently because they give them models of fluent reading for the material which they listen to (O'Day, 2002; Nalder & Elley, 2003). Moreover, audiobooks can provide learners with the opportunity to discuss the stories which they listened to and read and thus they might develop reading comprehension among learners because they help them focus on meaning (Serafini, 2004; Wolfson, 2008). They might also enable learners to comprehend different types of texts above their reading level, analyze, comprehend and enjoy and like more complex literature (Beers, 1998; Kartal & Şimşek, 2011). And, they were regarded as valuable tools which might solve struggling readers' problem with reading because they learn to match the sounds of oral language with their written equivalents during listening (Jakobs, 2006; Türker, 2010; Kartal & Şimşek, 2011).

C. Related Literature

Listening is a fundamental skill which is related to the ability of comprehension (Berne, 1995; Graham, 2006). Research on listening in the field of EFL during the early decades focused on checking abilities of learners to listen to oral discourse and then answer comprehension questions based on the provided knowledge, without giving them instructions on applying strategies for accomplishing such tasks (Field, 1998). The teaching of listening by using textbooks was a neglected area until the 1970s. It was supposed that learners could develop listening through practice when they are exposed to an oral discourse through repetition and imitation and they might improve it naturally while learning a FL (Getahchew, 2002; Clement, 2007). Listening comprehension is regarded as an active process through

which humans form meaning from passages and link the information which they listen with existing knowledge (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). For EFL learners' development in learning a FL, mastery of listening comprehension is the first step towards fully acquiring a FL (Liu, 2009). Thus, it is necessary to discover and use suitable techniques and useful strategies for teaching listening comprehension to help learners develop it (Graham, 2006; Vandergrift, 2007; Rahimi, 2012). To make listening comprehension effective, activities can be done through listening while reading, repeated listening, interactive listening and non-linguistic or semi-linguistic support (Elkhafaifi, 2005; Kao, 2006; Nation & Newton, 2009).

Due to the utility of audiobooks in language learning, their effectiveness for enhancing language learning regarding developing pronunciation, writing, reading, and grammar has been investigated by numerous studies. Examples of these studies were the following: (O'Day, 2002; Nalder & Elley, 2003; Brown & Fisher, 2006; Türker, 2010). Most previous studies based mainly on investigating the effect of audiobooks on students' reading skill (Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, & Gorsuch, 2004; Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, & Freynik, 2014). Little research was carried out to explore the usefulness of using audiobooks on developing listening comprehension among university students. It is worth mentioning that most studies on the effects of audiobooks on students' listening skills were based on using classroom observations and qualitative data (Shany & Biemiller, 1995; Hamdan, 2015). Moreover, the researcher did not find any study that was conducted with the aim of exploring the effects of using audiobooks on developing listening comprehension among EFL university students at the Saudi context.

III. METHOD

A. Research Design

It was a pre, posttest quasi experimental study which comprised of 2 groups: an experimental group and a control group. The researcher pre tested the 2 groups by using the pre LCT for equivalence in their listening comprehension prior to the treatment of the current study. By the end of conducting the treatment, she post tested the 2 groups by using the post LCT to assess their listening comprehension. She used the t-test to calculate the difference between the mean scores of the pre LCT and the post LCT.

B. Participants

The participants were EFL preparatory year female students who ranged from 18 to 20 years old. They formed 2 classes which the researcher randomly chosen from her list of classes that studied English Language course during that academic semester at Arar Branch, NBU. EFL preparatory year students at NBU were already randomly assigned into classes by their university. They had a similar linguistic background of EFL because they had studied it for about 10 years. They were all Saudis who were born of Saudi parents and they lived and raised in KSA. They were supposed to join faculty of education and arts by the end of their preparatory year and after they pass all of their courses. Their EFL instructors were Saudi native speakers of Arabic with the same teaching experience with university students. The English Language course provided to the participants comprised of teaching them grammar, listening, speaking, reading and writing. The participants used to receive one listening session which lasted for 3 hours once every week. They practiced listening through listening to materials of various types such as audio cassettes, videos, oral conversations, and CDs followed by oral comprehension questions without having the opportunity to read from printed versions of the texts which they listened to. They had no previous experience with using the audiobooks of the current study in practicing listening inside and outside of their classes prior to the treatment. Moreover, they did not have any experience with studying the texts of the stories of the audiobooks of the current study because they did not read them and they did not listen to them before the application of the treatment. The researcher was responsible of teaching listening to the participants throughout the current study.

The researcher used the pre LCT to reveal whether the experimental group and the control group were equivalent in listening comprehension before conducting the study. Then, she used the t-test to test the significance between the two groups on the pre LCT. The result indicated that the difference in the mean scores between the experimental group and the control group on the pre LCT was not statistically significant ($t = 0.717, p > 0.05$). This result meant that the 2 groups were equivalent in listening comprehension preceding to the treatment. This result is presented in Table (1).

TABLE 1

THE T-VALUE OF THE DIFFERENCE IN THE MEAN SCORES BETWEEN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP ON THE PRE LCT

Group	N	Mean	SD	DF	T	Sig.
Experimental	44	10.59	2.08	86	0.717	0.475
Control	44	10.93	2.36			

C. Instrument

The LCT (See the Appendix)

The researcher designed the LCT by adopting conversations and lectures from a book entitled "Prepare and Practice for the Computer-Based TOEFL Test" which was written by Taylor and Moore and was published in 2001. The researcher depended on the listening lessons given to EFL preparatory year students at NBU in their English Language

course as a basis to choose the listening texts in order to make the LCT valid for the participants of the current study regarding its level of vocabulary and grammatical structure. The LCT consisted of 6 parts which encompassed of classroom discussions, parts of lectures, parts of talks and a telephone conversation. Each part was followed by four Multiple Choice Questions (MCQs) with four options in each question. The topics of the LCT were different from the topics of the audiobooks which the researcher used in the current study. The directions of the LCT were introduced in a separate section at the beginning. The questions and the directions of the LCT were written in English and they were clear, simple and brief. The audio recorder of the LCT was made in a clear and good voice which was delivered at suitable speed with natural delivery to be audible to all the participants. The questions of the LCT were made in a printed version to be given to the participants to use and answer questions on it. Only one option in each question was correct. The researcher assigned one mark for each correct answer given by a participant on the LCT.

To validate the LCT regarding whether this test and its directions were comprehensible, readable and suitable for the participants of the current study, the researcher provided it to a jury of 7 EFL instructors who taught English Language to EFL preparatory year students at some universities in the KSA. The jury pointed out that the texts, the questions and the directions of the LCT included suitable vocabulary for the participants' linguistic level and they knew the meaning of all the provided vocabulary. They added that the grammatical level of the LCT was also suitable for the linguistic level of the participants and hence it might be comprehensible to them. Moreover, they indicated that the audio recording of the LCT was audible and perfect and they revealed that the pronunciation of the speakers on the LCT was clear with a proper speed and careful pauses. Hence, the jury members assured the LCT's validity for the participants in the current study because of its comprehensible texts, readable questions, clear directions and audible recordings.

The researcher also provided the LCT to a pilot sample of 19 EFL preparatory year students who did not take part in the current study to reveal the validity of this test and the validity of its directions for the current study. The pilot sample assured that the LCT and the directions were comprehensible to them because they knew the meaning of all the vocabulary provided in them and as they found that its grammatical level was suitable for them. They indicated that the topics of the selected texts in the LCT were familiar for them because they knew the meaning of the included vocabulary. They also revealed that the audio recording of the LCT was clear and audible and the pronunciation, speed and pauses of the speakers on the recording are good. The researcher estimated the timing of the LCT by the same piloting and found that it was 60 minutes.

The reliability of the LCT was assessed as the researcher used the test / retest method with it and she applied it on a pilot sample of 21 EFL preparatory year students who were not among the current study's participants and she applied it again on the same pilot sample after a period of 15 days span. She used Pearson's coefficient of correlation between the first and the second administrations of the LCT. The result was 0.85 and it showed that the LCT achieved a high degree of reliability.

D. Materials

• Selected Audiobooks for the Application of the Listening Sessions

The researcher selected the audiobooks from the Internet. They were made in a form of short stories enclosed in a book entitled "Half-Past Seven Stories". This book was composed by Robert Gordon Anderson in 1922. It represented a continuation of the Seven O'Clock Stories, followed the adventures of Marmaduke and the Toyman. These audiobooks were intended to be used in the listening sessions of the current study as the researcher would permit the experimental group to listen and repeat listening while reading printed versions of them. The audiobooks were both narrated by native American speakers of English. The texts of the audiobooks were made in printed versions and were intended to be used by the experimental group for reading during the listening and the repeated listening to the audio recordings. One of the bases of selecting these audiobooks was their length which was reasonable for in class listening and reading. The familiarity of the vocabulary of the texts of the audiobooks for the participants was also another basis for selecting them. The audiobooks were suitable for the linguistic level of the participants regarding their vocabulary, grammar and the pronunciation of their speakers. Besides, PDF versions of the audiobooks were available on the Internet to be easily downloaded on computers and printed at any time.

The researcher checked the validity of the audiobooks by providing them to the jury members to give their opinions on them. The jury members assured that the audiobooks were both valid for the current study because they were suitable for the participants' linguistic level regarding the vocabulary used in them and their grammatical structure. Besides, they pointed out that the length of the texts of the audiobooks was reasonable and hence they would be acceptable by the participants. They also revealed that the quality of the narration sound of the audio recordings of the audiobooks was good as they were audible and comprehensible for the participants because they were delivered by native American speakers with normal and understandable pronunciation using reasonable speed.

The researcher also submitted the audiobooks to a pilot sample of 17 preparatory year students who did not take part with the participants in the present study in order to investigate their validity for the current study. The pilot sample revealed that the audiobooks were comprehensible and appropriate for their linguistic level because of their known vocabulary and proper grammar. They pointed out the familiarity of the topics of the audiobooks for them because they were of interest to them. They indicated that the printed versions of the audiobooks were readable, teachable and applicable for practicing listening and repeated listening while reading. They also assured that the quality of the audio recordings of the audiobooks was appropriate because they were all recorded with good quality at a proper speed which

was audible and done with a normal delivery and clear accent. Therefore, these opinions of the pilot sample showed the validity of the audiobooks for the current study.

• Sessions for Using the Audiobooks in Listening Comprehension

The researcher designed sessions intended to be used in the training of the experimental group on the use of audiobooks for developing listening comprehension. The sessions included objectives, stages of listening, activities included in the listening stages, questions attached to listening stages and time required for doing the sessions. She validated these sessions through providing them to the jury members to reveal if they were applicable for the current study. The jury members assured that the sessions were valid for the current study because the objectives were proper, the activities in the listening stages were teachable and appropriate for the participants' age and linguistic level, the questions were suitable because they revolve around the listening topics and they were proper for the participants' linguistic level and the allocated time was appropriate for doing the activities.

E. Treatment

The researcher conducted the current study at the Preparatory Unit, Arar Branch, NBU, KSA as she taught English course to EFL preparatory year students there and realized that most of these students had weaknesses in listening comprehension. The National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment (NCAAA) provided academic standards on listening skill at the preparatory year in KSA universities and assured the necessity of developing listening comprehension among EFL preparatory year students. Therefore, universities in KSA considered listening an essential skill in the context of learning EFL and stressed that EFL preparatory year students should master it. Thus, all KSA universities enclosed teaching listening in the English Language course provided to their preparatory year students. The English Language course taught to EFL preparatory year students at Arar Branch, NBU was comprised of teaching them grammar, listening, speaking, reading and writing. This course aimed at developing listening comprehension among EFL preparatory year students regarding defining, comprehending and conveying information in oral and written forms as they understood from the materials which they listened to through sources such as tape recordings, news on TV and radio, videos, and other spoken language which they might encounter in their daily activities. Furthermore, the English Language course given to EFL preparatory students at NBU included listening lessons which were applied through listening and repeated listening to recorded materials without doing while reading activities to what they listened.

The treatment in the current study based on using audiobooks in practicing listening and repeated listening. It lasted for 10 weeks with 3 hours for each week as required for the application of the sessions of the current study. The type of listening implemented in the audiobooks was academic listening which based on listening to short stories downloaded on CDs by the researcher from the Internet. The researcher taught the participants throughout all the sessions of the current study. The control group received their listening sessions during the same academic semester and lasted for the same duration of time as the experimental group. The difference between the experimental group and the control group was that each student in the experimental group individually did listening and repeated listening to a text while following listening by doing silent reading from a printed version of the text whereas each student in the control group only listened and repeated listening to the same text without following her listening by using silent reading to the printed version of the text. Moreover, the researcher gave each student in the experimental group a CD that included the audio recordings of the texts of the audiobooks whereas the control group did not receive any CDs as they did listening and repeated listening with the help of the researcher by using a classroom computer. The researcher also supplied the experimental group with printed versions of the written texts of the audiobooks to be used during the sessions of the current study in doing silent reading while doing listening and repeated listening whereas the control group did not receive these printed version. The researcher provided the control group with the same questions which she gave to the experimental group on the audiobooks. The experimental and the control groups did listening stages to the short stories from no. 1 to no. 8 that were included in "Half-Past Seven Stories" book from the beginning of the 1st week till the end of the 5th week. Besides, they did listening stages to the short stories from no. 9 to no. 16 which were comprised in the same book from the beginning of the 6th week till the end of the 10th week. A description of the listening stages in the current study is introduced in the following section.

The Pre Listening Stage: To prepare the experimental group to identify the topic of the listening activity, motivate them to listen carefully to the listening texts and help them know the purpose of doing this listening, the researcher introduced the topic of the listening texts to them. Besides, the researcher discussed with the experimental group some questions about the topic to stimulate their background knowledge about it. The researcher also gave the experimental group instructions on how to do the tasks of the listening stages and showed them the KWL chart which was adapted from Beers (2003) to be used during the while-listening stage and the post-listening stage. The researcher informed them that the activities of this chart were about mark my words, mark who and question mark. Then, the researcher trained them through showing them examples on how to do the listening stages required from them and how to fill out the KWL chart.

The While Listening Stage: The researcher gave time to each student in the experimental group to individually listen to a text and to follow this listening by doing silent reading to it from a printed version of the text. She also gave each student time to repeat listening and to follow this repeated listening by using silent reading to the same text from the printed version of the text. She gave each student with multiple choice questions and the KWL chart to individually answer the questions and to fill out the chart during doing the repeated listening step in order to check her

comprehension of the text. The researcher helped the experimental group to make themselves into small groups of 4 students in each group to check their individual answers on the questions and the KWL chart with their small group. She observed and guided the experimental group throughout doing this stage to facilitate the procedures through giving them advice when needed.

The Post Listening Stage: The researcher discussed with the experimental group their answers on the KWL chart and asked them some open-ended questions on the text which they had listened and repeated listening to in order to check their comprehension of it. Each small group was given the opportunity to write together a summary of the listening text. Then, the researcher gave them feedback on their answers.

IV. RESULTS

A. Result of Hypothesis One

The researcher used the t-test to explore the difference in the mean scores between the experimental group and the control group on the post LCT. The result revealed that the difference in the mean scores between the experimental group and the control group on the post LCT was statistically significant ($t = 34.68$, $p < 0.05$). So, the 1st hypothesis was accepted. Table (2) presented this result.

TABLE 2
THE T-VALUE OF THE DIFFERENCE IN THE MEAN SCORES BETWEEN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP ON THE POST LCT

Group	N	Mean	SD	DF	T	Sig.
Experimental	44	23.32	1.95	86	34.68	0.000
Control	44	10.09	1.61			

B. Result of Hypothesis Two

The researcher used the t-test to examine the difference in the mean scores of the experimental group between the pre and post LCT. The result indicated that the difference in the mean scores of the experimental group between the pre and post LCT was statistically significant ($t = 30.26$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, the 2nd hypothesis was accepted. Table (3) showed this result.

TABLE 3
THE T-VALUE OF THE DIFFERENCE IN THE MEAN SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP BETWEEN THE PRE AND POST LCT

Group	N	Mean	SD	DF	T	Sig.
Pre Experimental	44	10.59	2.08	43	30.26	0.000
Post Experimental	44	23.32	1.95			

V. DISCUSSION

The results in the current study revealed that the use of audiobooks significantly improved listening comprehension among the experimental group. In fact, the audiobooks implemented in the current study with the experimental group made a perfect environment for them to listen and read at the same time to interact with the content of the texts, gave them variety to comprehend the information given in the listening texts through individual activities and discussions together and with the researcher and thus led them to develop their listening comprehension. The development in listening comprehension among the experimental group on the post LCT might be because audiobooks enjoy having the features of characterization, theme, tone, setting and other important features of the text (Brown, 2002). And, because some audiobooks have the merit of using both female and male narrators, music, and sound effects in order to add to the realism of the text (Wolfson, 2008). Moreover, audiobooks are characterized by easy access and use by students and teachers and this facilitates acquiring, teaching, learning and development of listening. On the other hand, most audiobooks on the Internet are provided in PDF forms and can be easily downloaded on computers and printed into readable versions to be used in while reading activities.

The audiobooks used in the current study allowed the experimental group to listen as well as repeat listening while reading by using a printed version of the listening material. Repeated listening to the listening material proved to be useful in improving students' listening fluency (Nation & Newton, 2009). Furthermore, the audiobooks used in the current study played an essential role in developing listening comprehension among the experimental group because an audiobook generally gives the natural tone of language delivered by a native speaker and hence it provides chances for learners to think about the real language and improve their listening comprehension. This means that audiobooks proved to be an effective tool for acquiring a FL and comprehending it as it is spoken. Consequently, audiobooks can be considered as a new technique which should be integrated into EFL curriculum to be applied by teachers in listening classrooms to develop listening comprehension among learners.

The current study's results are in agreement with the results of a study designed by Grover and Hannegan (2005). The findings in the present study also support the results of Kartal and Şimşek's (2011) study. These studies revealed that audiobooks are useful in developing reading comprehension and listening skills among learners. The researcher gave the experimental group a chance to discuss their opinions regarding their experience with using audiobooks in the

treatment of the current study. All of the experimental group commented positively on using audiobooks in developing their listening comprehension. They indicated that they found out that audiobooks were helpful for improving their listening comprehension and they enjoyed using audiobooks for listening and reading at the same time. They also assured that audiobooks motivated them to read and listen to more books and hence they were interested in using audiobooks as a learning tool in the future and in using them to do listening assignments at out of classrooms activities. They revealed that they believed that audiobooks made them became more excited to like reading and listening and more enthusiasm for developing their listening comprehension. The opinions of the experimental group about the usefulness of using audiobooks for enhancing listening comprehension were in line with the responses of students in the study of O'Day (2002). They also regarded audiobooks as good tools which are helpful and effective in developing listening.

VI. CONCLUSION

The researcher concluded from the results of the present study that audiobooks were useful in developing listening comprehension among EFL preparatory year students. Therefore, audiobooks should be applied in classroom listening sessions and in doing home assignments given by EFL instructors in order to enhance listening comprehension among EFL university students.

A. Recommendations

The researcher introduced these recommendations from the results of the current study:

- University instructors should be trained on the use of audiobooks in teaching of listening comprehension to EFL preparatory year students.
- Curriculum developers should enclose audiobooks for teaching listening comprehension to EFL preparatory year students.
- Suitable audiobooks for practicing listening comprehension should be available to EFL preparatory year students and their EFL instructors.
- University EFL instructors who teach at the preparatory year should allocate home assignments based on audiobooks use in addition to incorporating audiobooks into classroom practice.

B. Suggestions for Further Research

These studies were suggested for further research:

- A study which replicates the current study can be done with more EFL preparatory year students to obtain more generalizations of the results.
- A study can be conducted to explore the effectiveness of using audiobooks on reducing listening anxiety among EFL preparatory year students.
- A study can be carried out to examine the effect of using audiobooks on developing critical listening among EFL preparatory year students.
- A study can be conducted to explore the effectiveness of using audiobooks on improving fluent reading among EFL preparatory year students.
- Another study can be done to reveal the usefulness of audiobooks on improving pronunciation among EFL preparatory year students.

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Pre-service Teachers' Perception of Teaching Future EFL Students: A Micro-ethnography Approach

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Abstract—As an archipelagic state, teaching English in Indonesia is not easy to deal with. Its diverse socio-cultural context causes the assumption that to teach English as a foreign language varies. This paper studies the pre-service students' perspective on how to teach future EFL learners in the Indonesian context. The participants of this study were 150 pre-service teachers aged 20-24 years old who had comprehended such TEFL concept in the 50-hour course. Using a micro-ethnography approach, this issue was investigated and observed for one year. It tried to understand the perception of pre-service teachers in terms of putting theories into practices. To portray this perception, this study used fieldwork, interview and questionnaire. The result showed that students had a similar perception, in which they included the Indonesian context in designing a lesson as well as acting out as classroom teachers. In the interaction process, they tried to engage students with Indonesian context rather than English context. Yet, it results into bad implication in which both pre-service teachers and their future students will not learn English in the proper context. As pre-service teachers, they should not teach in their comfort zone and start to learn to include English socio-cultural context when they teach English.

Index Terms—micro-ethnography, pre-service teacher, students' perception, socio-cultural context

I. INTRODUCTION

Prior to the professional development, most competent and experienced teachers have their educational initiative as pre-service teachers. They should have clear images of their future teaching (Chong, Low, & Goh, 2011). As the initial steps, they need to embrace their teaching knowledge, skills, and abilities before field experiences. Seen as long-term investments and assets in an educational context, they hold the responsibility to form better generation. They have a greater task in which the current picture of education has been wrongly implemented and fossilized. The roots of failure in an educational setting are varied such as an educational system, teachers' status and motivation, examination pattern, teachers' preparation, method of teaching the availability of qualified teachers (Olurenfemi-Olabisi, 2013), inadequate exposure to teaching practice (Okubukola, 2005), the use of media (Okpala, 2006), and teaching strategies (Ebenezer, 2009), and teaching materials. These factors somehow weigh and burden these pre-service teachers as future teachers. How will they respond to this poor education quality and shift from these problems to potential solution and practice?

Another challenge is encountered in the context of teaching a foreign language in a diverse culture state as in Indonesia. As one of subject courses in the Indonesian curriculum, teaching English demands more than just teaching knowledge, skills, or abilities, but it involves a good understanding of Indonesia as a foreign language country in general, and as an archipelagic state in a specific way. Indonesia, itself, has over 17,000 islands spread out from Sabang to Merauke (Murphy, 2010). This condition leads Indonesia to have diverse socio-cultural contexts. The diverse socio-cultural contexts may cause a cultural mismatch and conflict between teachers and students, particularly if teachers are from different ethnic group, which presumably has a different native culture and vernacular or local languages. It has been surveyed that as a state, Indonesia has more than 550 known local languages (Sneddon, 2003) with varied dialects. These countless dialects cause diverse patterns of communication during classroom activities.

The variation of perception may go beyond since the diverse socio-cultural context in Indonesia is driven not only from the ethnicity factor but also from a religious perspective. It is widely known that Indonesia respects the religious issues. It is a home for 6 major religions such as Muslim, Protestant, Catholic, Hindu, Buddhist, and Confucianism. Unlike in the western countries as in the US, in which the religion subject is apart from the school curriculum, in Indonesia religion course becomes compulsory subject from elementary to university level as has been constituted in the education policy and curriculum. Another issue is that the Indonesian educational policy allows the concept of religion-based school, both in the city and in the countryside. As the consequences, it affects the learning materials used in the classroom. This system drives teachers' need to selectively choose learning materials in consideration, it will not harm their beliefs. So, teaching English will be intrinsically challenging for teachers. Since this belief has been instituted in the system, some collaborative schoolteachers who supervise pre-service teachers tend to push these pre-service teachers to be extra-careful in choosing materials. Back to the intertwined and bound-together concept of language and culture, pre-service teachers will limit their teaching materials and for those who are teaching at the

religion-based school, they are able to help the students to acquire a deep level of English. To address this issue, I propose the research question below:

RQ 1. What are the shared beliefs, values, and attitude of the pre-service teachers on how to teach future EFL learners in Indonesian context?

II. METHODOLOGY

The present research studied the pre-service teachers' perspective on how to teach future EFL learners in Indonesia. The issue was studied by using a qualitative micro-ethnography approach. It portrayed and noted a deep understanding on how these pre-service teachers expressed their beliefs, values, and attitude through their action, verbal, and engage in practices.

To understand the perspective, I spend a year from February to December 2016 to interview, observe, question, and gather the information. This research was situated at a state university in Magelang, Indonesia. I had flexible access to verify the record of their shared thoughts and actions comprehensively.

Narrowly framed, the research focused on 150 male and female pre-service teachers aged 20-24 years old. These participants, who were involved in the study, had joined for the 50-hour Teaching English as Foreign Languages (TEFL) course in 2016. These participants were Javanese with varied dialects and diverse culture, such as standard Javanese of Kedu sub-dialect (Kebumen, Purworejo, Magelang, Temanggung), Semarang sub-dialect (Semarang), Yogyakarta sub-dialect (Yogyakarta), and Surakarta sub-dialect (Surakarta, Solo, Boyolali, Sukoharjo, and Karanganyar), as well as Banyumasan Javanese of Banyumasan sub-dialect (Banyumas, Purbalingga, Cilacap, Banjarnegara, Purwokerto).

To see what is actually happening and collecting such information, this study involved fieldwork, questionnaire and interview. Fieldwork functioned to back-up information, which was not easily uncovered through an interview or questionnaire. I learned how these pre-service teachers thought and acted slowly. In doing the fieldwork, this study used emic approach. The approach allowed this study to get the data from the participants and construct their perspective directly. Later, it allowed me to construct this perspective based on the recorded stories. It was essential to note that the fieldwork recorded both initial and final processes. In the initial process, all of the participants developed the background schemata about their teaching concept and tried to synthesize and construct the acquired knowledge from books and classroom discussion into their teaching practice in the final phase. Their construction was then developed into a lesson design and performed individually in the final process. Each pre-service teacher acted out as the real classroom teachers based on their own lesson plan.

Another tool used to collect the data was a questionnaire. The questionnaire was an open-ended questionnaire, which let the participants to answer honestly. It focused on the causes of failure in an educational setting (Olurenfemi-Olabisi, 2013) such as current and future Indonesian education system, current and future students' characteristics, teachers' qualification, teaching methods, the language philosophy, and teaching materials.

To triangulate the data, this study also conducted unstructured open-ended interviews. The interview was done randomly to some participants to confirm the results of fieldwork and the questionnaire given. In the interview session, I filtered and controlled the information needed to support this study. Each interview was audiotaped and transcribed.

In analyzing the data, this study used the qualitative process of data analysis (Creswell, 2012). This data analysis required six steps such as (1) data collection or data preparation, (2) data organization, (3) data exploration or data codification, (4) use the data codification to have the general description and image, (5) Illustrate the findings through the narrative description, and (6) making the interpretation of the findings and drawing the personal reflection on the impact might be caused from the study. Through the whole process, it was expected that the study was able to document these pre-service teachers perception and behavior.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The Perception of Teaching EFL Learners in Indonesia

The universal belief, values, and attitudes of the participants, in this case, pre-service teachers on how to teach future EFL learners in the Indonesian context were reflected on these aspects mentioned earlier. In general, it shared some common understanding such as the education system, student's characteristics, teacher's qualification, teaching methods, language philosophy, and learning materials.

The Shared Beliefs on the Indonesian Education System

More than 120 participants or 80% agreed that the current Indonesian education system was rated relatively low or bad. This perception was predominantly caused by the curriculum implemented across the country. These participants learned how the government or ministry of education and culture, in this case, keep changing the curriculum system. One of the current confusing systems is that the ministry has two curriculums namely School-based Curriculum (Curriculum 2006) and Curriculum 2013. For the last 4 years, the Curriculum 2013 has been implemented in some piloting schools. These schoolteachers, then, encountered a big perplexity, in which they have to teach the senior students with the School-based Curriculum and freshmen with the Curriculum 2013. They are required to think about the proper materials to meet the standard or core competencies that should be acquired in these two different curricula.

“Indonesia is not ready with the two curriculums implemented together. It deals with the teacher’s qualification and administration workload. Based on my observation, both curriculums were not implemented correctly. I could see how the School-based Curriculum affected the implementation of Curriculum 2013, or vice versa.” (student 3)

Further investigated, these pre-service teachers’ reasoned that there were some causing factors of this low rate such as the government intervention (political intervention), aiming at the evaluation system (national examination), focusing on the low cognitive level, disregarding the students’ characteristics and needs, and so forth.

“I think our current education system had big intervention from government. When we have new minister we have a new policy in our education system like curriculum, five school days, new criteria of national examination” (student 22)

“In my assumption, our education system needs to highlight the students’ characteristics. It was not as simple as having great ideas and implementing them in our education system. But, our government should appreciate the diverse students’ needs across the cultures. Our government should balance between adoption with the Indonesian condition. Like as my cousin said that (he is teaching in Papua now), it was hard to make the children here to keep up with the Jakartanese students. Our government should see the education system from the rural places as well.” (student 7).

In this case, these perceptions on current education system lead to pessimism on the future education system. 52 participants showed their negative attitude to it. Approximately one-third presumed that changing the future Indonesian education system tends to be predictably similar with today’s education system, or even worse. As they argued, it could be caused some problems such as the teacher’s qualification and understanding the students’ needs.

“It’s not about disrespecting our future education, but if we do not change what we have now, our future education system can be easily predicted that it will be similar to today’s system.” (student 11)

Yet, two-thirds of pre-service teachers still showed their positive attitude toward the future. One of the causes is affected by today’s education system.

“Although it is not going to be rapid change, personally I believe that our future education system will be developed than today. Our government will learn from the world education system and try to catch up it. Actually, it could be seen from the nowadays curriculum 2013, in which it shows the effort of our government to focus on higher cognitive level and scientific approach. If there is consistency from the government, I think our education system will be better in the future.” (student 16)

For about ninety-eight participants who had the positive sight toward the future education development gave varied reasons, particularly dealing with better students’ characteristics, teacher’s commitment, and rapid technology development.

“There are some reasons that I could think of. As you know, the infants or kids now are familiar with technology than our generation who know technology when we were senior high students. It means that this generation, who will be my students, will be better in terms of knowledge and intellectual development. They have access and I believe it will be future teachers like us to be aware of this condition. I am a bit afraid of since they will be more active and have better critical thinking.” (student 22)

Although they had the same perception about the current education system, but there is a big difference between pros and contras, most of these pre-service teachers shared the same positive attitude about the future of Indonesian education system.

The Common Viewpoints on the Indonesian Student’s Characteristics

The big number of the pre-service teachers tried to criticize about the current students’ characteristics. For about 40 percent, these participants agreed that most of today’s students are lacking at points such as passive, dependent, teacher-centered, lazy, and so forth.

“Talking about students in today’s student characteristics is talking about us. I do realize that most of us tend to be passive in the class and wait for the materials from the teachers.” (student 29)

“I think most students who live in today’s era are lazy, passive and unconfident. When they have assignment such as writing, they only write a simple paragraph with simple notion.” (student 34)

Some focused on the difference between students’ characteristics across the nation, in which culture binds their life aspects.

“In my opinion, the students’ characteristics in Indonesia are not merely affected by the common characteristics such as intelligence and manner. In general, people may think that students in Borneo, or Papua, may be categorized as less intelligent compared to those in Java Island. But, it’s not totally true. I think they have minimum exposure to the new knowledge and they value their culture in their life.”

In more detail, they think that the future student characteristics are better. Over than 55% of the students had a typical opinion that they are much better in any aspects.

“If we are asked about the current student characters and the future student characters, I think they are better than us. As the rapid technology development grows, they will be more independent, creative, and critical. They may understand the learning materials better than us even though they may have minimum guidance from teachers.” (student 39)

However, some emphasize on the cultural side. As they argue, the future could be better, worse, or similar to today’s characteristics, in which all depends on how much the future generation wants to change and compete with other young generations all over the world.

“Talking about future students is similar to predicting their characters. But, we can just say they are better than us. Once again, they are born from our culture. I think we hold big responsibility. If we as future teachers do not teach something good, we are not going to be developed” (student 45)

From this viewpoint, it is logical to infer that these pre-service teachers share the same optimism. As they believe, the future students will be better and enhanced than the present generation.

The Universal Perception of Teacher’s Qualification

Predominantly, most of the pre-service teachers agreed that teachers should have good qualification. However, there is a significant difference on how they interpreted the notion of qualified teachers. It is mere 50 percent of the participants agreed that competent teachers are those with wide knowledge and skills. As they reasoned, teachers are responsible to transfer their knowledge and make the students comprehend the materials well.

“A qualified teacher should be knowledgeable and skillful. They should understand about the materials they are teaching. With the knowledge they have, they can attract the students’ interest.” (student 50)

“As a good teacher, they should be able to achieve the proposed learning goals. How can students understand the materials if the teacher himself does not comprehend the material?” (student 53)

30 percent of these pre-service teachers said that an experienced teacher should possess class management skill such as organizing and controlling the class.

“One of the characteristics of a good teacher is that they can make the learning enjoyable. A good teacher should know how to build the atmosphere and organize class well.” (student 58)

The rest of 20 percent or 30 participants emphasize on the teacher’s attitude and performance when they are teaching their students. As they persuaded, the prominent reason is the moral degradation in comparison to the past generation.

“One of the qualification a teacher should own is good behavior. Teachers will be the figure of their students. Probably, there are some smart teachers, but the challenge we have in the future is how the students’ attitude is better than today since parents give all the responsibility to shape their character on teachers.” (student 62)

At this point, these pre-service teachers highlight that knowledge, classroom management and teacher’s attitude were the foremost three characteristics that a teacher should have for now and future teaching.

The General Assumption of Teaching Methods

Prominently, these pre-service teachers had a similar thought that today’s teaching methods tend to be more traditional. Over 67% or two-third of the participants had a similar perception that the implemented teaching methods emphasize on activating students’ participation.

“I personally keep thinking the existing teaching methods are used to attract the passive students and make them more active. So, sometimes the methods used are not in line with the method.” (student 69)

“As I know, active learning is the foremost method in Indonesia now. Most of the schoolteachers are encouraged to use any media to make students actively involved in the classroom process. Schoolteachers usually use any colorful media to attract them”. (student 71)

Further explored, some stated that the implemented teaching methods are closely related to the students’ characteristics such as age level, proficiency level, as well as cultural perspective.

“When we use a teaching method, we have to consider many things such as age whether young or adult learners, as well as proficiency such as beginner or advanced. However, there is an aspect which is always ignored i.e. culture. When the implemented method is close to the origin culture such as an adaptation from traditional games, it would be easier for the students to collaboratively work with the teacher in the classroom. (student 77)

As these pre-service teachers are asked about future teaching methods, more than 85% agreed that the methods will be based on technology. More specifically, the use of technology cause the methods to be developed and varied. As they assumed, the rapid development of technology challenges the future teachers to dig their new ideas on teaching method. Besides that, these teachers have to think beyond merely activating students’ participation, but integrating knowledge, experience, and students’ need of it.

“I think the future teachers are required to develop more modernized, creative and innovative teaching methods. I believe technology plays a significant role here. So, the future teachers will have different objectives, in which it is no longer on activating students, but how these methods incorporate other things such as knowledge, and experience, as well as in line with the globalization” (student 82)

The Distributed View of Language Philosophy

The concept of language used in the classroom – whether it is supposed to be Javanese-English or English in the context of British or American English – has been widely debated. In Indonesia, the language will be the unsolved problem for years. This study explicitly showed that 40 percent of these pre-service teachers indicated the same tenet which involves the use of mixing both English and Javanese, with varied reasons.

“For me, using code mixing of the two languages, i.e. English and Javanese is more personal issue. I do believe that the mixing languages help the students to understand learning materials, particularly if the materials have difficult vocabulary. I think using translation method is the proper way. So, the students will understand the materials well” (student 87)

“I think mixing two languages is part of maintaining and preserving our local culture. Besides that we help our student to understand the materials.” (student 94)

Another 35 percent of the participants supported the notion of using English either British or American context. As they debated, the use of British or American English will help the future students master the language and its social context and give them proper exposure.

“As the future teachers, I think the use of British or American English is a way better for the student’s development rather Javanese and English. At first, they may face difficulty in understanding and make them passive, but I believe that by having proper exposure these students are getting better and they can compete with other students from different countries. (student 97)

However, there is 20 percent who are confused about their own language philosophy. These 30 participants partially agreed on the use of mixing language Javanese-English and British or American-English.

“I think it is a difficult question to answer. Ideally, the use of American or British English is suggested for the future classroom. However, it is hard to deliver the materials in a hundred percent English if the students will not understand what we are talking about. Furthermore, as I observed most of these pre-service teachers have English difficulty. How could they claim that they are going to speak either British or American English? I don’t think so. (student 103)

The Notion of Learning Materials

It is questionable if the learning materials should orient to the local content or western content. In this study, the pre-service teacher’s mindsets on the used learning materials were relatively varied. The highest percentage was 50 percent with the preference of combination between local and western content.

“I think the best way to choose the materials is that both considering curriculum and integrating the western country. I give you an example, if we want to teach legend we could use Indonesian legend as the primary materials, and western legend as the secondary materials.” (student 112)

However, around 24 participants disagreed with this notion. As they rationalized, the learning materials should be based on the implemented curriculum and understandable for the students.

“Using the learning materials in public school is totally different from the private or international school. Teachers should emphasize on the material as suggested by the government, and somehow it limits our creativity on choosing the learning materials” (student 118)

Another big percentage, with 50% also opposed this notion and preferred to choose western-content materials.

“In the future, there is a big challenge for the teachers. If we keep using local content or a combination, we could not keep up with the world development. It could cause Indonesia to be left behind.” (student 124)

The Gap Between Perception and Practice

The major purpose of this study was to investigate the shared beliefs, values, and attitude of the pre-service teachers on how to teach future EFL learners in the Indonesian context. In order to clearly see their internal beliefs, values, and attitudes, we have to see how these pre-service teachers use their perception in the classroom, how they prepare the materials, how they manage and conduct their class, as well as how they motivate the students. Thus, the gap between the external perception, i.e. what has been written on the questionnaire and attitude on the fieldwork observation could be deeply investigated through interviews.

As mentioned above, there are some indicators investigated such as the education system, student’s characteristics, teacher’s qualification, teaching methods, language philosophy, and learning materials.

For some indicators such as education system and student’s characteristics, the mismatch between the perception and practice could not be seen clearly since it deals with the governmental issue and unpredictable students’ attitude in the classroom. Yet, other indicators are observable.

For the teacher’s qualification indicator, these pre-service teachers point out knowledge, classroom management, and teacher’s attitude. However, there is a significant difference between the perception and its implementation. For about 80 percent of the students were not really knowledgeable, such as when the students ask about the language features, they had difficulty in explaining the materials. For the classroom management, they had difficulty in controlling the naughty students and tended to focus on the students in the front. For the attitude, many pre-service teachers still treat their students as peers, in this case it will be hard to be a good role model for them.

For the teaching method, the gap is that when they believe that a better future education system could be achieved through technology development. However, during the individual teaching practice, less than 40 percent who used technology in their teaching practice. Once it was confirmed, they totally do not remember their own commitment in having a better future education regardless of the implemented curriculum.

For the language philosophy, most pre-service teachers declared to use the Javanese-English for preserving culture as purpose. However, from the practice it was clear that they use Javanese-English because their English skills remained on the low level. For those who claimed to use British or American English, they still had difficulty in distinguishing both standard dialects.

Last but not least, for the learning materials, as they claimed should be balanced between local-content and western content materials, but almost 80 percent of the students went back to the local content rather than having both of them. Furthermore, they have difficulty in choosing the proper materials for certain age and proficiency level.

IV. CONCLUSION

At some point, this study is able to portray the pre-service teachers' perceptions and investigate how these perceptions are weak when they were asked to put into practice. However, this study has a limitation dealing with the scale of the project. Although the participants are big enough, describing Indonesian context is still hard to do. These participants are Javanese with sub-dialect differences. It is expected in the next coming project that the participants are culturally varied, so the result will be better.

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Researching Innovations in English Language Writing Instruction: A State-of-the-art Review

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Abstract—With academic writing viewed as an important aspect of language instruction, there is an increasing interest on how writing education could be improved to better accommodate the needs of multilingual learners. To evaluate the empirical evidence from published research studies, we conducted a systematic synthesis of the published research that has examined innovations in English-as-a-foreign language writing instruction in China, in contexts including tertiary, secondary, and elementary schools. General claims emerged across our analyses of 56 empirical studies published in the SSCI journals in English from 2005-2015. Each claim is supported by empirical evidence: (1) corpus-based approaches are useful in analyzing students' writing; (2) students' affective and cognitive factors may influence the outcome of writing instruction; (3) training may help teachers improve confidence in teaching writing; (4) differences may appear between assessment-oriented teacher feedback and non-assessment-oriented teacher feedback; (5) assessment for learning influences student learning of writing; (6) instruction may help writers acquire skills and knowledge of writing for publication; (7) technology-enabled instruction can help students in their writing process; and (8) novel and authentic writing tasks can promote students' critical thinking ability.

Index Terms—English writing education, innovations, multilingual learners

I. INTRODUCTION

This review paper aims to provide a synthesis of recent research documenting innovations in English language writing education that took place from 2005-2015 in China. Efforts of innovations could be observed at all levels (i.e., primary, secondary and tertiary) concerning the area of academic writing, with important implications on how to improve the quality and outcome of English language instruction (Gao, Liao, & Li; Hu, 2005) in the multilingual context. In China, English is used as a foreign language. Students generally receive formal instruction in English from age 11-12. Teachers have been adopting a product-oriented approach in teaching English language writing because of the norm-referenced exam culture. The authors focus on innovations in one skill area of academic writing because 'achieving good composition is a complex and difficult task for both native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers of English (NNS)' (Cheung, 2016, p. 181). Understanding this complexity is important to effective teaching of writing.

For the definition of innovation, we adopted that offered by De Lano, Riley, and Crookes (1994, p. 489) as 'an informed change in an underlying philosophy of language teaching/learning, brought about by direct experience, research findings, or other means, resulting in an adaptation of pedagogic practices such that instruction is better able to promote language learning as it has come to be understood'. Our review may not focus exclusively on research that pioneers or tests the impact of actual changes or innovative programs, but also includes those that investigate existing practices to inform future changes. These research efforts are worth close attention from the academic world for the following reasons.

First, innovations in the English writing instruction in China are informed by the western second language writing theories. A critical review of China's practice could contribute to the understanding of the extent to which those theories can be applied to oriental contexts similar to that of China. This understanding can be fed back to the west and may foster the development of those theories. Second, innovations in China are extensive but far from exclusive. A critical review of the existing literature will inspire new ideas to inform future changes. Last, driven by the ever-increasing pace of globalization, English today has established its status as the lingua franca in key fields like business, education and technology. Leading by this trend, English instruction is gaining prominence in many parts of the world. China is without doubt not alone in striving for better instructional approaches. The innovations in the Chinese context may serve as reference to those who strive for the same. Since China in itself is a vast country with developmental gaps between regions, the review may provide useful reference within the Chinese context as well as contexts where English is used as a second/foreign language.

II. METHODOLOGY

To guide our inquiry and selection of research articles, we formulated a research question:

What are the innovations in English language writing instruction in China?

The studies were selected from the EBSCOhost database using ‘China’ and ‘writing instruction’ for key word search. There were initially over 900 articles generated. Given the large number, we narrowed down the list by restricting our focus on empirical studies published in SSCI journals (Table 1) over the past decade (i.e., during the period of 2005-2015). The number of articles was finalized to 56 after carefully reading the articles to eliminate duplicated studies and those without clear implication for innovation.

TABLE 1.
JOURNALS REVIEWED

1	Asia-Pacific Education Researcher	15	Journal of English for Academic Purposes
2	Assessing Writing	16	Journal of Second Language Writing
3	British Journal of Educational Technology	17	Language Awareness
4	Computers & Education	18	Language, Culture and Curriculum
5	Educational Technology and Development	19	Language Learning and Technology
6	Educational Technology & Society	20	Language Teaching Research
7	ELT Journal	21	ReCALL
8	English for Specific Purposes	22	Studies in Educational Technology
9	English in Australia	23	System
10	English Teaching: Practice and Critique	24	The Canadian Modern Language Review
11	Higher Education	25	TESOL Quarterly
12	International Journal of Corpus Linguistics	26	The Journal of Experimental Education
13	Journal of Computer Assisted Learning	27	World Englishes
14	Journal of Education for Teaching		

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As revealed in the selected articles, researchers have attempted to formulate an empirical understanding of Chinese students in order to provide insights into ways to inform new developments of writing instruction to meet their precise needs. The research has investigated a range of interrelated factors important to innovations in teaching writing.

CORPUS-BASED APPROACHES ARE USEFUL IN ANALYZING STUDENTS’ WRITING

Studies examining writing features of Chinese students were mostly conducted through corpus-based approaches to analyze target textual features and identify trends in students’ writing. For example, Chan (2010) analyzed learner writing at both secondary and university levels to investigate common lexico-grammatical errors. The study offered a taxonomy of errors which could help future teaching professionals anticipate learning problems at different proficiency levels where certain type of errors prevalent; develop remedial instructions targeting each type of errors; and also determine the priority of teaching according to error gravity. Huang (2015) looked into the use of lexical bundles by junior and senior year English majors and found that the frequency of their use increased during the course of university study but not accuracy. To increase accuracy, an adoption of the lexical approach and explicit instruction from both ‘top-down’ and ‘bottom-up’ (Flowerdew, 2009) may be needed. Li and Wharton (2012) explored the patterns of metadiscourse used by students at university level. The results showed that while the students are relatively well trained in the use of interactive resources, their repertoire of interactional resources is inadequate which may prevent them from writing in a preferable voice. Li and Wharton (2012) suggested that undergraduate writing instruction should emphasize more on interactional resources to equip students with the necessary knowledge. Besides the aforementioned corpus studies, Liard & (2013) investigated a much smaller sample of six pieces of writing by first and fourth year university students. The results show that the students managed to develop better control over the use of grammatical metaphor during their university years. However, the potential of grammatical metaphor for text organization and arguments building were still to be attained by students, which implies that targeted instruction of the functional use of grammatical metaphor should be emphasized in writing instruction to help students acquire the valued ways of meaning-making in the higher education setting.

STUDENTS’ AFFECTIVE AND COGNITIVE FACTORS MAY INFLUENCE THE OUTCOME OF WRITING INSTRUCTION

While the studies reviewed above focused on the features of writing produced by Chinese students, the following studies explore students’ affective and cognitive factors in the writing process that may influence the outcome of writing instruction. Concerning affective factors in the writing process, Yu and Lee (2015) found that students’ motives directly influenced collaborative learning activities, such as peer review, in terms of peer stances, group interaction and subsequent revisions. Student motivation was found to be shaped by many factors including motivation for learning, previous experience with and personal beliefs of group work. So teachers should have a good understanding of their students and consider these factors when implementing collaborative learning activities. Lam and Law (2007) revealed that motivation mediates the effects of instruction on writing performance, particularly more motivating teaching strategies led to increased motivation in students and resulted in better writing performance. Motivating strategies identified in the study include providing challenging tasks; ensuring real-life significance in learning; stimulating students’ curiosity; granting them more autonomy; recognizing their efforts; and offering useful feedback. These strategies tend to contribute to students’ intrinsic motivation which correlates with long term success. However, due to

the exam-oriented culture, the motivation of many Chinese students come from the pressure of getting good grades (Lam & Lee, 2010), which is largely extrinsic and links to short term gains only. Thus the findings of this study are of particular relevance in the Chinese context for teachers to cultivate students' intrinsic motivation and help them achieve long term improvement. Woodrow (2011) identified self-efficacy and anxiety as two important variables in EFL writing. Unlike previous studies, the results of Woodrow's suggested that anxiety was not directly related to writing performance but mediated the effects of self-efficacy on writing performance. To enhance students' performance, writing teachers may attend to the contributors of self-efficacy and help students become more self-efficacious students.

When it comes to cognitive factors in the writing process, drawing on Activity Theory Lei (2008) explored writers' strategy use and identified four types of strategies, namely, artifact-mediated, rule-mediated, community-mediated, and role-mediated strategies. This conceptualization could be adopted to raise students' awareness of the available resources in facilitating their writing. Ong and Zhang (2013) examined the effects of strategy use and found that students adopting free-writing strategy outperformed those using planning or prolonged-planning strategies; while at the same time free-writing also led to more revisions on the final draft. The study showed that providing students with the content or organizational scheme could reduce their cognitive load and allow them to focus more on other aspects of writing. Patchwriting, which is often perceived to carry a negative connotation of plagiarism, was seen by Li and Casanave (2012) as an important writing strategy for undergraduate students. With limited knowledge of writing from sources, patchwriting is their strategic attempt to finished assignments on topics they still know little about. Instead of trying to detect and punish students for patchwriting, teachers should attend to students' writing difficulties and guide them through the process of learning appropriate textual borrowing. Ruan (2014) explored students' metacognitive awareness within the domain of cognitive writing theories using a three-fold framework – person, task, and strategy variables. Students' awareness of person variables include self-efficacy, anxiety and motivation; task variables consist of task purposes, constrains and cross-language task interpretation; strategy variables encompasses planning, text generating, revising and redrafting. As the interaction of these variables may affect the students' writing performance, the study suggested integrating systematic strategy instruction into the writing classroom to develop students' metacognitive awareness. In Ha and Storey's (2006) study, writing reflective journals before and after actual writing was found to be useful in enhancing students' metacognitive awareness for them to write better. The study demonstrated that peer-editing activities enable students to activate their metacognitive awareness; transform what they know (declarative knowledge) into what they do (procedural knowledge); and improve their writing performance during the process. This lent support to peer feedback practices from the cognitive perspective of writing.

TRAINING MAY HELP TEACHERS IMPROVE CONFIDENCE IN TEACHING WRITING

While much previous writing research has been focused on the needs of students, inadequate attention was given to that of the teachers (Hirvela & Belcher, 2007). Recently, the role of teachers as the key to the success of language instruction is increasingly recognized by both Chinese education administrators and teachers themselves. Motivated by this recognition, research into Chinese writing teachers surges for the purpose of seeking ways to improve their professional practices. Among them, the findings from Lee's (2010, 2011b) suggested that teachers' professional practices could be developed through teacher education, which was previously perceived by many to make little difference to the quality of teaching. The positive impact of teacher education include changing writing teachers' beliefs (Yang & Gao, 2013) of their existing practices; developing their professional knowledge and skills; as well as enhancing their readiness for teaching writing (Lee, 2011b; Lee, 2013). Practical and practicable ways to promote teacher learning were also highlighted, namely critically reflecting and personalizing teaching theories, learning from research literatures, engaging in regular writing activities as well as developing writing teacher identity (Lee, 2010). However, there are challenges for teachers to apply what they learn from teacher education programs into their practice, such as conflicts between situated learning in the authentic classrooms and learning from teacher education programs; and issues of power and autonomy (Lee, 2011b). Further research should be carried out to find ways to support teachers in implementing changes in their practices and continuing their development as writing teachers. Despite the benefits of teacher education, teachers in many context still receive insufficient training on how to teach EFL writing (Hirvela & Belcher, 2007). Among other constraints, their busy teaching schedules prevent them from reaching out to teacher education programs especially those located off-campus. To address the problem, Bai (2014) conducted a study on the possibility of helping teachers develop professionally in their own school context where they observe, discuss, and learn from each others' teaching with the help of a writing researcher. The result was positive as the teachers reported increased confidence in teaching writing after the program and they also felt that working in their own school context enable them to work out solutions specific to their own teaching situations thus can be immediately applied.

DIFFERENCES MAY APPEAR BETWEEN ASSESSMENT-ORIENTED TEACHER FEEDBACK AND NON-ASSESSMENT-ORIENTED TEACHER FEEDBACK

Most English language classrooms in China are teacher-centered where teachers stand for authority and their advice are often closely followed by students. Teacher feedback is also highly valued and perceived to be helpful in improving student writing. However, evidence from our selected research indicates that teacher feedback is not always as effective as expected. This section will examine these evidence and their implications on how to transform the current teacher feedback practices to better cater to the needs of students.

Lee (2011c) explored teacher feedback in secondary schools and discovered that the majority of feedback (94%) were directed on grammar due to teachers' belief that they were primarily teaching the language. Most of the feedback (87%) also focused solely on accuracy and content, while neglecting other aspects of writing, such as organizational structure of the essay. However, writing competence means so much more than just grammatical accuracy. In higher education context, for example, grammar may not be valued much by subject teachers but the awareness and control of disciplinary writing conventions (Hyland, 2013). Thus, teacher feedback should have a balanced coverage of all important aspects of writing rather than on grammar only. Lee (2011c) also found that teachers were under the pressure of school policy to provide feedback on all errors in student writing. This kind of detailed error feedback was not positively received by students, especially those with lower proficiency, as they found it discouraging and difficult for them to adopt all the feedback in revision (Lee, 2008a). Even when students did adopt teacher feedback to revise, they sometimes did not understand the value and significance of the feedback because the teacher-centeredness involved in the process had made them passive and dependent students (Zhao, 2010). This calls for feedback activities where students can play a more active and autonomous role, such as conference with teachers, in-class discussions, and peer feedback (Lee, 2008a). To compound the problem, due to the influence of the single-draft classroom and the examination-oriented culture, teacher feedback in China mainly serve summative purpose, or assessment of learning (AOF), with an over-emphasis on the final product or the score (Lee, 2007). Once a score was given with no subsequent drafts required, students often would not bother to study and learn from the feedback, or make further revision (Lee, 2011c). This makes it necessary to promote the multiple drafts classroom where teacher feedback serves formative purpose, or assessment for learning (AFL), to de-emphasize score and promote learning. As indicated in Yu and Lee's (2013) study, where graduate supervisors' commentary practices were investigated and the non-assessment-oriented feedback provided by supervisors were found to stimulate more reading and thinking from the students, while also triggered more revision. Other factors such as the student engagement may also determine the effects of teacher feedback. Students' engagement was found to be attributed partly to their beliefs, experiences, learning goals, as well as the interactional context where feedback is provided (Han & Hyland, 2015). So teachers need to have a good understanding of their students and carefully plan their feedback strategies. To sum up, the current teacher feedback practices are the result of an interplay among factors including teachers' values, belief, knowledge of assessment practices, and understanding of student needs (Lee, 2008b). These factors are subject to the influence of social and political issues related to power differentials and teacher autonomy. As a result, even though some teachers are cognitively aware of the need for changes of feedback practices, they may face obstacles and may need support through teacher training and empowerment by their school (Lee, 2011a).

ASSESSMENT FOR LEARNING INFLUENCES STUDENT LEARNING OF WRITING

The washback of writing assessment and how it translates into writing instruction has been an area of interest for researchers. For example, Green (2006) compared two courses preparing Chinese students for university study in the UK, with one course aimed primarily at IELTS preparation while the other served general English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The results showed that the IELTS preparation course covered a relatively limited range of skills due to its exclusive focus on the test, which may be effective in improving test score but insufficient in preparing students for their academic needs. The study suggests that writing instruction should look beyond the immediate demand of tests and address broader requirements of academic writing. Xu and Wu (2012) reported a bad distortion of the original intention of interpretational writing task in the Beijing Matriculation English Test (MET) for high-school students. The task was initially designed to encourage free expression of ideas so as to measure students' creative thinking. However, due to the high-stake nature of the MET, students tended to adopt the strategy of guessing the test-developer's intention and trying to figure out the 'best theme' in order to get a higher score. Over-emphasis on such test-taking strategy in writing instruction may prevent students from acquiring the target skills the test was designed to promote. This problem may arise due to the current norm-referenced exam culture in China where writing assessments mostly fall into the category of AOL to evaluate student learning and utilize scores for administrative and reporting purposes (Lee & Coniam, 2013). While AOL has a role to play in the educational system, there is a growing emphasis on the implementation of AFL to improve teaching and promote learning. The above research on peer feedback, which is one form of AFL (Yu & Lee, 2014), demonstrates a shifting focus from AOL to AFL in EFL writing. Research on teacher feedback (Lee, 2007) point to the importance of AFL in promoting the efficacy of teacher feedback. The remaining of this section will focus on studies documenting innovative efforts to bring AFL into the exam-oriented Chinese context.

Lee and Coniam (2013) demonstrated that AFL could be implemented through strengthening lesson planning and pre-assessment instruction; sharing learning goals with students to align assessment with instructional practice; as well as delivering diagnostic feedback using self-designed feedback forms to highlight the areas emphasized during class instruction. The majority of students became more positive about writing and their performance improved at the end of the study. Lee (2012) reported that genre can serve as an organizational principle to align instruction and assessment to make learning easier to students and teaching more systematic for teachers. Both students and teachers were positive with the genre-based AFL approach and found it conducive to both student learning and teacher development. Lam and Lee (2010) investigated and supported the formative potential of Portfolio Assessment (PA). The idea of PA is to evaluate students writing based on student achievements in progress rather than a single piece of work. The study demonstrated that PA had positive impacts on student motivation as it offered them autonomy in choosing their best

work for grading and opportunities to enhance writing through conferences. PA also led to improvements in writing accuracy and the generation of more and better ideas. However, though positive about PA, students did not fully appreciate the absence of grades on interim drafts and still believed that grades motivated them. This again points to the importance of taking into consideration students' affective and cognitive factors in writing instruction.

INSTRUCTION MAY HELP WRITERS ACQUIRE SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE OF WRITING FOR PUBLICATION

Chinese scholars face great pressure to get their research work published in peer-reviewed English journals with international prestige (Cargill, O'Connor, & Li, 2012). In many Chinese universities, international publication has been made a graduation requirement for doctoral and some master's level students (Li, 2006). Catalyzed by this reality, there has been an increasing number of research investigating the process of writing for publication in the hope of providing practical recommendations for educating novice scholars. Cheung (2010) studied the first attempt by applied linguistics doctoral students to publish in refereed English journals. The study showed that students adopted various strategies to cope with difficulties in the process, among which seeking help from their dissertation supervisors was an important step. The study suggested that supervisors should integrate more writing activities with a real-world goal for publication into the mentoring process to give students impetus for their work. Moreover, incorporating a foundation course for publication into the PhD curriculums may stimulate the students and provide them with the necessary knowledge of publishing. Similar findings on the role of supervisors have been observed by Kwan (2010) who examined the extent to which instruction in research publication (IRP) is in place in Chinese universities. The results showed a general lack of systematic provision of IRP and that most formal IRP experienced by students are through mentoring by individual supervisors. The focus of the IRP tended to be more on the textual aspects of manuscripts which neglected other important aspects in the publishing process, such as the strategic conception of publishable research topics. Li (2006), after an investigation on novice writers' negotiation of knowledge contribution with multiple target discourse communities, also pointed out the need of EAP pedagogy to educate novices beyond the textual level and develop their understanding of the epistemological characteristics of particular disciplines. Beside pedagogical efforts to educate novice scholars, language professionals or proof readers also play an indispensable role in the international publication attempts of English as an Additional Language (EAL) writers (Burrough-Boenisch 2003). Li and Flowerdew (2007) found that Chinese mainland scientists normally turn to their supervisors, peers, and language professionals, who are EAL writers themselves, for assistance in editing the language of their work. Despite the convenience and benefits of seeking help from these language professionals, it is not without weakness. For example, they may not be familiar with the scientific register and research genres. Thus, the authors advocated more accessible professional editorial services; teaming-up of scientists and language professionals; and also efforts from academic journals to assist EAL writers in overcoming the language barrier. All of the studies reviewed above to some extent point out that the supervisors' expertise could serve as an importance source for educating novices in the Chinese context. This is consistent with the findings of Li (2012) who recognized the crucial role played by supervisors in the revision process, since supervisors sometimes did not explicitly explain to students the changes they made to the manuscripts. Consequently, students may not be able to fully understand the rhetorical intentions behind the changes and may fail to learn from the process. Further research will be needed in how to effectively incorporate various sources into EAP instruction to teach the necessary skills and knowledge of international publication.

TECHNOLOGY-ENABLED INSTRUCTION CAN HELP STUDENTS IN THEIR WRITING PROCESS

The application of technology in educational context is no longer simply about adding visual and audio aids to make lessons more lively and attractive to students. With the rapid development of digital technology, second-generation web tools such as blogs and wikis are gradually showing their potential in creating an excellent collaborative environment to develop students' language skills in general, and writing skill in particular. Jones, Garralda, Li, and Lock (2006) compared the interactional dynamics of face-to-face and on-line peer-tutoring using various kinds of web tools for EFL writing. While face-to-face tutoring seemed better suited for discussion on grammar, vocabulary and style; online tutoring was shown to be more effective in addressing global issues such as content and writing process. Online interaction was also found to create a non-directive learning environment with less tutor control, which conforms more closely to the ideal symmetrical relationship advocated in the literature. The most researched web tool to assist collaborative learning in China is wikis. Mak and Coniam (2008) investigated authentic writing through wikis at secondary school level and found that students participating in a wiki-assisted collaborative program generated more texts with greater complexity and improved coherence. The program boosted students' confidence and developed their creative skills by providing them a real-life audience to impress. While extensive studies in and outside the Chinese context have shown that wikis can be an effective learning platform for students at both tertiary and secondary levels in different subject disciplines, the potential usage and effectiveness of wikis at primary school level is still in question considering the unique developmental and psychological dimensions of young students (Woo, Chu, & Li, 2013). Some of our selected studies explored this issue and found that primary students' writing attitudes were significantly improved after the implementation of a wiki-based collaborative process writing pedagogy (Li, Chu, & Ki, 2014). Woo et al. (2013) observed three key affordances of wiki in the primary context, namely educational, social (collaborative), and technological affordance, which helped in scaffolding students and fostering their critical thinking and creative problem-solving skills. The participants in the study perceived the use of wiki to be enjoyable, beneficial to their

collaboration, and helpful in better revising their writing. Their revisions covered the content, rather than language, because some features of the wiki tool such as 'spell check' could ease their cognitive load and allow them to pay more attention on content. The role of wikis in the revision process of primary school students was more closely investigated in a later study on peer feedback (Woo et al., 2013). The results of the study showed that peer comments posted via the wiki tool predominantly concerned the content and meaning level. Besides, more meaningful changes were made to address global writing issues rather than surface structures. The study also witnessed a significant improvement on students' group writing after the introduction of the wiki tool. Overall, the studies of wiki at the primary school support the benefits of wikis in EFL writing instruction among young students.

Other tools such as online corpus, automated writing evaluation program, and mobile devices have been researched to explore the possibility of applying them for pedagogical purposes. For online corpus, Hafner and Candlin's (2007) study showed that university students' attitude towards the use of an online concordancer to inform their legal writing is mixed. While some 'adopters' found it convenient and helpful, other 'non-adopters' tend to prefer other web tools such as Google or not to use any tool at all. Even for the 'adopters', there was no sign of them forming any long-lasting habits of corpus use. However, contrasting findings were observed in Huang's (2014) study where university English majors were generally positive with corpus and have made significant progress in the use of target lexico-grammatical patterns they learned through a paper-based corpus. The results of the two studies may suggest that corpora are highly specialized language tools and they may be more helpful to inform language related aspects of writing such as lexico-grammatical patterns in Huang (2014), but fail to address other aspects of writing such as the legal content in Hafner and Candlin's (2007) study. Hence, it may be a better idea for students to access multiple web tools to inform different aspects of their writing. For automated writing evaluation programs, Wang, Harrington, and White (2012) compared the use of CTutor, which is designed to detect breakdowns in local coherence, to human raters in terms of the feedback they provide. The results demonstrated that CTutor achieved a relatively moderate accuracy in the detection of local breakdowns which was roughly similar to human rater performance. The feedback from CTutor led to similar revision patterns by student writers in comparison to those from human raters. This suggests that automated writing evaluation programs have the potential to inform student writing by delivering valid feedback for revision. The application of such tools may be of particular interest to Chinese teachers since the large class size in China make it difficult for them to give timely and detailed feedback to promote multiple drafts. In most cases, student writing is still taught and marked by local NNS teachers, who were shown to agree less with NS raters than CTutor in detecting local coherence breakdowns (Wang et al., 2012). For mobile devices, Hung and Young (2015) explored graduate students' use of 'e-readers', which refers to portable electronic devices such as the Amazon Kindle for reading digital materials, in facilitating process-based academic writing. The results showed that 'e-readers' were significantly beneficial to students' academic writing progress and those who adopted e-readers achieved better performance in their writing portfolio than those worked with printed-materials. Both students and teachers were positive about the use of e-readers as they provided a better environment for academic writing and functioned efficiently to assist the students' writing process as a portable library, a tool for annotation, a medium for immediate sharing and feedback with peers, and a practical storage for revised drafts.

The advancement of technology has led to changes in how we approach EFL writing instruction. English language competence in the digital age requires the ability to use the language for internet-mediated communication (Thorne & Black, 2007), which involves new genres, alternative modes of expression, as well as the challenges brought by a more diverse online audience. As a result, the goal of teaching and learning of writing should constitute the development of students' ability to assemble multiple modes in achieving successful communication in response for their target online audience. Hafner (2014) investigated multimodal assembles in a Chinese university where students in an English for science course engaged in a digital video project to report the findings of a scientific experiment. The results of the study showed that the project encouraged students to explore interesting modes of expression and provided them with opportunities for writing practice. While the participating students perceived multimodal semiotic resources to be useful in attracting the attention of their target audience on YouTube, they realized the challenges in combining multiple modes and the danger of overly-reliant on them. Their final works generally meet the challenge of writing in developing a rhetorical 'hook' and a proper discursive identity through multimodal orchestration. The positive results of this study point to the possibility of embedding digital literacy in writing instruction in the Chinese context.

Besides direct intervention into pedagogy, the application of technology does facilitate effective research to inform the development of better writing instruction. Take wiki tools for example, apart from their benefits in serving as a useful tool to promote collaborative learning in the writing classroom, their tracking system can keep detailed records of the students' editing activities to offer an in-depth understanding of students' revision behavior (Woo et al., 2013). The automated writing evaluation system, which could improve students' writing by delivering valid feedback for revision (Wang et al., 2012), was found to be a useful research tool. It has been adopted in a nation-wide writing project (Jiang, 2015) to give a detailed and reliable description of Chinese university students' writing. The project uncovered meaningful trends and characteristics in the writings of Chinese students which could provide explicit guidance for students, teachers and curriculum developers. Furthermore, computer programs such as input logs and screen recorders have made the research into real-time writing process more convenient. Xu and Ding (2014) utilized two programs, Inputlog 4.0 and Camtasia 6.0, to examine writers' pausing patterns in a computer-assisted writing task. The results

showed that skilled writers spent significant less time in prewriting stage, which is in contrast with previous findings about pen-and-paper writing, pointing to the necessity to attend to these differences in writing instruction. Skilled writers were found to pause longer and less frequently in prewriting to engage in global planning so that they could be more concentrated on text production in the composing stage. This implies the importance to teach the goals of each writing stage and how to effectively accomplish them. While skilled writers tend to search online for global ideas in their L1, less-skilled writers tend to search for L2 texts so that they can piece together for their own writing. This indicates that language proficiency is a great impediment in EFL writing, and even skilled writers in the study relied heavily on L1-L2 dictionaries. As the attention to linguistic problems may take up the much of the students' cognitive space, they would not be able to address global issues such as content and meaning. The study called for instruction to help students allocate their cognitive space to write more fluently and efficiently.

NOVEL AND AUTHENTIC WRITING TASKS CAN PROMOTE STUDENTS' CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY

Apart from trials with new technology, researchers have also examined how novel pedagogies could serve to enhance writing instruction and promote learning. For example, Lee and Wong (2014) reported a study on the implementation of a process-genre approach to writing in an EFL primary school, which is an under-explored area in EFL writing. The approach was significantly different from the traditional product approach. Its dual focus on writing process and genre knowledge was shown to be helpful to both strong and weak students in improving their motivation and writing performance. Also conducted in primary context, Lo and Hyland's (2007) study explored a new writing program aimed at enhancing students' motivation and engagement through introducing topics related to their life experiences with an genuine audience and a real-life goal to achieve. The program was found to be beneficial to students, especially those with lower achievements. However, while students' motivation and engagement improved, their language accuracy and organization scores fell. This may suggest a need for more scaffolding of language and organization strategies and a less daunting audience to begin with. The inclusion of genuine audience in writing instruction was also explored by Mak, Coniam, and Kwan (2008), who reported a trial scheme in which secondary students produced their own story books and shared them with students in nearby primary schools. While the primary readers showed great enjoyment and a desire to read more, the secondary writers were afforded the opportunity to explore a variety of genres, experience collaborative writing and peer support, improve their confidence, and boost their creativity which is often neglected in traditional pedagogy. Other studies tapping students' creativity include Burton (2010) and Dai (2010). Burton's study was based on secondary context where students participated in a Poetry for Pleasure project to experience creative writing. Mixed responses were collected from students concerning the writing of poetry in class. Students proficient in English enjoyed the social aspects involved in the project such as group work; those found English a barrier felt more pressured; and those managed to develop a real sense of creativity preferred individual writing outside the classroom on topics of their own choice. Despite the mixed responses, students generally enjoyed the poetry-based pedagogy and the sharing of ideas and self-produced work with their peers. Dai (2010) reported a creative writing course for university sophomores which incorporated methods from the west such as attending writing workshops and encouraging students to write about things that interest them and in ways that facilitate their self-expression. The course was shown to be effective in promoting students' critical thinking skills because writing was no longer presented as a tool for language learning, but also a creative enterprise for students to explore different aspects of their lives.

In higher education context, You and You (2013) explored the challenges faced by Chinese undergraduates when writing in subject content and possible strategies to facilitate their content learning. The students were found to be challenged by their limited vocabulary, unfamiliarity with discipline thinking, and lack of personal voice. Their professors developed various adaptive strategies to help them cope with the challenges, which include adjusting writing tasks to adopt more short essays; providing support for major writing assignments through workshops, group discussions, worksheets, and detailed feedback; and connecting subject content to students' own culture. These strategies shed light on how to teach English-medium content courses in the Chinese context, which is becoming increasingly in demand. Evans (2012) looked into the instructional potential of emails, which is widely used in business communications but has received scant attention in English for Specific Purposes instruction, to narrow the gulf that separates the office and the Business English classrooms. The data obtained from practicing business professionals and authentic emails messages offered pedagogically relevant information about the features and functions of business emails which were somehow divergent from the principles in textbooks. This point to the need for teachers and material developers to design tasks and materials that are informed by real-world evidence. This way we may fill the gap between writing instruction and what is demanded in real-life workplace.

IV. CONCLUSION

As shown in the review above, some methods are 'easy' to use cross culturally: corpus-based approaches are useful in analyzing students' writing; assessment for learning influences student learning of writing; technology-enabled instruction can help students in their writing process; and authentic writing tasks can promote students' critical thinking ability.

The prevalence of the traditional product approach was arguably due to various contextual factors such as the norm-referenced exam culture. To address the issue, a few studies called for the implementation of AFL to use assessment for

promoting, rather than assessing students learning. As the shift from product to process approach is in line with the western pedagogical development and the AFL is essentially from the west, the innovations in China are shown to be prompted and informed by the western second language writing theories. Therefore, the understanding of how these approaches fit into the Chinese context could be fed back to the west for the refinement and development of these theories. The review also identified contributions by researchers to employ technology-enhanced strategies and novel pedagogy programs to enhance the quality of writing instruction, especially in promoting a desirable environment for student-centered collaborative learning. Overall, this paper contributes in providing a useful reference for teachers, researchers, and writing professionals in similar contexts on how to innovate their instructional practices. At the same time it may help identify learning gaps and future research directions.

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Values Implied in the *Wratisasana* Palm Manuscripts as Guideline of Politeness in Language of the Character Education: A Study of Theo-Ethno Pedagogy

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Abstract—This study is aimed at clear descriptions of 1) the values of *Wratisasana* manuscript as character education guideline and 2) the advantage of *Wratisasana* educational values. The objects of this study are *Wratisasana* Palm Manuscripts. The main informants are Drs. I Ketut Dalem, M.Ag., and Drs. I Gede Sura, M.Si. Samples of this study were taken from some manuscripts and the main informants. The study applied qualitative research. The data were collected by using documentation method especially interview technique. The data obtained were analysed descriptively. Some findings from the analysis are 1) values in *Wratisasana* manuscript are (1) compassion, (2) faith and religiosity, (3) pedagogical value, (4) honesty, (5) politeness, (6) discipline, (7) responsibility, (8) tolerance, and (9) basic foundations of life; 2) the relevant values are peace loving, fond of reading and responsible being. Based on the findings it can be concluded that the educational values in *Wratisasana* manuscript are 1) compassion, 2) religiosity, 3) pedagogical value, 4) honesty, 5) politeness, 6) responsible being, 7) tolerance and foundation of life. The applicable values into character education namely (1) religiosity, (2) honesty, (3) tolerance, (4) discipline, (5) hard working, (6) friendliness, (7) love for peace, (8) fond of reading, and (9) responsibility. The conclusions lead to a recommendation to use the teaching of *Wratisasana* manuscript as one of references for character education in this case for teaching the students about politeness in language.

Index Terms—politeness, character education, *Wratisasana* manuscript, Theo-Ethnopedagogy

I. INTRODUCTION

Wratisasana manuscript contains teachings for people who practice *wrata* or *brata* i.e. a living-vow according to the religion. The follower of this teaching has to learn as a student who is taught by the teacher, a child who is taught by the parents. To be a good person, a child has to be taught properly by the parents, teachers and communities. One who does not teach his child must be put into hell (Suardanayasa, et.al. 2006, p.3). *Wratisasana* is important not only to lead a priest but also important to the educational world (Rasna, 2016: 2) because *Wratisasana* teaches: 1) critical way of thinking, 2) nonviolence, 3) anticorruption, 4) peace education, 5) multicultural living, and 6) literary intelligence (Sojomukti, 2015, pp.39-106). Therefore, any kinds of learning including language learning is not merely about phoneme, word, phrase, sentence and discourse, but furthermore, it is continued to learn the meaning and message behind the words and sentences that cannot be separated with the ethical aspects (Jendra, 2009, p. 1). Ethics is a value which is related to behaviour (Moeliono, 1988, p. 237). Speaking ethics is understood as a knowledge and moral indicators of speaking (Favler and Fowler, 1964, p.415 in Jendra, 2009 p. 11).

An excellent educated person who has no equal behaviour and speaking ethics should be doubt that he gets positive advantages of his owned knowledge. This is because one who has high education should have a noble character (Khandwa, 1992. pp.54-55 and Pudja, 1985, pp.45-47). One, who speaks gentle, in order and polite, is considered having a good way of reasoning and intellectuality (Jendra, 2009, p.14). These statements confirmed there is a relationship between thought and speaking (Crystal 1992, p.14 and Su'ud, 1990, pp.32-34). The two aspects are inseparable relationship in dealing with the language functions. Some scholars mention about language functions among them, Malinowski, who divided language functions into two. The others, who divided language functions into three, are Sudaryanto (1990), Buhler (1934) Revesz and Halliday (1977). Besides, there are scholars who divided language functions into four, Ogden and Richard and into five functions, namely, Leech (in Sudaryanto, 1990, p. 921), and even into six functions like Jacobson (in Teeuw, 1984, p. 54).

Language function is mentioned in *Wratisasana*. One of the language functions is as the language for ritual activities, a means of communication in religious ceremony (Malinowski in Sibarani, 2004, p. 44). Cassirer (1987, pp. 168-169) stated that language is a word that has a magical power (Dhavamony, 1995: 58-59). And the role of spoken language is as a religio-spiritual media (Kasturi, 1985; 1987). The ethics of language use are related with the speaker's attitude and behaviour during the time of speaking.

The ethics of language use, which are related with the speaker's attitude and behaviour, are also related with culture. A speaker has to conduct speaking activities by paying attention on the local customs and culture. Human being is a subject in a society (Bakker, 1988, p. 27 and Casson, 1981, p. 17). Human being has agreed on a language as a part of cultural forms. Language is a result of culture is a symbol of meaning, which is created to fulfill the needs of communication in politeness order (Ahimsa Putra, 2001, p.24). Polite communication reflected the well grown-up character of human being (Mantra, 1997, p.17). In order to achieve the performance, family has an important role to pay attention on the process of psycho-reality forming (way of reasoning, way of feeling and the impacts of behaviour) in every child as the members of a family, which is affecting the whole way of behaviour in his/her entire life (Waruwu, 2010, p. 38). Way of behaviour is influenced by the way of life (Nashir, 2013, p. 64). The way of life is related to the concept of values which control the harmony as implied in the Tri Hita Karana, three causes of prosperity (Suryawan, 2017, p. 23).

The ethics of talk is one aspect that is taught in the *Wratisasana*, i.e. *awyawaharika* (peaceful and wholehearted). The practice of *awyawaharika* as one of *Wratisasana* teaching is the implementation of the ethics of talk (linguistic ethics). Thus, ethics is *niti karma*, an attitude or conduct. This indicates the daily activities should be according to the politeness, norms or ethics, including language performance, according to the *Wratisasana* teaching. The language performance is related to the value of righteousness and wickedness, and also goodness and badness in human living (Graham, 2016, p.1). Human life has been processing since a growing seed in a womb, birth, toddler period, childhood, growing up, adolescence, elderly, until the moment one must go back to the eternal life. One cannot avoid the learning process to be adaptable in the social living. During the learning process, ethics is important knowledge according to psychological research that prepared a set of sources to help teachers' job to conduct an effective learning process (Khodijah, 2016, p. 21). The learning process is effective if children can make decision effectively and wisely, and can execute the decision in their daily life so that they could give positive contribution to the whole environment (Megawangi, 2004, p. 95; Kesuma, 2011, p. 5).

Linguistics behaviour is part of *Wratisasana*. It generally refers to the *Tatwa* (*Jnana*, philosophy). Politeness of linguistics behaviour can be the reflection of the philosophical awareness and comprehension (*Tatwa*). The way of thinking, conducting, making decision, behaving in every day, and the way of getting dressed is the reflection of the ethical awareness, and obviously the quality of one's understanding of the *Wratisasana* indirectly. This indicates the *Wratisasana* is the way of life that leads morally as the part of character education. This statement is on the same idea as stated by Samani and Hariyanto, as quoted from "Kerusakan Moral Mencemaskan" (The Alarm of Moral Destruction) in a newspaper, *KOMPAS*, Monday, 20 June 2011. This was the headline on the first page, the contents were:

- Along 2004 – 2011 the Ministry of Domestic Affairs has recorded 158 local leaders consisting of governors, regents, and majors got caught because of committing corruption
- At least 42 legislative parliament members got caught in between 2008 – 2011
- 30 legislative parliament members in the period of 1999 – 2004 from four political parties were involved in bribery for the election of the Senior Deputy Governor of the Indonesian Bank.
- Some corruption cases happened in several institutions such as electional governmental commission like KPU and KPPU, Judicial Commission, General Directorate of Taxation, The Indonesian Bank, and BK PM (Samani and Haryanto, 2012: 4).

It must be a sincere notification that according to the national culture, this kind of behaviour is in opposite with the moral value. If one refuses a perspective about moral attitude or a certain action, it was not denied that argumentations were indeed useful to convince the opposition. But we are not trying to show by our argument that our opposite had a wrong moral perspective upon the situation that basically was already understood. The think to be shown was that the opposite was wrong about the facts of that cases. We argued that there was a misunderstanding about the motivation of the agent or there was a misinterpretation about the action result or the result possibility by observing the knowledge of the doer, or one was not concerning specific situations on the existence of the agent.

The result of action or the possibility happen is reward and punishment for the committed actions. These have been happening since long ago (Walgito, 2011, p. 33). The reward or punishment is ideas, emotions and behaviours, which are influenced by the other existence, both the real and imaginative existence, or by the demanding of social roles (Allport, 1954, in Rahman, 2014, p. 5). This is according to the behaviorism, which is basic on the reality that human being is nor carrying the psychological genetics since born. This is because the human being evolves and indicates his or her own psychological aspects based on the received stimulus from the environment (Anwar, 2017, p. 15).

It is important to know that the behavior is the manifestation or the implementation of psychological conditions, but it does not indicate that the same psychological condition would result the same the same behaviour, such as two persons, who are angry, they are not always showing the same behaviors. There is a possibility of showing an impolite linguistics actions, like showing a grasp hand, violence expressions for instance: facial expression and tend to break or

hit things around him or her as the object of releasing their agony. But perhaps the other is only stay in the silence while angry (Khodijah, 2016, p. 6). This is one of behavioural formulations. The other formulation is as mentioned by Bandura in Khodijah with the formulation: $B = F(E, O)$. 'B' stands for behaviour, 'F' stands for function, 'E' stands for environment and 'O' stands for organism.

Basically, the formulation is not different from the other formulations, i.e. that the behaviour depends on the environment and the organism as well. But the relations between the 'E' and 'O' has not clearly shown. In order to make the relation more clear, Bandura explains the formulations $B = F(E \leftrightarrow O)$, i.e. the behaviour depends on the interaction between the environment and the organisms. The interaction is the reciprocal relations between the environment and the organisms. However, Bandura assumed the behaviour, environment and organisms influenced one another (Khodijah, 2016, p.7). Related to this matter, the character education, which is based on religion and culture, is necessary to conduct (Nashir, 2013: pp.21-40). Religion through the teaching texts and the roles of the follower have relationship with the national-living. The meant teaching texts is the *Wratisasana*. The unification of religion and the followers' life required an internalization, i.e. the comprehension and implementation of the whole teaching into the all aspects of the followers. However, the religion integration with the followers by the values internalization always has the dynamic aspects between the immanent and transcendent so that emerge the complex variations (Abdullah, 1974, p. 8).

Internalization of the religious value has the important value in mentoring human behavior. Religious value is a character value in the relationship with God. He is showing that thought, speech and action are always encouraged based on Theological and religious teachings (Mustari, 2014, p. 1).

This is important when we are facing the social-ethics crisis among children, teenagers, and even adults, such as the 'vail' generations as the result of giving high concentration to some games, gadget, short messages services and social media such as facebook, twitter, whatsapp and etc. have been degrading their morality. The ethics of greetings has been weakening. Some proves of this phenomena are ignoring people, impolite way of speaking, blasphemy, hoax on social media. This behavior becomes people attention (Idi and Safarma, 2015, p. V). However, to improve the situation is not easy. A mistake of handling the situation would emerge conflicts.

Problem solving especially for problems among teachers and students, professor and graduate students, a teacher has to comprehend: 1) educating a soul (students-graduate students), which includes the identities, characteristic and the actual problem. There is a possibility that they are committing forbidden actions according to the religion. They would be glad if there is somebody can understand their feeling. They would show sympathy to those who also feel what they are suffering. If the sympathy already exist in them, they would be easier to accept input and advice from others (Idi and Safania, 2015, p. 50). As much as possible there must be special attention for people with emotional imbalance. (Daradjat, 2005, pp. 13-15).

Emotional-imbalance that is happening to a person needs: 1) understanding with affection according to the *Wratisasana*; 2) educating through pedagogical values as implied in the values in the *Wratisasana* manuscripts. Religious approach like it is reflected in the *Wratisasana*, religious approach like the principal of *Wratisasana* manuscript as the religious teaching that guide the followers to conduct according to what is taught by the religion namely creed, piety, honesty, politeness, discipline, responsibility, and tolerance. The affection value of *Wratisasana* is applied as the reference for the character education to teach children since younger age about the importance of tolerance, giving affection one another, caring one another. This country consists of ethnics, religions, languages and culture. Multiethnic, multicultural and Multilanguage society deserves to educate their people the affection value since the younger age so that their mind and heart absorb the seed of fraternity through controlling the austerity of speech, respecting others and obeying rules (Idi and Safarina, 2015, p. 65).

Value of creed and piety has a very important role in implanting belief of the creed religion. Through this belief, the expected result is righteous and religious people. Pedagogical value through politeness in speech act would give a positive contribution and significant to the character education, reading, fond of reading, and speaking fluency. Fond of reading would open the children's mind to know more, to understand, to comprehend not only the cognitive and affective but also the psychomotor. The widen of cognitive skill would lead children to cultured their feeling. The cultured feeling has to be naturally accustomed by giving example by their parents at home and by their teacher in school, public figure in the society and stake holders. Everybody must in a synergy. The cultured emotion is necessary so that children become sensitive and care with their environment. The cultured psychomotor would increase students skill. if the three things are run in a balance way, the expected situation is a conducive environment would be preserved. It is because of the education value in *Wratisasana* palm leave manuscript is not only important for the *wikus* (the leader of ceremony) but also it is important to the educational world generally, and specifically, the character education.

II. METHODS

There are two populations in this research namely, palm manuscripts and experts populations. There are collections of palm manuscripts in Gedong Kirtya, Pusdok and Badan Perpustakaan dan Arsip Pemprov.Bali. The experts are some persons having capability of explaining about palm manuscripts. Based on the populations, some samples were conducted purposively so that *Wratisasana* manuscript was chosen. The samples are selected based on the experts' populations, experiences, credibility and accountability. Having realized there are limited lontar manuscripts experts,

the existing populations cannot be selected further. So, it is decided to treat the experts as samples. The research design is descriptive, which is documented on educational values implied in *Wratisasana* manuscripts and which analyze the values to develop character education.

The data, which are educational values in *Wratisasana*, were collected by using documentation technique. Besides, the supporting data were obtained from some experts by using deep-interview technique. All data collections were analyzed in descriptive-qualitative procedures.

III. RESEARCH ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

A. Educational Values in *Wratisasana* Palm Manuscript

From educational point of view, there are nine values implied in the *Wratisasana* palm manuscript as mentioned on the following quote and the translation.

Sang Pandita rinaksa ikang yamabrata mwanng niyama brata, apan yan karaksa, tancala buddhinira.

Sang Pandita, yang melaksanakan yamabrata and niyama brata, maka pikirannya tidak akan goyah.

Sang Pandita, the priest, who practices yamabrata and niyama brata, he would have a steady mind.

If this teaching is implemented by someone, he would have a firm mind. This sentence means that a strength and a firm mind to practice the righteous-teaching would have the nice result because by doing the *Panca Yama Brata*, which consists of *ahimsa* (nonviolence toward all living things), *satya* (truthful), *awyawaharika* (peaceful and whole-hearted), *astaiya* (non-stealing), *brahmacharya* (virtue of celibacy), and to practice *Panca Niyama Brata* teaching, namely, *akroda* (having no anger), *guru susrusa* (respecting teachers), *sauca* (clearliness and purity), *aharalaghawa* (eating rightly), *apramada* (watchfulness and awakesness), so that the ultimate affection happens. The practice of *ahimsa* comprises of many values among them love and tolerance.

The practices above indicate that literature as text contains cultural values (Gural, et. al., 2004, p. 436). Literary studies have been enhanced (Grixti, 2009). The studies indicate that learning has been conducted in a lifelong duration for all levels of society (Ruair and Precey, 2013, p. 10). A literary work like *Wratisasana* gives many advantages to the students especially to create a noble character (Mustika, 2011, p. 59).

The practice of *Ahimsa*, nonviolence toward all living things, is a real formation of the application of character education in this case, the loving character. The practice of *satya*, truthful, is the realization of an honest character as a representation of anticorruption. The practice of *awyawaharika*, peaceful and whole-hearted, reflects the 'peace maker' character. *Brahmacharya*, virtue of celibacy, reflects a character of pedagogical values. Based on those practice of teaching, it can be stated that the values of *wratisasana* is one of character education sources, a value of pedagogy that is mentioned in the following quote.

Kunang ikang sang brahmanacharya, ikang tan keneng stri, mapata lwirmia nehan sukla brahmacari, kresna brahmacari sawala (Wratisasana, 2006, p. 11)

Adapun Sang Brahmacharya yang tidak pernah menyentuh wanita, manakah jenisnya inilah sukla brahmacari, kresna brahmacari, sawala brahmacari sukla

A brahmanacharya, who never touch any woman, their types are sukla brahmacari, kresna brahmacari, sawala brahmacari sukla

This value is a literary value of pedagogic (Jendra, 2016, p. 130). It is suitable with the purposes of education. One of the purposes is to lead students. By doing so, they could learn in high concentration so that they could achieve the maximum result. If one cannot fully concentrate during learning, the expected result cannot be in an optimal stage as well. Learning needs concentration. In order to be able to concentrate, a practice to be conduct is *brahmacharya*, 'celibate'.

The values of truthful is a behaviour that is based on the effort to make the self always be a reliable person in his thought, in his words and in his actions as well (Rasna, 2016, p. 29). This is reflected in the following quote of *Wratisasana*.

Kunang ikang satya ng satya ta sang wiku ring wacana yajna u mengani wuwusnira Wedinira, yan tan tuhu

Satya artinya jujur.

Jujur Sang Wiku dalam berkata membatasi kata-kata. Takut kalau tidak benar.

Satya means trustful. Trustful the Wiku in his words. He is alwas control his words. He is afraid on saying an unright- statement.

The word 'unright' emerges another problem. Also, the word 'rude', like a quote in the following *Wratisasana*.

<p><i>Hawya wak parusya Asing ujar menak juga wusakina tan majar akna ngujar ajangsul, Hawya majaraken ujar, mawor kroda (Wratisasana, 2006, pp. 14 – 30)</i></p>	<p>Jangan berkata kasar Kata-kata yang baik saja hendaknya diucapkan tidak mengeluarkan kata-kata ketus jangan mengucapkan kata-kata bercampur marah Do not say words rudely Do say only nice words not saying offensive words Do not say words in anger</p>
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This statement is a guidance of politeness. A polite utterance does not sound arrogant and makes the speaking partner glad (Lakof, 1973, Gunawan, 1994, Chan, 2010, and Aziz, 2006).

The other values are discipline. A discipline person is a strong person, who can control himself not to break prohibition. It is written in the following part of *Wratisasana*.

<p><i>Kunang yan amangan ikang muhutaken saking ing Wratisasana Panter ika sang bhujangga yan mangkana, tan senggahen wiku (Wratisasana, 2006, pp. 18 – 19)</i></p>	<p>Kalau menyantap yang dilarang ajaran <i>Wratisasana</i>, Sang Pandita yang demikian itu, tidak dianggap pandita. <i>If one eat foods prohibited by the Wratisasana teaching Such Pandita does not consider as pandita</i></p>
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A **wiku** has to watch and to control his follower so that the follower does not break norms, ethics or any recognized provision. This is a responsibility of a **wiku**. Human being cannot be separated from responsibilities (Nashir, 2013, p. 82). This reflects in in the following *Wratisasana* (2006, p. 32).

<p><i>Diksa mapitenget sireng sisya tan kunang warah-warrah tan lalanakna ing sisya sangkenng maryada yukti hanawakya kemawih</i></p>	<p>Guru mengingatkan siswa tidak kurang mengajarkan tidak membiarkan murid sekehendak hatinya tidak meremehkan diri pada murid sebab, jika murid dibiarkan, murid itu akan menyimpang dari sopan santun yang benar. <i>Teacher reminds student does not lack of teachings does not let the student does what he want as his pleases does not belittle himself upon his students if the student is permitted to do so, the student will deviate the proper-politeness</i></p>
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Generally the *Wratisasana* contains important values namely 1) faithful and devotional, 2) fundamental value of life, 3) truthful, 4) affection, 5) tolerance, 6) discipline, 7) pedagogic, and 8) responsible.

B. Applications of the Educational Values of Wratisasana for Character Education

There are eight educational values in the palm manuscript *Wratisasana* namely 1) faithful and devotional, 2) fundamental value of life, 3) truthful, 4) affection, 5) tolerance, 6) discipline, 7) pedagogic, 8) responsible. Furthermore, the eight values are arranged in pairs to be applied into character education practice as shown in the following table.

TABLE 01:
THE APPLICATION OF EDUCATIONAL VALUES OF WRATISASANA INTO THE CHARACTER EDUCATION PRACTICE

No	Values of Character Education	Values of Education in the <i>Wratisasana</i>
01	Religious	01. Faithful and devotional 02. Fundamental value of life
02	Truthful	01. Truthful
03	Tolerance	01. Affection, 02. Tolerance
04	Discipline	01. Discipline
05	Hardworking	01. Discipline
06	Friendly	01. Affection
07	Love for peace	01. Affection, 02. Politeness
08	Fond of reading	01. Pedagogical value
09	Responsible	01. Responsible

IV. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Based on the contents of the palm manuscript and the experts opinion, it can be concluded as follows:

01. Educational values, which are implied in the palm manuscript *Wratisasana* is: (a) affection, (b) faithful and devotional, (3) pedagogical values, (4) truthful, (5) politeness, (6) discipline, (7) responsible, (8) tolerance, (9) fundamental value of life.

02. The nine educational values found in the palm manuscript *Wratisasana* are applicable for Character Education Practice.

The conclusion brings to some suggestions. Those are explained as the followings:

01. The values in the palm manuscripts has to be presented in the front of societies so that the values are not only becoming a sacred thing that should be devoted and worshiped, but also has to be read, well-socialized, and to be explored the advantages maximally for the sake of educational needs especially for the character education.

02. Palm manuscripts is not only known by a limited society but also allowed for those who have a capability in reading the manuscripts and conducting the right applications both in the term of space and time. This manuscript ought to be socialized.

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The Validity of Hybridity in Derek Walcott's *A Branch of the Blue Nile*

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Abstract—With *A Branch of the Blue Nile* (1983) Derek Walcott makes a strong statement for the validity of a hybrid West Indian culture. He portrays the relation between European, specifically English, as well as American and African culture as one that should not be marked by a hierarchy, placing the central culture and languages at the top and African or mixed cultures/languages at the bottom. Walcott's strategy here is to show that the so-called standards, Shakespeare's 'classical' plays and their language are already of a hybrid nature, and any attempt to characterise them as homogenous entities and preserve them as such may ultimately result in their inertness. What threatens a civilisation or culture, according to Walcott, is not some form of hybridity, but rather the closing off or preservation of artistic forms from other foreign influences because it makes these artistic forms incapable of interacting with the surrounding cultural environment. The authors of this paper while appreciating all the orchestrated bonus of the existing relevant criticisms on hybridity towards Walcott's *A Branch of the Blue Nile* intend to examine the use of Bakhtinian notions with regard to language exemplifying Bakhtin's view of linguistic interanimation and his insights into the "polyglotic" and "heteroglotic" nature of the play. The purpose of this article is to provide the readers with a quest for the formation of Caribbean identity, beyond dualism, through the vernacular. Walcott portrays the vernacular as being capable of voicing the ideas necessary to define one's identity.

Index Terms—Caribbean identities, Creolisation, hybridity, Trinidad, vernacular

I. INTRODUCTION

A Branch of the Blue Nile premiered in Barbados on November 25, 1983. The play mirrors many of Walcott's ongoing concerns, for example the relationship between classical and folk art and the artist's need to leave home in order to advance their talent. It seems to make more sense to follow Bruce King's insight that "It might be better to regard the characters as composites of people Walcott knew" (Derek Walcott, 1981, p. 334). The play is set in Trinidad, and its opening scene depicts a rehearsal of Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra*.

Through the act of staging his creolised *Antony and Cleopatra*, Walcott shows that even if a cultural form, an artistic expression, was once shaped through its place of origin, it is legitimate to transport it to another culture and let it be influenced by this culture (in this case through its language) as it is the only way through which it will stay alive and have meaning. In *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, Walcott portrays the vernacular as being "capable of voicing the ideas necessary to define one's identity." He also shows us in this play "the value that should be attached to the use of the vernacular on the West Indian stage, its importance for a definition of the West Indian cultural identity" (Sinnewe, 2001, pp. 122–123).

The three cultural strands which Walcott explores through *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, the American, the European and the West Indian culture, according to Dirk Sinnewe, are initially represented through: Gavin, the Trinidadian actor who sought success in the United States (who speaks with an American accent): then there is Harvey St. Just, who went to work in London and consequently has a British accent (Walcott's stage direction insists he is white. He is the only actor whose skin colour in the *dramatis personae* seems of importance); and finally there is Chris, who has always worked in Trinidad and speaks with a Trinidadian accent (2001, p. 90).

Bruce King in his essay, "The Collected Poems and Three Plays of Derek Walcott" (1987), argues that *A Branch of the Blue Nile* (1985) tests the applicability of European art and ambitions to West Indian society. As a fledgling West Indian theatre company rehearses *Antony and Cleopatra*, tension develops between the white director returned from England, a black West Indian actor who studied in New York, and Christopher, a married Trinidadian who writes plays in dialect and sleeps with Sheila, the *Cleopatra*. The rehearsal of the play is applicable to West Indian society: "If there's disorder here, in this little world, no trust, no centre, no authority, then lunacy is correct, we're wasting time. What is wrong in here is what's wrong with this country. Our country. And if, outside, there's mismanagement and madness, we must not go mad" (Walcott, *Branch*, 1986, p. 223).

Although the critical output on Walcott's play, *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, is on a small scale in quantitative terms, it is nonetheless of a volume which precludes exhaustive treatment in this paper. Instead criteria have to be found which

will limit the number of works discussed, but which still allow for an informative overview of the field. The researchers have therefore considered the works of those scholars who deal with Derek Walcott's dramatic work in greater detail. The first and to date most influential is Robert Hamner. His *Derek Walcott* (1981) predates Bruce King's *Derek Walcott and West Indian Drama* (1993) as well as Judy Stone's "Classical Theatre" in *Theatre: Studies in West Indian Literature* (1994) by more than a decade. The latest monograph which focuses in greater depth on Walcott's dramas is John Thieme's *Derek Walcott* (1999). Most of these critical writings on Walcott's *A Branch of the Blue Nile* are essays in scholarly journals, published mainly in North–America and England. Their approaches towards Walcott's play are some prevalent examples of currently dominant critical schools, which are: post–modernism, post–colonialism and feminism.

Bruce King's *Derek Walcott and West Indian Drama*, is to date the only monograph written exclusively on the subject of Walcott's play, but nevertheless there is as yet no single authoritative study which can be said to have influenced the writings of others. Although *Derek Walcott and West Indian Drama* is admirable in that it gives a detailed historical account on Walcott's Trinidad Theatre Workshop, including cast lists and numerous bits and pieces of reviews, it at times loses sight of the issues of literary criticism. While King's stated aim of integrating the study of practical theatre "with theatre history and literary criticism" (King, Derek, 1981, p. vii) is achieved, the overall focus of King's work is on a detailed account of theatre history rather than on literary criticism.

Robert Hamner's *Derek Walcott* which since its publication has acquired influential status within the field of the researchers' study begins with a description of the historical background out of which West Indian literature per se developed. He mentions three aspects leading to the particularities in terms of cultural and racial mixture of the West Indian situation; the geopolitical separation. Hamner's emphasis is on synthesis, on assimilation, the creation of a new (cultural) identity. He sees Walcott's play as an example of folk stories and the traditional themes of European experience. Hamner's necessarily incomplete account identifies a later phase which includes *A Branch of the Blue Nile* (1983). In this case Hamner maps out parallels between the play and Walcott's own experiences with the Trinidad Theatre Workshop. He sees the play as again crowning a phase in Walcott's career as a playwright and as being the most self–reflexive of all of his plays.

Like Hamner, John Thieme in his *Derek Walcott* (1999) concentrates on the fact that Walcott is of a mixed racial heritage and that he grew up within an English–speaking middle–class Methodist environment on Castries on the island of St. Lucia, which still has an overwhelmingly Catholic and francophone population. Thieme sees "the dismantling of Manichean binarisms as the key issue of Walcott's art", which allowed for a "cross–cultural practice, long before hybridisation theory became internationally fashionable in the 1980s through the work of post–colonial writers and theorists such as Salman Rushdie and Homi Bhabha" (1999, p. 9). The words hybrid and hybridity permeate Thieme's assessment of Walcott's dramatic production. In another, rather generalising step Thieme then talks about the Creolisation, that is the hybridisation, of all cultures. Thieme shows awareness of the generalising potential of "Creolisation", however, and indicates the questionable theoretical value of the term hybridity when taken on its own, "without addressing the socio–political factors which determine the lives of the socially immobile wretched of the earth who have little or no sense of the positive dynamics of living between cultures" (Thieme, 1999, p. 126).

In her *Theatre: Studies in West Indian Literature* (1994) Judy J. Stone gives a historical overview of theatre located in and emanating from the region. She structures her book around the proposition that there are five types of theatre in the West Indies: the theatre of realism, the theatre of the people, total theatre, theatre of ritual, and classical theatre. Under this latter heading she subsumes *A Branch of the Blue Nile* as she claims that Walcott's theatre "draws much of its strength from ancient values" (1994, p. 92). Stone sets Walcott's dramatic work against the background of realistic and popular drama. According to Stone, the basic themes of Walcott's dramatic work are "universal", but she identifies the dichotomy between two cultures, the classical and the Creole, as the most frequently recurring theme, resulting from the colonial legacy of the West Indies, (Stone, 1994, p. 92).

Stone claims that contemporary critics' dislike of the classic form of the play missed the point that the play's greatness hinged precisely on the fact of not drawing on realistic material. At this point she draws a parallel with Walcott's play *A Branch of the Blue Nile* with its exploration of the dilemma of the West Indian artist and the conflict between classical and Creole linguistic and theatrical forms (1994, P.101). She claims that with *A Branch of the Blue Nile* the playwright investigates whether or not the classical form has any place in the Caribbean cultural environment. Here she even goes so far as to interpret such a question as an examination of the "validity" of Walcott's own role in the West Indies (Stone, 1994, p. 136).

Even in the light of Stone's own discussion of Walcott's dramatic work, her exclusive focus on the classical–Creole dichotomy can be seen at times as an overtly reductive reading, although this shortcoming is balanced by the fact that Stone's "Classical Theatre" provides us with more detailed accounts of Walcott's play. To complement her approach and the other aforementioned approaches towards Walcott's play *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, the researchers have decided to read the play once more under the lights of Bakhtinian perspective of linguistic interanimation to discern Walcott's textual shifts and their dramatic implications: the distinction between his reasonably harmless actors' jokes and the deeper truth and fate of their lives. One might be tempted to read Walcott's play as simply a "heteroglotic parody" of Shakespeare through which the serious implications of Walcott's drama finally catch up with and triumph over the play's comic elements. *A Branch of the Blue Nile* wonderfully fulfills many of Bakhtin's concepts of "parodic heteroglossia," a multitude of linguistic shifts that demonstrate a seriocomic imagination that mixes low and high forms.

Here the use of Bakhtinian notions with regard to language helps us to avoid ideological simplifications. For Bakhtin, hybridity is a phenomenon of language formation, but also of the concrete and social act of language use.

In the following the researchers will briefly present an exemplary approach which examines Walcott's play more or less explicitly in terms of present literary theory to deepen our understanding of the orchestrating function of Walcott's philosophical reflections on The Trinidadian Theatre and on Walcott's notion of language use, that is, specifically the use of non-Standard language, to divulge its relation to the formation of West Indian (cultural) identities.

II. DISCUSSION

A. *Trinidadian Heteroglossia: A Bakhtinian View of Derek Walcott's A Branch of the Blue Nile*

Multiple voices form the central fabric of drama. Variable speech patterns and intonations, differing uses of standard, slang, and dialectal language create, from a purely textual point of view, the chief differentiating features of dramatic dialogue. Bakhtinian theory, especially evident in The Dialogic Imagination, contains a vast number of insights into the "polyglotic" and "heteroglotic" nature of the modern novel. Although Bakhtin reserves the majority of his notions for criticism of the novel, many of them would apply equally, if not more pointedly, to drama.

Occasionally Bakhtin makes excellent use of examples from the history of drama; for example, he cites the "heteroglotic" nature of the *commedia dell'arte*: "In the *commedia dell'arte* Italian dialects were knit together with the specific types and masks of the comedy. In this respect one might even call the *commedia dell'arte* a comedy of dialects. It was an intentional dialectological hybrid" (Bakhtin, *The Dialogic Imagination*, 1981, p. 82). This example emerges out of a discussion in which he announces his central critical insight: "In the process of literary creation, languages interanimate each other and objectify precisely that side of one's own (and of the other's) language that pertains to its world view [Bakhtin's italics], its inner form, the axiologically accentuated system inherent in it" (Bakhtin, *The Dialogic Imagination*, 1981, p. 62).

Walcott's *A Branch of the Blue Nile* wonderfully exemplifies Bakhtin's notion of "heteroglossia." In the play Walcott draws upon his rich African, patois, French, English, and classical Latin linguistic legacy, his St. Lucian and Trinidadian heritage, and his long experience in the United States, to bring his mastery of heteroglotic language to a peak. He continues the sort of "black/white, coloniser/colonised cultural reversals" that he played with in his earlier drama, *Pantomime*, by means of his "Crusoe/Friday role shifts." He also compounds his fascination with the Antony and Cleopatra legend, which configured several of his major poems, such as "Egypt, Tobago." Intertextual and intercultural references, woven through much of Walcott's poetry and drama, multiply exponentially in *A Branch of the Blue Nile* (Hamner, 1997, p. 388).

From the beginning of the play, "and arching over its entirety, looms the voice of Shakespeare" (Hamner, 1997, p. 388). Walcott's characters are the actors and the director of a Trinidadian production of Antony and Cleopatra. As they are knitting together their Shakespearean lines, they themselves are interwoven into a complex cloth of "real life" interrelationships, many of them mirroring the characterisations and meanings inherent in Shakespeare's drama. The play opens as Sheila, playing Cleopatra, is enacting the queen's final scene:

SHEILA: Give me my robe, put on my crown, I have

Immortal longings in me: now no more,

The juice of Egypt's grape shall moist this lip. (Walcott, *Branch*, 1986, p. 213)

Harvey, the aging English "queen" director (there are strong hints he is a homosexual), immediately rejoins with a bit of directorial advice regarding her performance: "What's all this sexual hesitation, Sheila? You know how sensual his corpse is to her?"

Walcott's stage, then, from the outset reverberates with reflexive consciousness of itself. From this point forwards Walcott "delights in masterful interanimation of Shakespeare's text: his actor's reproduction of Shakespeare's play, their own personal responses to the bard", their playing with his text, and their "real life," interpersonal texts that form the basis of Walcott's overall dramatic action. Two more series of these combinations compound the intertextuality when the characters read parts of Chris's (one of the actors) texts, three "plays" he has written: one a simple-minded pastoral farce, another a symbolic representation of these same actors' "real life" relationships, and the third a word-for-word tape recorder transcription of their conversational and rehearsed lines onstage preliminary to performance. "Walcott herein clearly displays a postmodern sensibility: the text within the text within the text." However, he shies away from any "avant-garde" break with the "traditional boundary of the proscenium arch, as achieved by such dramatic figures as Pirandello's eponymous *Six Characters in Search of an Author*, who interact directly with the audience." Walcott's play remains "onstage, 'yet it greatly enlarges the number of purely heteroglotic, interanimating dramatic languages' commonly found in contemporary plays (Hamner, 1997, p. 389).

Soon after the play's outset, Harvey directs Sheila/Cleopatra to "play what you feel about Chris, not Antony" (Walcott, *Branch*, 1986, p. 213). Harvey's suggestion emerges from his training in method acting; in addition, he is playing on what he knows is going on behind the scenes: Sheila's affair with Chris. It is at this early juncture that we can already assess the deeply cutting conflicts that brew at the interfaces of the play's various languages. Harvey's directorial remark rapidly interanimates Sheila's played version of Shakespeare's Cleopatra and identifies the play as a hybrid seriocomedy; the dialogue is too violent, too cutting, for it to be read as light, parodic comedy. Harvey's suggestion strays towards improper use of his directorial power, and Sheila is clearly in the right to tell him, "Just leave

my private life out of this, please” (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 213). Sheila may well feel as Shakespeare’s colonial queen felt when she expressed, at the end of her tragedy, that she deeply resented the idea that her play (that is, the story of her life) would be comically performed in Rome, the imperial capital, where “the quick comedians / Extemporally will stage us” (Shakespeare, *Antony and Cleopatra*, 1969, Act V, Scene 2, Lines 216–217).

Unfortunately, as Walcott repeatedly reveals, there does not appear to be any way for these characters to separate their private lives from their professional acting roles. The two realms are inextricably mixed, and their multiple interactions form the central action and meaning of the play. Even on the most minute linguistic level, when Walcott’s actors unavoidably interject their Trinidadian accents into Shakespeare’s text—when Chris, for example, blurts “Your Lord? No. He gone out” (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 214)—Trinidadian and Shakespearean languages are comically interwoven. This commingling of the performer’s natural language with the language of the staged text adopts even further import, when we perceive it in extended cultural and political terms: “the post-colonial, former slave society struggling to re-enact the masterpieces of the coloniser’s culture, and the post-colonials chastising each other for not getting the masterpiece right” (Hamner, 1997, p. 390).

The Trinidadian actors strike back, however, with their parody of Harvey’s Americanisms, in particular his perpetual use of the term ‘whatever’. Gavin’s satiric jibes are pointed at the director: “Would one of you care to ask Mr. Strasberg here what he means by ‘whatever?’”; and later, “I’m going to be acting whatever, Chris, you hear. You ready?” (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 215) Gavin, the craftiest parodist of the troupe, parries with Harvey when he assumes the role of the victimised plantation slave: “You’s a hard taskmaster, Mistuh Harvey sur, you’s e going make this po’ nigger tote your arse across the desert, you’s e pitiless as that burning sun, Mistuh Harvey. Why? Why?” (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 221) Harvey, with the arch finesse of his years on the North American stage, and his practised position as a white among blacks, plays right into Gavin’s game without missing a stroke: “Whah? Whah? I’s e pitiless ’caue I can’t trist you house niggers, ’cause I leave you to polish the silver back in the pantry and you fucked the help, you been inter-fering. And you knows mah punishment for house niggers, boy?” Gavin foolishly continues the game and gets hit harder than he expected. He asks Harvey, in his role as plantation overseer, “[Whining, pulling at Harvey’s trousers] No, Mistuh Harvey, what is it?” But Harvey suddenly shifts context on Gavin with his masterful, cynical, and politically loaded rejoinder: “They gits to be on television. They gits to be third detectives in a police series. They gits to do serious theatre in a side alley, in Noo Yawk. So git up. Git up!” (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 221)

Overall, this parodic technique exemplifies Bakhtin’s view of linguistic interanimation, present in Roman times in writers such as Lucian and in medieval *parodia sacra*. In such parodies writers would take a serious text—Homer, for example, or the Bible—and ridicule it by inserting alternate, comical words, lines, and situations. “The seriocomic form, thus born, was responsible, according to Bakhtin, for the rise of the novel and the demise of traditional serious forms such as the epic.” In Walcott’s play the serious text is supplied by Shakespeare’s *Antony and Cleopatra*, yet often the parodying form shifts to another language, such as the speech of the southern U.S. plantation black cited above. With a Bakhtinian perspective, we can more easily discern Walcott’s textual shifts and their dramatic implications: the distinction between his reasonably harmless actor’s jokes and the deeper truth and fate of their lives. “The predictable, ritualistic ‘agon’ of the stage rehearsal frequently disintegrates into a variety of sobering, ‘real life’ conflicts that plague the various members of the troupe” (Hamner, 1997, pp. 390–391).

Sheila, playing Cleopatra, has the dimensions of a star, but her aspirations to “make it big in the States” are jeopardised by her provincial location and her cumbersome affair with the married actor Chris (a situation that echoes the historical tragedy of Antony, Cleopatra, and Antony’s wives Fulvia and Octavia). One might be tempted to read Walcott’s play as simply a “heteroglotic” parody of Shakespeare, if A Branch of the Blue Nile did not have its own tragic dimensions. “The separate intrusions of real life into the rehearsal text become more and more numerous and disruptive until both their performance of Shakespeare and the actors’ psyches unravel completely” (Hamner, 1997, p. 391).

Sheila bows out, as it were, and bequeaths her throne to Marilyn, another actress who is less talented and less idealistic but more ambitious. Sheila undergoes a religious conversion, quits the stage, and hands the part of Cleopatra over to Marilyn. She abandons the theatrical tent for God’s temple, and Walcott litters his text with frequent interanimated comments between the two worlds, the secular and the divine. Still, dramatic language in general, for Walcott, clearly remains the centering force of what might be seen as an example of Bakhtin’s notions of the “centrifugal” and “centripetal” tendencies of language. With only a couple of short scenes between Sheila and her newfound mentor, Brother John, Walcott provide just enough dialogue to parody the superficiality and hypocrisy of fundamentalist religious sects. In a brilliantly crafted “benediction” at her temple, a speech which reeks of double meaning—she hears “the voice of William Blake in the fields” (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 265)—“Sheila bares her naturally talented poetic and theatrical soul to the massed congregation, which is clearly impressed by the “style” and passion of her eulogy, although not its moral content” (Hamner, 1997, p. 391).

We are soon back “onstage,” however, with Marilyn’s performance as Cleopatra and with Harvey’s new “dialectal” version of Shakespeare’s text. The director decides to interweave the local, dialectal intonations of one of Chris’s plays with *Antony and Cleopatra*. “The result is exceedingly amusing and certainly would rival the heteroglotic interanimation and wit of the finest *commedia dell’arte* productions” (Hamner, 1997, p. 391). Marilyn plays her

traditional Shakespearean text straight, but Gavin, playing Shakespeare's clown, gives a hilarious Trinidadian, dialectal takeoff on the great play by the imperial bard:

MARILYN/CLEOPATRA: Hast thou the pretty worm of Nilus there,
That kills and pains not?

GAVIN/CLOWN: Madam, I have him, but 'tain't go be me who go
Ask you handle him, because one nip from this
Small fellow and Basil is your husband; this little
Person will make the marriage, in poison and in
Person, but the brides who go to that bed don't
Ever get up. (Walcott, Branch, 1986, pp. 262–263)

Bakhtin, in *The Dialogic Imagination*, makes an important observation on parodic texts: "Each separate element in it [parodic language]—parodic dialogue, scenes from everyday life, bucolic humour, etc.—is presented as if it were a fragment of some kind of unified whole" (1981, pp. 59–60). Walcott's text revels with many of these whole subtexts. Above, we have seen Gavin as the clown speaking entirely, although in the context of a Shakespearean play, in colloquial Trinidadian dialect. Marilyn and Sheila before her perform whole authentic segments of the Shakespearean text. Harvey, in his directorial parodies, gives, in the previously quoted piece of dialogue, a whole microcosmic version of the plantation slave driver and then shifts into a parody of the cynical producer. Theatre, even more than the novel, depends on, and abounds in, such "speech-genres" (Bakhtin *Speech Genres*). Dramatic parody would become indecipherable if these speech units were reduced into much smaller proportions, however; the audience would fail to follow them. "In poetry, linguistic parody can succeed more easily word after word, not just passage after passage, since the reading audience has the written text to study" (Hamner, 1997, p. 392). Walcott complicates his intertextual parody in *A Branch of the Blue Nile* probably as densely as is possible without utterly losing his aural audience.

The play continues, from beginning to end, to display "a plethora of interanimated texts." Once the Trinidadian troupe, with Marilyn as Cleopatra, finally performs Shakespeare, the performance is marred by a ludicrous mistake of scenery when one of Chris's sets is pushed onto the stage: it is painted with banana trees instead of the proper Egyptian set. Later Gavin reads the local critic's notice of their performance, which rips Harvey, the director, for allowing such an error to occur but "which obsequiously lavishes the hyperbolic praise of a fawning critic on Marilyn's performance." Walcott here is "parodying the excessive—and all too typical—language of newspaper criticism" (Hamner, 1997, p. 392).

As the play moves towards conclusion, Walcott inserts several long, truthful, self-revealing speeches: Gavin's rehearsal of his previous humiliation as a black actor trying to make it in New York; Sheila's paroxysm of shame from allowing herself to have an affair with Chris, a married man (a scene which catapults her into religious conversion); and Chris's angry outburst at all the others for failing to understand the essential linguistic/political paradoxes which compromise all of them as post-colonials with a hybrid language and culture. Chris quits the troupe to open a restaurant in Barbados, which he names "A Branch of the Blue Nile." Later, when he returns to Trinidad, he discusses the title of his restaurant and reveals its symbolic allusion to Cleopatra's river and to his earlier angry statements about the frustrating paradox of black, post-colonial culture adopting, mimicking, and twisting white (instead of blue) cultural and linguistic forms.

The irony of Chris's position cuts many ways, however, because he has come back, like Antony to Octavia, to his white wife; yet he returns again to Trinidad, still pining with love for Sheila, to lure her away from the fundamentalist church. What is his tool to do so? None other than another play he has written specifically for Sheila in a central role. He confronts her with his script and recites her part for her in an attempt to seduce her back to the stage. She does visit their original theatre space, but for her it is, alas, too late: Chris has returned to Barbados; Marilyn has gone on to a career in New York; Harvey has departed to London, where he dies from a sudden disease, possibly AIDS. Sheila is left onstage with the ultimate parodic mimicry: the play by Chris which is an exact playback (from a tape recorder which he had let run during their earlier rehearsals), performed by a foolishly frolicking couple, Iris and Wilfred. "The play ends, in another characteristically Shakespearean form, with an appearance by a 'fool' character, Phil, who gives the play closure with his scatterbrained but deeply wise exhortation" to Sheila (Hamner, 1997, p. 393), as a talented but uncertain actress: "Continue. Do your work." The serious implications of Walcott's drama finally catch up with and triumph over the play's comic elements.

Walcott has said (at a conference in Florida) that North American society contains a multitude of cultural/linguistic hybrids but that its theatre is unfortunately lacking—if he were to use Bakhtin's terms—in "interanimated, heteroglotic hybrids." *A Branch of the Blue Nile* brilliantly begins to fill this gap. It wonderfully fulfills many of Bakhtin's concepts of "parodic heteroglossia," a multitude of linguistic shifts that "demonstrate a seriocomic imagination, that mix low and high forms, and that strive to renew the established literary tongue by drawing on the fundamental elements of folk language" (Bakhtin, *The Dialogic Imagination*, 1981, p. 49).

Although Mikhail Bakhtin in his *The Dialogic Imagination* (1981) sees the mixing of linguistic forms, the markers of languages and styles as an important aspect of what he calls "intentional hybridity," it is the collision between the different points of view on the world that may be embedded in these forms which for Bakhtin is the most prominent feature of intentional hybridity (1981, p. 360).

B. *The Vernacular in its Traditional Place*

We meet the whole cast when they are rehearsing Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra*. Gavin, playing Cleopatra, sticks to Shakespeare's lines, but Chris as Enobarbus changes Shakespeare's lines, speaking them in his own vernacular:

GAVIN: "Saw you my lord?"

CHRIS: Your lord? No. He gone out.

[Laughter. Gavin controls his laughter, resumes]

GAVIN: "Was he not here?"

[Sheila opens her eyes, leaps up]

CHRIS: You deaf? He was disposed to mirth,

But on the sudden a Roman thought hath struck him. Pow! (Walcott, *Three Plays*, 1986, p. 214)

At this point in the play, Chris's insistence on using his own vernacular to speak Shakespeare's lines may seem nothing more than "creolising Shakespeare as part of their rehearsal process for two contrasting plays" (Stone, 1994, p. 136), but it also foreshadows Chris's position as to the use of language, and its meaning for the definition of his cultural self.

Sheila gives a staggering performance as Cleopatra. No doubt she is capable of brilliantly presenting Shakespeare's classic lines, which shows that the play's main concern is not the question of whether or not the West Indian actor is capable of classical form, rather, the West Indian audience's perception of and reaction to such a language will be at stake.

Any West Indian actor who wants to do professional theatre has to face a frustrating social reality or even his talent deepens his frustration. No matter how good Sheila's Cleopatra performance was, she would still have to do other work to make a living. And as she is black she knows that she cannot even go abroad to change her situation:

SHEILA: "I'm black. I'm West Indian. Who needs a broke, black, West Indian actress over thirty?" (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 238)

Chris and Sheila not only discuss the stage; the truth of their own relationship is also at stake. Just as Antony in Shakespeare's play returns to Octavia, Chris does not want to deepen his relationship with Sheila. He tells her that he has disclosed to his wife the truth about his affair with Sheila:

CHRIS: She has the truth and it is killing her.

SHEILA: And you can't bear to see her die. (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 234)

Walcott distinguishes between the truth of Sheila's calling and yet another truth, that of her inner self. Thus Sheila objects to Chris's mixing up of Sheila the actress, playing a role and Sheila the person living her life. She distances herself from her complete identification with the role of Cleopatra, but on another level, as Chris is asking her to go on a drive and have sex with her in a cheap motel; it literally means that he may dream about having sex with Cleopatra, the queen but not with her.

Through Sheila, as Sinnewe argues, Walcott reminds us of another image of the gift, "an image that neither distinguishes between classical/standard and vernacular/creole or European/non-European, but it is in itself a hybrid, namely the branch in Sheila's hand, the branch of the blue Nile." With it Walcott links the European and African roots of the Caribbean, "for the river is neither white nor black, but blue, it springs from the heartland of Africa, it flows to Egypt." The relation between European, specifically English, American and African culture, all of which influence the formation of the hybrid West Indian culture, "is not marked by hierarchy, but neither is it an uncomplicated *mélange*" (2001, p. 96).

In *A Branch of the Blue Nile* Walcott makes the writing of plays, the language they are written in, and an explicit topic. Chris has written a back-yard comedy, a play dealing with the life of ordinary people in the Caribbean. For Walcott, as for his character Chris, there is a choice to be made as to where one located the language of a character within the Creole continuum. We have seen how, for historical reasons, those language varieties that are closest to Standard English have a higher social prestige than those closer to the vernacular.

In her doctoral thesis "Creole Features in the Works of Three West Indian Writers—V. Reid, R. Mais and Derek Walcott: A Functional Approach", Saday Niang states that, in certain contexts, "tenors of power and formality select Standard English as their medium", because it is the language of "affirmation of social status", which has been gained through wealth, education and political achievement, "whereas Creole, as a low status idiom, is the language of deeply felt emotions or, as it also a despised medium, is considered vulgar and the medium for vulgarities" (1986, pp. 246–7).

Chris thinks that language somehow embodies culture, which is an essentialist view of language. However, to say that the language of a European classic has no place on his stage, because that is not the way he speaks off-stage, means suddenly to change position and to claim that only the vernacular is capable of embodying West Indian culture. For Chris a place, including its language, is a "defining element for cultural practices and for individual identity" (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 98), indeed, he has a point when he addresses Gavin, ironically using the latter's own Americanised jargon to tell him that he has been Americanised and because he has lost his roots, he has lost his identity:

CHRIS: You don't know what you are, Gavin. You don't know who to be ... Well this thing here [Chris's play] would have restored you to your origins, your roots, your language, your childhood, because you ass, that's where every artist starts from. (Walcott, Branch, 1986, pp. 249–50)

Chris is right in pointing out that a place and its language are defining elements for one's identity. Surely, an artist may have his indigenous culture at the base of his art, but this should never lead him to shut himself off from other cultural influences, places and languages, which is precisely Gavin's point: "I'm no lasted writer, but you, you're the writer. How can you take any pride, any pleasure, in keeping your head empty?" (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 249) In terms of economics, one's artistic sensitivity or one's talent easily adapts to opportunities that may lay beneath one's own "superior" standards (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 98). The economic realities of the West Indies, as it has been stressed out by Chris's analysis of the economic situation, "mean a structural impossibility that does not allow for art in the West Indies to be more than an amateur pastime" (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 99).

Walcott, in *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, on the one hand, does not morally condemn Marylin's decision to try to get work abroad. However, on the other hand, he appreciates Sheila's decision not only to go back to Trinidad theatre, but to remain there as the only member of the former theatre group. "The courage that Sheila's decision requires, a courage that Walcott thinks any artist in the Caribbean must have", is underlined by a possible consequence of her decision to stay, most visible in Phil, "having been once a successful musician, enjoying a big local hit in 1963, is now a derelict" (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 108).

Walcott introduces the character Phil in the very first scene of his play. Phil's "You wasting your time, you wasting your time! ..." does not yet have the quality of a Cassandra call, it seems to be only the ramblings of a drunkard. However, in the course of the play Phil becomes the topic of conversation, and when Chris defends his insistence on local dialect as the only proper language for his plays, it is Phil who is given as an example:

CHRIS: You know who I write for, Mr. Come-Back Englishman? I write for that madman screaming in the street. His language.

Not somebody else's, not how you think madman should talk, as if insanity was literature. Phil is my Lear, my Mad Tom out in the rain, drenched in the savannah, in real life! (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 247)

But here Phil is not given a voice; he is only "the object of a discussion about the value that should be attached to the use of the vernacular on stage" (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 108).

In the first act, it seemed Walcott was still working with the "dichotomy of dialect versus proper speech"; as we see with *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, Walcott's position as to the "improperness of dialect will become modified." The link which Marylin establishes between Sheila's gift and the latter's capability of delivering the Bard's lines in "proper" English is obvious. "For Sheila her gift is God-given grace, and it was given to her through Shakespeare. In her religious fervour she even equates Shakespeare with God, holding the belief that this gift can be passed on" (Sinnewe, 2001, pp. 99-100). However, she thinks that divine intervention does not elevate her above worldly categories such as race and place when she says to Marylin, "You lighter-skinned than me, girl. You could work abroad" (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 258). Thus, however great Sheila's gift is, "from whatever divine origin it may stem, it is still a question of race, not grace" (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 100).

No matter how well Sheila may speak Shakespeare's lines and how close she may come to the European and American standard in terms of language, she will never meet the standard, regarding the amount of melanin in her skin. Harvey, being white, is on top in this racial hierarchy and although he initially denies the importance of Sheila's race for her career, "he has to concede that even the lighter skinned Marylin will not stand a chance in the world of European theatre" (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 104).

C. *Creolising Shakespeare—Validity of Hybridity*

The second act of Walcott's *A Branch of the Blue Nile* opens with a performance of Cleopatra's farewell scene from Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra*. As Sheila has left, following what she thinks to be a calling from God, Marylin plays Cleopatra. Harvey has rewritten the Clown's/ Gavin's lines in indigenous dialect. Through Harvey's voice one can hear Walcott's comments on the West Indian actor and the language of Shakespeare:

Some of the finest Shakespeare I have ever heard was spoken by West Indian actors. The sound of Shakespeare is certainly not the sound we now hear in Shakespeare, that androgynous BBC-type, high-tone thing. It's a coarse thing—a great range between a wonderful vulgarity and a great refinement, and we have that here. We have that vulgarity and we also have that refinement in terms of diction. (Baer, 1996, p. 110)

Thus in Bakhtinian terms Harvey has not done anything new in that he mixes standard with non-standard, Shakespearean language with local dialect. "On the contrary, he claims that what seems to be homogenous, even the language of Shakespeare, always already has a hybrid character, as there lies in it an encounter between two linguistic consciousnesses, separated from one another by social differentiations." Harvey is not mixing different languages for "any parodic effect", but even if Harvey's intention was to parody, this would be an acceptable, even—if one follows Bakhtin's definition of unintentional hybridity—"ultimately natural stage in the development of any artistic form, which through its use has become too heavily stylised" (Sinnewe, 2001, pp. 100-101).

Therefore, "what the critic considers 'sacred', the pureness of homogenous character of Shakespeare's language is nothing less than a historical delusion." What threatens a civilisation or culture is not some form of hybridity, "but rather the closing off or preservation of artistic forms from other, foreign influences"; because it makes these artistic forms inert, incapable of interacting with the surrounding cultural environment. Thus, Harvey's explanation for creolising *Antony and Cleopatra* "not only denies any a priori cultural homogeneity", but furthermore, through the act of staging his creolised *Antony and Cleopatra*, he shows that even if a cultural form, an artistic expression, was once

shaped through its place of origin, “it is legitimate to transport it to another culture” and let it be influenced by this culture (in this case through its language) as it is the only way that it will stay alive and have meaning (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 101).

On the one hand, Harvey raises the standard of his theatre company because he shows his actors that they with their art can go beyond the local standard which also means that they can enact plays that are not indigenous to their local culture. It seems that Harvey’s attitude is “thoroughly cosmopolitan, excluding any traces of an overt or hidden racism.” On the other hand, however, one can see that Harvey “consciously uses what can also be considered a racial stereotype”; because he “furiously compares the local critic with an ape” (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 101). “Lecherousness”, according to Dirk Sinnewe, “is yet another racial stereotype” and if one reads this in the context of Harvey’s assumption that “the local critic lacks erudition” (2001, p. 102), and that if he has read the play at all he did it “moving his lips and all. He’s got two thumbs on his feet ... he turns the pages with them” (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 268). Although Harvey apes the critic’s affectation for thinking in stereotypes, his play, nevertheless, “makes the point that no form of cultural expression is bound to have validity only at its place of origin” (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 102).

Walcott’s experiences with the Trinidad Theatre Workshop, according to Sinnewe, “are not exclusively reflected in one of the characters, but in all of them.” It seems “an obvious choice to identify the director Harvey St. Just or the writer/director Chris with Walcott himself.” His experiences are thus dispersed onto the positions held by a variety of characters, yet there are a few arguments which would allow “for Phil to be seen as a mouthpiece for some of Walcott’s most personal convictions regarding the world of theatre.” He may seem a madman or a fool, but as in Shakespearean theatre, “the madman/ fool often has a good deal more wisdom than the director/ king” (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 109).

Thus Phil’s function is twofold: on the one hand he is allowed to express and comments on the conflicts that exist between differing approaches towards the theatre (amateurism versus professionalism, the classical versus the indigenous and the use of Standard English versus the vernacular). But on the other hand, in terms of structure, Phil, by serving the same function as “the chorus of a Greek play or a Shakespearean fool”, gives Walcott’s *A Branch of the Blue Nile* a very classical form indeed (Sinnewe, 2001, pp. 108–109). Phil accuses that the government does not support the arts with even stronger words, an accusation which Walcott has also repeatedly voiced. But it is not only the government which is at the receiving end of Phil’s criticism; it is also the artists themselves, “the frequent lack of professionalism” on his actors part under which Walcott suffered repeatedly (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 110).

A theme of *A Branch of the Blue Nile* is the use and misuse of talent, especially in the arts. Sheila, both hurt by Christopher and fearing her ambitions, retreats to a fundamentalist religious group. The title of the play comes from her explanation of why she gave up playing Cleopatra and quit the theatre for the church: “ ’cause the Caroni isn’t a branch of the river Nile, / and Trinidad isn’t Egypt, except at Carnival, / so the world sniggers when I speak her lines” (Walcott, Branch, 1986, P.285). But discovering that “her talent as an actress is wasted as a gospel singer, Sheila returns to the struggling theatre company” (Hamner, 1997, p. 367).

A Branch of the Blue Nile ends with the rehearsal of the next generation of actors who continue the work of those who have left and Sheila will be there to help them. Therefore, one could argue that “Walcott sees hope for a continuation of the artistic efforts in the Caribbean” (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 111), and Phil’s closing speech seems to underline this positive outlook:

Phil: Show me your palm. Good lines. Good branches. [He bows] Press on. It touch me once, that light. It fill me full ... I was his vessel. And it don’t matter where it is: here, New York, London. No, miss. Believe me, Phil knows show business. [Turns. Sheila sits on a platform] Get up. Do what you have to do. For all our sakes, I beg you. Please. Continue. Do your work. Lift up your hand, girl. (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 312)

It is Phil’s vernacular that is allowed to carry these tenets, “adding to them the quality of a deeply felt emotional truth.” When Sheila finally continues rehearsing, she draws her hope not from a success, but a failure. The final sound we hear in *A Branch of the Blue Nile* is Sheila’s breathing, “...driven to the pitch of exhaustion” (Walcott, Branch, 1986, p. 312). “Thus, although Sheila continues her works, her breathing might foreshadow not only the tremendous amount of misery that she will have to go through in order to follow her calling, but also her possible defeat” (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 111).

With *A Branch of the Blue Nile* Walcott makes “a strong statement for the validity of a hybrid West Indian culture.” He portrays the relation between European, specifically English, as well as American and African culture as one that should not be marked by a hierarchy, which places the culture, specifically the languages of the cultural centres, America and Europe at the top and African culture or the mix of all these cultures (and their languages) at the bottom. “Walcott’s strategy here is to show that the so-called standards, Shakespeare’s ‘classical’ plays and their language are already of a hybrid character, and any attempt to characterise them as homogenous entities and preserve them as such may ultimately result in their inertness” (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 111).

D. Vernacular: A Necessity to Define Identity

In *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, Walcott uses “the properties of an intentional artistic hybrid” in his quest for the shape of West Indian identities. Walcott links the question of language with the question of a definition of West Indian identities. This link is discussed on the level of content as well as on the level of style. In *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, the role which the vernacular played and to some extent still plays on the West Indian stage is made an explicit topic. Walcott shows us that the vernacular on and off stage is “capable of transporting more than petty witticisms or sexual

insinuations.” We learn that the actors (in Marilyn this becomes most visible) think of their own capabilities for being good actors as directly linked to their command of Standard English (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 113).

Furthermore, Walcott shows us that these Trinidadian actors see their vernacular as misplaced when rehearsing a Shakespeare play. Walcott reminds us that already in Shakespeare we find “the mixing as well as the dialogical opposition between different languages (heteroglossia). He informs us of the fact that Shakespeare’s language never was as homogenous or as pure as it is today deemed to be.” In addition to this Walcott shows how language use can indeed “not only define identities, but also entrap us in certain prefabricated images of ourselves.” By the end of the play, however, the role of the vernacular as a means of cultural expression on stage has changed, transporting more than petty witticisms on stage. Off stage, it is Phil whose vernacular carries “wisdom containing art and the state of the theatre worthy of the wise fool’s insights in any of Shakespeare’s dramas” (Sinnewe, 2001, pp. 116–117).

Walcott shows us that there is no such thing as purity, either in language or culture. What Bakhtin terms as “unintentional hybridity” is made concrete by Walcott’s dramatic character Harvey in *A Branch of the Blue Nile* who “claims that even Shakespeare’s language was a hybrid” (Walcott, *Pantomime*, 1980, p. 150). Any identity, any language use that may shape (cultural) identities is already, to greater or lesser extent, of a hybrid nature. Seen in this light, Walcott’s plays answer the question of whether “classic theatre has a place in a Creole environment.” In *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, Walcott is “at pains to show that cultural practices are valid not [merely] at their place of origin, for the idea of such absolute origins exists only in theory, and does not correspond to observed reality” (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 118).

In *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, Walcott portrays the vernacular as being “capable of voicing the ideas necessary to define one’s identity.” He also shows us in this play “the value that should be attached to the use of the vernacular on the West Indian stage, its importance for a definition of the West Indian cultural identity.” The vernacular he portrays is thereby never a one-to-one transcription of the English or French Creole as it is actually spoken on the various Islands. As we have seen, it necessarily needs to be an adaptation of translation, as even from one island to the next; speakers of Creole will not immediately understand each other (Sinnewe, 2001, pp. 122–123). Meanwhile, it takes a closer look at how Walcott comments on the binaries, classical and vernacular (creole), and how far Walcott uses the properties of an intentional artistic hybrid to comment on the hybrid cultural identity of the Caribbean and, ultimately, of all societies.

With *A Branch of the Blue Nile* Walcott makes a strong statement for the “validity of a hybrid West Indian culture.” He portrays the relation between European, specifically English, as well as American and African culture as one that should not be marked by a hierarchy. “Walcott’s strategy here is to show that the so-called standards, Shakespeare’s ‘classical’ plays and their language are already of a hybrid character, and any attempt to characterise them as homogenous entities and preserve them as such may ultimately result in their inertness” (Sinnewe, 2001, p. 111).

III. CONCLUSION

The authors of this article have argued that in Walcott’s play *A Branch of the Blue Nile* Walcott uses the properties of an intentional artistic hybrid in his quest for the shape of West Indian identities. If Walcott, searching for a definition of West Indian (cultural) identities, ultimately shows the constructedness of a hierarchy between, for example, the Creole and European culture and thus deconstructs such a false hierarchy, then the interesting point is to look at how precisely he does this. Here the use of Bakhtinian notions with regard to language helps to avoid ideological simplifications. For Bakhtin, hybridity is a phenomenon of language formation, but also of the concrete and social act of language use, and his definitions allow one to look coevally at matters of style and content. It is from this basis, looking firstly at how Walcott comments on the issue of language, and how he himself employs the vernacular in his play, that the researchers finally venture to assess Walcott’s notion of language use, that is, specifically the use of non-Standard language and then its relation to the formation of West Indian (cultural) identities. After her reading of *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, the authors of this paper propose the following:

Firstly, Walcott links the question of language with the question of a definition of West Indian identities. This link is, as we have seen, discussed on the level of content, that is, Walcott explicitly comments on the use of language, as well as on the level of style. He portrays this link as not one of essence (you are what you speak) but of use (how you use languages may define you).

Secondly, in *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, the role which the vernacular played and to some extent still plays on the West Indian stage has made an explicit topic. Walcott shows us that the vernacular on and off stage is capable of transporting more than petty witticisms or sexual insinuations. We learn that the actors (in Marilyn this becomes most visible) think of their own capabilities for being good actors as directly linked to their command of Standard English. Furthermore, Walcott shows us that these Trinidadian actors see their vernacular as misplaced when rehearsing a Shakespeare play. The rightful place of the vernacular is ascribed to Chris’s back yard comedies, but not to Shakespeare’s plays. Nevertheless, Walcott reminds us (through Harvey) that already in Shakespeare we find the mixing as well as the dialogical opposition between different languages (heteroglossia). What is more, the playwright informs us of the fact that Shakespeare’s language never was as homogeneous or as pure as it is today deemed to be. In addition to this Walcott shows how language use can indeed not only define identities, but also entrap us in certain prefabricated images of ourselves. This is most visible in Gavin’s use of American English, itself yet another non-West Indian Standard, which, as we have seen, Walcott also portrays as not speaking to the situation of Afro-Americans in the West Indies. By the end of the play, however, the role of the vernacular as a means of cultural expression on stage

has changed. The dramatic character Chris finally allows the vernacular to transport more than petty witticisms on stage. Off stage it is Phil whose vernacular carries wisdom concerning art and the state of the theatre (in the West Indies) which is worthy of the wise fool's insights in any of Shakespeare's dramas.

Thus one can say that in *A Branch of the Blue Nile*, Walcott firstly makes the reader or the audience aware of the disregard one still has for the vernacular (especially for the English and French based Creole) when compared to Standard English. He also makes us aware of the ideology from which such a view historically stems. Later, Walcott re-invests value into the use of the vernacular, and he shows us that there is nothing which one cannot express with vernacular, especially the tenets of one's identity. He shows us that what we consider as pure or homogeneous is nothing less than a historical delusion. Even what we today may consider homogeneous, a language or a culture, is always already to a greater or lesser extent a mixture of elements.

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A Study on the Intercultural Communicative Competence Cultivation Strategy of International Secretarial Personnel under the Background of Globalization

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Abstract—Under the background of globalization, intercultural communicative competence of international secretarial personnel is becoming more and more important. Therefore, it is necessary for colleges and universities to follow the needs of society and explore how to develop the intercultural communicative competence cultivation strategy of international secretarial personnel. This paper argues that at present, colleges and universities are obviously insufficient in the training of international secretarial personnel, and still need to be optimized from the aspects of textbooks, curriculum, second class and teacher quality so as to promote the intercultural communicative competence of international secretarial personnel.

Index Terms—international secretarial personnel, intercultural communicative competence, cultivation strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

Against the background of globalization, China has launched CAFTA, “One Belt and One Road” initiative and other major initiatives, which makes China’s economy closely tie with the international economy. The number of domestic joint venture and sole proprietorship enterprises has surged and international exchanges have been frequent, which has provided a good opportunity for the development of international secretarial talents. Compared with ordinary secretaries, international secretaries are more professional and more characteristic and they mainly provides services for foreign-funded enterprises, foreign institutions in China and China’s foreign - related organs and related enterprises and institutions. Therefore, as an international secretary, good intercultural communication skills are essential. It is an urgent problem for us to explore how to improve students’ comprehensive English quality and promote the intercultural communicative competence of international secretarial talents so as to meet the needs of social development. This article will focus on the exploration of the cultivation strategy of optimizing the intercultural communicative competence of international secretarial talents.

II. CURRENT SITUATION OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE OF INTERNATIONAL SECRETARIAL TALENTS

A. *Theoretical Teaching*

Firstly, at present, the curriculum of the cultivation of intercultural communicative competence of international secretarial talents is not enough in the proportion of quantity and has not been fully valued, and most of them are just optional courses. In universities and colleges with secretary majors, the curriculum content mainly follows that of the 1980s, which is dominated by ancient Chinese literature, ancient Chinese, linguistics, foreign literature and so on. There are not many courses that really involve international cultural communication competence, and they are not professional compulsory courses but just mostly professional elective courses in the nature. Secondly, most teachers still stay in the traditional teaching mode, and the exam-oriented teaching still plays a main role. The teaching is dominated by “spoon-fed” model, which makes the classroom atmosphere dull and unattractive. The explanation of culture is not emphasized enough and it will affect students’ ability to use language. The secretary major itself is a course that is based on practical application and highlights practical operation ability. If students mainly study theory in colleges and universities, it will inevitably affect the improvement of students’ competitiveness after entering society. Finally, the intercultural communicative competence of some teachers still needs to be improved; otherwise, they will affect the students’ study. In the present universities, some teachers lack practical experience, and most of them are college graduates who go straight into teaching in colleges and universities, so they have insufficient accumulation of practical experience and problems in international communication.

B. *Professional Practice*

The cultivation of international secretarial majors should put much emphasis on the direction of application

orientation, in particular, the application of intercultural communicative competence must be fully practiced so as to really improve students' ability. However, at present, the cultivation of intercultural communicative competence of international secretaries is more of a tendency of theory teaching but pay less attention to practice. Such a situation will inevitably lead to students' lack of innovation in real intercultural communication process and the weak ability to solve practical problems. The problems of professional practice are mainly reflected in the following aspects:

1) There is not enough emphasis on the practical teaching of intercultural communication competence in secretarial major. At present, although colleges and universities pay more and more attention to the practice teaching of secretarial major, which is also reflected in the development of talent cultivation program, in fact, in practice, the practice teaching is still loose and the method of examination is still rigorous compared with the theoretical teaching. Most of the textbooks begin with the aid of theoretical teaching materials, which makes some students feel that practical teaching is only the accessory of theoretical teaching, so they do not pay enough attention to the participation and seriousness of practice teaching. The important reason for this problem is that schools, teachers and students do not pay enough attention to the practical teaching of secretarial major.

2) The synthesis and innovation of professional practice teaching content is not enough. At present, the professional practice of intercultural communication competence is basically carried out in the classroom according to the professional curriculum. The teacher will arrange both the theory teaching and practice teaching according to the teaching plan, and the phased practice teaching is aimed at the theoretical teaching in the preceding stage. Therefore, most of the students' professional practice is aimed at the content of a module, but this kind of professional practice lacks the summation and authenticity of the actual operation, and it is difficult for students to apply their knowledge in the face of real problems.

In addition, there is not enough novelty in the form and method of professional practice. The most common mode of professional practice is according to the traditional classroom teaching where the teacher will tell a part of it, and then the students will do part of their own operation; also, some case analysis, scenario simulation and group discussion will be added to it. In recent years, the form of professional practice has begun to pay attention to constructivism learning theory, which has raised the action-oriented teaching, task-driven teaching, project teaching and other teaching methods to meet the need of jobs. These two teaching methods actually have inherent deficiencies. In the traditional practice teaching form, students can't really put into practice because of lack of real environment, and it will be easy for students to lack initiative and enthusiasm for a long time. And the subsequent rise of the action-oriented teaching mode is particularly high requirements for teachers where it not only ask the teachers themselves to have rich experience in teaching practice, strong ability of comprehensive project development, but also ask the teachers to put a lot of time and energy into the practice teaching organizations, more than that put into the usual theoretical teaching. At the same time, it also has higher requirements for the students' own initiative and participation, so the difference of the implementation effect is large.

3) Professional practice teaching conditions are not fully guaranteed. The important reason for the lack of guarantee of teaching conditions is that the teaching funds are not guaranteed. The practice teaching in some areas is not enough, and the source is unitary. This further results in the lack of hardware and soft conditions for the professional practice of secretarial students. The hardware condition mainly refers to the practice teaching site, teaching equipment and so on. The soft condition mainly refers to the teaching staff of the practice teaching, the textbooks and so on.

4) The management of professional practice teaching is not comprehensive and rigorous enough. From the macro point of view, most colleges and universities have set up a relatively complete management rules and regulations in the management level of professional practice, but most of them are mainly for some macroscopic regulations, and lack of comprehensive quality assessment specifications, including the guidance of teacher assessment, student process assessment, staff management assessment and so on. In addition to the overall lack of assessment criteria, there are also inadequate places for teaching practice facilities, which include campus and off-campus practice sites.

III. THE NECESSITY OF OPTIMIZING INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE CULTIVATION STRATEGY

The professional characteristics of international secretarial talents determine the importance of intercultural communicative competence in their work. The following will take the two main tasks of secretarial work as the clue to analyze the importance of optimizing intercultural communicative competence cultivation strategy.

A. *Handling Affairs*

Secretarial work mainly includes routine reception and business activities. In these daily works, intercultural communicative competence is very important for secretaries. The language and etiquette in the process of international reception are all important factors for the secretaries to set up good public relations image and achieve the goal of public relations. In business activities, intercultural communication is also more frequent in the present. The culture of business activities varies widely because of the different objects involved. For example, In the process of business banquets, it often involves many food culture caused by cultural differences. If an international secretary lacks of understanding of these cultural differences, the failure of business banquets may be caused, thereby affecting the interests of the unit. For example, in the business activities, the two sides will inevitably offer gifts to express their hopes of mutual friendship, but different countries have different taboo of gifts and gift giving. Westerners pay more

attention to the cultural style and artistic taste of gifts. They don't give too expensive gifts, but they attach great importance to the packaging of the gift, which means that they have a deep friendship. In addition, the religious meanings of gifts should also be put much emphasized. Almost each nation has its own religious beliefs, and if the gift made religious taboo of the other side, the relationship between the two sides will break up. At the same time, the colors of the gifts also have different connotations. For example, in Chinese and British culture, red is a very auspicious color, which represents happiness and good luck; but in Japan, red is an unlucky color, which represents danger and anger. The above fully illustrates the importance of international quality in the daily work of international secretaries, and also fully demonstrates the necessity of cultivating intercultural communicative competence for international secretary talents.

B. *Holding Meetings*

Meeting is an important form of activities for enterprises and institutions, and it is also an important part of secretarial work. In enterprises and institutions, the form of meetings that the secretary needs to prepare is also varied, including business negotiation meetings, internal meetings, fairs and so on. With the development of globalization, intercultural factors have become more and more enriched in various forms of meetings, which also puts forward higher requirements for intercultural communicative competence of international secretaries. Taking the seating arrangement in the business negotiation meetings as an example, the importance of intercultural knowledge in the work of international secretaries has been highlighted. Power distance refers to the acceptance of the fact that people in a society are unequal in their distribution of rights. Countries with high acceptance have a clear social hierarchy and a great power distance; countries and peoples with lower acceptance are more equal and have less power distance. In general, for the board of directors in American companies, such as Boeing, when you walk into the meeting room, see where they sit and listen to the speaker's tone, and you can roughly guess who is in power or the main decision maker. However, for the board of directors in the Nordic countries, such as Sweden's IKEA, the members of the board of directors seem to sit carelessly and kick up a dust, so it is difficult to find out who is the authority figure. Modesty and equality are the connotations of Nordic culture. Upon understanding such cultural differences, the secretaries will not make mistakes or have embarrassment in arranging meeting seats and organizing meetings.

IV. INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE CULTIVATION STRATEGY OF INTERNATIONAL SECRETARIAL PERSONNEL

Through the current situation of intercultural communicative competence cultivation of international secretarial talents and the analysis of the importance of intercultural communicative competence in the work of international secretaries, we can see that it is urgent to optimize the cultivation strategy of intercultural communicative competence, and the focus can be reformed from the following aspects.

A. *Construction of Professional Textbooks*

We shall strengthen the construction of textbooks and give full play to the role of the textbooks of intercultural communicative competence in the secretary quality cultivation. It is particularly important to cultivate the high-quality and practical professional textbooks for secretarial talents. At present, the phenomenon that the professional textbooks of international secretaries are not applicable and lag behind is serious. The teaching mode of emphasis on theoretical knowledge, lack of skills training content, repetition of content and unclear expression can not only bring difficulties to teachers' teaching, but also set up obstacles for students' learning. We shall strengthen the construction of textbooks and supplement the content of teaching. We shall not only emphasize the pertinence, but also emphasize the skills and practicability. Teachers shall be organized to write new applicable textbooks, and give full play to the role of the textbooks in the secretary quality cultivation. The new textbooks shall have the following characteristics:

1) The overall idea is clear, and the hierarchical structure is multilayer; the preparation and revision of the professional textbooks should keep up with the market changes. The so-called market change, in fact, is the change of the requirements for the quality of the secretary personnel, the extension of the secretarial work area and the development of the connotation of the secretaries' professional skills. As a product, the textbooks, especially the textbooks of the application subject, should not be separated from the market, but should keep up with the market pace and strive to be innovative and meet the market demand.

2) The textbooks should be suitable for students to learn (self-study) and useful for students to improve their interest; an excellent textbook must be loved by the students with its vivid form and can help to enhance students' interest in learning. Therefore, in the construction of textbooks, we must also pay attention to enhancing students' sense of professional identity.

3) We should put emphasis on case teaching and highlight the ability cultivation. The professional secretarial textbooks should timely absorb the new ideas, new methods and new technologies of the modern secretary in intercultural communication, introduce the vivid cases of production and service enterprises, select the novel and representative themes that can reflect the forefront of secretarial career development and secretarial work, integrate the real situation and professional background of the secretaries' work into the textbooks and display it in a rich and acceptable form, so that students can conduct situation simulation exercises and experiential training, promote role

transformation, and gain professional knowledge and practical experience in the context of learning about the relevant work background.

B. Update of Professional Curriculum System

At present, most colleges and universities have a significant lag in the courses of international secretarial courses, mainly in professional basic course modules and professional course modules. Professional basic courses include Chinese ancient literature, ancient Chinese, the history and works of contemporary Chinese literature and so on. Professional course modules include secretarial studies, document writing, office automation software application and so on. Such a curriculum system is mainly based on the curriculum model of more than a decade ago. Therefore, it is necessary to participate in intercultural courses to meet the needs of the times. The intercultural courses can also be divided into intercultural basic course modules and intercultural integrated course modules. Among them, the basic course module is compulsory, while the integrated module is elective. At the same time, in these international courses, colleges and universities should develop professional ability and quality cultivation curriculum standard with students as the center, business process as the guidance, enhancement of vocational ability as the core and work as the main teaching contents. Colleges and universities should also adopt modern information technology and integrate “teaching, learning, doing” as one to enhance students’ professional ability.

C. Expansion of the Second Classroom Teaching

The cultivation of international secretarial talents can not ignore the role of the second classroom, especially the cultivation of intercultural communicative competence. The second classroom is a supplement to regular teaching, and it can put the knowledge gained by theoretical teaching into practice. In order to strengthen the intercultural communicative competence of secretaries, we shall try to organize some useful activities that can not be arranged in the teaching but can be completed outside the classroom, and we shall also combine these activities with the career planning and design to ensure that the intercultural communication competence is really grasped by students. Specifically, in the second classroom, the cultivation of intercultural communicative competence should include intelligent service training, initiative service training and creative service training. Intelligent service training is mainly based on learning knowledge and skills; initiative service training is mainly based on organizing and participating in activities by students themselves; creative service training is mainly based on taking part in the competition.

In the second classroom, we can make good use of secretarial professional journals, websites and competitive activity resources to extract material and information, which can be regarded as an effective measure to enrich the second classroom of secretarial professional teaching.

In terms of the secretarial professional journals, the secretarial journals have a large amount of information and cover a wide range, including not only secretarial theory study and introduction of secretarial work and art, but also professional teaching and practical teaching experience, which is highly professional and authoritative. The living daily work of some secretaries or secretarial educators published in these journals can provide good material support for case studies. Moreover, compared with the relatively boring textbook theory, the typicality and readability of these cases in the secretarial journals can arouse the enthusiasm of the students and stimulate their study and thinking, which makes students be more willing to accept and obtain the rare perceptual cognition and career interests.

In terms of the professional websites, professional website is one of the main media to carry professional knowledge and disseminate industry information. Compared with textbooks, professional websites have obvious advantages in content update frequency, information transmission speed and material richness. At present, the domestic secretarial websites are mainly organized by the secretary association (association), secretary magazines, secretary service enterprises or for-profit secretary organizations. Most of these professional websites, with a wide range of sources of information, rich content integration, timely and effective update, large communication space and wide range of radiation, include all aspects of secretarial work in all walks of life and provide a wide points for others to draw on.

In terms of the competitive activity resources, organizing students to participate in secretarial activities is an advanced form of developing classroom teaching space. This is a challenge and breakthrough for traditional classroom teaching and the “sheep-keeping” practice, which is also a bold innovation for the practical teaching of the secretary. Both the campus cultural activities and regional or national competitive competitions are good practice opportunities and exhibition platforms for secretarial professional teachers and students as well as secretarial teaching activities.

D. Promotion of Teachers’ Quality

The role of teachers in quality cultivation is irreplaceable. The teachers’ influence on the students in the course of teaching is always natural, huge and long-lasting. In fact, in recent years, most of the secretarial teachers are non-secretarial professional backgrounds, generally lacking relevant theoretical research and practical experience in public relations and secretarial work. The lack of pertinence in teaching leads to a serious phenomenon of conformism. Therefore, to improve the professional quality of students, we must first improve the professional quality of teachers, and increase the proportion of teachers with “double certificates”. We shall encourage teachers to actively participate in teaching and research work, put on field practice regularly in enterprises and institutions, and actively obtain domestic and foreign relevant professional qualification certificate.

In addition, in the promotion of teacher quality, the resources of enterprises are particularly important. Applied-type

skilled talents will eventually be employed by enterprises, so in the process of cultivating the intercultural communicative competence of secretarial talents, the first step is to understand the enterprise, including the characteristics, the current situation and the job skills requirements of the enterprise, and then based on this, the promotion of teachers' quality should be considered. At the same time, excellent talents in the enterprise can also train teachers in the field of actual practice quality and improve their quality by guest lecturers or in the form of lectures. The intensity, depth and breadth of cooperation between schools and enterprises should be continuously promoted in the improvement of teachers' quality.

V. CONCLUSION

In a word, with the acceleration of globalization and the rapid development of China's economy in the present, intercultural communication skills should be paid more attention in the process of secretary cultivation. However, there are still many problems in the aspect of cultivating the intercultural communicative competence of international secretaries in colleges and universities, whether it is for theoretical teaching or professional practice, which directly leads the derailment of the demand of international secretaries and the actual capacity of the market. Therefore, how to further enhance the intercultural communication competence has been an important problem faced by the professional education of international secretaries. The relevant education departments should take effective measures to cultivate high-quality and international specialized talents in the field of international secretary.

The construction of professional textbooks, the update of professional curriculum system, the expansion of the second classroom teaching as well as the promotion of teachers' quality mentioned in this paper may only be the tip of the iceberg for the innovation of intercultural communication competence cultivation of international secretaries, which calls a lot of education managers, education executives and education audiences to work hard together. Only in this way can its effect be more significant to meet the needs of society.

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Research Material Development of Drama Appreciation Based on Local Wisdom on Student in Indonesian Literature and Language Education Program at Muhammadiyah University of Makassar Indonesia

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Abstract—This research is a development research which aimed to produce teaching materials of the drama appreciation based on local wisdom on the students of the Indonesia literature and language education Faculty of Teacher and the Education Muhammadiyah University of Makassar which is valid, practical and effective. This is a Research and Development (R & D) study by using 4-D model of development Thiagarajan through stages: (1) assessment or initial tracing of topics that will be constructed or reconstructed; (2) development of teaching materials products from the findings that has been achieved; (3) experimental material trial testers that have been developed at the research site and the product will be used (4) improvement of teaching materials in accordance with the findings in the preliminary situation in the field. The results of the research are (1) The teaching materials product of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom is valid because the average validity of the validation result of the material expert $M = 3.54$ is in the "Very Valid" class. (2) The product of study material of drama appreciation based on local wisdom of Bugis Makassar is considered practical because the average value obtained is $M = 2$, it can be concluded that this value belongs to the class "fully implemented" (3) based on effectiveness criteria of teaching materials product based on local wisdom drama appreciation Bugis Makassar declared effective as data showed that the maximum completeness met and that 91.89% of students who received a score of 75 and above.

Index Terms—teaching material development, drama appreciation review, Bugis Makassar local wisdom

I. INTRODUCTION

Education as one of formal institutions is conducive to enhance creative potency within students. In order to create the expected surrounding, the process of learning and teaching must focus on students' learning activity as can as possible. They have to experience intellectual and emotional connection in the process of learning and teaching. One component of formal education in college, specifically in department of Indonesian language education and literatures, is teaching literature (including drama). By teaching drama with set of problems and emphasizing in literary activities, the creativity will be developed. Literary activity means as a creative process to enjoy and create literature actively. By that matter, there will be mental and spiritual connection towards the literary works. Accordingly, instructor (lecturer) has an important role for his position to create conducive environment in giving the students chance to do self-improvement.

Lecturer's professionalism becomes as a standard of quality assurance in academic system. It has to be their cultural value to show the best work in implementing their duty and responsibility as a lecturer, whereas in academic environment enables positive connection between students to lecturer, lecturer to lecturer, and students to other students.

Drama as literary work is the inner of the authors that show personal freedom. Fully comprehend to personal freedom will encourage the readers (learners) to be creative. The drama also features characters with all the problems, characters, events, and conflicts. All of that is creatively overcome by the author. Someone who is involved in the drama will live up to new discoveries, new possibilities that affect the spirit of creativity. Through activities such as drama performances expression, conducive atmosphere actually created to foster the creativity. On the staging time activities, the learners interact with each other to discuss, talk, and work together for the staging preparation.

Local wisdom can be internalized in education because it has advantages. These advantages according to Mulyani (in Taprianto, 2013) as follows: (1) local wisdom could become a learning tool for every human being to be a smart person, intelligent, and wise, (2) local wisdom has positive values to be transformed to Learners to form a positive personality. As Sayuti (in Taprianto, 2013) suggest that the culture and the local potential necessitates a strategic function for the formation of character and identity.

Based on that statement, it is deemed necessary to develop teaching material to improve the quality of learning drama. Teaching material in intent is material about drama appreciation based on the local wisdom of Bugis Makassar. The study of drama appreciation which is relevant in improving local wisdom of Bugis Makassar is the study that could foster the awareness of the contained values in teaching and learning process. By learning drama will eventually make the learners raise their awareness, cultivate their socialization, and know more about Makassar's cultural values.

Some important things that should be identified are how the design, validity, practicality, and effectiveness of teaching materials of drama appreciation based on local wisdom Bugis Makassar at the Muhammadiyah University of Makassar.

A. Drama

Literary works generally tell about reality in artistic form which its presence has special meaning for readers or devotees. The most complex of expressive language is arranged with full aesthetics becomes as the tool in bringing the reality into literary works.

Drama as a part of literary works cannot be separated from life. Through it, life's problems and humanity is proposed oftenly not far from public's social aspects in the relation between human to other humans. It also presents human behavior's aspects for its relation to human values. This can be seen in the matter of adore feeling, love, hatred, resentment, sincerity, purity, and so forth.

Drama is like a picture of the social life that is told through the show. Drama is a literary work that is structured to describe life and activity using various actions, dialogs, and character. The drama is full of acting and characters that amaze the audience. Drama is a work that designed for theater performances. Therefore, discussing the drama clearly will not be separated from the creative composition aspect (Endraswara, 2011, p.265).

Widyahening (2014, p.2-8) type of drama as follows, first, tragedy (drama sorrow or grief story) is a drama that depicts the sad story that is great and glorious. Second, the melodrama is a very sentimental story with the characters and stories that are breathtaking and moving. Third, comedy is light-hearted dramas, has a hilarious dialogue that is sarcastic and usually ends with happiness. Fourth, slapstick also called jokes.

The term of drama contains two interpretations. The first is *text play* or *repertoire* and the second is *theatre* or *performance*. Semi (1993, p.157) confirmed that drama in general has two aspects that is story aspect as the part of literature and staging aspect involving the art of play or the art of theatre. Speaking of drama, then we are dealt with two possibilities, specifically script drama and stage drama. Both of them are based on script drama. Therefore, the discussion regarding script drama becomes as the basic of drama study.

B. Drama Teaching

The relationship between the language elements in a literary work demands a special ability of the reader to find the meaning or message that contained in the literary work. These skills include conducting preliminary analyses of texts that, according to Nurgiyantoro (2002, p.165), are intended to find the meaning of each constituent element, as well as finding for relationships between elements that can form the overall meaning of the text. This requires a systematic exercise and repetitive that will be more effective if it is designed in a systematic literature learning process. The process referred to by Teeuw (1991) should be able to familiarize learners with existing conventions. Only through a process that enables learners' understanding of the conventions, students will be able to develop their sensitivity while facilitating their whole interpretation.

A literary work is essentially a collection of words that should be analyzed for its meaning. In literary learning, the level of understanding is also determined by the selection of texts to be read. Principally because the text is read should have a relationship with the reader capacity. This means that the success of learning to improve understanding is also determined by the ability of teachers (lecturers) to choose the text that will be used as teaching materials.

There are some things to note in the selection of materials in the use of teaching materials for drama, that is 1). Consider the objectives to be achieved, whether orienting the mastery as much as possible (literature caught) or appreciation ability even with the relatively little (literature taught) material; 2). Source material, where it is necessary to consider whether the drama as a whole or a fragment of a scene or dialogue quotations for specific purposes such as enrichment appearance, conversation, and oral skills. In this case, the drama learning integrated with other learning; and 3). Considering the aesthetics of drama and types of drama (Endraswara, 2005, p.195-196).

In literature teaching, the level of comprehension is defined by text selection to be read. This is because of text principle that reading material must relate to reader's capability. It means that the goal of learning to improve comprehension is also considered by teacher's ability in selecting text to be used for learning material. It has to meet students' age and their interest. Moody (1971) explained several criteria of text selection of literary works which prioritises students' age, language, psychology, and theme's background. For far explanation in language aspect, it needs to consider levels of language difficulties of text with the students' capability. It can be seen in the use of

grammar and variety of vocabularies used. As with psychology aspect, it is related to students' interest and enthusiasm towards text. The last aspect, theme's background, refers to theme selection which is not too unfamiliar or already known by students.

C. Local Wisdom

Generally, local culture or regional culture is considered as the expanding culture in a region with the elements of ethnic group's culture who inhabit the area. The implementation of sustainable development along technology advance leads people to abandon the importance of tradition or public culture in managing environment which is also oftenly regarded as old-fashioned in this era that makes this development planning far from the public.

The importance of local wisdom in wide education becomes an effort to maintain national endurance as a proud nation. The culture of archipelago with its pluralism and dynamism is a source of eternal local wisdom that makes it as unavoidable living reality.

The term local wisdom consists of two words, namely wisdom and local. Thus, local wisdom (local wisdom) can be understood as ideas and knowledge that are wise, full of wisdom, good value, and virtuous owned, guided and implemented by its members (Sibarani, 2012, p.112).

In local wisdom, also contained local cultural wisdom. Local wisdom itself is the local knowledge that has been so integrated with the system of beliefs, norms, and culture and expressed in the traditions and myths espoused in the long term. As one form of human behavior, local wisdom is not a static thing but changes over time, depending on the order and social-cultural bonds that exist in society.

Local wisdom can be understood as a human effort by using its sense of cognition to act and behave on things, objects, or events that occur in a certain space (Ridwan, 2007).

Etymologically, wisdom means a person's ability to use his or her mind to respond to events, objects or situations. While local shows the interaction space in which the event or situation occurs. Thus substantially, local wisdom is the values and norms that apply in a society that is believed to be true and become a reference in acting and behaving every day. In other words, local wisdom is the ability to address and empower the potential values of the noble local culture. Behavior that is general and prevailing in society extensively, hereditary, will evolve into firmly held values, hereinafter referred to as culture. Local wisdom is defined as a truth that has been traditionally or steadily in an area (Gobyah, 2003).

Substantially, local wisdom is the prevailing values in a society. The values are believed to be true and become a reference in the daily behavior of the local community. Therefore, it is reasonable to say that local wisdom is an entity that really determines the human dignity of the community.

In society, local wisdom can be found in the song, proverb, Sasanti, advice, slogan, and ancient scriptures inherent in everyday behavior. Local wisdom is usually reflected in long-standing community habits. The sustainability of local wisdom will be reflected in the prevailing values within certain community groups. These values become the hold of certain groups of people who would normally become an integral part of life that can be observed through their daily attitudes and behaviors.

D. The Values of Bugis Makassar Culture

Community approval of a concept, belief, idea, and views that result in attitude and will, that is the cultural system that guides their behavior or becomes characteristic of a person. In general, culture is none other than the ways of humans as social beings who used to manage life and its environment. The knowledge that gained from the culture becomes the foundation framework to encourage the manifestation of behavior. The behavior that formed together in social institutions will finally materialize the work of material and non-material (Hamid, 2006).

The values elements of the culture are closely related to the culture norms elements. Culture concept that is expressed by Rapoport in Beddu (2014), in relation to the establishment of the built environment that, to see the cultural values specifically, beside the lifestyle of the people, also look at the image, pattern, and sense that is understood by the society which then can be materialized in the form of certain agreed norms or rules.

Sikki (1991, p.31) the role of Makassar literature that recorded in lontarak is a reflection of the mindset and behavior of the people of Makassar since centuries ago. Although this literature is just one aspect of Makassar cultures, this literature is able to provide a general and intact description of the character, personality, and all aspects of life as well as living within the scope of the culture. It can be read in various lontarak such as rappang, pappasang, ulu kana, and kelong.

Abdulah (1985, p.17) proposes the Bugis Makassar community value system in the concept of siri, pace and pangadereng supported by elements that build human moral life, namely (1) ade or custom; (2) rapang or legislation; (3) wari or rule of difference of rank of nationality; (4) bicara or speech and speak; (5) sara.

Siri ', for the Bugis-Makassar people is himself, is the man himself, something very fundamental in their life order. Siri 'is the soul of Bugis-Makassar man. The concept of tau tena tokdok pulina among the people of Makassar, such a person who is not worthy of being mandated or trusted (tau tena nakatappak or takkulle nitakgalak ulu kananna); untrusted, similar with Makassar expression punna tau kananna nitagalak, which means man's world held. Therefore, Makassar people who do not have tokdok puli culture means people who are considered tau siri'na 'people who do not have shame'. In the concept of Makassar culture that such a person is not a perfect man (Sikki, 1991, p.62).

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Type of Research

This is a Research and Development research (R & D) used 4-D Thiagarajan development model, in order to develop the teaching materials of drama appreciation based on Bugis-Makassar local wisdom. The products developed based on findings, conduct field trials in accordance with the setting on which the product is used, and revise field tests (Setyosari, 2010, p.194).

B. Research Design

The process of Research and Development (R & D) takes place cyclically, through the following stages: (1) define or trace the topics that will be constructed or reconstructed; (2) the design of teaching materials from the findings that have been achieved; (3) the development of teaching materials that have been developed at the research site and the product that will be used (4) distribution is the stage of the use of teaching materials that have been developed.

C. Research Instruments

The instruments in this study were: (1) validation of teaching materials, (2) observation sheets, (3) student response questionnaires, and (4) student's mastery test on the subject matter.

D. Technique of Data Analysis

The data obtained by using the instruments then analyzed quantitatively to answer the question "does the learning device meet the valid, practical and effective? The data obtained from the validation results of experts and practitioners are analyzed to answer the question "whether the material is valid or not?" While the data obtained by conducting trials analyzed to answer the question "whether the material is practical and effective or not?"

III. THE RESULT OF THE RESEARCH

In this section, the researchers describe the results of the research in the design form and the analysis results of validity, practicality, and effectiveness of teaching materials appreciation of drama based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom Bugis Makassar at the University of Muhammadiyah Makassar. The results of the research data analysis are described as follows.

1. The description of data analysis results of the teaching materials prevalence of products and study of drama appreciation based on local wisdom of Bugis Makassar

The data's validity of teaching materials product of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom is obtained from validation result of the material expert. Validation is done used questionnaire which contained various criteria of validity product of teaching materials of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom.

The result of the data analysis of material expert validation shows that the average value is $M = 3.54$, it can be concluded that this value belongs to the category of "Very Valid". So, reviewed from the whole aspect, the learning materials product of drama appreciation based on the local wisdom of Bugis Makassar is stated to meet the criteria of validity.

2. The result of data analysis description of the practical teaching material products study drama based on appreciation of Bugis Makassar local wisdom

The practical data of teaching materials product of drama appreciation based on the local wisdom of Bugis Makassar obtained from observation of the general teaching material from two observers.

Generally, based on the data analysis result of the implementation of teaching materials product of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom, the total average value obtained is $M = 2$, it can be concluded that this value belongs to the category "fully implemented". So, reviewed from the whole aspect, the learning materials of the drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom is stated to meet the criteria of implementation.

3. The results of data analysis description of the effectiveness of teaching materials product assessment of drama based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom

The data of the effectiveness of teaching materials product on drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom aimed at the achievement of individual and classical learning outcomes. A success student in learning is if she/he gets a minimum score of 75. The Learning is a success in a classical manner if at least 85% of students achieve a minimum score of 75.

Generally, the achievement of individual and classical learning results indicates that the number of students who complete the study or who achieve the completeness of individuals is students who scored 75 to 96 as many as 34 people from 37 students or about 91.89%. So the number of students who have not completed, namely students who get a score of 0-74, as many as 3 people from 37 students or about 8.10%. This data shows that the maximum completeness has fulfilled that is 91.89% of students who scored 75 and above. Based on the criteria the effectiveness of teaching materials product, the appreciation of dramas based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom can be concluded that in the experiment, learning tools have been effective because they meet 4 indicators of effectiveness including indicators of learning outcomes.

The results obtained above indicated that in the conducted experiments, the learning material product of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom has met the criteria of validity, practicality, and effectiveness.

IV. DISCUSSION

The product produced in this research is the learning materials of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom that has fulfilled the criteria of validity, practicality, and effectiveness through the stages: (1) define or trace the topics that will be constructed or reconstructed; (2) the design of teaching materials from the findings that have been achieved; (3) the development of teaching materials that have been developed at the research site and the product that will be used (4) distribution is the stage of the use of teaching materials that have been developed.

This section discusses the results of this research that include the results of data analysis of validity, practicality, and effectiveness of teaching materials product of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom which has been developed. The discussion is presented as follows,

1. The validity of teaching materials product of drama appreciation based on local wisdom of Bugis Makassar

The result of data analysis of material expert validation shows that the average value is $M = 3.54$, it can be concluded that this value belongs to the category of "Very Valid". So, reviewed from the whole aspect, the product of learning materials of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom is stated to meet the criteria of validity.

The assessment results from the experts and practitioners in education field showed that the product of drama appreciation's review as learning material based on Buginese Makassar local wisdom whereas the problems had been reviewed from the whole aspects was stated as valid, although there were several suggestions to be considered for the completeness of the developing tools.

2. Practicality of teaching materials product of drama appreciation based on local wisdom of Bugis Makassar

Based on the results of data analysis in the implementation of teaching materials product of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom, the total average value obtained is $M = 2$, it can be concluded that this value belongs to the category "fully implemented" (). So, reviewed from the whole aspect, the product of learning materials of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom is stated to meet the criteria of implementation.

3. The effectiveness of teaching materials product of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom

The achievement of individual and classical learning results indicates that the number of students who complete the study or who achieve the completeness of individuals is students who scored 75 to 96 as many as 34 people from 37 students or about 91.89%. So the number of students who have not completed, namely students who get a score of 0 - 74, as many as 3 people from 37 students or about 8.10%. This data shows that the maximum completeness has fulfilled that is 91.89% of students who scored 75 and above. Based on the criteria the effectiveness of teaching materials product, the appreciation of dramas based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom can be concluded that in the experiment, learning tools have been effective because they meet 4 indicators of effectiveness including indicators of learning outcomes.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on data analysis and discussion of research result of research development materials of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom, it can be concluded the result of this research, that is:

The teaching materials product of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom is stated very validly because the average validity of the validation result of the material expert is $M = 3.54$ which is in the category of "Very Valid".

The learning materials product of drama appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom is practicable because the average value obtained is $M = 2$, it can be concluded that the value belongs to the category "fully implemented".

Based on the criteria the effectiveness of teaching materials product, the study of wisdom appreciation based on Bugis Makassar local wisdom is declared effective because the data shows that the maximum completeness that has fulfilled is 91.89% of students who get score 75 and above.

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On Translation Strategies of English Movie Titles

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Abstract—Movie titles are films' eyes, having double effect of art appreciation and commercial advertisement, and directly playing the role of guidance and promotion. Good film names could convey the films' content as well as arouse audience's interest to get great box. With the continuous development of international cultural exchanges, film begins to get the attention of every nation increasingly as an important media in cultural exchange. With the opening of the Chinese market, we have more and more English movies. The Chinese audiences need to understand the movie titles before they enjoy the movies. But due to different cultural traditions, contexts, customs and thinking modes between the western and eastern world, the choices of their film names embodies distinctive cultural features. Movie titles convey the story to the audience to attract them. This requires the translation of movie titles to be accurate and embody the commercial values. This paper analyzes the translation strategies of English movie titles and explores a new strategy according to previous research results and research methods. This paper introduces the definition of translation strategies and some features of English movie titles and functions. Then it describes the principles of English movie titles translation and points out the translation strategies of English film titles. It is hoped that the context can help people to realize the necessity of proper translation of English movie titles, and accordingly promote the development of films in international market.

Index Terms—English movie titles, translation strategies, definition, features

I. INTRODUCTION

Movie is not only an art but also merchandise. The Chinese market is becoming more and more open, and there are an increasing number of English films. The Chinese audiences have to understand the film titles before they watch the movies. Movie titles express the main idea to the audience to draw their attention. This requires the translation of movie titles to be precise and reflect the economic values. After the analysis of the traits and functions of film names, this paper studied the translation skills and the translation tenets of the English film name. The film name is a necessary part of the movie. A beautiful title can make an influence on adding the finishing touch, appealing to audience and giving the viewers enough food for the soul. Movie titles often not only reflect the main idea of movies but also attract the audience with concise and unfamiliar form. With the frequent interaction between the Chinese and foreign cultures, an increasing number of English movies have entered into the market of China. The film name is the first thing through which the viewers can know about the movie, so the translation of English film titles is very important. A perfect translation of the title can express the main thought of the movie and attract the audience's desire of going to the movie. This paper will introduce the translation tenets and strategies of English film title based on an analysis of the traits and roles of English movie names. Translating such simple film title is seemed as an easy thing, but it is not easy to translate well. Being graceful in style and affluent in emotion could not only appeal to the audience but also be pregnant, and it makes people think deep as an art. Hence, when translating the movie name, firstly we should get the main idea and form of the movie, and then we have to know the principles, master the skills and see through the expression. However, academic atmosphere is very dreary and disputes are always united in the movie title translation research. Many academic articles only handle film names translation in detailed skills, for instance, literal translation, free translation and transliteration. However, they ignore the influences of culture and its versatility in film name translation. Moreover, there is also a lack in the exploration in the translation process and valuation. Thus, this thesis probes into the movie title translation, and puts in more strategies on top of the movie title translation theories. And it's ultimate purpose is bringing normalization and diversification into the English film names translation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter two mainly introduces translation and the translation strategies of English movie titles, and describes the research situation at home and abroad.

A. *The Brief Introduction to Translation*

Translation is taking a language into another language, and make sure the article is smooth. Translation is a process that using a familiar way to express a strange definition.

B. *The Brief Introduction to Translation Strategies of English Movie Titles*

The translation of English film names is to make the audience better understand the title of the original film through the translator. Therefore, the basic role of English movie titles is to provide viewers with useful information contents.

The translation strategies of English movie titles include literal translation, free translation and transliteration. It hopes that it can make an effective translation for the audience. The title can play a translation role in guiding the process of translation. The translator needs to be communicated to a certain extent and improve the respect for the original title.

C. *The Research Situation at Home and Abroad*

In the past several years, enormous improvements have been achieved through generations of professors. But it is far from satisfying because of the job's sophistication. It is not rare to see that different versions of names of the same film arouse annoying confusion to the public. For the sake of reaching this purpose, many ways have been employed to direct the movie name translation. But none of them has won superiority in this competition, this study really wishes can provide some help to later research.

Since there are few foreign talents master Chinese language and can flexibly apply it into the Chinese movie title translation, at present, the majority of the Chinese movie titles translation are translated by the domestic translation scholars. The foreign movie name translation is also completed by the domestic scholars. The foreign scholars study on the Chinese movie name translation is slightly less. In China, the movie title Translation studies formally started in the 1990s. The Chinese scholar He (2001) states the movie title translation should follow four principles of information, culture, aesthetic, commercial value. Her research mentions four most important factors should be taken in to consideration in the film title translation. Jin (2001) analysis the skills of Chinese movie title translation. In this paper, on this basis of the extensive collection of original English film title translation, he analyses and classifies English film title translation principles, methods and standards for the further discussion. These researches in focus on the movie title translation skills, methods and the factors should be taken into account in the film title translation. Wang (2007) thinks translation is a language transformation based on the original content, it is restricted by the readers' demand, the translators' translation purpose and the target language culture. And the translation must be consistent with the original text in the content, form, style and function" (p.28). Their researches emphasize that the title translation should be faithful to the original content.

In conclusion, the common characteristic of these researchers is that the translation method and principle is too macroscopic and indistinct, and lack of the reference value and classification of the translation process. So this paper will take the basis of the film title characteristic and translation influence factors to put forward the targeted translation strategy in detail.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

This paper reference to former research findings and survey methods, analyze the translation strategies of English film names and find a new strategy, to provide the translation of English movie titles for a certain help. It includes research purpose and research methods and lists the content of this research.

A. *Research Purpose*

Films are getting more and more prevalent from last century. Among which, English films have a great many of audience at home. As a consequence, an elaborately-translated title would be essential to attract more people to watch the film. Translating the films' titles would be of vital importance to promote this cross-cultural communication. The main goal is provide some help to later research. When we employ the method of literal translation to translate some succinct and short English film names, the completed titles cannot introduce the story expressly and neatly and thus can not offer information and appeal to audience; more specifics have to be added to let them more exact.

B. *Research Methods*

Firstly, the research use the way of observation through mastery of content about topics, then use some data collection and collation to make the whole process of observation. Secondly, the survey uses the action research method, tries to translate all kinds of movies, which generalizes the problems. Then continue to explore and summarize, and aim to improve. Thirdly, the research use the literature method, through the classification of reading related literature (including audio, images, video, text and other symbols, with value and information value certain historical value, theoretical material), to draw general conclusions or find problems, find new ideas.

C. *Content of This Research*

As for content of this research, this thesis will firstly analyze the problems existing in English Film Title Translation, then describe the profile of English movie name and lastly put up with some kind of translation strategies of English movie translation. As for research approach, this paper will research the questions through analysis, description, and contrast. The resources are chiefly chosen from journals, books and the Internet. The English films chosen are either Oscar winners or well-known to Chinese audiences.

Through access to knowledge and documents and concerning majors, and according to their own knowledge and professional topics provided according to the thesis guidance teacher, the topic can determined. The essential content of the study will be elaborated. This article is divided into four chapters to introduce English movie titles translation strategies. The first chapter introduces the topic research with respect to the definition of translation strategies. The second chapter describes some features of English movie titles and functions. The third chapter introduces the principles

of English movie titles translation. The fourth chapter points out English movie names translation strategies. Finally it goes on a summary. The main goal is provided some help to later research. Culture is an important element we ought to attach importance to in translation. Some English film titles include some culture which will make the audience completely confounded, some English film titles involve some English idioms and proverbs and sometimes there is no equal word to the English titles, or on some other cases, the folk adages in English film names may discover the Chinese idiom equivalence. We translator can make a bridge for them and offer the audience a better title. We can borrow and vary from the ancient Chinese culture. The poems, some renowned phrases, and some fictions are all we can employ.

IV. THE RESEARCH INTO SOME RELATED ISSUES

This part will introduce some characteristics of English movie titles, such as brevity quality, cultural quality, artistic quality and commercial quality. And lists some functions of them.

A. *The Characteristics of English Movie Titles*

The features of English film names make the film better. These characteristics embody the movie's main contents.

1. **Brevity Quality**

Movie titles are normally short and concise to be noticeable for people. English film names always involve just one or two key words. Many of them are brief and short. The names are brief and compact, but they bear real weight. The titles sum up the main idea of the film and the viewers can readily get the idea of the movie. *Gladiator* introduces a tale of a Roman general, and he was forced to be a gladiator, then he fights for his liberty and belief. *Return to Me*, this is a romantic love story, mainly introduce the misunderstanding between a couple, and in the end they make peace and become reconciled.

And because the intended addresses of film titles are the general public, the language ought to be fashionable and extensive. Many figure of speech, for instance, simile, metaphor and Oxymoron are used in the movie name to make them live. Therefore, they can grab the audience's attention, draw their curiosity and cause their operation. The whole features of the English film names will be approached from linguistic, artistic, cultural and economic respects as follows.

In a general way, English movie names are short, brief and succinct. A great many of movie titles use only one word, and they are always be nouns. They may be the main figure, the place or the time when the story takes place. For instance, *Speed*, *Mummy*, *Titanic* and so on. Beyond that, phrases are always very popular in the movie names. A lot of these are noun phrases, verb phrases and prepositional phrases.

2. **Cultural Quality**

The definition of culture is needful for translators. Translators ought to be bilingualism and be bicultural as well. Translation ideologists, anthropologists have given definitions about culture in accordance with different emphasis laid on different aspects of culture. Language is a portion of culture. The film as a part of culture, it inevitably reflects their personal characteristic. When translating the name of a film, we need to understand all kinds of languages and cultural settings.

One more thing should be pointed out is that in translation, it includes two types of culture. One is called Culture with a big C, and the other is named culture with a small c. The former refers to the culture that the text as a whole reflects or entails. This kind of culture roots in the cultural entity of some society. The later is the cultural elements that imply in different levels of language. In this paper, cultural elements refer to the second one-culture with a small c. Therefore, emphasis will be put on the cultural elements that entail in language.

The notion of culture is very extensive and complicated. Movie is a supporter of culture, too, which makes the movie names ought to have a specific cultural exchange function. If you can not know a special cultural background, you may not be able to understand the theme which the movie title expresses. The film *seven*, it describes the seven catholic cultures. If you do not know about the culture of foreigners, it is difficult to get the theme of this movie only from the title.

3. **Artistic Quality**

The film is an art, and to have a purpose of well satisfying the audience's tastes, movie titles commonly possess the art features. Movie titles can attain its art features through a rational use of the trope. Whether the names have art features will affect the audience's estimation about the film. Using the art form to perform the image of the initial text, emotive and art beauty of language, it will bring the beauty of the production to the viewers.

4. **Commercial Quality**

The film title has to appeal to the audience and then earn much money. So the names ought to offer the viewers suspension, illusion and aesthetic emotion in order to trigger their appetite of going to movies. Movie is a variety of commodity, which means that it has great commercial nature. In the same way, the film titles have artistic quality, it is economic, too. Movie is merchandise. There is a title *I Know What You Did Last Summer*, people want to know what they did last summer. The film has made a great process because this name made a substantial contribution.

B. *The Functions of English Movie Titles*

Through the British translator Peter Newmark's (1982) idea, there are six functions of language. It includes expressive function, informative function, vocative function, aesthetic function, phatic function and metalingual function. The film name is a work of the translator's diligence; it can highly sum up the main idea of the film and deeply trigger the audience's appetite of going to movies. So this paper will detail the next three functions, which contains informative function, vocative function and aesthetic function.

1. Informative Function

The informative function means that film titles conclude the information about the idea of the film to the audience and make them understand the movie and the opinion better. The informative function is a primary function of film names and it is the most important function. The title *Forrest Gump* will tell a story about a person named Forrest Gump. *Pearl Harbor* will tell the audience that this is the old history and people will know that the story takes place in Pearl Harbor and it is related to World War II.

2. Vocative Function

We heard that everyone is curious, if we see something strange and fresh, we will feel excited. And we will take pleasure in learning and readily be affected. The vocative function is just to affect the audience's sentiments and improve their interests. And make the film to appeal to the audience and express the main thought of the film.

3. Aesthetic Function

Aesthetic function in order to emerge from the original text, the translation should emphasize restraint, and know about the deep content of the article. The translator should use the artist's ingenuity to treat the original film, to make a new artistic creation and bring audience enjoyment from the title. The aesthetic feeling is a primary element that attracts audience to decide whether they will go to a movie or not. The aesthetic function always happens in the romantic movies. Some titles of the traditional films have turned into the synonym of romantic, for example, *Casablanca*, *Sleepless in Seattle*. Emphasizing the exact words, it aims to realize the aesthetic value. It should be the choice of both the beautiful words and vivid expression. And the meaning must be creative.

V. THE ANALYSIS OF TRANSLATION STRATEGIES OF ENGLISH MOVIE TITLES

This chapter presents four principles of translation of English movie titles including faithful value, aesthetic value, commercial value and artistic value. The translation strategies are important to the translation of English movie titles. It puts forward four types of translation strategies of English movie titles through analyzing some English movies in this part.

A. The Principles of Translation of English Movie Titles

There are four principles of translation of English movie titles including faithful value, aesthetic value, commercial value and artistic value.

1. Faithful Value

Faithful is the most basic standard of translation of film names. Not only the language, but the cultural knowledge and the functional characteristics should be faithful. This is the best translation of film names. Faithfulness means that the language should obey the initial word; the translator must complete the contents of the original movie accurately without any wrong change, distortion, omissions, deletions, or any phenomenon castration. It means that the express ought to be loyal. Translation is a process that reflects the style of the initial film through a deeper understanding. And after thinking the meaning of the initial film name, unmistakably grasp the whole movie connotation. The movie name must straightaway, compliant, translated. It must be intelligible in modern linguistic, there should not be dead-by-word translation, hard translation, language obscure, and the phenomenon of barrier, structural confusion and the unclear logic.

2. Aesthetic Value

Language as an art, besides those contents in translation, it also should pay attention to the construct of the text and the graceful, beautiful, generous of the language. It should really make a kind of beauty for audience to enjoy.

Both the form and the content of this paper embody the aesthetic value of English movie. Formally speaking, foreigners employing brief beauty language, while the Chinese attach importance to symmetrical and friendly language, especially those have strong performance, well-proportioned four-character musical phrases. The audience accustomed to the words, which has rich cultural style and linked meanings and enriched the connotation of titles. Such translations is romantic, attract the mind of the viewers. Therefore, the translation of movie titles should be able to highlight the beauty of the language on harmony.

3. Commercial Value

Movie is a kind of culture, and it is an economic artwork, the commercial factors need to be considered in the translation of the titles. This requires the translator to grasp the features of the target language culture and aesthetic temperament and interest and to cause its psychological identity, inspire aesthetic pleasure and desire to watch. The film contains much art form. It contains play, music and literature. It is a special point as a categorized mass culture. That is to say, it needs the audiences' consumption. So the translation of film names, naturally have a business color. With the great development of the movie field in recent years, the movie is not only merchandise, also owed to the culture communication. The introduction of western films, peculiarly the English films, brings the exotic culture to the Chinese

audience. But in the meantime, the film is also a type of business product, and it isn't used for collection, it is used to show. The lack of audience of the film was a failure. Title actually like a salesman in advance of the movie, and the main task of him is to communicate with his potential consumer and to persuade them to consume. Of course, with what method is depending on the type of subject and the way used by translators. As a commercial film, you need to bring the audience a strong call for effect. The purpose of film titles is to highlight the content of the film and the audience, to improve the box office. Obviously, in the translation of movie names, translators should be based on the ultimate goal of film titles to select the appropriate translation methods.

4. Focus on the Art of Title

Translation will be regarded as an artwork, and the film is an art. A perfect translation must be a beautiful artistic task. Sample *The Bridge of Madison County*, this translation is considered as one of the best translated names. Firstly, it is a four-character utterance, which attract the viewers. Secondly, the figures in the title involve many senses. Alliteration and rhyme often appear in The English film names, resulting in a repeat of pronunciation and in order to product effect of art.

B. The Types of Translation Strategies of English Movie Titles

The translation strategies are important to the translation of English movie titles. Fan(1994) said "Translation can basically adopt literal translation, free translation, translation, literal translation, annotation and other methods, but it really takes a lot of effort to express it well" (p.75). There are four types of translation strategies of English movie titles in this part.

1. Literal Translation

The so-called literal translation is to point to keep the original text, and keep the original form in translation when conditions permit, particularly to maintain the original metaphor, image and local contents. The purpose of English movie title translation is to show the main idea of the film. If the film name suits the novel closely, literal translation is the best method to employ. The particularity of different nations has universality. In general, whatever peoples' race, color, nationality, their feelings are, their moral standard is same. They are parts of different folks, but their views of things are same in many ways. Most of the English film names are composed of some nouns or verb phrases and sum up the primary thought of the film, literal translation is suited in this case, because literal translation can not only keep the main story of the title, but also the language construction of the initial title.

The film title translation in general is divided into two kinds of circumstances. One kind of circumstance is the word order should be same. The other is to replace the initial word order. Some translations can be completely copied according to the English film titles. Generally speaking, the translated titles ought not to be sounding uncomfortable or unnatural and are capable of describing the story as same as the original English titles. These titles are readily received and remembered by the audience. For instance, *the Human Stain*, *Wild Orchid*, *Roman Holidays* and *Dancing with Wolves*. Film titles are mostly strong representational, live and brief. If the translator uses the literal translation, it can use the same expression to express the same meanings; also can make the equal influence.

2. Free Translation

Although the literal translation's effect is good, not all of the title is fit for literal translation. Due to differences in language and culture between east and west, some titles must adopt free translation strategy. The translation of the American film *Gone with the Wind* is using the method of the free translation. The novel *Gone with the Wind* belongs to the literal translation, the translation is loyal to the initial text, and this translation is fine. The difference between free translation and literal translation centralism manifests in the expression. In reality, a lot of titles involve many cultural meanings. Literal translation is difficult in reflecting the essence of the movie, the translators ought to analyze and understand the content, style, plot and even style to carried out the title on the basis of the creative process. In this way, it can show the traits of the original title, and realize its cultural, aesthetic, and economic value.

Because the national value orientation between east and west, there are many different aesthetic psychologies, cultural background, etc. in some cases, if the title is literal translation, may lose their true sense of the original name, may even produce some wrong associations, affecting film image in the mind of the audience. In this case, free translation, can be used to highlight the characteristics of the film, to inspire the audience's desire to appreciate the movies.

3. Transliteration

Transliteration is a way that translates an English movie title into another language according to the pronunciation. There are a number of English movies regard hero name or location as the title. This kind of title translation usually means transliteration. If the name has been known by the audience or has important historical value, or better able to convey the exotic amorous feelings, this method is employed. And if the foreign text language and cultural differences can bring the audience into foreign situation, this method is also used. For example, *Jane Eyre*, *Tess*, *Chicago*, *Romeo and Juliet*, *Harry Potter* and so on. Of course, not every western person, place names, historical stories are using this way. That is to say, there are some names of the title audiences are not familiar with or they do not make sense directly or they are easy to misleading, or they will be took ambiguous to the audience, these titles are what we should avoid, such as, *Forrest Gump* doesn't make any works, not to leave any impression to the audience if the title were his name, while its familiar translation *Forrest Gump* is much more interesting and reminiscent of classics of Lu Xun's the true story of *Ah Q*.

4. Other Translation Strategies

As person names, place names used in the title, the translator should first transliterate the familiar names, then add the appropriate word to the films, this method can better reflect the meaning of the film. Some titles, although will be translated on the foundation of the denotation, translation is still not very perfect. Then can use literal translation and free translation, namely, the translator could translate the title on the basis of the original appropriate adjustments and according to the raw content and style to add words or delete words, in order to make a better effect. Another method is compilation. As the famous American translation theorist Nida (1993) said “it is to make the best and most standard translation, and the translation should be equivalent with the initial title. And the functional equivalence is to make the target language viewers have a same feeling as the source language viewers in accept the story information”(p.83). The last method is the expansion of the translation. Some English film titles need to be increased some words in the translation to explain formerly. In order to achieve the fidelity of the initial movie, and consider the audience of the target language habits, this approach is the inflation of the translation.

VI. CONCLUSION

Movie plays an important role both in people’s daily lives and international economy. In short, film name translation is a very difficult work. As merchandise and an art, movie will still be well received by people. With the opening of the film market, there are an increasing number of chances to watch English films. Sun (2002) thinks “translation is a type of language symbols into another language symbols, it is a create activities”(p.69). Due to the different characteristics of the source language and target language and the cultural imparities of all ethnic groups, the title from one language into another language is not easy, but a re-creation. Wang (1998) argues “English film subtitle translation should achieve the state should be as far as possible to maintain the original film style, so that the domestic audience to experience English of the original cultural connotation and artistic heritage” (p.27). Movie title is the first thing that audience can obtain the primary idea through and it has four staple features. Brief and concentrated, cultural, artistic quality and commercial. And it has three functions. It includes informative, vocative and aesthetic. Different kinds of film names decide different translation strategies. After analyzing the features, functions of the film names, translators can use transliteration, literal translation, and free translation to give audience the best translation. In the translation of the name of the film, the translator must handle source language and target language and find the differences between the source language and the target language and national culture. The translator also should require the aesthetics ability of a film and their sensitivity to cross-cultural communication. It is supposed that using the appropriate translation skills to retain their cultural characteristics, try their best to give the people the ideal translation of film titles to appreciate.

During the translation of English movie titles, for the purpose of making an equal effect, the translator ought to always be well remembered principles of faithfulness, cultural awareness, combination of merchant and aesthetic quality, and artistic quality, employing appropriate translation strategies to attain suitable expressions, and to give the audience most correct information and help them appreciate the films. Translation is a bridge of intercultural exchange; it is not a language translation, but a cultural translation. So in the course of translation, the translator should not only master the denotation of the word, but also know about the cultural significance it expresses. For commercial, the translators have to offer a noticeable movie title to attract the viewers.

English movie name translation is a complex work, to make a good name, the translator should have strong language foundation of basic knowledge, the strong cultural background information and translation exercise. Translators should spare no effort to the title translation practice to find the regularity, the advantages and the disadvantages, then apply it to the English movie name translation, then make the translation of English film titles be better.

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Language Function Used in ELT Textbook Focused on Medical Conversation

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Abstract—The study of language in use has become a crucial issue in every branch of study, such as medical, politics, economics, etc. In doing the interaction for those purposes people use language. The theme of this research is language in use in medical conversation, the data taken from the midwifery conversation of some textbooks of English language teaching for midwifery. This study tries to reveal the language in use in midwifery conversation. On the basis of this research, the question rises as: What kind of language functions used in midwifery conversation? In order to answer this question the theories of language in use proposed by some experts such as Leech (1974), Cook (1994) and Halliday (1985) used as references in this study. However the formulation of language in use redesigned based on the general guidelines in giving the counseling to the patient found in three ELT textbooks mostly used in Indonesian universities especially for midwifery students, this research also presents the occurrence of macro and micro language functions, moreover this research reveals the language in use both in English and Indonesian, thus it helps the teachers in stressing every point of language in use, so that they can easy to teach the expressions and the grammar which can be used in the conversation both in English and Indonesian.

Index Terms—language function, language in use, midwifery

I. INTRODUCTION

Verbal or nonverbal languages have the same functions, namely as means of communication from the speaker to the listener, so that the idea, meaning and purpose of the speaker can be transferred to the listener. The study of language in use helps the people to know and understand the functions of expression or utterance that can be used in doing the interaction.

In doing the interaction people must have language competence, for Indonesian student improving language competence especially English competence is very important, since it is as foreign language. In learning English for Indonesian student, there are some purposes, namely for general purposes they can study general English, academic purposes they can study English for academic purposes, for example if they want to study in different country, and the third is English for specific purposes or ESP namely studying English for specific profession, such as doctor, midwife, accountant, etc.

This research focuses on the language functions used in midwifery conversation. The language in use itself is categorized into macro and micro. Cook (1994) explained the macro function can be divided into interactive, informative, directive, etc (p.37). While micro function can be classified into 'greeting', 'introducing', 'asking', etc. However based on the conversation in the counseling between midwife and patient, those theory need to redesigned, thus it can be applied in doing the practice. So that the problems are formulated as follows:

- a) How is the formulation of language in use for the counseling between midwifery and the patient?
- b) What expression can be used based on the formulation?

This paper used the general guideline in formulating the language function used in the counseling between midwifery and patient, the guideline generally ranges from welcoming the patient to the visit conclusion. In details Widaniningsih (2011) described as follows: (1) welcoming the client; (2) Fill the admission form; (3) Asking the pregnancy story; (4) Asking the past pregnancy; (5) Health story; (6) Socio economic; (7) Physical examination; (8) Health education; (9) Labour preparation; (10) Visit conclusion (p.101). By using those guidelines the macro and micro language functions can be formulated, and the expressions can be made, thus this research helps the teachers to stress every point of language in use and they can easy to teach the expressions and grammar both in English and Indonesian.

II. METHODOLOGY

The study based on a corpus of three English language teaching textbooks published in Indonesia, those books used generally by the midwifery university students in Indonesia. Those books in detail as follows:

TABLE 1
TEXTBOOKS USED IN THE ANALYSIS

Textbook	Publisher	Year of Publication
English for Midwives Practical Guidance for Antenatal Care	Penerbit Buku Kedokteran EGC	2011
Midwifery English Practical English for Midwifery Student	Pustaka Rihana	2014
Midwifery English Practical English for Midwifery Student	Rohima Press	2014

Informal surveys were conducted among university teachers of general English. They were asked whether a particular book was used to teach midwifery conversation at their universities. In Indonesia, some universities have classes especially for English speaking instruction, some may combine speaking and listening. Those three books used in teaching conversation and grammar in Indonesia.

Once the textbooks had been identified and collected, they were examined for information about language in use. The theory proposed by the experts were redesigned based on the finding namely expressions used in the counseling between midwife and the patient. The formulation of language in use is categorized into macro function and micro function. The expressions were categorized based on both of the functions. The expressions are both in English and Indonesian presented in this research.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This section presents and discusses the findings in relation to the research questions. We start with the general procedures used in the counseling between midwife and the patient. The textbooks (table 1) shows, there are general procedures used here are the procedures:

- (1). Welcome the client
- (2) Fill the Admission Form
- (3) Asking the Pregnancy Story
- (4) Asking the Past Pregnancy
- (5) Health Story
- (6) Socio Economic
- (7) Physical Examination
- (8) Health Education
- (9) Labour Preparation
- (10) Visit conclusion


Based on the collected data the formulation of language functions which designed by the experts cannot be fully applied, thus the formulation are redesigned. Cook (1994) formulated the language function into macro and micro functions. There are two kinds of language functions which similar to the formulation which designed by the experts, namely **informative** function which is similar to the **informational** function proposed by Leech (1994), it is used to deliver the information. There are also macro functions which have not been mentioned by the experts, in this research called as **interactive interpersonal**, which is as an expansion of interpersonal function proposed by Halliday (1973). The next function is called as **permissive**, it is used by the midwife when examining the patient, and the midwife uses the polite form of sentences in giving command to the patient. Furthermore, **communicative** function is used in greeting, asking the purpose of the patient. The last is called **impressive** function, used when the midwife finishes examining the patient, saying thank you in closing the examination can be used as the example for this function. Thus in this article there are six of macro functions used in analyzing language in use in giving service to the patient. The following discussions present those functions in detail.

TABLE 2
LANGUAGE IN USE FOR WELCOMING PATIENT IN ENGLISH AND INDONESIAN

Macro Function	Micro Function	Expressions in English and Indonesian
Communicative	Greeting (in English) Menyapa (in Indonesian)	Good morning, how may I help you? Selamat pagi, ada yang bisa saya bantu? (Indonesian) (Widaningsih, 2011)
Permissive	Giving an order (in English) Menyuruh (in Indonesian)	Please would you like to sit down? Silahkan duduk (Indonesian) (Widaningsih, 2011)
Informative	Asking for information (in English) Menanyakan (in Indonesian) Confirming (in English) Memastikan (in Indonesian)	Is this your first time for you to come here? Apakah ini pertama kalinya anda datang kemari? If it is so. I will fill in your card first Apabila iya. saya akan mengisi registrasi (Widaningsih, 2011)

Based on table (2) above, the macro functions used in welcoming the patient are communicative, directive and informative. While the micro functions are greeting, ordering, asking information and confirming. Occasionally, some textbooks used in this study offer information by arranging linguistic expressions how to say greeting according to degree of formality, as illustrated in Extract I below:

EXTRACT I.
ADAPTED FROM MIDWIFERY ENGLISH PRACTICAL ENGLISH FOR MIDWIFERY STUDENT

<p>Formal Informal</p> 	Greetings
	Good Morning, how may I help you? (English)
	Selamat pagi, ada yang bisa saya bantu? (Indonesian)
	Hello, Mrs Anita. How are you? (English)
	Hallo, Nyonya Anita. Apa kabar? (Indonesian)
Hi, how are you doing? (English)	
Hai, bagaimana kabar? (Indonesian)	

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the difference in using formal and informal expressions is affected by social status, social distance. However, most students do not know the reason in using those expressions. So that the teacher must explain the factors influencing the formality of various expressions, thus the student can posit themselves on the right position. In English we can greet people formally by saying “good morning”, “good afternoon” or “good evening”, while “hello” or “hi” can be less formal. So that in Indonesian we can greet people formally by saying “selamat pagi” in the morning, “selamat siang” in the afternoon” and “selamat malam” in the evening, while “hallo” or hai can be less formal. In Indonesian “hallo” or “hai” can be used when we greet friends.

TABLE 3
LANGUAGE IN USE IN FILLING THE ADMISSION FORM

Macro Function	Micro Function	Expression in English and Indonesian
Permissive	Asking (in English) Meminta (in Indonesian)	May I have your ID card? Bolehkah saya meminta kartu identitas anda? (Widaningsih, 2011)
Informative	Confirming (in English) Memastikan (in Indonesian)	According to your ID card, your name is Thalia, right? Menurut kartu identitas anda, nama anda Thalia, bukan? (Widaningsih, 2011)
Impressive	Saying thanks (in English) Berterimakasih (in Indonesian)	Thank you Terimakasih (Widaningsih, 2011)

Based on table (3) above, the macro functions used in welcoming the patient are permissive, informative, and impressive. While the micro functions are asking, confirming, and saying thanks. In asking the ID card of the patient both the English and Indonesian expressions are in polite form. The midwife tend to use “May I have?” or “Bolehkah saya?”, rather than direct command such as “give me your ID card!” or “serahkan kartu identitas anda!”. In forming a polite sentence for asking something in Indonesian may use *boleh* + *kah* (bound morpheme) + *saya* (subject) or in English can be *may* (modal) + *I* (subject). In Indonesian, it has the similar way in confirming the information the tag question can also be used, for example “menurut kartu identitas anda, nama anda Thalia, bukan?” the word “bukan” aims at confirming information.

TABLE 4
LANGUAGE IN USE IN ASKING THE PREGNANCY STORY

Macro Function	Micro Function	Expression in English and Indonesian
Informative	Asking for Information (in English) Menanyakan (in Indonesian)	-When did you feel the first fetal movement? Kapankah pertama kalinya anda merasakan pergerakan pada janin anda? (Widaningsih, 2011)
Interactive interpersonal	Giving suggestion (in English) Menyarankan (in Indonesian)	Good, to avoid nausea, before you get up from bed, it will be better you take sweet warm tea and a biscuit Bagus, untuk menghindari mual sebelum anda bangun dari tempat tidur, sebaiknya anda minum teh hangat dan biscuit (Widaningsih, 2011)

Based on table (4) above, the macro functions used in ELT textbooks for asking the pregnancy story are informative, and interactive interpersonal. While the micro functions are asking for information, and giving suggestion. In giving suggestion in English, we can say *it will be better*, so it is in Indonesian we can say *sebaiknya* or *ada baiknya*.

TABLE 5
LANGUAGE IN USE FOR ASKING THE PAST PREGNANCY

Macro Function	Micro Function	Expression in English and Indonesian
Informative	Asking for information (in English) Menanyakan (in Indonesian) Asking for information (in English) Menanyakan (in Indonesian)	-In your last pregnancy, did you feel nausea, vomiting and may be bleeding? Pada kehamilan sebelumnya, apakah anda merasakan mual, muntah atau perdarahan? how about your last delivery, was it spontaneously or did you need caesarean section? Bagaimanakah persalinan anda pada kehamilan sebelumnya, apakah spontan atau Caesar? (Widaningsih, 2011)

Table (5) above shows, the macro function used in the ELT textbooks for asking the pregnancy story is informative. While the micro functions is asking for information. In asking for information about the past pregnancy, we can use *did you feel....? How about....? Or in Indonesian can be apakah anda merasa...? Bagaimanakah dengan...?* So In Indonesian question word *apa + kah* (bound morpheme)+ *anda* (object) + *merasa* (verb).

TABLE 6
LANGUAGE IN USE IN ASKING HEALTH HISTORY

Macro Function	Micro Function	Expression in English and Indonesian
Informative	Asking for information (in English) Menanyakan (in Indonesian)	-have you ever been seriously ill? Apakah anda pernah sakit yang serius? -is there any problem about passing urine or defecation? Apakah anda mengalami masalah pada saat buang air kecil dan buang air besar (Widaningsih, 2011)
Interactive interpersonal	Relaxing (in English) Menenangkan (in Indonesian)	Passing urine is often caused by the pressure of baby's head to the bladder. But it is a physiological effect. So you need not to worry about it, just take it easy or relax Buang air kecil disebabkan oleh tekanan dari kepala bayi ke kandung kemih. Akan tetapi, hal tersebut adalah efek psikologis. Jadi, anda tidak usah khawatir tentang itu, tenanglah (Widaningsih, 2011)
Impressive	Saying thanks (in English) Berterima kasih (in Indonesian)	Thank you for your explanation Terimakasih atas penjelasannya (Widaningsih, 2011)

Table (6) above shows, the macro functions used in the ELT textbooks in asking health story are informative, interactive interpersonal and impressive. While the micro functions are asking for information, relaxing and saying thanks. It is important to make the patient relax during the pregnancy period, in this case the midwife can give explanation and say *don't worry* or in Indonesian can be *jangan khawatir*. or *tenanglah*. It is very important to make the patient relax in order to avoid their stress during the pregnancy.

TABLE 7
LANGUAGE IN USE IN ASKING SOCIO ECONOMIC

Macro Function	Micro Function	Expression in English and Indonesian
Informative	Asking for Information (in English) Menanyakan (in Indonesian) Asking for Information (in English) Menanyakan (in Indonesian)	-during this pregnancy, what kind of food do you take for meal? Selama kehamilan ini makanan apa saja yang anda konsumsi? What are your activities at home? Apa saja kegiatan anda di rumah? (Widaningsih, 2011)
Interactive interpersonal	Giving Suggestion (in English) Menyarankan (in Indonesian)	-Potato/cereal, animal protein, vegetable protein, vegetables and fruit. It is very good and it will be better when you add some milk. Kentang/sereal, protein hewani, protein nabati, sayuran dan buah. Makanan tersebut sangatlah baik dan akan sangat baik apabila ditambahkan dengan susu (Widaningsih, 2011)

Based on table (7) above, the macro functions used in asking the socio economic are informative, and interactive interpersonal. While the micro functions are asking for information, and giving suggestion. Another expressions in

giving suggestion in Indonesian are *sangatlah baik mengkonsumsi* (it is very good to consume...) or *akan sangat baik mengkonsumsi* (it will be better to consume...) in English it is said *it will be better* as it is shown on table (7).

TABLE 8
LANGUAGE IN USE IN PHYSICAL EXAMINATION

Macro Function	Micro Function	Expression in English and Indonesian
Informative	Asking for information (in English) Menanyakan (in Indonesian)	Is your hair thinning? Apakah rambut anda menipis? (Widaningsih, 2011)
Permissive	Giving an order (in English) Menyuruh (in Indonesian)	Now I'd like to check your eyes condition conjunctive and sclera. Excuse me, look up, look down. Thank you. Sekarang saya akan memeriksa kondisi mata anda konjungtiva dan sclera. Permisi lihat ke atas, lihat ke bawah. Terima kasih. (Widaningsih, 2011)
Impressive	Saying thanks (in English) Berterima kasih (in Indonesian)	Thank you Terimakasih (Widaningsih, 2011)
Interactive interpersonal	Giving Suggestion (in English) Menyarankan (in Indonesian)	You should not take a bath with cool water or drink cool water and eat cool foods that come out from refrigerator Sebaiknya anda mandi tidak dengan air dingin ataupun minum air dingin dan makan makanan yang dingin yang baru saja dikeluarkan dari lemari es (Widaningsih, 2011)

Based on table (8) above, the macro functions used in physical examination are informative, permissive, impressive and interactive interpersonal. While the micro functions are asking for information, ordering, saying thanks and giving suggestion. In giving a direct order, the midwife can make the sentence more polite by saying *excuse me*, or *can you.....?* or in Indonesian it can be *permisi....or bisakah anda.....?* rather than direct command such as "lie down on the bed now!" or in Indonesian "berbaring sekarang!". The midwife can choose the polite form to make the patient relax and comfortable during the examination.

TABLE 9
LANGUAGE IN USE IN GIVING HEALTH EDUCATION

Macro Function	Micro Function	Expression in English and Indonesian
Informative	Asking for Information (in English) Menanyakan (in Indonesian)	Could you tell me how many times do you take a bath? Bolehkah saya tahu berapa kalikah anda mandi dalam sehari? (Widaningsih, 2011)
Interactive interpersonal	Giving Suggestion (in English) Menyarankan (in Indonesian)	During pregnancy, usually you get perspiration or sweat so it will be better for you if you take a bath more than once Selama kehamilan, tentunya anda lebih banyak berkeringat, akan lebih baik apabila anda mandi lebih dari satu kali dalam sehari (Widaningsih, 2011)

Based on table (9) above, the macro functions used in asking giving health education are informative, and interactive interpersonal. While the micro functions are asking for information, and giving suggestion. In giving suggestion it can be *it will be better for you if you...or* in Indonesian *akan lebih baik apabila.....*In asking for information the polite form can be used such as *could you tell me how....?* Or in Indonesian *bolehkah saya tahu....?* In this case avoid of using direct command such as "tell me how many times you take a bath" or in Indonesian "beritahukan kepada saya berapa kali anda mandi".

TABLE 10
LANGUAGE IN USE IN ASKING LABOUR PREPARATION

Macro Function	Micro Function	Expression in English and Indonesian
Informative	Asking for Information (in English) Menanyakan (in Indonesian)	What is your preparation for your delivery? Persiapan apakah yang anda lakukan untuk persalinan anda? (Widaningsih, 2011)

Based on table (10) above, the macro functions used in asking the pregnancy story are informative, and interactive interpersonal. While the micro functions are asking for information, and giving suggestion. In asking preparation for delivery, the midwife can use *what is your preparation....?* Or in Indonesian *persiapan apakah...?* Rather than giving direct command you must go to.....!

TABLE 11
LANGUAGE IN USE IN GIVING VISIT CONCLUSION

Macro Function	Micro Function	Expression in English and Indonesian
Interactive interpersonal	Giving Suggestion (in English) Menyarankan (in Indonesian)	It will be better if you check your pregnancy regularly, and the next coming is on the 5 th of August Lebih baik anda memeriksa kehamilan anda secara teratur, dan pemeriksaan selanjutnya adalah tanggal 5 Agustus (Widaningsih, 2011)

Based on table (11) above, the macro functions used in asking the pregnancy story are informative, and interactive interpersonal. While the micro functions are asking for information, and giving suggestion. In giving visit conclusion the point is giving suggestion, thus the expression *it will be better....*or in Indonesian *lebih baik.....*can be stressed by the teacher in teaching this point.

The occurrence of macro and micro functions can be seen on the tables as in below:

TABLE 12
THE OCCURRENCE OF MACRO FUNCTIONS

Macro Functions	The Occurrence of Macro Functions (Times)
Communicative	1
Informative	9
Impressive	3
Interactive Interpersonal	6
Permissive	3

TABLE 13
THE OCCURRENCE OF MICRO FUNCTIONS

Micro Function	The Occurrence of Micro Functions (Times)
Greeting	1
Giving an order	2
Asking for information	8
Confirming	2
Asking	1
Saying Thanks	2
Giving Suggestion	5
Relaxing	1

The occurrence of macro and micro functions can give contribution to the teachers and textbooks writers. The occurrence can help the teacher to reduce the gap between the student need and what the ELT textbooks offer for the learners. Teachers should be aware of this condition and by seeing and understanding the macro and micro in using the language, the teacher can find out the effective ways to raise the students' competence in using the expressions, formality, social status, social distance, and politeness. Moreover, teacher can see what function that mostly used in the counseling between midwife and patient, it is shown (table 13) asking information and giving suggestion to the patient has the high frequency in the counseling, teacher can give explanation about the grammar, the polite form that can be used in asking information and giving suggestion more intensively, the polite form is important to be suggested to the students, in order to make the patient feel relax and comfortable during the counseling. However, much time and effort are needed for teacher to find more information on linguistics midwifery study. The busy live of ELT teachers will make this condition not always be possible, especially in Indonesia where the teacher have busy schedules and large classes. Therefore, it is important for the textbooks writers to offer well-designed textbooks that present more examples of expressions such as in the real practice.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

ELT textbooks often present expressions without explanation about the functions. Even if there is no illustration for student when some expressions and what for the expressions are used. This research has tried to reveal the benefit of introducing language in use in the field of medical linguistics. The formulations of language in use in the conversation between midwife and patient help the teacher to determine and develop the material in teaching speaking especially conversation for the midwifery student both in English and in Indonesian. The occurrence of micro functions (see table 13) will be very beneficial in studying the English for midwife, in this case the teacher can give the material in terms of how to greet the patient, how to give command(in polite form), how to ask information, how to confirm, how to ask patient to do something, how to say thanks, how to give suggestion and how to make the patient relax during the counseling, the teacher can give some choices of sentences, explain the grammar and so on. Without knowing the language functions, the teacher will face difficulties to select the appropriate dialog which contain different functions, since the dialog on the textbooks does not focus on the need of the student speaking activity. ELT textbooks provide some outcomes, however in doing the speaking practice for student the material has to be expanded. In addition, it has been acknowledged that there is lack of research exploring difficulties of language in used which focused on medical study especially midwifery. So that, future language functions research is needed to enrich the language functions knowledge especially on medical subject.

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Operationalising the Concept of Mediation in L2 Teacher Education

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Abstract—This study aims to operationalise the mediation concept on L2 teacher education. Sixty-two EFL teachers at Isfahan high schools were selected, a 30-item questionnaire was employed, and T-test and one-way ANOVA were used. The findings revealed mediation roles of the teacher educators were instructional while integrative and participative roles were not attended. Teacher educators presented knowledge, skills, and experiences in the forms of lectures and seminars with little attention to workshops and panel discussions. BA holders showed positive perception towards mediation role of teacher educators while MA holders did not. The least experienced L2 teachers indicated the most positive attitude towards the mediation role of the teacher educators while the most experienced L2 teachers showed the least positive attitude. The findings presented L2 teachers a deep insight of the mediation concept, teacher educators a better picture of possible flaws of their role, and policy makers to amend related drawbacks.

Index Terms—mediation role, mediation tools, teacher educators, L2 teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

L2 teacher education incorporating pre-service training courses and in-service development programmes plays a significant role in teacher preparation and classroom presentation. To materialise the role, education policy-makers, teacher educators, and school administrators attempt to outline pedagogy-oriented conventions to turn L2 teachers into more competent professionals. Since it is teacher education that determines to what extent an individual L2 teacher survives in teaching profession as well as functioning effectively in the teaching practice, such education is offered, observed, and assessed in line with the quality consequences. To do so, L2 teachers should not function in isolation, but need to mingle with colleagues, peers and others in a career-directed network. They also need to collaborate and mingle with stakeholders inside and outside school including the members of parent-teacher associations, the members of local councils, researchers, academics, and particularly teacher educators. Such cooperation bears immense benefits for teachers' personal and professional development.

Studies such as Murphy, Scantlebury, & Milne (2015); Peacock (2009); Turuk (2008); Daniels (2008); Yu (2004); Daniels (2001); Nyikos and Hashimoto (1997); Vygotsky (1986); and Vygotsky (1978) sustain all types of teaching-learning loops to involve a kind of cooperation tied with mediation. The notion of mediation in cognitive development and in teaching and learning interaction initially signifies the role of language as a mediator. As such, language plays a mediational role to assist the learners to reach more competent level. However, the mediation concept has been developed and reinforced by psychologists, theorists, academics, and researchers in self-directed and hyphenated branches of science.

Language as a third party in teaching and learning is a representational device acting as a mediator as it drives human speakers to mediate between their minds and the outside world when they acquire and learn a language (Guerrero, 2007). According to Vygotsky (1962), "direct teaching of concepts is impossible and fruitless. A teacher who tries to do this usually accomplishes nothing but empty verbalism, a parrot-like repetition of words by the child, simulating a knowledge of the corresponding concepts but actually covering up a vacuum" (p. 83). In other words, it is the language that plays a mediational role between what we think and what we learn as inner speech.

Language learner and what he should learn is mediated by the instructor familiarising the learner with new concepts and assisting the learner to involve in the learned material to accommodate it. Vygotsky's notion in education paves the way for teachers and teacher educators to function more interactive, profound, and tangible as a mediator between the knowledge and skills as learnable materials and the students as the learning individuals (Lentof, 2000).

Peers as mediators interact, mediate, and help each other to explore knowledge and practice skills in L1. However, L2 learning can be more facilitated and internalised through "peering" (Guerrero (2007) that is signified as a considerable agent in mediating function in language learning. Villamil and Guerrero (1996) conducted a longitudinal

study to examine the extent to which peers in the circle of language learners worked together in both writing and speaking processes. The result indicates that the role of peers in assisting language learners is more meaningful than teachers in learners' success if the mingling time is prolonged.

Technology as a mediator is projected in the literature review as it indicates the state of art to the group of studies relevant to the mediation role of technology in learning particularly those that have considered and applied computer as a "mediation tool" (Guerrero, 2007) between those who acquire or learn a language and second or foreign language. The theoretical notion and practical role of technology such as computer and other high-tech gadgets in language teaching and learning started from the middle of the 20th century "when they were used to replicate the behaviourist approach to teaching" (ibid). As the methods of teaching and learning, particularly in language domain, started to follow the track of change, learning through interaction among learners and other relevant figures such as peers and parents increased. Through using the multimedia software, learners' interest in study is developed, their communication capacity is promoted, teaching effect is improved, interaction between learner and instructor is enhanced, a context for language teaching is created, and flexibility to course content is provided (Shyamlee and Phil, 2012). Currently, high-tech means of interaction such as Internet, email exchange, chats, distance learning, etc. encourage both groups of learners and teachers to apply Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) and Computer-assisted language teaching (CALT) in language contexts and language-oriented settings almost all around the world.

Teacher educator as a mediator approximate to the role of teacher. A teacher acts as a mediator between professional knowledge and skills that he attains in teacher education programmes and what he practices in the classroom context. This teaching-learning loop continues when teacher educator as a mediator finds his position between what he achieves through formal acquired knowledge, skills and experience and the teachers who participate in programmes to learn such teaching stuff. The mediation seems more prominent concerning teacher educators and teachers among the stakeholders involved in L2 context when they find their position highly significant pursuing the educational policy makers and preceding the language learners. As such, teacher educators and teachers interact more in a highly scrutinising state so that they engage a bilateral role by which they act as go-betweens in acquiring theoretical and practical premises in some modules and offering them to the learners.

The concept of mediation has been developed to a great extent by distinguished scholars such as Engin (2014), Alsaadi and Mahdi (2013), Xiongyong (2012), Turuk (2008), Mason (2000), Lave and Wenger (1991), and Rogoff (1990), who consider mediated learning beyond a unique phenomenon to children or school students but as an integral part of formal and informal adult learning throughout the world. In this view, learning, whether by children, students or adults, is not an isolated act of cognition, but rather a process of interaction via mediation through which learners learn as other participants such as teachers and peers assist them to learn.

From this point, the role of teacher educator as mediator figures and accordingly the role of teacher education colleges, programmes, and courses as mediator tools are deemed considered. Teacher education colleges mediate to transfer planned materials from education policy-makers to teacher educators. Teacher education programmes act as means to offer the predetermined modules to participant teachers. Teacher education courses specify the teachers' immediate needs and categorise the assigned materials to put in practical presentations meeting teachers' needs. Given such apparent recurring loop in teaching and learning a language, the mediation principle seems more prominent concerning L2 teaching and learning context. In particular, the long process of teaching and learning does not take place in EFL context without mutual interaction via mediational means. As Warschauer (2012) states, those who have been considered highly distinguished figures in any community are those who have learnt their aptitude, knowledge and skills apprenticed into certain social practices through mediation. It signifies that the prosperous language learners, no matter whether they are teachers or learners, should be involved in the loop of teaching, mediating, and learning where they realise the concept of mediation and its subtle qualities.

Mediation concept in teacher education fields- teacher training and teacher development- offers profound insight into the teaching and learning responsibilities, broadens the horizon of involved figures, and assists teachers to deal with quality initiation, continuation and termination of any task in the classroom. According to Vethamani and Kabilan (2008), the survival of teaching profession in both second and foreign language contexts are highly dependent on realisation of such concept of mediation through which learning new theories, knowledge and skills, teaching learners at various levels, testing learners over a range of taught and potential textbook materials, evaluating learners' academic achievements would be facilitated and resulted in satisfactory conclusions both in learning and teaching theories, knowledge and skills on teachers side and learning and applying language on learners side. Figure 1 presents the concept of mediation for teacher education in L2 context as interactional trend with subjects-oriented components, administration agents, and recipients of offered services. The multilateral interaction between and among the facets are strongly recommended for an optimal process of learning and teaching carried out by teachers and consequently learning and pertaining by learners.

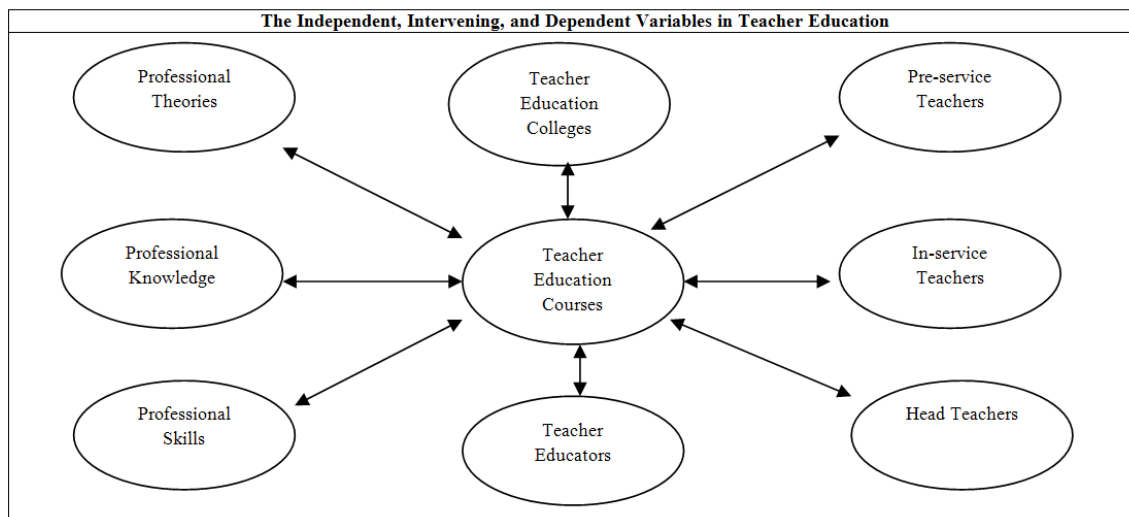


Figure 1: The Concept of Mediation for Teacher Education: L2 Context

Through various kinds of mediations, learning in almost all fields is facilitated, conceptualized and internalized. However, the studies conducted to teacher education have indicated the lack of interaction and mediation between and among L2 teacher educators and L2 teachers. It has led to insufficient internalisation and the application of offered materials in classroom contexts (Fang, 2008, Mirhassani & Beh-afarin, 2004).

As Rogoff (1990) and Van Huizen, Van Oers, and Wubbles (2005) assert, Vygotskian view indicates the main goal of the teacher education programmes is to enhance and qualify a professional identity that is developed through guided social participation. When teachers are mere listeners and observers, the teaching and learning in teacher education programmes seem pointless and fail to direct the process of acquisition and hinder further development of professional knowledge and skills.

In teacher education programmes, the priority for prospective teacher is to be a professional teacher and for present teacher is to be a more competent teacher as the ideal forms for which the programmes should be combined with an explicit attention to teachers' personal ideas and motives needed to for a quality teacher. Such combination addresses a process of development among prospective and present teachers. However, since the presentation of educators within teacher education programmes is not mutual and teachers are not mingled enough with the teacher educators, teachers' knowledge and knowledge presented in the classroom are critically evaluated. The results indicate that the knowledge and skills presented in the classroom are not conceptualised, not personalised and not appropriated on the side of teachers (Azadi, 2014, Anarisarab & Mobasheri, 2009). However, in teacher education programmes, teachers' requirements to follow-up personal choices are not met due to pre-organised and pre-planned workshops. L2 teachers conceptualise, personalise, and appropriate the presented materials through the various forms of interaction with educators and enhance their knowledge and skills through the educators' mediation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The focus of relevant literature has been mainly placed on the cognitive properties of mediation both in teaching profession and learning progression considering child and L1 acquisition. However, there has taken a twist towards the role of mediation in L2 teacher education. The researchers have taken the zone of proximal development (ZPD) progression into consideration as the proving ground for the multiple interactions for quality teaching and learning. They come up with the idea that teachers should move from the "zone of actual development (ZAD)" (Shabani, 2012); which does not sufficiently involve in the development. It just reflects what is already developed or achieved since it engages the learner in what has been by now acquired and does not consider what should subsequently be learnt. In contrast, it is ZPD in which the level of assisted performance and the potentiality for permanent development are highlighted. Having involved in movement from ZAD to ZPD, teachers go through "cognitive change, experience internalization, and mental development via artefacts and collaboration peers or mentors resting on the concept of mediation" (ibid).

A. Theoretical Perspective

Socio-cultural school of thought proffered by Vygotsky (1962; 1978) has potentially impacted on psychology and education in general and on the conceptualization of language acquisition and teacher-learner interaction in particular. Various perspectives such as Bakhtinian, Language Socialization, and Critical Theory consider mediation a part in learning process; however, it is Vygotskian perspective that has paid special attention to the role of mediation and regarded it as the core part of perspective. Mediation along with the premise of social learning constitutes the major concepts of socio-cultural theory to shed light on all human activity that is mediated by person, tools or signs (Wertsch

1991). For Vygotsky, the integration of mediational means not only facilitates learning, but also stabilizes the entire flow and structure of mental functions (Vygotsky 1981). Hence, development in learning principally takes place through a form of mediated apprenticeship with the interaction of student and teachers or student and peers which leads students to advance level through his ZPD.

In short, Vygostkey’s socio-cultural views on language teaching and learning provide the explanation of the socio-cultural conditions that include achievement processes and mediation processes. Through achievement processes, pedagogy can enhance both teaching and learning that lead to language development and through mediation processes teacher educators and teachers imply new acquired knowledge, skills, and strategies by means of interaction to support learners to reach the further stages (Yu, 2004). In other words, learning and experiencing in collaboration with teacher educators and more capable teachers make L2 teachers take the instructions and use them to organize their independent performance and to handle their own classroom in an efficient approach.

There are factors interwoven to push a teaching profession towards sound application of theories and techniques in the classroom. Figure 2 indicates a mediation model for teacher education in L2 context with contributory factors and the factorial interaction.

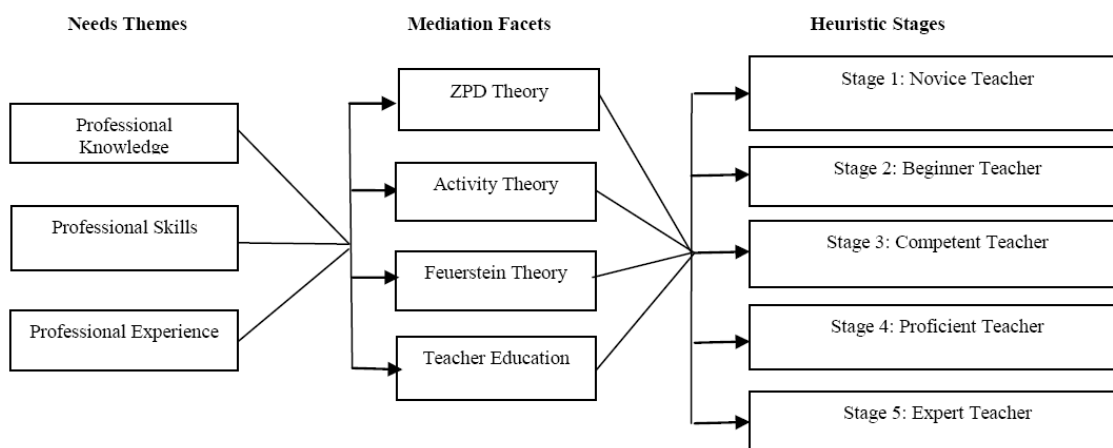


Figure 2: A Mediation Model for Teacher Education: L2 Context

The fundamental needs to meet in L2 teaching and learning for which educational policy makers, teacher educators, school administrators, and teachers should collaborate are of L2 teachers’ professional knowledge, professional skills and professional experience required for classroom code of conduct (Azadi, 2014). It is worth mentioning that L2 teachers’ professional knowledge as a principle that is theory-specific, L2 teachers’ professional skills as a package that is practice-bound and L2 teachers’ professional experience as a share ground that is a body of collaborative know-how should be targeted in teacher preparation and teacher development programmes as the focal assertions to pursue in the same scale and with the same weight.

In order to meet the needs of L2 teachers, both pre-service and in-service, concerned figures should consider certain features to enable them to offer the required bits and pieces in the programmes with efficient outcomes. These facets are some theories and premises to employ to fulfil the terms of the programmes. In L2 context, ZPD as a learning space between the current state of teaching knowledge including conceptual and professional knowledge and skills and prospective stage of knowledge to be acquired through the interactive relationship with others (Blanton et al., 2005).

Activity theory developed by Lantolf (2000) suggests that learning as an activity motivated by a need which might be either social or biological. Therefore, learner should go through certain activities which are goal directed and are accomplished under certain social conditions. In the theory, an active role has been outlined for the learners through which he should attempt to know activities and to stay active pursuant to his objectives and accordingly lead the activities towards proper purposes. Through Feuerstein’s Theory of Structural Cognitive Modifiability (SCM), a child or even an adult has great chance of positive change and development through mediation. It is even suggested to move beyond mediation of specific external behaviours but to keep internal durable and meaningful changes in cognition which impact the learners’ competence (Seng, 2003). The five-stage heuristic model of teacher training and development by Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) focuses on the intuition and tacit knowledge or ‘knowing how’ and argues against the conscious operation or ‘knowing that’ in learning teaching profession. A teacher relies on his/her personal perception and proficiency rather than a set of rules about how to operate new activities. The model consists of five stages from novice to expert teacher to explain the skills of acquisition.

B. Studies on Mediation

Previous studies focus on socio-cultural theory and the concept of mediation in education from different perspectives. Xiongyong (2012) raises concerns about EFL teachers’ knowledge of mediation at secondary school. The study targets at teachers’ cognition of mediation and hypothesises that mediation is ignored by most EFL teachers at secondary school which makes teachers stay away from the mediation role in language setting. However, this study tends to pay

the way for teachers, teacher educators, educational policy designers, and curriculum developers to apply teaching theories and teaching practices in more meaningful and more profound conduct regarding mediation in teaching and learning English language.

Vygotskian perspective leading to socio-cultural theory that focuses on the interaction in learning between teachers and students or more competent others was well employed by Engin (2014). The study defines scaffolding at the level of interaction as micro-scaffolding, and mentions its support in learning as macro-scaffolding. Targeting pre-service English teacher training context, this study explores macro-scaffolding. Findings of the study indicate that both micro and macro level aspects of teaching are affected. At micro level, practical scaffolding acts and deeds that should be implemented in case-by-case outline; and at macro level, better understanding among the teachers of theoretical features in teacher education that are research based are taken into close consideration (Engin, 2014).

Co-teaching for the school-placement element of pre-service teacher education is the focal scope of the study. The study by Murphy, Scantlebury, and Milne (2015) demonstrates positive impacts of co-teaching on “lessening classroom anxiety, supporting inquiry-based science teaching, improving students’ attitudes, and addressing diversity effectively in classrooms”. Pre-service and in-service teachers minimise the obvious gap between theory and practice through co-teaching as reflective practice and pedagogical content knowledge are enhanced (ibid).

The theory of Feuerstein is taken into consideration by Seng (2003) and the attention is paid to the importance of human mediation as the key to the psychological development of learners in social interactions as well as pedagogy. Mediation is emphasized as it brings about the adaptability of the learner in a form of holistic approach. Through the use of theory, teachers act as (i) facilitators of the learning of heuristics, (ii) mediators of knowledge sources (iii) mediators of lifelong learning and (iv) designers of the learning environment.

Alsaadi and Mahdi (2003) find out the effect of the mediator on scaffolding fourth year student-teachers’ teaching competencies and their self-efficacy. The study uses a mediator on scaffolding students affecting teaching competencies and self-efficacy from which the existence of student-teachers’ self-awareness is ensured.

Scaffolding used in the classroom to improve student level in primary schools is a focus of some studies. However, although scaffolding plays a key role in teacher education, pre-service teachers may involve in the actual position and application of scaffolding techniques particularly when it has something to do with bilateral and practical applications in the classroom setting. In this regard, Verenikina and Chinnappan (2012) examine the scaffolding notion and application among pre-service teachers. Based on the outcome of their study, scaffolding is highly considered as a proper substitute for traditional and conventional forms of language teaching. Accordingly, it can be concluded that scaffolding positively affects teaching and learning at elementary and intermediate levels. Nevertheless, when it has to involve in theoretical and complex aspects of teaching, there still exist studies indicating uncertainty and dissatisfaction among teachers and researchers.

Socio-cultural Theory is used as an appropriate theory for the ESL classroom because it consists of cultural approach in addition to an educational approach. According to Lee (2015), “the theory has been beneficial for adult learners because it involves social interaction, cultural involvement, and all components of the teaching environment”. The paper discusses learner’s experience and reflection of teaching English as a second language (ESL) to adult learners through applying mediation on the side of teachers.

A study conducted by Mason (2000) considers the role of teachers with respect to mediating to knowledge. It indicates two roles for a teacher; on the one hand teacher acts restricted part of a facilitator and on the other hand teacher acts as a “critical mediators of knowledge” (ibid). According to the study, the position of teachers mediating the knowledge is rooted in the long philosophical discussions about knowledge and truth. Teacher position as a socio-cultural critic, “analogous to the role of art critics, is developed from debates around knowledge, values, and the politics of curriculum design. These two roles are synthesised into teachers as critical mediators of knowledge” (ibid).

Given socio-cultural theory to support learning including L2 acquisition, Turuk (2008) considers the theory as a “semiotic process” placing emphasis on the requirement of attendance in the socially mediated activities. Teaching is tapped required to acquire and develop both foreign and second language considering ZPD to assist the learners to achieve the satisfactory level of attainment in language learning. The study observes learning in both foreign and second language contexts that can better be learnt, attained, and internalised through the collaborative and mediated attempts in a close supportive milieu in which learner should try to learn language beyond isolated individual’s effort.

Shabani, Khatib and Ebadi (2010) examine the instructional implications of Vygotsky’s seminal notion of ZPD and the role of it in enhancing teaching profession. The study is conducted to test the role and function of some aspects of language teaching based on socio-cultural theory such as “diary writing, peer and mentor collaboration, action research, practicum and TESOL discourse” (ibid). The study also tends to define ZPD role, to offer scaffolding concept, and to pay close attention to the related issues resulted from ZPD and scaffolding premises. It further indicates that ZPD within the framework of dynamic assessment (DA) presents a better perspective regarding the levels of achievement and retention of language in L2 context. This study highlights the limitations of the metaphor of scaffolding in interpreting the ZPD.

Considering the findings of conducted studies and putting the concepts of mediation and social practices together lead us to a wide range of interpretation related to the significance of particular mediators in the practice of learning for various materials and professions with a focus on how learners and teachers cooperate to construct knowledge and skills

(Wertsch and Bivens 1992). In this perspective, the significance of teacher trainers and teacher educators is not that they provide information and analyze theories in teacher education agenda for both pre and in-service teachers; they should truly act not only as mediators to offer teaching materials in theory, but also as mediators to assist teachers to conceptualize and utilize the novel and developed materials within the classroom in practice. Teacher trainers and teacher educators or independent variables act as “mediating devices” to promote teachers knowledge and skills as dependent variables. Accordingly, this study addresses the following three related research questions:

RQ1. What mediation role do L2 teacher educators act in the development of L2 teachers’ profession?

RQ2. How do L2 teacher educators mediate between teacher education programmes and L2 teachers?

RQ3. Is L2 teacher educators’ mediation appropriate for classroom application?

III. METHOD

The research method of this study is a survey to gather data to describe the nature of existing conditions of the teacher education programmes, existing role of L2 teacher educators, and determining the relationship between L2 teacher educators and L2 teachers within the programmes. Research strategy for data collection and data analysis associated with the research questions is a quantitative research with descriptive survey design. As a survey research, data gathered from respondents who were EFL teachers, using questionnaire composed of closed items in Likert scale with options of Strongly disagree (1), Disagree (2), Undecided (3), Agree (4), and Strongly agree (5).

A. Sampling

This study was conducted in city of Isfahan. Totally, 62 EFL teachers were randomly chosen from boys’ and girls’ high schools in five education districts. This study addressed EFL teachers - male and female- in the city of Isfahan who either serve in state or non-profit high schools. They hold either BA or MA degrees in ELT and have taken part in the teacher education programmes.

B. Procedure

First, the content validity of the questionnaire was judged by the TEFL experts and based on their recommendations; some items in the questionnaire were slightly modified. Then, a pilot study was conducted with 14 EFL teachers who were selected randomly in high schools across the city of Isfahan. Pursuant to their views on the ambiguities of the items, the negative terms were omitted from the face of the questionnaire. To follow the reliability of the research data, obtained data were fed into Social Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to get the alpha level. The overall internal reliability index for all items in the questionnaire is 0.88 that is considered acceptable in social science (Ary *et al.* 2002).

C. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were employed to summarize and describe the sample data. They showed the content number of the items, the number of teachers participating in the study, the mean difference for the presented views, and the standard deviation of the data. Then, T-test was employed to find the significant difference between the means of the EFL teachers’ view towards the role of teacher educators as mediators. Furthermore, frequency distribution and percentage proportion of EFL teachers in three experience groups towards the mediation premise were taken into consideration. To do so, one-way ANOVA was employed and the collected data were fed into SPSS to be analyzed pertaining to each variable in the study.

IV. RESULTS

T-Test was manipulated in order to investigate and compare differences between two group means. The group means for the participants referred to academic qualification meant B.A and M.A. The one-way ANOVA was manipulated to investigate and compare within-subject factors design. The within-subject factors were teaching experience of EFL teachers ranging in three groups: Low (1-10), Moderate (11-20), and High (Above 20).

Figure 4.1 represents that 67% of the L2 teachers perceive the mediation role of the teacher educators as instructional, 22% as participative and 11% as integrative resource. It can be stated that TEs attend the teacher education programmes principally to provide the L2 teacher with knowledge and skills to be applied in the classroom.

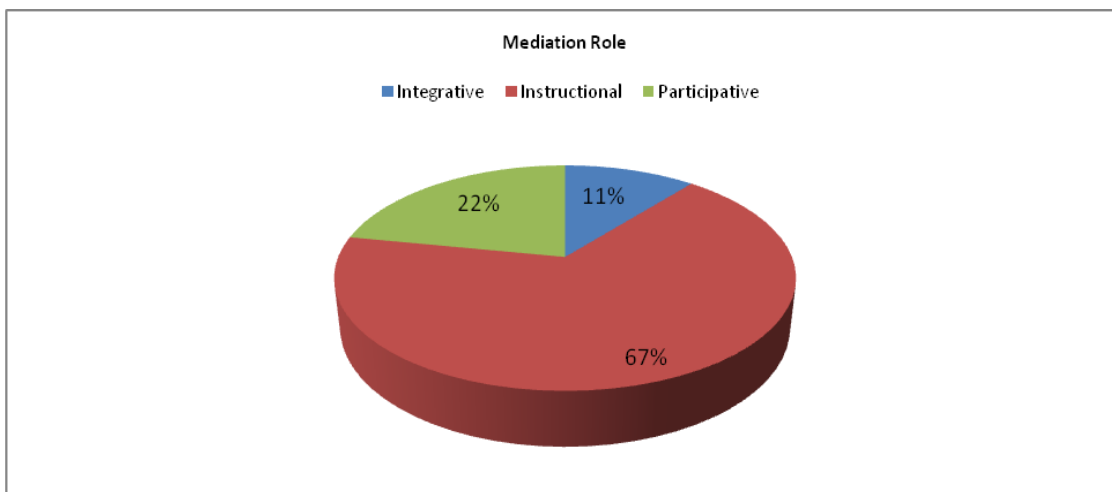


Figure 3 Mediation roles of TEs

Table 4.1 represents that 83% of the participants indicates that the mediation tools of teacher educators are lectures or seminars while 17% of the participants shows that the tools are collaborative workshops or panel discussions.

TABLE 1
MEDIATION TOOL OF TES

CATEGORIES		FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
VALID	LECTURE/SEMINAR	51	83.0	83.0	100.0
	WORKSHOP/DISCUSSION	11	17.0	17.0	17.0
TOTAL		62	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.2 provides means difference between two qualification groups of BA and MA and among three experience groups of teachers: Low, Moderate, and High. The scores were derived from the questionnaire sheets using Likert scale: Strongly disagree (1), Disagree (2), Undecided (3), Agree (4), and Strongly agree (5) to elicit L2 teachers’ perception towards the mediation role of the TEs. Some information about the variables, categories in groups, number of the participants, mean, and standard deviation is tabulated respectively.

TABLE 2
MEAN DIFFERENCE OF THE GROUPS

VARIABLES	CATEGORY	N	MEAN	STD. DEVIATION
QUALIFICATION	BA	49	3.98	.409
	MA	13	2.83	.405
EXPERIENCE	LOW (1-10)	12	4.02	.300
	MODERATE (11-20)	17	3.56	.310
	HIGH (ABOVE 20)	33	3.01	.405

According to the results of table 4.2, a significant difference was observed in relation to each pair of low, moderate, and high experienced EFL teachers in reference to their perceptions towards the mediation role of teacher educators. It shows that the BA holders bear the mean 3.98 which is considerably higher than MA holders’ mean that is 2.83. Regarding the experience of teachers and their perception of the mediation role of teacher educators, the results show that the highest mean is related to the first group with the least experience, the moderate one is related to the second group, and the lowest mean is related to the third group with the most experience.

V. DISCUSSION

L2 teachers are highly recommended to regularly attend the developmental programmes and take advantage from teacher educators’ knowledge, skills and experiences in a collaborative interaction (Vethamani and Kabilan, 2008). Realising the role of qualified and attuned teacher educators as mediators, L2 teachers enhance and reinforce teaching theories, classroom practice, matter-of-fact experience, and self-efficacy through interaction with the mediators. According to Nielsen et al. (2007), “attending the classes conducted by exemplary teachers and coaches and observe their teaching methods, strategies and techniques” causes to weigh up, amend, and develop teacher profession. This way of teacher learning makes language teachers cope with their theory-and-practice teaching problems.

In this study, EFL teachers were asked to give their opinions about the mediation role L2 teacher educators have in the development of L2 teachers’ profession, the way L2 teacher educators mediate between teacher education programmes and L2 teachers, and if L2 teacher educators’ mediation is appropriate for classroom application.

Based on the results of the study relevant to the first research question of the study, most respondents pointed out that the mediation role of the TEs is basically instructional. That is, TEs attend the programmes to teach materials to L2

teachers with no consideration of bilateral or collaborative interaction. It could be explained by the nature of the participation of the TEs which seems to be helpful source for presenting novel and productive materials especially to the least experienced and the youngest teachers. The study statistically revealed that the participants' expectations of the applications of the knowledge and skills in the real classroom context were met. Findings showed that integrative and participative roles were not considerably attended since majority participants statistically demonstrated that TEs failed to integrate with the teachers to discuss and tackle their teaching issues in more meaningful state. The participants also showed TEs failed to participate in direct group discussions expected by the teachers.

Considering the second research question, TEs offer the knowledge, skills, and experiences for the most part in the forms of lectures and seminars. These mediation tools may pave the way for EFL teachers to apply changes, particularly to teachers' knowledge and skills, so that the teachers can apply the changes productively in the classroom. Teacher showed that little attention is paid to collaborative sessions for reciprocal discussions over teachers' pedagogical issues. The study confirmed the teacher education programmes were held in the form of lectures and seminars in which the educators gave just speeches and teachers just listened to them and there was lack of effective workshops or panel discussions for direct participation of the participant teachers.

The third research question asked whether L2 teacher educators' mediation is appropriate for classroom application. The calculated mean for teachers holding BA shows that they are more in agreement with the role of TEs as mediators than the mean for MA holders. Additionally, teachers with the least experience in English language teaching indicated the most positive attitude towards the mediation role of the TEs while the teachers with the most experience showed the least positive attitude towards the mediation role of TEs.

The principles and theories forming the concept of mediation in L2 teaching/learning loop tend to facilitate the way pedagogical activities are presented, instructed, and evaluated. Mediation is supposed to provide the backbone of teacher education and subsequently classroom instruction. It can be inferred that the success of teacher preparation, classroom presentation and student education must strictly be rooted in the teacher education programmes and the role of teacher educators influencing the participants and the context in which the given materials should be implemented.

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A Study of Humor in Bone Regency: A Socio-pragmatic Review

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Abstract—The purpose of this study is to examine and describe the form, function, characteristics, and types of humor language style of Bone regency. This research was a qualitative research. The data were obtained from people in Bone regency whose conversation used the language style of humor. The data were collected by using observation and interview. The results of this study indicate that the humor language style of people in Bone regency tends to use the word excessively in expressing pleasure, anger, annoyance, and sympathy, and it serves as a tool of criticism to carry out all wishes and all the purpose of ideas or messages. In communicating, Bone people do not pay attention to forms of politeness in the language when they make sense of humor so that humor impressed a little bit impolite so that it tends to embarrass the interlocutors. It may also lower their self-esteem or injure and even sometimes insinuate.

Index Terms—language style, humor, socio-pragmatic review

I. INTRODUCTION

Humor is one of the activities favored by some people in Indonesia. The reason is not only because it serves as a means of entertainment, but also it can reveal the reality of life experienced every day. A sense of humor sometimes invites readers and listeners to understand the circumstances of society critically around them. Therefore, in addition to being an entertainer, humor is also a means of education because its presence can educate the public to be more responsive to see things that have been happened in the community. Humor can free people from the burden of anxiety, confusion, cruelty, and misery. Thus, humans can take important action to gain clarity of vision so that they can distinguish what is good and what is bad. With humor, humans can face the imbalance of society with jokes and laughter. Thus, humor can actually be used as a tool of psychotherapy (Wijana, 2004, p.4).

Stimulation of humor is in the form of a funny idea or problem and linguistic form that is deliberately shaped in such a way by the speakers that cause humor. The life of humor in Indonesia in the future is expected to continue to grow and remain popular because the culture of satirical (inaudible speaking) has been so deeply rooted in Indonesian society. In some societies, speaking frankly is seen as a habit that is not commendable, less civilized, impolite, and so forth. Meanwhile, the ability to convey something in the form of satire and the ability to understand and interpret is considered as a hallmark of wisdom.

Bone regency as one of the areas that have their language has its characteristics regarding the style of humor. Humor in the life of the people of Bone regency is almost the same as the language of humor in general. The language of humor is in the form of satire, ridicule, playing, and movement that led to laughter. Humor which is accompanied by a typical movement is more likely to cause laughter. The humor used by Bone society is very long-winded so that the conversation becomes very funny and very entertaining.

Previous researchers have largely researched on humor. One of them is a study conducted by Samsu Umar (2005) entitled "Humor in Gorontalo." In this study, the researcher discussed the type of humor, the use of humor and the function of humor in Gorontalo language. Another research was conducted by Salam (2007) entitled "Tolerant Language Humor." In this study, the researcher discussed the form of the use of humor in Tolaki language which is seen from the type of humor, the form of delivery of humor in Tolaki language and its function for the Tolaki community. In addition, Risna (2014) conducted a research entitled "Language Variation in a Collection of Short Fan Fiction Comedy." In this study, she discusses the characteristics of language variations used in short stories.

The three relevant previous studies above have similarities and differences with this current research. The similarities lie in the study of humor. The difference is that the research conducted by Samsu Umar is about humor, but it is in Gorontalo language, research conducted by Salam, entitled "Tolaki Humor" and research conducted by Risna is research of variation of humor language in short story, while this research is a study of humor in Bone Regency.

Humor

Humor can be used as an effective persuasive tool to influence the target audience (Hassan, 1995, p.17). It is due to the nature of humor itself that provoke laughter or smile, so the atmosphere becomes more relaxed and refreshing. Alice M. Isen states that humor that builds a refreshing feeling can help creating a positive mind in solving a problem. According to Supangkat cited by Hassan (1995, p.17) humor can build a creative sense to overcome a situation. Humor can be said to be a stimulus because it can lead to a laugh or smile response, whereas in response to humor it brings laughter. In addition, humor as a character shows that the sense of humor possessed by individuals is a personality trait. Every human being has a sense of humor, but the intensity is different.

In humor society, both erotic and social protest, serve as solace (Wijana, 2004, p.3). It is because humor can channel the inner tension that involves the imbalance of social norms that are relaxed through laughter. Laughter by listening to humor can maintain a balance of the soul and social unity in facing unforeseen circumstances. Cristopher P. Wilson in Wijana (2004, p.3) argues that humor not always aggressive and radical which is frustrating its aggressive goals and provoking change, as well as condemning the social system of society. Conversely, humor can be conservative with a tendency to maintain existing social systems and social structures. Until now studies on humor were mostly grounded in psychological theory which pivots on the concept of incongruity, conflict, and relief (Wijana, 2003, p.5). From a linguistic standpoint, misalignments and disagreements in humor occur because of the violation of pragmatic norms, both textually and interpersonally. Textually, the violation is conducted by deviation of the cooperative principle. Interpersonally, the violation was conducted with violation of politeness principle and pragmatic parameter (Wijana, 2003, p.6).

Language style

The style of language is unique in the world of literature or language. All the talks have characteristic in delivering the material discussed with others. It can cause the interlocutor happy, sad, angry, upset, and laugh. It is the greatness of a language style. Sudjiman (1998, p.13) states that language styles can be used in all kinds of languages, both verbal, literary, literary, and non-literature varieties since the language style are the way of using language in certain contexts by a particular person for a particular purpose. However, traditionally the language style has always been linked to literary texts, especially written literary texts. The language style includes diction or lexical choice, sentence structure, majesty and imagery, rhyme pattern, a dimension used by a literary man in his literary work. Jorgense and Phillips (in Ratna, 2009, p.84) state that the language style is not only a channel but also a tool that moves at the same time rearranging the social world itself.

Keraf (2008, p.112) defines the language style as the ability in writing skills or using a word beautifully. The language style of a person and someone else must be different based on the choice of words (diction) that is revealed. A language style is a rhetorical form of the use of words in speech and writing to convince or influence the listener and the reader. From some of the opinions mentioned above, it can be concluded that the notion of language style is a typical way of expressing thoughts and feelings in written or oral form.

Socio-pragmatics

Socio-pragmatics is a study of local condition that shows clearly that the cooperative principles and the politeness principle take place in varying cultures or different language societies, in different social situations, etc. In other words, socio-pragmatic is a pragmatic sociological frontier. Therefore, it is clear that the relationship between socio-pragmatic and sociology is very close (Tarigan, 2001, p.26).

The socio-pragmatic study according to Leech (1983, p.12-13) is "local" and special. In socio-pragmatic, cooperative principles and politeness principle act differently in different cultures, languages, social classes, and social situations.

Pragmatics and sociolinguistics are two branches of linguistics that arise as a result of dissatisfaction with the overly formal use of language by structuralists. In this connection, pragmatics and sociolinguistics have a different spotlight in viewing the weakness of the structuralist view (Wijana, 2004, p.6).

The fact that the form of language used varies based on social factors implicated in speech situations, such as gender, educational level, socioeconomic status of the speakers and so forth shows the reasons or objections raised by the structuralists in rejecting the existence of variations of language that cannot be accepted. In short, the concept of a homogeneous society of structuralisms is clearly on the contrary to the principle put forward by Wijana (2004, p.187-191), especially two principles below:

a. The principle of style shifting.

No language speakers have a single style, because every speaker uses multiple languages, and has mastered his usage. No speaker speaks the language precisely in different situations.

b. The principle of attention

The language barrel used by speakers varies depending on the amount of attention given to the spoken utterance. The more aware of a speaker to what is spoken the more formal also his utterance. (Wijana, 2004, p.6-8).

Based on some opinions above, it can be concluded that socio-pragmatic is the intermediary of sociology and pragmatic, and it is a detailed study that has the nature of local culture.

Pragmatics

Pragmatics is a branch of language that studies the structure of language externally that is how the language unit is used in communication (Ruhendi, 2001, p.2). Another opinion states that pragmatics is a branch of linguistics that examines the meaning of speech, whereas semantics is a branch of language that examines the meaning of sentences.

Pragmatic studies a sense in relation to the situation said (Leech, 2001, p.21). Furthermore, Levinson in Tarigan (2001, p.33) states that pragmatics is a study of the relationships between language and context that form the basis for a language comprehension record. In other words, it is a study of the language's ability to connect and to harmonize sentences and context appropriately.

In addition, Leech (in Oka, 1993, p.1), develops pragmatics with a broad understanding. Leech used the pragmatic notion in general as a study of the meaning in linguistics. Areas that include general pragmatics are pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic. Pragma-linguistic is a study of the meaning of language associated with grammar or linguistics itself, while socio-pragmatic is a study that studies the meaning associated with sociology. Pragmatics is a study that focuses on context-related meanings.

George's view (in Tarigan 1990, p.32) shows that pragmatics is a "branch of linguistics that examines the overall human behavior, especially in relation to signs and symbols. Pragmatics focuses on the way people behave in the whole situation of sign and receipt of signs ". Based on the above opinions, it can be concluded that pragmatics is a branch of language that studies the structure of language externally, that is related to how the language unit was used in communication.

II. METHODOLOGY

Types of research

This type of research was a qualitative research. Therefore, the preparation is designed based on the principle of a qualitative descriptive method. Data were collected based on observations and interviews. In this study, the collection of data was directly in the background or context of the occurrence.

Research design

This research was a descriptive qualitative research. According to Bogdan and Taylor (in Moeloeng, 2007, p.3) qualitative descriptive is a research procedure that produces descriptive data in the form of words both oral and written. Qualitative research is research that seeks to see the truth or justify the truth, but because of the truth, it is not always enough to see something tangible, but sometimes it is necessary to see something hidden and keep track of it further behind the real thing. Miles and Huberman (1992, p.15) stated that the data in qualitative descriptive research that emerged were words, not numbers. The data is the result of collection by using various ways. The qualitative data obtained is expanded in text form.

Research Instruments

Research instruments are tools or facilities used by researchers in collecting data so that the research will be easier research and the results will be better. It means it will be more accurate, complete and systematic so that it will be more easily processed (Arikunto, 2006, p.101). The instrument of this research was a mobile phone to record the data.

Data analysis technique

Data analysis technique is a method used to analyze data. The data analysis is processed through the following stages:

1. Identification

After the data were selected, identification was conducted, with the intention to obtain a picture based on their respective identity.

2. Classification

After identification, the data were grouped into categories that have been determined.

3. Explanation

After the data were grouped, the data were then interpreted and explained.

4. Summing up

The last activity of the study was to conclude the classified data.

The method of analysis in qualitative research according to Moleong (2000) follows the following procedures. The first is descriptive analysis by developing categories which are relevant to the objectives. The second is the interpretation of the results of descriptive analysis by referring to the appropriate theory. Referring to the opinion, then in this study, the data that have been collected were processed and interpreted qualitatively with the intention of answering research problems. The data were interpreted to be a category which means to be part of the theory or to support the theory formulated descriptively (Moleong, 2000).

III. RESULT

This section describes the research results on the study of Humor of Bone Regency. Description of this results is based on the purposes of research in which there are three objectives of this research. The first is describing the form of humor language style in Bone Regency. The second is to assess the function of humor in Bone Regency. The third is to examine the characteristics of the humor in Bone regency. The fourth is to describe the types of humor in Bone society. The description of research results is presented below.

1. The Forms of Humor Language Style in Bone Society

The form of the humor of Bone society is directed toward communication, and the success of a humorist is when the humor stimulus can be accepted by the recipient as intended by the humorist. Humor stimulus is the jokes that expect a

smile or laughter as the effect of the recipient of humor (Widjaja, 1993). The style of humor is directed to the realization of the meaning of speech. Humor can be classified into two types based on shape, namely verbal humor and nonverbal humor. Verbal humor is a sense of humor that is realized with words, whereas nonverbal humor is humor that is presented with behavior, gestures, or images.

2. The Functions of Humor Language Style

Humor can convey information, express pleasure, anger, annoyance and sympathy. Humor can also relax the inner tension and serve as a powerful critic tool because the criticized subject does not feel the criticism as a confrontation. Humor functions separately are as follows. The first is implementing all the wishes and purposes of an idea or message, such as serious communication. The messages or ideas to be conveyed are usually not easy to establish between the two parties, especially a new meeting. Therefore, the medium of humor in the communication phase will accelerate the opening of the door of intimacy. The second is to make people aware that they are not always right. The point is usually to criticize a person for not being able to convey directly, and it is conveyed through the medium of humor. The third is teaching people to see problems from different angles that are to teach people to look at issues from a political, social, economic and educational point of view. The fourth is entertaining the meaning that is to eliminate boredom in daily life that is routine. The fifth is stretching the mind. It means by using humor the stress of the pressures of the soul will easily disappear and the mind will return smoothly. The sixth is getting people to tolerate something. In this case, many people do not want to get criticized directly so that by using the media humor people can convey criticism and people who get criticism can tolerate something or criticism delivered. The seventh is making people understand the complicated problem. It means that things that are rare and strange or unusual can be known through humor.

3. Characteristics of Humor in Bone Regency

a. Humor as a Leap

Humor is a 'leap' of the mind seen through the body's reaction that is laughing. This laughter shows that humor is natural from one's life. The paradox of laughter and humor often shows how just to laugh because people look very serious and sometimes laughing must be arranged.

b. Humor as a Part of the Culture

Humor is part of the culture of human life. A sense of humor will stick in the life of a nation that has many problems in it. This kind of humor is called dark humor. A society with full of contradictions and problems create the humor, and the humor is growing and creates the sensitivity to various symptoms facing the nation. In addition, it produces an interesting culture that is a culture of humor where comedians and playful people grow. A unique thing when it comes to seeing that humor comes in some cultural regions. Therefore, it also affects the style or story of humor in every culture that is carried by comedians or the public.

c. Humor as Reflection

Humor created from a reflection, will produce a healthy type of humor. It can show how civilization a nation. A good civilization will form the mass appetite rather than follow the tastes of the mass. Humor is not just following a moving market today, but also trying to futuristic which forms market tastes. A necessary thing in Indonesian civilization is that the market tastes are not only a size but also a media that needs to be established. It is because in the context of Indonesia, the Indonesian people are trapped in symbols. The symbol is more easily held, while the world and its problems are difficult to grasp and manage. A humor needs to communicatively present a deep content, not just to make people laugh without bringing a reflection after listening to humor.

4. Types of Humor in Bone

As a form of expression in the life of society, humor is divided into three types. The first is personal humor which tends to laugh at yourself, for example when you see a tree that looks like a person who was defecating. The second is humor in the association for instance jokes among friends. It is a jokes tucked into speeches or lectures in public. The second is humor in art.

There are some criteria of humor in communication. First, speaker intended to be funny and the hearer considers as a joke. Second, speaker is not intended to be funny, but the recipient considers funny. Third, the speaker intends to joke, but the hearer does not find it amusing (Manser, 1989).

In humor, the success of a humorist is when his humorous stimulus can be accepted by the recipient as intended by the humorist. Humor stimulus is the cuteness that expects a smile or laughter as the effect of the recipient of humor (Widjaja, 1993).

In an inappropriate situation, humor is not something funny. Even humor does not necessarily cause people to laugh, such as sex humor. For some puritan people, sex humor which is considered taboo is considered not funny and cannot cause someone to laugh. Good humor is humor that can bring to goodness.

IV. DISCUSSION

1. The Forms of Humor Language Style Society in Bone

The form of humor language style in Bone society likes to compare something explicitly by directly expressing something in common with another. On the other hand, the form of humor language style is applied using the word which is overload.

2. Function of Humor Language Style in Bone Society

The function of humor can convey information, express pleasure, anger, annoyance and sympathy. Humor can also relax the inner tension and serve as a powerful critic tool because the criticized subject does not feel the criticism as a confrontation. There are some functions of humor. The first is to implement all the wishes and purposes of an idea or message, such as serious communication, messages or ideas to be conveyed which is usually not easy to establish between the two parties specially when the meeting is a new meeting, then the medium of humor in the communication phase will accelerate the opening of the door of intimacy. The second is to consider people that they are not always right. It means that the usually criticize a person because they are not being able to convey the humor directly.

Humor is a leap from the mind seen through the body's reaction, laughing. This laughter shows that humor is really natural from one's life. Humor is a part of the culture of life. This type of humor which is called dark humor is aimed at a society whose life is full of contradictions and problems. The humor grows and produces the sensitivity to the various symptoms faced by nation. A humor needs to be communicative which is capable of presenting a deep content that is not just able to make people laugh without bringing the attitude of reflection after refreshing humor.

3. Types of Humor in Bone

As a form of expression in the life of society, an act or speech in a humor has the potential to humiliate the other person and to lower his self-esteem or to injure his or her pride.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the findings, some conclusions can be drawn as follows:

1. The forms of humor language style in Bone tend to compare something explicitly by directly declaring something which is same as the other. In addition, the people in Bone Regency tend to use the word excessively.
2. The function of humor language style in Bone regency tend to express the feeling of joy, anger, annoyance, and sympathy. In addition, it tends to serve as a tool of criticism to carry out all desires and all purpose of ideas or messages
3. The characteristic of humor in Bone assumes that humor is a leap from the mind seen through the body's reaction that is laughing. This laughter shows that humor is natural from of one's life. On the other hand, Bone society considers that humor is a culture of life and a reflection of the mind to criticize something that is considered as a problem in life.
4. The types of humor language style in Bone are as follows. People tend to use hurtful humor. It is to humiliate the other person. It is also degrading his pride or harming his honor and sometimes even mutually quip.

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Besides, academic activities ever done are presenting a paper entitled "Language in South and East Sulawesi". In Malaysia 2000; Indonesia-Malaysia cultural symposium in Bandung 1993; a guide in action research training in Bone (2011), Soppeng (2006), Mamasa (2008), Majene and Polmas (2015); presenter at International symposium of a paper entitled at tourism schools in South Sulawesi in 2014; conducting a research entitled developing a model of Indonesian Learning Materials for Tourism School in 2013, and many others.

An Analysis of Characteristics and Relationships of the Characters in the Big Bang Theory from the Perspective of Turn-taking Mechanism

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Abstract—Turn-taking mechanism was proposed by Harvey Sack and his colleagues in the 1790s, and it was the central part of conversation analysis. The researchers at home and abroad have started to make a research on it after them. The researchers abroad investigated it from the institutional talk, such as TV, telephone talk and doctor patient interaction, and so on. Others, the researchers at home mainly published some articles without analyzing the specific conversations based on the foreign studies. The paper will analyze the characters' relationships and characteristics in the Big Bang Theory from the perspective of turning-taking mechanism. The significance of the study is to make people understand the features of the conversation. From the perspective of pragmatics, we will analyze the turn-taking mechanism, with which we can study the rule of using language.

Index Terms—turn-taking mechanism, the sitcom, the Big Bang Theory, the characters' relationships and characteristics

I. INTRODUCTION

This part is the guide of the paper, and it gives a brief introduction to the paper. The purpose of the study is to use turn-taking mechanism to analyze the sitcom *The Big Bang Theory*, and to study characteristics of characters through the analysis of the sitcom, also to observe the relationship between them. The paper is composed of five parts.

Turn-taking mechanism as the crucial part in the conversational analysis was put forward by Harvey Sacks and his colleagues Emmanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson in the early 1970s. Then many scholars all over the world focus on it and made a great contribution in this field. At the beginning of it, the main task of their study analyzes the conversations between doctors and patients by using the conversational analysis theory. Later on, with the development of the society, many researchers start to analyze some new objects such as the conversations in the TV series and TV program.

Since the turn-taking theory is introduced into China, it arouses many scholars interested in it and pay attention to it. Also, some scholars make a great effort to it, such as Zhang Tingguo, Ji Daohong, and Chen Jianguo. They provide many valuable works for the present study.

From the perspective of the Pragmatics and turn-taking mechanisms, the main purpose of the study is that using the turn-taking mechanisms to analyze the conversations in the sitcom to discover their characteristics and relationships in the sitcom.

The significance of the paper is that it can help people to learn characteristics and relationships in the sitcom by analyzing their conversations using the turn-taking mechanisms. Some searchers have been doing a lot in this field but some parts still remind to be improved. It will be enriched the turn-taking theory, and widen the research scope by studying turn-taking theory in the sitcom.

Recently, sitcom becoming more and more popular in the world, and has aroused many scholars interested in it. People will have a better understanding about the essence of the sitcom and the language usage by study it from the perspective of the linguistics.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Part two is literature review, there are two sections in the part, the first section is the introduction of turn-taking mechanism, when it comes to talk about it, people must think of turn that is very important unit in our daily conversation, and it plays a significant role in our talking. The second section is to introduce the sitcom: the *Big Bang Theory*. The sitcom spreads fast in the worldwide, and it catches people's eyes and many researchers pay attention to it, and help readers understand the essence of the sitcom.

A. *Turn-taking Mechanism*

This part is a brief introduction of turn-taking mechanism and a survey of previous studies on turn-taking mechanism at home and abroad.

1. A Brief Induction of Turn-taking Mechanism

Turn-taking mechanism was used in our daily conversation. And it comes from the conversation analysis (CA) which is the important study in pragmatics. CA refers to the analysis of the conversation in order to find out conversation characteristics and how to use the characteristic of conversation in daily life. It includes the study of how speakers decided to speak during conversation, and how the expressions of two or more speakers are related, and the different functions that conversation is used for. American socialist Harvey Sacks and his partners Emmanuel Schegloff, Gail Jefferson was famous in the study. It was based on daily conversation, the studies of turn-taking mechanisms which deal with the problem about changing speakers in dialogue. Conversation forms the natural way of oral behaviors. Even though the conversation is a casual way in communication but it has its own rules. We can find out regulars though many areas.

2. A Brief Introduction Survey of Previous studies on Turn-taking Mechanism at Abroad and Home

When it comes to talk about turn-taking mechanism, there are some famous people in the field abroad.

Firstly, Nofsigner believes that turn-taking make use of the different length of four units. The first consists of independent words such as "Yes", the second makes use of phrases like "in the desk" and the structure does not include subject and object. The third consists of clause, and the last make use of a complete sentence such as "the men who received".

Secondly, about the components of turn-taking, Fasold also has the similar expression and he proposes turns are constructed of units for which turned out to be syntactic units: words, phrase, and clauses. And Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson put forward the rule of turn 2 constructions and the rule of allocation, both of them have a significant meaning. Other scholars like Harries (1951) defined the turn "as a stretch of talk, by one person, before and after which is silence on the part of that person." (Harris, 1951, p. 14)

Also, some contributions made in our country. Zhang Tingguo (2003) delivers his paper turn and the Communication strategy of turn-taking and put forward turn-taking form and process in it. Ji Daohong publishes the paper Analysis of Turn-taking Skills and talks over the turn-taking skills and principles among interlocutors in conversation from the aspects of claiming a turn, holding a turn and yielding a turn, Chen Jianguo delivered his writing and discusses seven hidden rules such as space, sequence, help, avoidance, focus-balance, elimination and control.

B. The Sitcom: The Big Bang Theory

This part is a brief introduction of the Big Bang theory and a survey of previous studies on sitcom at home and abroad.

1. A Brief Introduction of the Big Bang Theory

The Big Bang Theory was firstly played by the American company CBC on Sep. 24, 2007, and produced by Chuck Lorre Productions and Warner Bros, and it is directed by Mark Cendrowski and acted by some famous actors, Jim Parsons, Johnny Galecki, Kaley Cuoco, Simon Helberg, Mayim Bialik, Kunal Nayyar, Melissa Rauch and so on. It is so popular that the viewership has been raised to 200 million and also got a lot of rewards. The show has been updated to eight season and many fans followed it from start to end.

It tells a story between two men with their neighbor, who is a beautiful girl. These boys have high intelligence quotient, and the girl has totally different life with them. Her career is not very good and working in a restaurant, just like other girls, she also pursuits the fashion things and love to go shopping. Later, she falls in love with Leonard. Leonard and Sheldon, these two persons are the roommate. Both of them have high intelligence quotient, but Sheldon has a lower emotional quotient, the character acted by Jim Parsons. Leonard Leakey Hofstadter is a man with IQ 173, who is acted by Jonny Galecki. And with the development of the plot, Sheldon also has a girlfriend, Amy. The girl has the similar characteristics with Sheldon, and she loves her boyfriend so much.

2. A Brief Survey of Previous Studies on Sitcom at Home and Abroad

Sitcom is transformed by the word "situation comedy". With the developed of the globalization, it spreads into many countries from America. However, it is not easy to make a definition to it. Just as Feuer said, "sitcoms like other series of TV", it depends on work fields, TV report and the sense of public, and it also changes with the development of society. This is a kind of comedy is virtually real life and make humors by players, and it always development around some details in the family. The most of America sitcom is family sitcom. There are famous family sitcoms such as I Love Lucy, The Simpsons, Taxi and Old Friends. The most significant character not only entertains people but also has other features. Baker who is the researcher of sitcom lists nine properties:

- (i) It plays 24-30 minutes and it is series not serial.
- (ii) It often plays on indoors and has fixed figures, family scenes.
- (iii) The program often around one or a couple of leading stars and other people plays a minor role.
- (iv) The minor role always has a rigid image.
- (v) It often plays on house or office on playground.
- (vi) The theme is family or symbolic family.
- (vii) Every program has traditional structures: tranquil, conflict.
- (viii) It has a circle: scene and heroes will back the start place when it's ending.
- (ix) The thread of a story has the same development: repetitive behaviors, pet phrase.

Most sitcoms in America have these features. However, there are some exceptions, and it changes with the society and its own features.

Nowadays, sitcom has been accepted by many countries and it becomes popular in the world. It is one of the most welcomed TV programs in many countries where English is their native language, such as, British, Australia, and Canada.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE PRESENT STUDY

Part three is the theoretical framework of turn-taking mechanism. This part will introduce turn-construction unit, turn allocation components, adjacency pairs, preference structure and presequences and also give some examples to illustrate it.

A. *Turn-taking Mechanism*

Turn-taking is the minimal part in the structure of conversation and makes use of sentences, clauses, words and a lot of structures. It refers to that participates activity in the conversation and starts from speaking to ending or stopped by others (including interrupting by listeners and replaced) during the whole conversation. Turn-taking has short and long sentence, and it has no limit in arrangement. There is a topic used to discuss by speakers and listeners in communication. Mostly, participants use the communicating format of conversation likes a-b-a1-b1 when they are talking with each other. The speaker starts speaking to change their topic, it is a turn-taking. If participates are still talking, they end up one topic and turn to another until the whole conversation end. During the conversation, it must find out a proper topic in order to make sure turn-taking fluency.

1. Turn-construction Units

There are two components in the turn-taking system according to conversational analysis, one is the allocation mechanisms which are responsible for distributing a turn, and the other is the lexical components, there are different types uttered by speaker can construct turns.

These basic units are known as turn construction unit. These unit types include in lexical, clausal, phrasal, and sentential. But at the same time, Liu Qingling(2012) "feedback units are included in verbal behavior feedbacks and non-verbal feedbacks in our daily life and that use to a turn". (Liu Qingling, 2012, p.194.)

1. The different kinds of language units

(i) Word serves as a turn. For example,

A: Can you open a door?

B: Ok.

The listener's answer just use one word but the two speakers attend this conversation, so it can construct a turn.

(ii) Phrase serves as a turn. For example,

A: Do you know where is my key?

B: On the desk.

The listener tells the place of the key, and uses a clause to express it. The topic is around one point, and the two speakers participate the dialogue that is a whole turn.

(iii) Sentence serves as a turn. For example,

A: Where did you go at the summer holiday?

B: Oh, I went to famous spots, such as the Great Wall and Tian'an Men Square.

In this conversation, the listener uses a relevance sentence to respond to the speaker, so the whole turn was made of sentence.

2. The verbal behavior feedback unit

We usually call the verbal behavior feedback unit as the response after listening. It may be a modal particle, such as ah; or may be a word expression term, such as yeah; may also be a phrase, such as I see, I can. In the sitcom, there are so many cases, such as Sheldon's answer just has a modal particle in the conversation, Ah-ah-ow-oo, so it is a turn.

3. Non-verbal behavior feedback unit

It is usually represent a series of physical behavior, such as gestures, head-nod and eye-contact and so on. Speaker can use some language features to interrupt other's words, such as tone-raising with the help of the gesture to achieve speaker's purpose and people use these information to express his attitude, so we can find his inner world from his attitude.

2. Turn-allocation Components

And turn-allocation components explain the speaker and the hearer organize their words by distributing turns to the speaker. It often occurred that the speaker believes the conversation will be finished so it asks the participants must have the ability to observe the content of the conversation.

Liu Runqing (2012), said "turn-allocation techniques can be divided into two parts: one part is that the speaker chooses someone to talk about the topic sequentially, and the other part is that the speaker ended a turn by self-selection" (Liu Qingling, 2012, p.194). According to Sack et al (1974), "turn-allocation techniques are actually used in conversation and they distinguish them into two categories as "current selects next" and "self-selection"" (Sacks et al., 1974, p.703), for example, the following is the example to show "current selects next".

A: What are you doing?

B: I am reading.

A: What kind of it?

B: It is about science.

In this conversation, the speaker selects the listener by asking a question, this is a way of “current selects next.” At the same time, the speaker A asks another question to B selects him as the next again. The following is example to show “self-selection.”

A: There are discounting.

B: Where?

A: The supermarket at the main street.

In this conversation, the speaker starts a topic and selects a person to continue the dialogue. The listener only repeat some parts of the prior utterance with only one word to ask the speaker and the speaker answer the question to finish the topic. This is “self-selection.”

B. Sequence Organization

Because of the complexity of oral behavior, the pattern of turn-taking has various ways. There are two common forms of turn-taking adjacency pairs and insertion sequence.

1. Adjacency Pair

One useful mechanism in the convert of conversation is that one turn has a special following answer. The following is always the response to the preceding. Greeting to greeting in a phatic, question to answer, and invitation by accepting or refusal, and so on. The sequence is called adjacency pair: two different speakers make a sequence of two related expressions. (Liu Runqing, 2006, p.183). For example in (1), A makes a question and B replies with an affirmation.

A: Are you a student?	Question	First pair part
B: Yes, I am.	Answer	Second pair part

Here the question and answer is an adjacency pair.

Adjacency pair has five characteristics:

- i. Adjacency pair makes use of two expressions, a first and a second part.
- ii. The two parts are spoken by two different speakers.
- iii. The two expressions belong to specific types, for example, question to answer, or greeting to greeting.
- iv. The second part always related to the first part.
- v. The form and content of the second part depends on the type of the first part.

Adjacency pair has many types, however, the second part always responds to the first part immediately. We always see that a question-answer sequence will be delayed while another question-answer sequence intervenes. The sequence will take the form of Q1-Q2-A2-A1. The middle part Q2 and A2 is the insertion sequence.

An insertion sequence is one adjacency pair within another. For example:

A: Do you want to early flight?

B: What time it does arrive?

A: Ten forty.

B: Ok, that is great.

The sequence takes form of Q1-Q2-A2-A1. And the part Q2-A2 is called insertion sequence. So it is an adjacency pair within another.

2. Preference Structure

In an adjacency pair, the listener does not always agree with the speaker’s opinions and then it forms two kinds of answers that the one is preferred and the other is disagreement. For thus, a question should be contained by:

- i. A question
- ii. A part of an answer
- iii. By a denial of the question
- iv. By a statement of ignorance

For example:

Sheldon: I am in Kingman, Arizona, and I need you to pick me up.

Leonard: Ok, I will pick you.

Leonard: I would love to, but I am just about to do yoga with Penny.

-- (The Big Bang Theory Season 8 Episode 1)

In this conversation, we can observe that there are two answers to one question, but they are not equal status. The first answer is that Leonard agreed with Sheldon’s demand and go to pick him. But the second answer is that Leonard refused Sheldon by an indirectly way. So, the first answer is a preference. As we all know, adjacency pair is two utterances and the second part is related to the first part. Many answers to the first part not only can be an agreement but also a denial of the relevance of the question for example (1),

A: Do you want to drink a cup of tea with me?

B: I do not want to go.

On the basis of this observation, it suggests that there can be several different answers to the first part, but they are not equal status.

3. Presequences Organization

Presequence is the way to open a conversation when people desire to get something or want to ask others to help themselves. Thus, they must communicate with each other, and we should express our politeness, avoiding rudeness or impoliteness, and the way we use to open conversation and taking some potential actions is called presequence.

We should say hello to our friends when we meet them after a long time. This is greeting. Greeting uses to establish an atmosphere between the speaker and the listener, and maintain a set of relationship. Different countries have different ways of greeting. For example, people in English often talk about weather when they meet with each other. However, people live in China always say, "Where are you going? Have you finished your lunch? And what are you doing now?" But, there is difference between greeting and presequence. Presequence is used by a person who wants to ask others to help him or get something from others indirectly to open conversation. For example,

A: It is a nice day, is not it?

B: Actually it is.

A: I want to a supermarket but my car is not here. Would you like to borrow your car for me?

B: Ok, it's over there.

Here, A wants to borrow B's car and he does not say it directly and at the beginning, he asks whether to open the conversation. So this is presequence. In fact, we often use the way to start our communication. And there are many types of presequences.

IV. ANALYSIS OF THE RELATION AND CHARACTERISTIC AND THE CHARACTER FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF TURN-TAKING MECHANISM

This analyzes the relationship and characteristics of characters from the perspective of turn-taking mechanism in this part. It is the main body of the paper, it included two sections, the first section is to analyze the relationship between characters by using turn-taking mechanism. The second section is the analysis of characteristics of main heroes in the sitcom.

A. *Analysis of Relationship between Characters*

This part will introduce the relationship between characters in the sitcom. The relationship between Sheldon and Amy, the relationship between Leonard and Penny.

1. **The Relationship between Sheldon and Amy**

In this section, some conversations will be used to express personalities of Sheldon and Amy, they are lovers, and their relationship can be observed through their conversations. The degree of familiar will be presented by their conversations and the story take place in the situation where Leonard and Amy drive the car to pick Sheldon up at home after Sheldon travelled and his money and objects lost, and Amy seats the back of the car and listen their chat, she is so anger because Sheldon does not explain any words to her, actually Sheldon just does not lose his face in the front of his girlfriend, and that will be express at their conversations.

T1 Sheldon: "Hey, Amy what do you say? You ready move on to the mustard round?"

T2 Amy: "Have you not notice that I have been sitting back here quietly stewing for the past two hours?"

T3 Sheldon: "I just thought you were bad at the game."

T4 Amy: "I am mad at you. How would you go away like that without even saying goodbye and then call Leonard for help instead of me?"

T5 Sheldon: "I called Leonard because I failed I did not you want to think less of me."

T6 Amy: "You are worry about that? It is not ok with that you are not perfect."

T7 Sheldon: I wish I would never go on the trip. I tell no better now than when I let."

T8 Amy: "But you still accomplished something. What if it did not all go your way. That is what makes it an adventure."

T9 Sheldon: "That is a good point. Yeah, I am a lot like Gandalf the Grey. He fought the Balrog and emerged stronger than ever as Gandalf the White. I was robbed my phone and pants, and I too, came back stronger and whiter, too, cause I was in direct sunlight for six weeks."

T10 Amy: "See this trip was good for you."

T11 Sheldon: "Indeed I was the world's smartest caterpillar and then after pupating in our nation's railway system. I have burst forth the world's smartest butterfly."

--(the Big Bang Theory Season 8 Episode1)

In this conversation, both the words of Sheldon and his girlfriend are take sentences serve as a turn. And clearly Sheldon starts a turn and he finishes the turn by self-selection finally. But, we can clearly find that Sheldon starts the turn and selects a person who is his girlfriend to talk it, so the topic is distribute by his girlfriend. In preference organization between Sheldon and Amy, we can use turn-taking mechanism to discover their relationship. Between their talking, they play the roles of the speaker and the hearer, Sheldon gives a request and Amy responds to him, then Amy does so. We can easily find that in the T1, Sheldon asked a question for Amy, but Amy does not answer him, instead, she angers with him, because he does not explain anything to her. So an insertion pair takes place. And Sheldon does not continue to the first topic and give an honest answer for Amy so that he just keeps a perfect impression in Amy's heart. For this Amy very glad to hear these words, so in next conversation, Amy chooses preferred answers to comfort

Sheldon. Indeed, that way is very useful to Sheldon, and their relationship become more closely.

In the conversation above, Sheldon makes 4 preferred answers, and Amy has 3 preferred answers. In T2, Amy is mad at Sheldon, so she does not answer T1. But in the T5 Sheldon: "I called Leonard because I failed I did not you want to think less of me." It indicates Amy takes an important role in the heart of Sheldon. And in the T6 Amy: "It is not ok with that you are not perfect." It shows that Amy like Sheldon very much whatever the aspect of good or bad.

2. The Relationship between Leonard and Penny

Leonard and Penny is another lover in the sitcom, just as different couples have the different ways to get along with each other, so their relationship is very different from Sheldon and Amy, and they have their own happiness. Leonard becomes interested in Penny almost immediately after seeing her for the first time. His infatuation with Penny becomes the major force that drives the series during the first seasons. By the end of the first season, Leonard finally managed to ask Penny out, and they had their first date. And Leonard loves Penny very much. The story about them takes place in the dorm dance after they graduated. Their relationship is harmonious.

T1 Penny: "Well, I might not have asked you to dance then, but I will ask you now."

T2 Leonard: "There is no music."

T3 Penny: "I do not care. We will make our own music."

T4 Leonard: "My God, who is the dork now?"

T5 Leonard: "Thank you for wearing your flats."

T6 Penny: "Thank you for wearing your heels."

T7 Leonard: "Look at me, dancing with the prettiest girl at the prom."

T8 Penny: "Want to take a picture of us and send it to old friends in the chess club?"

T9 Leonard: "I send them a bikini shot of you years ago. That is nice. I kind of wish no one else was coming."

T10 Penny: "I know, nice, too. But it will be fun to have a prom without all the drama."

--(the Big Bang Theory. Season 8 Episode 8)

From these conversations, both of their words are made of sentences, so sentences serve as a turn. A turn is started by Penny and also finished it by herself. Penny chooses a turn, and it is distributed by Leonard. The difference of turn types and preference organizations between Leonard and Penny, it will show their relationships. Penny is a careful girl, she invites her boyfriend to dance and when her boyfriend asks her there is no music in the T2, she responds that she does not care in the T3. From their adjacency pair, T2 and T3 is a pair of insertions, Leonard does not accept her invitation and asks his girlfriend's feeling without music, they are care about each other. Then in the T5 and T6, Leonard thanks his girlfriend's considerateness without wearing heels, and Penny chooses preferred too, because she considers her boyfriend's feeling. From her answer, we easily find the girl is so considerate. And then, his boyfriend opens the other topic and in the T8, and his answer to her friend can show how much he like his girlfriend.

When it comes to the preference structure, there are 3 preferred organizations and 2 dispreferred, but both of those are used to express they love with each other and think about each other. Their relationship is very familiar.

B. Analysis of Characteristics of the Characters

This part will analysis of characteristics of the characters in the sitcom.

1. The Characteristics of Sheldon

Sheldon is one of the important figures in the sitcom, and his intelligence quotient is higher than normal people, however, he is too devoted to the science to have a common sense of life. He is very stubborn and conceited. As the highest nerd of IQ, he has the lowest EQ. Sometimes he is extremely conceited and refuses to believe that there are more intelligent people than him in the world and he believes he never do wrong things.

Because there is a big gap between his IQ and EQ, Sheldon is the funny person in the drama. At the start, his jokes are from his frankness and audiences feel the happy in the deep of their heart and make people laugh. However, his words began to mean, arrogant and annoying. With the development of the story, he starts to realize his defeat and try to change it, he starts to care for others. So, the personalities of the characteristics gradually shaped.

The story takes place at the railway station when his friends want to persuade him into going home, but he does not listen any words and he still stick to his opinions.

T1 Leonard: "We are worry about you."

T2 Sheldon: "Do not be melodramatic. I just getting on the train and leaving forever."

T3 Leonard: "So a few things do not go your way and your best decision is to ride the rails like a hobo?"

T4 Sheldon: "I am overwhelmed. Everything is changed and it is simply too much, I need to go away and think."

T5 Leonard: "I am going to miss you."

T6 Sheldon: "Of course you are."

T7 Leonard: "Just made that easier."

--(the Big Bang Theory Season 8. Episode 1)

From these conversations above, the background is that when Sheldon confronts with many troubles and he wants to leave and he does not listen to his friend's advice, so Leonard just say goodbye to him. Leonard starts the turn to persuade his fiend is stay behind, but it does not work, so he ends the turn by himself. The conversation consists of Sheldon and his friend Leonard who wants to comfort him after a series of bad things happened, and tries to ease him and persuade him into doing not make the impulse thing. In the T1, his friend shows worried about him, and in the T3,

his friend tries to ease him. However, he failed. In the T2, Sheldon does not choose preferred answer for his friend, and the answer shows that he is very stubborn, and does not change his decisions easily. Sometimes, he does not face difficulties directly, and instead he avoids it. In the T4, when his friend comforts him, he does not clam down and said "I am overwhelmed. Everything is changed and it is simply too much, I need to go away and think." We can easily find that sometimes he just like a child who is very hard to accept change. In the T7, his friend say he will miss Sheldon, but Sheldon thinks that is a thing his friend should do, so Sheldon is a self-conceited person.

So, from this analysis above all, it is not hard to find Sheldon is stubborn, child-like, and sometimes lack of caring about others.

2. The Characteristics of Leonard

Leonard is another big shot in the sitcom and he is portrayed as an experimental physicist, who shares an apartment with colleague and his best friend Dr. Sheldon Cooper. He often wears black framed glasses, low black shoes, a neutral color sports jacket, brown pants and a physics themed T-shirt. Leonard and Sheldon live together for several years, and can accurately explain the behavior of Sheldon. Leonard has a more normal EQ, and also has a high IQ of 173. He is 24 years old when he gets a doctorate of philosophy. Dr. Hofstadter then relies on him about the experimental particle physics, and his doctoral thesis won the annual award.

He is a kind person who cares for friends and he can tolerate others. When his friends need his help, he must give them a hand. The background is that Sheldon was robbed in his traveling and asked for help from Leonard.

T1 Sheldon: "Hello."

T2 Leonard: "Hey, buddy good to hear your voice."

T3 Sheldon: "I am in Kingman, Arizona, and I need you to come pick me home."

T4 Leonard: "I would love to, but I am just to do yoga with Penny."

T5 Sheldon: "I am in the police station and I was robbed, they took my phone, my wallet, my ipad, everything."

T6 Leonard: "Oh my God, are you ok?"

T7 Sheldon: "No, I am not ok, I am wearing borrowed pants, I do not have ID and one of the policemen won't calling me Chicken legs."

T8 Leonard: "OK, I am will pick you, do you want me bring something?"

T9 Sheldon: "Yes, a pair of pants."

--(the Big Bang Theory Season 8. Episode 1)

This is a conversation between Leonard and his good friend Sheldon. The background is that Sheldon lost his money and other important things in his trip, he just asks for help to his friend Leonard at the police department. So, Sheldon starts a turn for help and ends the turn by himself. There are 2 preferred structures and 2 dispreferred. Leonard is angry with his roommate Sheldon but he is still kind to Sheldon. In the conversation T4, when he heard Sheldon asks him to pick up Sheldon, he is unwilling to go. So he refuses him, but when he knows Sheldon got some troubles, he immediately accepted his demands in the T8. And in the T9, he is very careful to ask his friend what things he need, he said, "I will pick you, do you want me to bring something." From these turns we can clearly see that the relationship between Leonard and Sheldon is very familiar and Leonard always put up with Sheldon and forgive his eccentricities. He does not only have a high IQ, but also his EQ is like other ordinary people, so he more successfully communicates with girls than others in the sitcom.

So, Leonard is a nice boy and he always tolerates his friend, and is kind to other people.

V. CONCLUSION

Conversational analysis is an approach to the study of social communication, it include verbal behavior and non-verbal behavior which takes a crucial role in our daily life. And many researchers have researched the turn-taking mechanism from different points. The studies analyses the characteristics and relationships between people in the sitcom, the Big Bang Theory from the perspective of turn-taking. We can find that the characteristics and the relationship of characters not only through the content of their conversations, but also by the turn of dialogue and presequence organization.

In this paper, the author finds out turn-taking features of it. Firstly, turn-constructive components are discussed in the Big Bang Theory. Words, phrases, sentences serve as turns. It can find that characters like to use sentences because sentences can convey more meaning in the sitcom where need to express scene, plot, feeling, or anything so that audiences can get more information about the series. Secondly, turn-allocational components are discussed from two aspects: the current speaker selection and self-selection. Characters in the sitcom ask questions to someone who will answer it and becomes the next turn holder. Turn-allocational components can help break the silence and keep the conversation smoothly. Finally, characters choose preference structure to express their politeness and kindness. However, some characters often use dispreference to answer the speaker and the way can show the characteristics of characters.

And, we use the turn-talking mechanisms to analyze the dialogue of the Big Bang Theory in the paper. After analyzing the conversations between Sheldon and Amy, the conversation between Sheldon and Leonard, also the conversation between Leonard and Penny, we can find it has a closely relationship between turn-taking mechanism and character's personalities.

Through the analysis of adjacency pairs, preference sequences and presequence organizations, we can find the familiar degree of their relationship between different people.

Different people use different ways to express their ideas. And these expressions they used can distinguish their characteristics. They often used their unique ways to make the conversation continually.

In this paper, the author finds out turn-taking features of it. Firstly, turn-constructive components are discussed in the Big Bang Theory. Words, phrases, sentences serve as turns. It can find that characters like to use sentences because sentences can convey more meaning in the sitcom where need to express scene, plot, feeling, or anything so that audiences can get more information about the series. Secondly, turn-allocational components are discussed from two aspects: the current speaker selection and self-selection. Characters in the sitcom ask questions to someone who will answer it and becomes the next turn holder. Turn-allocational components can help break the silence and keep the conversation smoothly. Finally, characters choose preference structure to express their politeness and kindness. However, some characters often use dispreferred to answer the speaker and the way can show the characteristics of characters.

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Local Wisdom Values in Balinese Folktales That Are Relevant to Character Education for the First Grade at Primary School

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Abstract—This study was aimed at finding out: 1) what folklores are suitable to be taught to the first graders at primary school and 2) what local wisdom values are there in the folklores. For this purpose, the sample was determined purposively, i.e., the first grade teachers who teach Balinese language, experts in folktales (Made Taro, DK Djareken, Buda Gautama, Suardiana and education experts. The data were collected through documents recording method, data cards and interview. The data were processed descriptive- qualitatively. The results showed that 1) the folktales that are suitable to be taught to the first graders at primary school are as follows: 1) folktales that teach the students to speak interact and socialize politely, education, and storytelling for 5 minutes. The local wisdom values contained in folktales are: 1) compassion (*karuna*); 2) *Tri Hita Karana*; 3) *Tri Parartha*; 4) *Lascarya* 5) alertness; 6) *Kharma phala*; 7) politeness; 8) *Tri Dandim*; 9) *Mitā Hrdaya*. In this context, the suggestion made is that the folktales that are suitable to be taught should meet the criteria (honesty, faith, and respect) that facilitate the teaching and learning process.

Index Terms— tale, folk, relevance, character education

I. INTRODUCTION

Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha (Undiksha) has Research Master Planning (RIP) with the following road map; 1) existing condition (2007-2011) 2; consolidation period (2012-2016) and development period in 2016-2020 (RIP Undiksha, 2012: 22-24). In 2015 Undiksha entered the consolidation period that consists of best researches and non-best researches.

The research proposal entitled "Integrating local wisdom values in Balinese Folktales into Book of Balinese Lesson in Character Education for the First Graders at Primary School" which is one of the best researches in RIP Undiksha 2012. This best research entitled Educational Strategy for Values and Character with the theme Values and Character-Based Education should accommodate science and technology developments through in their implementation. Science and technology developments are obviously needed to support various things in human life in the earth, but this can have an effect on the welfare and miserable ness of humankind. In this context, the development of science and technology has to be done in the frame of the nation's culture and character.

The frame of the nation's culture and character with the sub-theme/topic "Developing Instructional Model for the Nation's Ideological Transformation." In this context, the of actions as the real macro-pedagogic form needs to be seriously handled, such as attitude of mutual respect and appreciation, considerateness, glorifying humanity, developing peace and harmony among followers of religions, defend the truth and develop love for the country. This is important since the real macro -pedagogic form does not fall from the sky. Although the sky collapses, the dream to make people respect each other does not come suddenly but through a long developmental process which has become tradition and culture in life (Setyaningsih, 2012, p.3). Many honesty canteens went bankrupt, since an honest attitude has not developed among children (Samani and Hariyanto, 2012, p. 2). Even Kompas daily newspaper on Monday, 20th June 2011 writes "Moral Depravation Makes Us Anxious" as the headline on the first page which states:

- 1) During 2004-2011 The Ministry of Interior recorded 158 Heads of Regions consisting of Governors, Regions, and Mayors involved in corruption cases
- 2) 42 members of the Parliament were involved in corruptions in 2008-2011 period
- 3) 30 members of Parliament in 1999-2004 period from political parties were involved in bribery cases in Deputy of Bi Senior Governor
- 4) Corruption cases have occurred in a number of institutions such as Election Commission, Judicial Commission, KPPU, Directorate of General and Bank of Indonesia.

On the other hand, a number of cases involving law rein forcers were disclosed:

1) During 2010 the Supreme Court sanctioned 107 judges, both in the form of dismissals and reprimands. In the previous year, there were 78 judges involved to 2009 in which there were 181 attorneys. Out of 288, 192 were sanctioned were public prosecutors; and

2) 294 police were dismissed from POLRI with 18 officers, 272 petty officers and 4 corporals (Samani and Hariyanto, 2012, p. 4)

Even in the educational sector, we find frau such as cheating. Kompas daily newspaper, on Monday, the 20th of June 2011 reports that plagiarism is common in some universities, such as in universities in Bandung, Yogyakarta, Gorontalo and Jakarta. Even primary school children who are thought to be innocent have committed criminal acts so that have to deal with the police. German pedagogue, FW Foerster (1869-1966) focused his attention to ethic-spiritual aspect in the process of personality development. The birth of character education is the representation of Rousseau an natural pedagogy and Deweyan instrumentalist pedagogy (Meitafitrealina in <http://blog.umy.ac.id>). In this context, an activity that cannot be imagined to have been done by primary school children, that is, thievery was done by a primary school child a few times. The stealing of money and science teaching aids were done by the child during a school vacation in the school year 2009/2010. Primary school children have also been involved in violence toward their classmate, a primary school girl in a prayer room in Bukit Tinggi. A similar phenomenon was also found in Jakarta to a primary school child. He died after being treated violently by his friend. This shows that the nation's morality has undergone decadence, in which a primary school child has done something which deviates very far away from the norm of a civilized nation. Thus, a high quality character needs to be built since the critical period to form an individual character. Many scholars said that failure in building character earlier will form a problematic personality in the future (Antoro, 2012, p. 1).

Psychologists call childhood the golden age. It is called golden age because this age has turned out to determine his or her ability, around 50% of adult's intelligence had been reached at 4 years old. The next 30% occur at 8 years old (at a primary school year). And the rest (20%) at junior secondary school age (Antoro 2012, p. 1). This shows that character education should be given in the family domain. Then, the character educational materials should be given to primary school children.

Problems of the study

Based on the explanation in the background of the study in 1.1, the problems to be studied are shown in Table 01 as follows.

TABLE 01.
STATEMENT OF PROBLEMS

No.	Statement of Problems
I.	First Year
1.1	What folktales are suitable to be taught to the first grade at primary school?
1.2	What local wisdom values are contained in the folktales?
II.	Second Year
2.1	What Balinese folktales are suitable to be taught to the first grade at primary school according to (a) experts and , b) practitioners (teachers)?
2.2	What local wisdom values are suitable to be given to the first grade primary school children according to a) experts , b) practitioners (teachers)?

Aims of the study

The aims to be reached within the three years period are

- 1) To know the folktales that are suitable to be taught at the first grade at primary school (the first year aim)
- 2) To know local wisdom values contained in the folktales (the first year aim)
- 3) To find out folktales that are suitable to be taught to the first year children according to experts and practitioners
- 4) To find out local wisdom values contained in Balinese folktales that are suitable to be taught to the first graders at primary school according to experts and practitioners.

The Urgence (excellence) of Study

This study is urgent because by finding the solution (in the form of model) for character education through the integration of local wisdom values in Balinese folktales that are relevant for character education at the first grade of primary school means that primary school children will obtain character education since the early years so that it will be easy to educate them.

Targeted findings

The study has the target to find local wisdom values in Balinese folktales that are relevant for character education for the first graders at primary school.

Contribution of the Study Results to Knowledge

Based on the explanation in the background, the statement of the problems, specific aims, urgency and targeted findings as explained above, then the contribution of the results of the study to knowledge is that the study will provide an effective and useful character education model through local wisdom values contained in Balinese folktales that are relevant for character education at the first grade of primary Scholl. In this way teachers of Balinese will be facilitated in looking for materials for teaching Balinese and character education.

A. Local Wisdom

Puma mentions that local wisdom is local knowledge (Puma, 2010, p. 2). After being put into effect, Local Act No 22/ 100 makes people increasingly talk about local wisdom.. Hobsbown (1983) in Mudana (2003) defines local wisdom as a set of practices that are usually determined by regulations that are accepted clearly or unclearly and rituals or something symbolic that are meant to develop values and particular norms of behaviours through automatic repetition that implies the presence of balance and harmony in the past (Purna, 2010: 2). Local values are the ability to behave and empower the potential of local noble values. That is why local value is an entity that determines the dignity in the community (Geartz, 2007). That is why local wisdom is the truth that has become a tradition in a region (Gobyah, 2003).

Classification of Local Values

Local values are classified into 1) system of management; 2) customary values; and 3) mechanism and procedures, including use of space

• System of management

The social system of a region regulates the social structure and relations with the local community such as Dalian Natalu in North Sumatra, Nagari in West Sumatra, Kasultanan and Kasunanan in Java, and Banjar in Bali. Toraja society has an institution and social organization that manage the life in the rural environment. Every region has a custom. The customary leader in Toraja is called Bua (Buletin Tata Ruang, 2009). The custom leader has autonomy in making decisions and sanctions and social fines for the violaters of the regulations and customary laws.

• Value System

A value system is developed by the traditional community that regulates ethics to judge the good and the bad and correct and incorrect behaviours. For example in Bali there is the *Tri Hita Karana* value system that strengthens the community life values in relation to God, human and nature. The customary regulations have to be obeyed by the community. Whenever there is a member who violates a regulation, he or she has to accept the customary sanction.

• Characteristics of Local Wisdom

Local culture is a system or a way of life that develops and is owned by the region and is passed on from generation to generation. Local culture is made up of various elements such as religion, custom, language, agriculture, implements, clothes, architecture and art.

Characteristics of Local Wisdom

- 1) Able to defend itself from a foreign culture.
- 2) Able to accommodate a foreign culture
- 3) Able to integrate a foreign cultural element into the indigenous culture.
- 4) Able to control
- 5) Ability to give a direction to the cultural development

• Exploring Local Culture

The exploration of local culture is a conscious effort to maintain and protect traditional culture from economic and social attacks from the world communities that cause the environmental damage Now, people are afraid of a multidimensional crisis and an increase in the degradation of natural resources and human resources. Local knowledge which is integrated into belief system, norms, and culture which are expressed in traditions and myths that have developed from hundreds of years (from generation to generation) such as : agriculture, customary forest management and conservation of natural resources. Some characteristics that need to be met by local practices to be accepted as a local wisdom are:

1. still existing
2. in accordance with community development
3. in accordance with the principles of the unity of the nation of the republic of Indonesia which are regulated by regulations.

An example of a wise practice in relation to the environment that has been explored in an effort to conserve water resources is: 1) the belief in the presence of a supernatural beings that live in huge trees with a large canopy or in a cave. The concept underlying the prohibition of urinating under a huge tree since the area below the ground where the tree grows is a water resource is a traditional behavior that teaches the young people not to damage the nature so that the quality of water and water discharge can be maintained.

• Functions of Local Wisdom

Sirtha (2003) states that the functions of local wisdom are as follows: (1) to conserve natural resources, 2) to develop human resources, 3) to develop culture and knowledge, 4) as advice, prohibitions and beliefs.

B. Character Education

• Definition of Character Education

Character education consists of whatever positive practices of the teacher that has an effect on the students' character (Samani and Hariyanto, 2012:43). This reflects that character education is a conscious and serious effort of a teacher to teach values to the students (Winton, 2010). Character education becomes an educational movement that supports the students' social, emotional and ethical developments. Hence, character education has to be planned to facilitate the students in recognizing, taking care of and internalizing character values in an integrated manner in the process of

teaching in all subjects, in the activity of student development at school in all affairs (Kemdiknas, 2011, p. 2). In line with this Ratna Megawangi (2004, p. 95) mentions that character education is an effort to educate children in order that they can make wise decisions and practice them in daily life, so that they can contribute positively to the environment. While Fakry Gaffar (2010, p. 1) mentions that character education is a process of life value transformation to be developed in a person so that the values become integrated in his or her behavior.

• Nature of Character Education

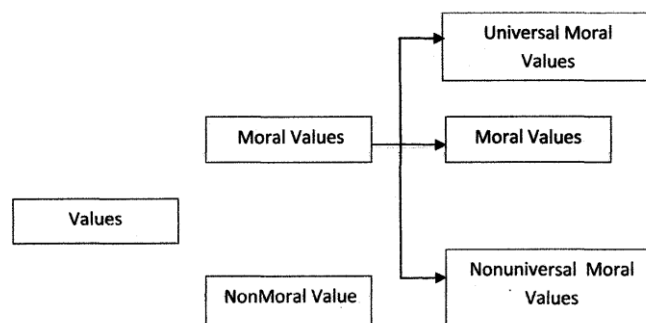
A good habituation is important in character education. Departing from this habit it is hoped that the students do not only understand (cognitive) which is correct, and which is incorrect, but are also able and sensitive to feel (affective) good values and are accustomed to perform good things (psychomotor) (Kemdiknas, 2011, p. 1). This means that character education is not moral knowing, but also loving good (moral feeling), and moral action. This shows that character education has a higher status than moral education (Mulyasa 2011, p. 3). Character education stresses on good habits which are practiced and performed continuously (Kemdiknas, 2011, p. 1; dan Mulyasa, 2011, p. 3).

• Local Wisdom Values

Character education through education that is inspired by local wisdom that is presented in tales is very urgent (Rasna, 2015, p. 16). In this context, then character education that is inspired by local wisdom will be presented in a book entitled *Pelajaran Bahasa Bali Siswa SD Kelas I* (Balinese Lesson for the First Graders at Primary School). This is done since Indonesians, especially, and other eastern peoples in general evaluate our characters and behaviors as those which are polite and those which are not (Efendi, 1982, p. 5). Aware of this it seems that the effort toward the reinforcement of moral values and spiritual values through education that is inspired by character in the students and adolescent's life becomes very vital (Nashir in Suara Karya, the 1 5th of Oktober 1993). On this ground, all forms of education that are inspired by character education should start from early ages, when the children start to be able to understand That is why local wisdom values in the folktales integrated into a Balinese book for the first graders at primary school , such as the folktale entitled *Tunjung Mas* (Gold Liiy)that contains local wisdoms such as a) *Karuna* (compassion), b) *Tri Hita Karana*, especially a harmonious life between human and God (religious), and c) *Tri Parartha* (*punya, asih, and bhakti*); a folktale entitled *Lipi Selem Bukit* (Black Snake on the Hill) with local wisdom values as such as a) human-nature harmonious relation and lascarya. A folktale entitled *Siap Badeng* (Black Hen) with local wisdom values of a) alertness, andkarmapala. A folktale entitled *Ayam Putih Bertelur Emas* (White Hen Laying Gold Eggs) with the local wisdom values of a) *Tri Dandim* (three elements fo control: *namacika* (mind), *wacika* (speech), and *kayika* (act) and b) *Mithia Hrdaya* (avoiding being prejudiced) (Rasna, 2015, pp. 39-48).

• Character Values

The major characters selected are: 1) attitude in relation to Godand 2) attitude in relation to oneself, 3) attitude one's family, 4) attitude in relation to the society and nation, and 5) attitude in relation to the surroundings (Samani dan Hariyanto, 20 12, pp. 46- 49 and Asmani, 2011, pp. 36-41). Lickona (1992) differentiates two types of values: 1) moral values such as honesty, responsibility, impartiality, responsibility to keep promises, to pay debts and to love children.2) nonmoral values. We are bound by moral values, even when we do not like them. But nonmoral values do not have such an obligation. Nonmoral value expresses what we want. I personally am able to respect activities like listening to classical music's, reading good novels, and using Facebook. But, it is obvious that there is no obligation to do them (Kesuma et al, 2011, pp. 63). In brief, these can be shown in Table 03 as follows.



Moral categories according Lickona in Kesuma *et al.*, (2011: 65)

II. METHOD

A. Study Design and Methods

1) Study Design

Based on the problems and aims of this study, the design that was used was descriptive research design. This design was used as the grand design within the period of 3 years (2016-2018). The stages are described in Table 05 as follows.

TABLE 04.
FLOW-CHART OF THE STUDY ENTITLED LOCAL WISDOM IN BALINESE FOLKTALES RELEVANT FOR CHARACTER EDUCATION FOR FIRST GRADERS AT PRIMARY SCHOOL.

First Year (2016)	Second Year (2017).
First year Analysis of Needs • Data about folktales relevant for the first graders at primary school • Local wisdom values that exist in the folktales	Development process that consists of: • Analysis of local wisdom values in the folktales from cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects • Improvement through expert judgment and a test by practitioners.
Study Outcomes • Research Report • Article	Study Outcomes • Research Report • Article

Details of the stages of research with stages during 2 years as follows.

a) First Year

1. Initial Stage

The data needed for the first year are as shown in Table 05, this study used informal approach, that contains spontaneity element and has the pattern (because of the existence of guidance).

2. At the time when the study was in Progress in Relation to Achievement that is related to the Teacher

- This approach was aimed at finding data to explore the data on folktales that are suitable for the first graders at primary school. The teachers were selected and priority was given to first grade teachers or those who have experienced teaching, even having experience in teaching the first grade.

- Education that is related to the student

This approach contains an analysis of first condition of the students by using Bloom’s taxonomies (cognitive, affective and psychomotor). In addition, there is also an analysis of children’s opinions about films that use tales preferred by children. This information is important to explore data about what factors behind their preference. When these data can be obtained it is hoped that they can be applied into the folktales.

b) Second Stage

The second year study about the analysis of Balinese folktales that are relevant in terms of affective, cognitive and psychomotor aspects are to be continued with expert judgment and practitioner (teacher) judgment through desk evaluation. The results from expert judgment are intended for formulating Balinese folktales and their values that are relevant for the first grades at primary school. The results of desk evaluation by the first graders will be useful as the instrument to verify the validity of the Balinese folktales.

B. Population and Sample

The population is differentiated into a) the population of first grade teachers at primary schools who teach Balinese b) the population of educational experts, especially those who understand Balinese and folktales c) the population of folktales and d) folktale experts.

The selection of the population of the first grade teachers at primary schools as key informants was done purposively based on expertise, experience, and credibility. Since folktale experts are scarce, then the experts were directly used as the sample, they were Made Taro for Badung, Wayan Buda Gautama for Gianyar, Dewa Ketut Djareken for Buleleng, and Dr. Wayan Suardiana for Denpasar City. The sample was determined purposively. Purposive sampling was also used for selecting teachers and folktales. The first year study (2016) used the sample of teachers as shown in Table 05.

TABLE 05.
DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBERS OF SAMPLE FOR THE FIRST YEAR STUDY (2016)

No	Regency / City	Number of Primary Schools	Number of Teachers
1.	Buleleng	4	4
2.	Badung	4	4
3.	Denpasar City	4	4
4.	Klungkung	4	4
5.	Tabanan	4	4
Total		20	20

Distribution of the Numbers of Sample for the Second (2017) was the same as that for the First Year Study (2016).

C. Method for Collecting Data

The data collected and methods for collecting data are as shown in Table 06 as follows.

Year	Statement of Problems	Method for Collecting Data	Instruments	Data Analysis	Outcomes
I/1	What folktales are suitable to be taught to the first graders at primary school.	Document recording	Data cards	Descriptive – qualitative Method	1. Research report 2. Article
2.	What local wisdom values are contained in the folktales?	Document recording	Data cards		
II/3	What Balinese folktales to be taught to the first graders at primary school? According to (a) experts, (b) practitioners (teachers)	Text analysis, interview	Balinese folktales and Interview guide		1. Research report 2. Article
4.	What wisdoms are suitable to be taught to the first graders at primary school according to (a) experts, (b) practitioners (teachers).	Interview and direct recording	Interview guide, paper and pen	Descriptive - qualitative method	
5.	How do students respond academically and no academically ?	Observation, interview, direct recording	Observation guide, interview guide, paper, pen	Descriptive- qualitative method	

D. Technique for Analyzing Data

In line with the type of approach and the characteristics of this study, the technique for analyzing data used in this study was descriptive-qualitative technique from the beginning to the end. The stages of analysis started by arranging data collected, categorization, patterning based on the concepts of local until the conclusion could be drawn.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Folktales That Are Suitable to be Taught to the First Graders at Primary School

Folktales that are suitable to be taught to the first graders at primary school according to teachers, folktale experts, and education experts.

1) The Teachers' Opinion

First grade teachers at primary school who have direct experience in the field said that the material from folktales that are suitable to be taught to the first grade at primary school are those that are adapted according to:

- a) Child cognitive development
- b) Child language development
- c) Child socio-culture (ethno-pedagogy)
- d) Child natural environment and learning environment (eco-pedagogy)

Child cognitive development should be considered because existing folktales are seen more from the writer's value perspective, without considering who the consumers are. Especially, when the consumers are the first graders of primary school whose needs in learning development have to be considered. Learning will take place as the effect of their active participation in learning from the people close to them including teachers and parents. The first graders of primary schools according to Piaget are in the concrete preoperational stage that focuses on direct experience, while folktales do not consider for whom they are written. Thus, the folktales that will be used as learning materials have to be modified before being used as learning materials both in terms of vocabulary, sentence structure, cognitive development, the match between the time needed for reading them and the time available in the teaching and learning process to facilitate children to learn something from them. Children are fond of recognizing and identifying objects in their environment, thus the teacher also needs to facilitate children well in learning by giving simple directions.

2) The Folktale Experts' Opinion

According to folktale experts, like Made Taro, W. Buda Gautama and Wayan Suardiana, the folktales need to be adjusted first before being used as learning materials. It means that if the folktale will be used as learning material, before it is used it has to be modified to suit the development of the children who will be taught in terms of cognitive developmental psychology, language development and relevant values to be taught to the students. This relevance will contribute to the level of the students' understanding. The level of the students' understanding is facilitated by: a) the children's cognitive development, b) their language development, c) their sociocultural environment; and d) their natural environment. In addition, the identification of the folktales is also meant to adjust the material to the time available. For example, telling a story for 5 (five) minutes like what is presented by Made Taro in Bali Post daily newspaper every Sunday. Since the folktale was written in the past, with the condition that is very different from a current story condition, then the teacher needs to try to present the story so that 1) the children are interested in the folktales as they are interested in child stories on TV such as Doraemon, 2) the whole story presented without modification, for example, will be long, especially in a language that does not suit the children's age, thus the story will

be left by the children, 3) considering this condition, it is better if the modification is completed with information technological presentation format, and in a simple language that suits the children's age.

3) *The Education Experts' Opinion*

According to the opinion given by the education experts, folktales are less liked by children. Children prefer child stories in films on TV to folktales. After this phenomenon was analyzed, it turns out that there are some causes why folktales are left by the children. The causes are: 1) internal factors and 2) external factors. The internal factors come from the folktales themselves such as settings, in which folktales have the settings in the mountain and in the jungle that are less suitable than the contemporary child's natural environment, in addition to their less suitability in terms of child developmental psychology. Folktales use characters from shadow play gods, with reference to their supernatural powers which is not suitable! less matched with the level of the children's cognitive ability. Since children are at the concrete preoperational stage, while the material is at abstract cognitive stage. This causes disconnection between the material and the children's cognitive ability. This also contributes to the reason why folktales are left by the children. 3). The language used in folktales tend not to fit the first grader's language. That is why they have to be modified to suit the needs. The external factors that contribute to the reasons why the folktales are left by the children are: 1) the difficulty to find story tellers. It is different from the situation in the past .Grandfathers and grandmothers around 1960s always or at least often told stories first before their grandchildren went to bed. Now this is difficult to find this practice. in place of this, parents buy electronic gadgets for their children in order they can focus on their jobs to make money. The second external factor is IT. The presentation in children's stories is far more interesting than that in folktales which do not use IT. To make children like folktales the presentation has to be adjusted to today's development, both in relation to the internal and the external factors. Based on the explanation above, it can be ascertained that the folktales that are suitable to be taught to the first graders at primary school have the characteristics: 1) suitable with the cognitive development, 2) suitable with children's language development, 3) suitable with the children's sociocultural and natural as well as learning environments. The existing folktales still need to be modified before being used as learning materials.

B. *Local Wisdom Values That Are Found in Balinese Folktales*

Discipline and diligence in the story entitled *Cerita Cupak Gerantang* (The Story of Cupak Gerantang). *Cerita Cupak Gerantang* contains discipline and diligence values because early in the morning, I Grantang carries a plowing implement while driving his cow to plow in the rice field. Beside discipline value, politeness value is also present in this folktale. This is shown when I Grantang is slandered by I Cupak by saying that I Grantang only plays and I Cupak works hard plowing the rice field. This makes I Grantang tortured and expelled by his mother. He faces this politely, full of good deeds and accepts what he gets. The story entitled *Laran I Balian Sakti* (Petaka Ilmu Si Dukun Sakti) (The Predicament of a Shaman's Occult Science) contains the lesson that the application of science should be for public welfare. It is not allowed to get knowledge by stealing and cheating. Knowledge has to be applied correctly. The misapplication does not only give a bad impact to other people, but it also gives a bad impact to oneself.

1) Educational value in *Tuwung Kuning* (Yellow Eggplant)

The story *I Tuwung Kuning* has an educational value that teaches people not to gamble. The reason is that gambling does not only cause material loss but it also causes quarrelling in the family and even it can cause death.

2) Compassion value with politeness in the folklore entitled *Cerita Rakyat Tunjung Mas* (The Story of Gold Lily) *Tunjung Mas* contains the local wisdom of compassion (karuna) , which is found in polite utterances Politeness is a refined characteristic from the points of view of grammar and behavior toward all people (Mustari, 2014: 129).

3) Religious value in *Cerita Tunjung Mas*

The religious value is seen in *Pucang's* behavior who gets down slowly into a pond while praying. The religious value is the character value in relation to God according to the teaching of the religion (Mustari, 2014: 1).

4) Kindness and compassion as part of *Tri Parartha* in *Cerita Tunjung Mas Pincang's* behavior in this story is based on the concept of character education of willingness to help. The willingness to help is an attitude and action of always trying to help other people (Mustari, 2014: 183)

5) *Lascarya* (sincerity) and the harmony between human and nature in *Cerita Lelipi Selem Bukit*

The value of *lascarya* (sincerity) is found in *Cerita Lelipi Selem Bukit* in the form of *I Tundeng's* sincerity in which he is willing to sacrifice himself by becoming a snake (a human who has taken the appearance of a snake) to dedicate himself to *I Jero Pasek* to keep his field.

6) *Karma phala* value in *Cerita Siap Badeng* (Black Hen)

The *karma phala* value in this story is seen when *Men Kuuk* plans to kill *Siap Selem* and her chicks who are staying at her house. This act on the contrary to her wish makes her miserable since she attacked a stone wall used by the hen to protect her chicks. *Men Kuuk* attacked a wrong target because her foot slipped.

7) *Tri Dandim* (Three Elements in Self Control)

IV. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

A. *Conclusion*

1. The folktales which are suitable to be taught to the first graders at primary school have the following characteristics: 1) they teach a) politeness in speaking, interactions, behaviors, and education; b) strong religious faith and c) honesty 2) the language in the folktales is simple; 3) the stories are short, like telling a story in 5 minutes, but keeps on focusing on the characters of religious faith, honesty, and mutual respect; 4) the contents suit 's the students' cognitive development so that they do not go beyond the limit of the first grader's ability.

2. The local wisdom values that are contained in the folktales are 1) karuna (compassion); 2) Tri Hita Karana 3) Tri Parartha 4) Lascarya (sincerity); 5) alertness; 6) karma phala; 7) politeness; 8) Tri Dandim (three elements in self control); 9) never being prejudiced (Mithia Hrdaya)

B. Suggestion

Based on the conclusion above, it is suggested that in character education for the first graders at primary school the folktales are not used wholly, but being modified according to the time available, readiness, children's age and children's cognitive development. The character education that is relevant to the first graders at primary school starts from the values of religious faith, honesty, and mutual respect and these values have to be emphasized in every level by giving examples of life experience disclosure.

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The Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Gender on Writing Proficiency of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—This study examined the relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and mental health on writing proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. The data included two groups of males and females in intermediate and advanced level of English language learning from International Center (IT) and Iran Zamin institutes, Zanjan, Iran. The groups were compared based on their emotional intelligence and mental health on writing proficiency. The participants of this study were Iranian EFL learners. Forty out of 60 completely submitted the questionnaire forms and essay writing task, 21 samples of 40 were males from IT institute and 19 samples were females from Iran Zamin institute. They were asked to fill out the personality questionnaire of EI and writing an essay. The writings were scored by the researchers. The collected data were analyzed - using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and independent T-Test. Overall, the statistical analysis indicated that there was no meaningful relationship between emotional intelligence and writing proficiency between the two groups of men and women. The findings of this study can lead EFL teachers and practitioners to understand the weak and strong points of each individual and, accordingly, make up for the weakness and meet the needs of different individual learners.

Index Terms—Emotional Intelligence (EI), gender, writing proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

Linguistic intelligence, emotional intelligence, personality and motivation are different components of language attitude which have effect on learning second language. Among these factors EI plays a critical role in language learning and teaching.

This study was conducted to study the relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI), gender and writing proficiency. EI is the ability to identify your emotions and manage the emotions of others (Goleman, 1995). People have long been interested in how EI has effect on writing proficiency. The current investigation is an explosion of interest in measuring such individuals' emotional intelligence which has effect on writing ability. Since emotional intelligence is considered as one of the factors that affect learning, it can be defined as a cognitive skill that exists and influences the way of our thinking.

Since writing is considered as one of the important skills that affect learning, it can be an important ability for all of the students to be successful in school and in the work place. "Writing or composition has been defined in a variety of ways which shows a lack of agreement as to what composition is, and reflects the complexity of the writing process" (Dung, 2004, p. 11). As Heaton (1988) declared writing is a difficult and complex skill to teach requiring grammatical and rhetorical devices (Heaton, 1988). Writing proficiency is discovered by performance on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) and it is measured by average scale scores. Writing is an embedded factor in the social and cultural experiences, but rather it is not decontextualized activity in which it is produced (Kern, 2000; Hyland, 2002). Clachar (1999) also says, "Emotion may influence writing strategies" (1999, p.31_60).

With respect to gender, there is no meaningful difference between males and females in emotional social intelligence. Among eight-graders in 2011, the average writing proficiency score for females was 20 points higher than average for males.

The significance of this study is emphasized on the relationship between EI and writing ability. It is worth mentioning here that writing skill was one of the beneficial skills for both students and teachers. Academic writing as a manner of learning skill has been especially perceived as a vital aspect of language ability for effective academic accomplishment. In fact, writing helps to shape and transfer our thoughts to paper. It seems, however, that comprehending this skill is significant for teachers and students. EI has a specific role in constructing and sustaining relationships (Goleman, 1995).

This study is helpful for EFL writing ability to be aware of which components of emotional intelligence are more effective for improvement of their writing skill. According to the complexity of components of EI, it can be noticed that which component is better for males and which is better for females. Identifying learners' emotional abilities in

instructive program is very important because students' success in understanding themselves during writing will be conceivable.

Furthermore, understanding certain emotional features in this study was important. It is significant that teachers recognize their own emotions and then be familiar with individuals' emotional intelligence. The topic which is chosen was beneficial for the EFL teachers and students who teach and learn in private institutes and public schools. Therefore, the current study attempted to investigate this question empirically and find whether this relation exists between EI and Iranian advanced learners' writing proficiency or not.

Most of the researchers attempt to discover whether any relationship exists between emotional intelligence and students' second language skills such as writing performance. It is important to note that both EI and writing ability play an important role in assessing EFL learners' outcome in educational systems. The problem is unexplored relationship between EI and writing skill, so studying this problem is vital in understanding the relationship with gender differences.

Based on most of the researchers (e.g. Arnold & Elias, 2006; Daniel Goleman, Tim Shriver, & Eileen Rockefeller Growald, 1994 ; Elias, 2004), EI is significant in education, so all of its possible effects on learners writing proficiency should be investigated.

According to Chaney (2011), learners who have powerful relationships with their teachers and peers have a strong emotion of self and are more inspired to perform (Chaney, 2011). Attention to this problem in the classroom communities and make relationship will increase learners' writing capability. This study was an empirical investigation into the relationship between emotional intelligence, writing proficiency and gender differences of a few Iranian EFL learners include males and females. The current study tried to shed some insight on the effect of emotional intelligence segments on EFL learners' scholarly implementation in writing performance, together with gender differences in some of the different components relating to EI such as Self-awareness, Self-regulation, Internal motivation, Empathy and Social skills. Therefore, the focus of this study was on a holistic judgment of proficiency in writing. It also aimed to discover if the EI has impact on learners' second language writing performance. The other aim of this study was to examine the effect of gender on advanced students' writing proficiency. Since gender has been considered as one of the variables of the present study, it was studied to investigate the effect of this variable and find out whether or not gender could be an effective variable in individuals' writing performance.

The following research question was formulated to find empirical evidence:

RQ1: Is there any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and writing proficiency of Iranian EFL learners?

In order to fulfill the research question of the study the following hypothesis was formulated:

H01: There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and writing proficiency of Iranian EFL learners.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Intelligence

Intelligence is one of the most important argumentative topics in psychology, so there are different theories to explain the nature of the intelligence. To develop your own intelligence, it is important to understand the evolution of the concept of intelligence. Table 1 reports the intelligence timeline which has been designed by the researcher.

TABLE 1:
INTELLIGENCE TIMELINE

Date	Author	Description
1914	Stern	Intelligence is general capacity of an individual consciously to adjust thinking to new requirements. It is the general mental adaptability to new problems and conditions of life
1914	Thorndike	Intelligence is the power of good responses from the point of view of truth or fact
1916	Lewis Madison Terman	Intelligence is the ability to carry on abstract thinking
1921	TermanA.Merril	An individual is the proportion that he is able to carry on abstract thinking.
1924-1973	Thurstone	Intelligence, considered as a mental trait, is the capacity to make impulses focal at their early, unfinished stage of formation. Intelligence is therefore the capacity for abstraction, which is an inhibitory process.
1937	Wagnon	Intelligence is the capacity to learn and adjust to relatively new and changing conditions.
1941	Burt	Intelligence is a fixed, inherited ability.
1944	David Wechsler	Intelligence is the aggregate or global capacity of an individual to act purposeful to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment.
1948	Wood worth and Marquis	Intelligence means intellect put to use. It is the use of intellectual abilities for handling a situation or accomplishing any task.

Major Constituents of Intelligence

Howard Gardner (1983, 1999) supports Thurstone's mentality that intelligence including several forms. Gardner continues Thurstone's study that there is no general intelligence, but rather multiple intelligences. Eight components of Gardner's intelligence including linguistic, logical mathematical, special, musical, bodily- kinesthetic, intrapersonal (self- awareness), interpersonal (other people –awareness) and naturalistic (Gardner, 1999).

Table 2 shows a set of Gardner's multiple intelligence and the brief descriptions of them. Also Robert Sternberg (1985, 1999, & 2003) agrees with Gardner but he believes that there are three types of intelligence; analytical, creative and practical intelligence.

TABLE 2:
GARDNER'S MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE

Definitions	Intelligences
The intelligence of words	Linguistic
The intelligence of pictures and images	Spatial
The intelligence of numbers and reasoning	Logical-mathematical
The intelligence of tone, rhythm, and timbre	Musical
The intelligence of the whole body and hands	Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence
The intelligence of social interactions	Interpersonal intelligence
The intelligence of self-knowledge	Intrapersonal intelligence

Source: Armsrtong (1993)

EQ, IQ, SQ

Intelligence Quotient (IQ)

How intelligence is utilized within educational systems is an important debatable topic in making decisions among the children. Specifically, Intelligence Quotient (IQ) is a considerable factor to evaluate students' placement into specific education. It is a valuable element to differentiate between individuals' ability (Boring, 1923; Cohen & Swerdlik, 2005; Groth- Marnat, 2009). Find suitable answer to the question of, "What is intelligence?" is significant that have emerged during the last 100 years. According to Boring (1923), intelligence is the matter that tests test. (p. 35)

There are some important questions about intelligence and IQ testing to evaluate individuals' mental ability and skills. To evaluate individuals' intelligence and IQ understanding the concept of the four questions are necessary. The following figure represent the four questions of intelligence and IQ testing. Four major questions about Intelligence and IQ testing are:

1. Is intelligence a single ability, or does it involve an assortment of multiple skills and abilities?
2. Is intelligence inherited, or does the environment play a larger role?
3. Are intelligence tests biased?
4. What do intelligence scores predict, if anything?

IQ is used to measure human intelligence to place them in educational settings, occupational performance (Hunter, 1986), academic success (Neisser, 1996) and serve as finders of neurological deficits (Lezak, 2004; Loring & Bauer, 2010).

Based on psychologists there are different ways to assess human intelligence. One of the most important test to measure intelligence (IQ) is Stanford-Binet Intelligence scale. The test is used to measure psychological ability and intelligence that is utilized to analyze intellectual insufficiencies in young children and adults (Bain & Allin, 2005).

The purpose of this scale is to help children and adults to recognize their level of intellectual and cognitive abilities in adolescents, adults, children and preschoolers. The Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale, is also performed in a clinical and educational settings. Different age ranges are manipulated distinct subtests. Thus, it is not measurable for all different age ranges.

Knowledge, quantitative reasoning, visual-spatial processing, working memory and fluid reasoning are five components which are measured by Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale. Each of these elements is tried in two different spaces of verbal and nonverbal (Visual).

Gottfredson (1997b) pointed that intelligence is the capability to deal with difficulty. However, Carroll (1997) describes intelligence as "the total intellectual repertoire of behavioral responses," "some general property or quality ... of the brain," "reaction-time and physiological measures," "many different information-processing abilities" and "the rate with which learning occurs or the time required for learning."

Scientific researches show that people vary from each other in their capacity to comprehend complex ideas, to deal with impediments thought and to take part in different forms of reasoning. The concept of "intelligence" intends to specify and evaluate this complex set of phenomena.

IQ as general mental ability attempts to illustrate the constitutions of mind which consists of abstract thinking capacity, comprehension, solve the problem and learning (Wall Street Journal, 1994). Ceci (1990) stated that the evaluation of the specialists' intelligence was unimportant in predicting the complexity of thinking at the course on a standard intelligence and IQ testing (p. 43).

According to most psychology researchers and IQ tests, there are no important differences between males and females. In 2007 Johns and Bouchard administrated 40-60 psychology tests among men and women that found no sex differences in general intelligence.

Spiritual Quotient (SQ)

In this study EQ is seen as an essential variable, but distinction is made between IQ, SQ and EQ. SQ stand for spiritual quotient which is an essential prerequisite for both IQ and EQ. SQ is the ability to be creative and insightful, to assess that one blueprint is more significant than another, to answer to the fundamental questions. Spiritual intelligence is the human ability to get some information about the importance of life and to experience simultaneously the consistent connection between each of us and the world in which we live (Wolman, 2001).

IQ and EQ help us learn and understand, but SQ help us create. Zohar and Marshall (2000) believe that computer can have a high IQ and animals can have a high EQ, but only human have SQ. These days the concepts of IQ, EQ, and SQ play an important role in the human brain.

Nothawat (2001) through his study, distinguishes three different dimensions of intelligence; Intelligence Quotient (IQ) is the most important test for entrance in educational settings, Emotional Quotient (EQ) is significant for achievement in life and Spiritual Quotient (SQ) is essential for punctual life. According to western psychology (e.g. Zohar & Marshall) IQ and EQ are an essential part of SQ.

The scientific evidence for SQ has been represented in 90s that there is a God-spot or God Quotient (GQ) in the brain which becomes active when people are discussing and thinking about spiritual topics (Persingers, 1996; Ramchandran, 1999). God quotient is a region in the individuals' brain which is located within neural connections in the temporal lobes (Rendon, 2003). Based on Zohar and Marshall's book (2000) "SQ: the ultimate intelligence", SI is an intelligence that we use for asking basic questions and reconstructing our answers, it helps people to solve important problems.

SQ is a set of capabilities includes both the religious and spiritual resources (Emmons, 1999). Rogers and Yang argued that SQ is a cognitive ability to connection between life-world experience and inner domain of the human mind (Rogers, 2003; Yang, 2006).

As Wolman (2001) stated:

By spiritual, it means the ancient and binding human quest for connectedness with something larger and more trustworthy than our egos – with our own souls, with one another, with the world of history and nature, with the invisible winds of the spirit, with the mystery of being alive:

...Spiritual intelligence can best be seen as a capacity for a particular kind of experience we humans possess, and one for which we also demonstrate certain related abilities. Our task now is to understand how this intelligence can and does influence our lives, how its energy can be harnessed, and how we can come to know ourselves better through spiritual self-direction (pp. 26, 119).

Emotional Intelligence (EI)

EI is accounted to affected individuals' satisfaction, happiness, execution, and their impression of life. The same are at the pith of the positive psychology hypothesis (Bar-On, 2010). With the dawn of 21st century, the term of EI is measured as EQ. EI is a useful factor in anticipating people's performance at home, at work and at educational systems, etc. In early 1990's the concept of emotional intelligence was first discovered by Salovey and Mayer, then supported by Goleman with publication of his book: "*Why it can matter more than IQ*" in 1995.

Personality trait and ability are two distinct definitions of emotional intelligence. This study admits using the ability model because it is measurable by Scutte Emotional Intelligence Scale. It is only one way to measure EI based on this method. EI is the ability to identify your own emotions and manage the emotions of others (Goleman, 1995). It is a kind of skill to understand other people, what motivates them and how work together for a shared purpose (Howard Gardner, the influential Harvard theorist).

Three main branches of EI by Salovey and Mayer (1990) consist of: 1) appraisal and expression of emotion 2) regulation of emotion 3) utilization of emotion. The third branch of EI contains of four categories, including (1) Flexible Planning (2) Creative Thinking, (3) Redirected Attention, (4) Motivation Goleman conceptualizes emotional intelligence as "the abilities ... which include Self-control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself" ... and ... "an old-fashion word for the body of skills that emotional intelligence represents: character" (Goleman, 1995a, p.28).

Goleman says that, "I think you (Reuven Bar-on) maybe ahead of everyone in already developed an EQ scale. This is a promising, pioneering effort in assessing key elements of emotional Intelligence".

Salovey and Mayer (1990) pointed that EI is the subset of social intelligence that includes the ability to monitor a person's emotion and others feelings, to utilize this information to guide one's thinking and activities and to distinguish between them.

EI is the capacity to process emotional information, especially as it includes the perception, assimilation, understanding and management of emotion (Mayer, & Cobb, 2000). However: Goleman (1997) explains it as a capacity to emphasize and hope; to stimulate oneself and control stimulation in the face of disappointments to regulate people's mind from confusion. Researchers have found that, emotional awareness and ability more that IQ will focus on your success and satisfaction in all kinds of different backgrounds, including family relationships.

Individuals are better at comparative thinking and creative critical thinking in great dispositions (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995).

"An emotion occurs when there are certain biological, certain experiential, and certain cognitive states which all occur simultaneously" (Mayer, 1999, p).

According to the Eclopedia of applied psychology (2004) three models of Emotional Intelligence include, (1) ability model, (2) trait model and (3) mixed model that are going to be discussed in the following sections.

Emotional Intelligence Models

Mayer and Salovey: The Ability Model of EI

Ability model known as Mayer-Salovey Emotional Intelligence model. This model is the first model that stresses on individuals' emotional information (Mayer & Salovey; 1997). They also propose that ability EI model is the proficiency to understand, represent and control emotion in the self and other people.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) talk about four branches of EI:

1. Perception of emotion: The ability to recognize and express emotions in oneself and other people as well as in voices, music and other stimuli.
2. Use of emotion to facilitate thinking: The ability to access and generate emotion, use of emotion and feel emotion to communicate feeling.
3. Understanding of emotion: The ability to analyze and understand emotional information. It entails an understanding of the emotional lexicon and the way in which emotions communicate progress, and transition from one to the other.
4. Management of emotion: One of the vital part of EI is the ability to manage emotion, controlling emotions, reacting to the emotions of others.

Trait EI model

The second model is a trait model developed by Reven Bar-on, focuses on cognitive ability and personality aspects. Trait EI model is "constellation of emotional self- perceptions located at the lower levels of personality (Petrides, Pita & Kokkinaki, 2007). This model plays a significant role to perceive the intrinsic individuality of emotional skill.

Bar-On: A Mixed Model of EI

Bar-On outlines five components of emotional intelligence: intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management, and general mood. Table 3 shows all components and sub-components of EI. The model has exhibited utility as far as anticipating administration potential and execution in military reciters (Bar-on, Handley, & Fund 2006). The model has also been reformed with measures of leadership effectiveness from research manipulated at the center of creative leadership (Bar-on, Handley, & Fund 2006).

TABLE 3:
BAR-ON'S MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Components	Sub-Components
Intrapersonal	Self-Regard Emotional Self-Awareness Assertiveness Independence Self-Actualization
Interpersonal	Empathy Social Responsibility Interpersonal Relationship
Adaptability	Reality Testing Flexibility Problem Solving
Stress Management	Stress Tolerance Impulse Control
General Mood Components	Optimism Happiness

Source: Yvonn & Shelley (2004)

III. METHODOLOGY

Design

Due to the differing nature of variables in the design of this study, the variables could have different functions in the research question. Also, because of considering the effect of independent variables on the dependent variables, the design of this study is ex-post facto design

Participant

To understand the effect of the EI and mental health on writing proficiency better, the researchers administrated questionnaire of emotional intelligence and an essay writing task among the 60 students of English language learning from IT and Iran Zamin institutes, Zanjan, Iran. Forty out of 60 participants completely submitted the questionnaire

forms and wrote an essay with a certain topic, 19 samples of 40 were females from IT and 21 were males from Iran Zamin institute. Participants were selected from 5 classes that each included of approximately 8 students.

The researchers selected the same topic for all participants to write about, students kept their essays in individual portfolios which they took home during and at the end of the week students returned their papers. Researchers began collecting data in approximately two weeks to give students opportunity to have a body of writing. Before conducting research, researcher had to gain permission from both managers in the IT and Iran Zamin institutes. It was necessary to gain approval to ensure that the research did not have any harmful effect on our samples.

Instrument

Two different types of instruments were used in this paper. The first instrument was the questionnaire which consisted of 33-item to test participant’s emotional Intelligence. The items consisted of four categories. Ten items were related to perception of Emotion; 9 items were related to managing own emotion; 8 items were regarded to managing others’ emotion, and 6 items were related to utilizing of emotion. The second instrument was essay writing to evaluate participant’s writing proficiency. Two criteria were considered to grade the participant’s essay writing which were sentence structure and grammar, the items composing the subscales were as follows: Use of variety of sentence structure and overall grammar.

Data collection

The data were collected in two places in IT and Iran Zamin institutes in Zanjan,, Iran. Questionnaires were distributed among the participants in intermediate and advanced level of English language learning .To better understanding the researcher explained the nature of the questionnaire and translated (backward and forward translation by experts) all items from English to Persian with loud voice to all participants and also explained how they should fill out the forms and asked them to write their age and name.

Data Analysis

The data collected fed into SPSS to get descriptive output as Mean and Standard Deviations (SD). Kolmogorov - Smirnov test and independent t-test were utilized to emotional scales and its subscales.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A one sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was conducted to check the normality of distribution of the scores. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test estimates the parameters from the sample. The sample mean and standard deviation were the parameters for a normal deviation, the sample mean was the parameter for the poison distribution, and the sample mean was the parameter for the exponential distribution. This study empirically investigated the relationship between EI/ mental health and writing proficiency of Iranian English language learners within the two groups of males and females. For this aim 33-item EI scale and an essay writing task were administrated to the participants. The collected data were analyzed using of SPSS 19. To conduct the normal distribution of the scores, one sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to gain scores in SPSS. The distribution was decided normal since the p-value ($p > 0.05$). As it can be seen in table 4, the data followed the poison distribution ($D = .125, .142, .126$ and $.124$ respectively for variables; perception of Emotion, managing own emotion, managing other emotion and utilization of Emotion, $N=40$ each, and $p > 0.05$ each).

TABLE 4:
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST FOR DISTRIBUTION CHECKING

		Perception of Emotion	Managing own Emotions	Managing Other's Emotions	Utilization of Emotion
N		40	40	40	40
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	3.4405	3.6333	3.7116	3.6767
	Std. Deviation	.49894	.53431	.58437	.68804
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.125	.142	.126	.124
	Positive	.093	.086	.099	.075
	Negative	-.125	-.142	-.126	-.124
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.793	.899	.798	.782
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.555	.394	.547	.573

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

The T-Test was evaluated to determine the significant differences between male and female on EL. Table 5 provided useful descriptive statistics for two groups of male and female, including the mean and standard deviation .As the table 5 showed ,the participants were 21 males and 19 females ($N= 40$). The descriptive analysis of the subjects were presented in table4 .The result showed that males’ mean score was more than females’ score on the perception of emotion, managing own emotion and utilizing of emotion while scores on managing others’ emotions were approximately the same.

TABLE 5:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EI VS. GENDER AS TWO INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Perception of Emotion	Male	21	3.5150	.54089	.11803
	Female	19	3.3582	.44798	.10277
Managing own Emotions	Male	21	3.7895	.49748	.10856
	Female	19	3.4606	.53258	.12218
Managing Other's Emotions	Male	21	3.7126	.57976	.12651
	Female	19	3.7105	.60532	.13887
Utilization of Emotion	Male	21	3.7222	.62515	.13642
	Female	19	3.6263	.76575	.17567

Table6 indicated that there were two parts of the output, levenes' test for equality of variances and t-test for equality of means. The table 6 below depicted the results for the t-test independent samples. As it can be seen, the obtained p-value (sig.) was higher than 0.05 meant that the variability in conditions was approximately the same. It meant that the variability in the conditions was not significantly different, which was a good. Table6 also showed the sig.2-tailed values are higher than 0.05 in perception of emotion, managing others' emotion and utilizing emotion which meant there was no statistically significant differences between males and females, while it was approximately equal to 0.05 in managing own emotion which meant there are significant differences between male and female of EI.

Table 6: Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Perception of Emotion	Equal variances assumed	1.177	.285	.992	38	.327	.15678	.15801	-.16309	.47665
	Equal variances not assumed			1.002	37.727	.323	.15678	.15651	-.16013	.47368
Managing own Emotions	Equal variances assumed	.069	.794	2.019	38	.051	.32886	.16287	-.00086	.65858
	Equal variances not assumed			2.012	36.926	.052	.32886	.16344	-.00233	.66005
Managing Other's Emotions	Equal variances assumed	.710	.405	.011	38	.991	.00206	.18744	-.37740	.38152
	Equal variances not assumed			.011	37.210	.991	.00206	.18786	-.37851	.38262
Utilization of Emotion	Equal variances assumed	1.804	.187	.436	38	.666	.09591	.22015	-.34976	.54158
	Equal variances not assumed			.431	34.849	.669	.09591	.22242	-.35570	.54752

TABLE 7:
THE CANDIDATES' WRITING PROFICIENCY SCORES

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1	10	25.0	25.0	25.0
2	7	17.5	17.5	42.5
3	5	12.5	12.5	55.0
4	14	35.0	35.0	90.0
5	4	10.0	10.0	100.0
Total	40	100.0	100.0	

Table 8 showed the relationship between the scores and variables. Pearson correlation was used to peruse the relationship between them. SPSS19 will output a cross tabulation table that included a value for Pearson correlation and a 2-tailed significance value. If value of "sig." reported was equal to or less than 0.05 (at the 95% level of confidence) or 0.01 (at the 99% level of confidence), the correlation was significant and the null hypothesis was rejected. Thus table

8 indicated that there was a significant correlation between perception of emotion and utilization of emotion at the 0.05 level while according to the result there was a meaningful correlation between managing own emotion and managing other’s emotion at the 0.01 level. As a result the correlation between two variables, perception of emotion and managing own emotion and also the correlation between managing others’ emotion and utilizing of emotion was positive.

As shown in table 8, the correlation between perception of emotion and writing proficiency score was “.169” and p-value is “.298”, the correlation between managing own emotion and score was “.212” and p-value was “.189”, the correlation between managing other’s emotion and writing proficiency score was “.327” and p-value was “.040” which meant their relationship was significant at the 0.05 level and finally the correlation between utilization of emotion and score was “.205” and p-value was “.203”. The correlation can range from -1 to +1, with -1 indicating a perfect negative correlation, +1 indicating a perfect positive correlation, and zero indicating no correlation at all.

TABLE 8:
CORRELATION ANALYSES AMONG EI SUB-SCALES AND WRITING PROFICIENCY SCORES

		Perception of Emotion	Managing own Emotions	Managing Other's Emotions	Utilization of Emotion	Score
Perception of Emotion	Pearson Correlation	1	.731**	.511**	.373*	.169
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.001	.018	.298
	N	40	40	40	40	40
Managing own Emotions	Pearson Correlation	.731**	1	.587**	.575**	.212
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.189
	N	40	40	40	40	40
Managing Other's Emotions	Pearson Correlation	.511**	.587**	1	.604**	.327*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000		.000	.040
	N	40	40	40	40	40
Utilization of Emotion	Pearson Correlation	.373*	.575**	.604**	1	.205
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.018	.000	.000		.203
	N	40	40	40	40	40
Score	Pearson Correlation	.169	.212	.327*	.205	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.298	.189	.040	.203	
	N	40	40	40	40	40

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

V. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to find the effect of the Emotional Intelligence (EI) and mental health on writing proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. EI is a capacity to understand your own emotions and manage other’s emotions. Writing proficiency is an important part of communication. Writing is a more active process than other skills such as reading, speaking and listening. The result suggests that there is a loose relationship between writing proficiency and EI. Even if there is not a significant correlation between EI and writing proficiency, it could be an indirect effect on writing skills. A positive outcome of this study was the finding that only there is a significant correlation between managing other’s emotion and writing proficiency scores at the 0.05 level. Moreover, based on the result, there is no significant difference between passion of men and women. In fact, writing about positive experiences improved individual’s happiness and health. In other words, creating positive emotion can have a positive effect on writing proficiency.

APPENDIX. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE

Perception of Emotion (items 5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 32, 33)

Managing Own Emotions (2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, 31)

Managing Others’ Emotions (1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, 30)

Utilization of Emotion (6, 7, 8, 17, 20, 27)

Directions: Each of the following items asks you about your emotions or reactions associated with emotions. After deciding whether a statement is generally true for you, use the 5-point scale to respond to the statement. Please circle the “1” if you strongly disagree that this is like you, the “2” if you somewhat disagree that this is like you, “3” if you neither agree nor disagree that this is like you, the “4” if you somewhat agree that this is like you, and the “5” if you strongly agree that this is like you. There is no right or wrong answers. Please give the response that best describes you.

1=strongly disagree

2=somewhat disagree

3=neither agree nor disagree

4=somewhat agree

5=strongly agree

1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others. 1 2 3 4 5
2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them. 1 2 3 4 5
3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try. 1 2 3 4 5
4. Other people find it easy to confide in me. 1 2 3 4 5
5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people. 1 2 3 4 5
6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important. 1 2 3 4 5
7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities. 1 2 3 4 5
8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living. 1 2 3 4 5
9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them. 1 2 3 4 5
10. I expect good things to happen. 1 2 3 4 5
11. I like to share my emotions with others. 1 2 3 4 5
12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last. 1 2 3 4 5
13. I arrange events others enjoy. 1 2 3 4 5
14. I seek out activities that make me happy. 1 2 3 4 5
15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others. 1 2 3 4 5
16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others. 1 2 3 4 5
17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me. 1 2 3 4 5
18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing. 1 2 3 4 5
19. I know why my emotions change. 1 2 3 4 5
20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas. 1 2 3 4 5
21. I have control over my emotions. 1 2 3 4 5
22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them. 1 2 3 4 5
23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on. 1 2 3 4 5
24. I compliment others when they have done something well. 1 2 3 4 5
25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send. 1 2 3 4 5
26. When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I experienced this event myself. 1 2 3 4 5
27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas. 1 2 3 4 5
28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail. 1 2 3 4 5
29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them. 1 2 3 4 5
30. I help other people feel better when they are down. 1 2 3 4 5
31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles. 1 2 3 4 5
32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice. 1 2 3 4 5
33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do. 1 2 3 4 5

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On the Relationship of Students' English Learning Beliefs and Learning Strategy in the University

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Abstract—The research conducts a questionnaire survey and interview on students' English learning beliefs and learning strategy in a particular college in Jiangxi province in order to have a better understanding of college students' English learning beliefs and learning strategy, and the results indicate that the learning beliefs of students is in a middle level, the mean of motivation expectation is the strongest, students overestimate learning difficulties, underestimate their own learning ability, and they have certain wrong beliefs on the understanding of the nature of learning; As for English learning strategy, students' using level is medium, compensation strategy is the most frequently used, and the least frequently used is the memory strategy and affective strategy. English learning beliefs and learning strategy are closely related; English learning beliefs and learning strategy are not correlated with English achievement respectively. Therefore, teachers should help students to establish correct learning beliefs, and pay attention to gender differences in English learning, enhance male students' self-confidence, encourage female students to enhance their confidence, and guide male students to use more memory strategy and social strategy in order to improve the quality of English teaching in normal universities. The purpose of this study is to better understand the English learning beliefs and learning strategy used by normal university students, and to provide some references for improving the quality of English teaching in universities.

Index Terms—learning beliefs, motivation expectation, learning strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning beliefs, also known as language learning concepts, refer to the learner's understanding of the nature and process of language knowledge learning (Zhang, 2008), and it is one of the important factors that affect language learning success. At present, the study of language learning beliefs has become a hot topic in the study of second language acquisition. Experts and scholars at home and abroad have studied the beliefs of language learning from different angles and has achieved many results. Horwitz (1987) first proposed the concept of language learning beliefs, and divided language learning beliefs into five factors, namely, foreign language aptitude, language learning difficulty, language learning nature, learning / communicative strategy and motivation. Many studies show that learning beliefs and some individual factors (such as learning strategy, learning style, age, personality, self-efficacy, learning anxiety, learning autonomy, cultural background, individual differences and school differences, academic achievement, gender differences, grade differences and major differences) has significant correlation (Yang, 1999; Dai, 2002; Wu, 2013; Xie, 2014; Song, 2016).

Since 1970s, with the emphasis on applied linguistics shift from "teaching" to "learning", the learning strategy has aroused widespread concern in the field of linguistics (Flavel, 1971; Cotterall, 1999; Aek Phakiti, 2003; Bernat, 2006; Wen, 2001; Liu, 2017; Wang, 2017). The domestic and foreign language researchers conducted a lot of research on learning strategy from the classification, influence of learning strategy on learning factors, learning strategy selection, relationship between learning strategy and academic achievement, strategy training, and reading, writing, listening, vocabulary learning strategy in different aspects in detail and other aspects of the investigation (Rubin, 1987; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wen, 2001; Gong, 2008; Chang, 2012; Huang, 2017; Du, 2017; Gao, 2017), and formed a basic consensus, namely, language learning strategy is an important means for students to learn to study. The classification of language learning strategy is still controversial, and Oxford's (1990) classification is the most comprehensive and detailed one, that is, the language learning strategy is classified into two categories: direct strategy (including memory strategy, cognitive strategy and compensation strategy) and indirect strategy (including meta-cognitive strategy, affective strategy and social strategy).

In conclusion, the current study of English learning beliefs and learning strategy is usually separate, and the research object generally focuses on college English major undergraduate or graduate students. However, the study combines learning beliefs and learning strategy together taking students in the second level university as research subjects, which is particularly scarce. This study intends to explore the relationship between learning beliefs, learning strategy and academic performance based on the learning characteristics of the second level university, so as to find a reliable way to

improve the quality of English teaching in the second level university.

II. RESEARCH METHODS

A. Subjects

The subjects of this study are English majors, 105 Junior students chosen from three randomly selected classes of the second level university in Jiangxi province. The questionnaire was issued and retrieved on the spot in class in the second week of the autumn semester of 2016, and the actual recovery of effective questionnaires were 100 copies, of which 90 female students, 10 male students.

B. Research Instrument

Data were obtained through questionnaires and interviews. Two questionnaires were used in the study: language learning beliefs questionnaire and English learning strategy questionnaire. "Language learning beliefs questionnaire" is the Chinese version of "The inventory of beliefs of language learning" designed by Horwitz (1987). The questionnaire uses Likert's five scale scores, with a total of 34 items, including five factors: foreign language learning aptitude, language learning difficulty, language learning nature, learning / communicative strategy and motivation / expectation. "The English learning strategy questionnaire", is the Chinese version of "English learning strategy questionnaire" by Oxford (1990) and the questionnaire consists of 50 items, including six factors, namely, memory strategy, cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy, affective / social strategy. The English academic score of this study adopts the score of CET4 (College English Test Band 4) (at the research time, students have not yet sat for the test of TEM4 (Test for English majors). The interviewees were randomly selected from 5 classes in three classes, with a total of 15 students. The interview time of each student was 5 minutes. The main purpose is to illustrate the answers to the questionnaire.

C. Data Processing

SPSS 22.0 software was employed to conduct descriptive statistical analysis and correlation analysis of the 100 valid questionnaire data collected.

III. RESEARCH RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. General Usage of Language Learning Beliefs

Learning beliefs are important affective factors for learners in English learning which guides students' learning activities. Through descriptive statistical analysis of students' beliefs about English learning (Table1), among all the factors of learning beliefs, motivation / expectation, and learning / communicative strategy have the highest mean, and the mean of language learning nature and learning aptitude is the lowest. The average score of CET4 is only 478, and the standard deviation is 35.8346. As for the English majors in the second level university, the overall level of students' English achievement is not satisfactory.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' ENGLISH LEARNING BELIEFS

	min	max	mean	SD
General learning beliefs	2.65	3.76	3.3322	.24046
Motivation/expectation	2.75	4.50	3.6379	.45647
Learning/communicative strategy	2.43	4.29	3.5108	.43823
Language learning difficulty	2.00	4.50	3.2557	.36168
Language learning nature	2.45	3.91	3.2270	.40429
Language learning aptitude	2.40	4.10	3.1245	.38325
CET4 score	410	545.3448	477.6724	35.83460

The mean of students' motivation/expectation is the highest, which indicates that students have some strong motivation to learn English, and have strong expectations and anticipations for their English learning. The students pay more attention to the learning / communicative strategy, and think that learning English is very important. Students are also willing to actively seek opportunities to communicate with others, better at using social resources to learn English, and they can also realize the importance of improving their comprehensive ability of English, especially the importance of oral communicative ability. The mean of learning aptitude is lowest and the minimum is only 2.4, which demonstrates that students generally overestimate learning difficulties, lack confidence in their own learning ability, and underestimate their language learning ability. The mean of language learning difficulty is in the last third. The minimum value is only 2, showing that students have some difficulties. There is a deviation as for the students' understanding of the nature of language learning and they lay excessive emphasis on English grammar learning.

B. General Usage of Language Learning Strategy

The choice and use of English learning strategy is crucial to students' English learning. The descriptive statistical analysis based on students' learning strategy (Table 2) indicates that, the mean of the students' use of language learning strategy participated in the survey is between 2.5 and 3.4, which shows that students only sometimes use learning

strategy, and learning strategy use level is not high, but the frequency of use is in a balance. Specifically, the compensation strategy has the highest frequency of use, followed by meta-cognitive strategy and social strategy, and the most commonly used are affective strategy and memory strategy. Compensation strategy is the strategy used by learners to gain more communicative resources, maintain communication and improve communicative effects. This study shows that students can actively approach English difficulties and flexibly use English in their English learning to some extent. Students have a certain sense of meta-cognition, and have the ability of self-management, self-planning, self-regulation and self-evaluation. Memory strategy has the lowest mean value, less than 3, which shows that students are not good at using memory strategy. The most commonly used memory strategy is rote learning, and the students are not familiar with other memory strategy, which is rarely used. The frequency of students' affective strategy is not high, the standard deviation is the largest (.67619), and the minimum is only 1.33, which shows that students have some shortcomings in overcoming anxiety, encouraging themselves and managing their own emotions. The results are different from those of Zhang's (2008) and Liu's (2010). The reason may lie in the different research subjects.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' USAGE OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY

	min	max	mean	SD
General learning strategy	2.34	4.02	3.0900	.41579
Compensation strategy	2.33	4.83	3.3080	.50058
Meta-cognitive strategy	2.00	4.56	3.2271	.57899
Social strategy	1.67	4.17	3.1051	.55595
Cognitive strategy	2.07	4.29	3.0621	.47729
Affective strategy	1.33	4.50	3.0616	.67619
Memory strategy	1.44	4.11	2.8599	.51450

C. Gender Differences of Language Learning Beliefs and Learning Strategy

Through the independent sample T test on English learning beliefs and learning strategy of male and female students (Table 3), in the aspects of the general learning strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy, affective strategy and cognitive strategy, while female students' mean is lower than that of female students, yet there is no significant difference in the use of these aspects, and the level of their language learning strategy is very similar. And there are significant gender differences in social strategy and memory strategy.

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T TEST OF GENDER DIFFERENCES OF LANGUAGE LEARNING BELIEFS AND LEARNING STRATEGY

	gender	mean	SD	t	Sig.
General learning beliefs	F	3.2839	.26030	-1.162	.252
	M	3.4608	.08985		
Motivation /expectation	F	3.7267	.42892	.239	.812
	M	3.6667	.14434		
Learning/communicative strategy	F	3.5449	.44553	-1.101	.920
	M	3.5714	.37796		
Language learning difficulty	F	3.3333	.58141	-1.061	.039
	M	2.9651	.57735		
Language learning nature	F	3.1755	.30630	-1.212	.232
	M	3.3939	.18924		
Language learning aptitude	F	3.1070	.36148	-1.367	.017
	M	3.4000	.30000		
Learning strategy	F	3.1060	.42362	.991	.327
	M	2.8600	.19079		
Compensation strategy	F	3.3101	.51252	0.107	0.300
	M	3.2778	.34694		
Meta-cognitive strategy	F	3.2326	.59580	0.242	0.810
	M	3.1481	.27962		
Social strategy	F	3.1240	.56938	.873	.038
	M	2.8333	.16667		
Cognitive strategy	F	3.0781	.48940	.856	.397
	M	2.8333	.10911		
Affective strategy	F	3.0698	.69506	.307	.147
	M	2.9444	.34694		
Memory strategy	F	2.8992	.48177	1.362	.030
	M	2.2963	.75632		
English score	F	523	10.0324	1.121	.243
	M	430	20.357		

In the general learning beliefs, learning/communicative strategy, language learning nature, the mean of male students is higher than that of female students, but there is no significant difference. In motivation/expectations, the mean of female students' is higher, indicating that female students have much stronger motivation to learn English, but there is still no significant difference. In learning difficulty and foreign language learning aptitude, there is a significant difference between male students and female students, male students think learning English is easier, and their learning

aptitude is also higher. And there is no significant difference between male and female students in English learning achievement.

D. *The Relations among the Learning Beliefs, Learning Strategy and English Score*

The results of Pearson correlation analysis of English learning beliefs and learning strategy of students indicates that (Table 4): 1) The general learning beliefs has a significant positive correlation with cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy, the general learning strategy, which means that the higher the level of learning beliefs, the more frequent use of cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy, and general learning strategy; 2) Learning aptitude has significant positive correlation with cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy and general learning strategy. The more students believe that they have language learning ability, the more they use cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy and general learning strategy; 3) Learning / communicative strategy has a significant positive correlation with general learning strategy. Because learning / communicative strategy belongs to learning beliefs, and belong to the learning strategy as well, which overlaps; 4) There is a significant positive correlation between motivation and compensation strategy, that is, motivation is higher, students use compensation strategy more frequently; 5) General learning strategy and its factors are not related to and the English achievement; 6) General learning beliefs and its factors are not related to the English achievement.

TABLE 4
PEARSON CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH LEARNING BELIEFS AND LEARNING STRATEGY

	Language aptitude	Language learning difficulty	Language learning nature	Learning/communicative strategy	Motivation/expectation	General learning beliefs	English score
Memory strategy	.187	-.096	.116	.269	.184	.240	.037
Cognitive strategy	.318*	.080	.262	.279	.257	.391**	-.049
Compensation strategy	.363*	-.007	.079	.166	.401*	.316*	-.123
Cognitive strategy	.345*	.136	.214	.165	-.007	.301*	-.092
Affective strategy	.246	.110	.022	.241	.026	.215	-.058
Social strategy	.242	.084	.013	.191	.153	.213	-.122
General learning strategy	.370*	.072	.182	.293*	.209	.376**	-.079
English score	-.168	.067	.248	.200	.063	.117	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (double-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (double-tailed).

IV. DISCUSSION

A. *The Students' English Learning Beliefs at a Middle Level with a Large Deviation*

Among the factors of learning beliefs, motivation/expectation and learning/communicative strategy have the highest mean value, and the mean of language learning nature and learning aptitude is the lowest. Comparatively speaking, the students' motivation is the strongest, 94% the students want to learn English well, and English learning motivation is clear, but most motivation is external instrumental motivation, most students' motivation is to find a decent job, students often easily give up because of external factors. Therefore, teachers should focus on cultivating students' intrinsic motivation of English learning, and guide students to combine the internal integration motivation and extrinsic instrumental motivation, so that students will learn to learn happily, and also improve learning efficiency. Most students lack confidence in English learning, underestimate their ability to learn English, overestimate and fear learning difficulties. Although they think they are good at English learning, they cannot reach the level of "special ability", and they do not see their potential. Nearly half of the students think that they cannot learn English well, because of many reasons, such as fear of difficulties, lack of willpower, negative attribution, lack of self-confidence, weak English foundation, heavy schoolwork, examination pressure, employment pressure and so on. The students' understanding of the of English learning nature is vague and there are some deviations. Most students pay too much attention to the study of English grammar, and think grammar learning is the most important, ignoring the importance of English communicative ability.

B. *The Students' Use of English Learning Strategy at a Medium Level*

Students in the study only use English learning strategy sometimes, and their use of English learning strategy is not high. Among the factors of English learning strategy, compensation strategy is the most frequently used, followed by meta-cognitive strategy and social strategy, and the least frequently used ones are affective strategy and memory strategy. Memory strategy have the smallest mean, which indicates that students are not good at using memory strategy, and their most commonly used memory strategy is rote learning, and they are not familiar with other memory strategy, which are rarely used. English learning is a process fighting against forgetting, so the memory strategy is extremely important, teachers should guide students to master some useful memory strategy, such as lexical chunks, understanding method, organization chart method, visualization, association, rhyming, presentation, writing a sentence, the initial letter and taking notes and reading aloud method, singing, fun method, segmentation method, comparative method, self-questioning method, transliteration, repeating and so on. The deviation of affective strategy is the largest, and the

difference between students is large. The frequency of students' affective strategy is not high, which shows that students have some shortcomings in overcoming anxiety, encouraging themselves and controlling emotions, and students are not confident enough. Therefore, students can use self-suggestion, self-encouragement, self-reward and other methods to regulate emotions, and they usually also need to practice English, make adequate preparations, enhance self-confidence, improve self-efficacy, conduct positive self-attribution, and improve the frequency of affective strategy use.

C. *There Are Gender Differences in Some Factors of English Learning Beliefs and Learning Strategy*

Among the factors of social strategy and memory strategy, the mean of female students' is higher than that of male students, and there is significant gender difference. Female students are better at using social strategy, and better at communicating with others, and while meeting with learning difficulties, they often try to seek help from others, while male students are usually independent, single handed, dislike cooperation, and do not like to turn to others for help. Teachers should encourage male students to grasp communicative opportunities both in and out of class, communicate with others in English, focus on meaning expression rather than fluency in communication, and encourage male students to seek help when they are in trouble. Compared with male students, female students are better at using memory strategy, and they are more attentive and careful. Therefore, more memory strategy is used by female students, and the frequency of use is higher. On English learning motivation / expectations, female students have higher mean, and female students' English learning motivation in general are much clearer than that of male students, and the interview results also show that the female students' internal integration motivation is stronger, but there is no significant difference between male and female students. But in learning difficulties and foreign language learning aptitude, there is a significant difference between male and female students. Although male students are not as good as female students in English, male students are more optimistic and confident in English learning, and have higher self-efficacy. They think learning English is easier and learning aptitude is also higher.

D. *English Learning Beliefs Closely Related to Learning Strategy*

English learning beliefs and learning strategy are inseparable, and the relations are as follows, 1) The general learning beliefs have significantly positive correlation with cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy and general learning strategy respectively, namely, the higher level the general learning beliefs, the higher using frequency of cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy and general learning strategy. 2) Learning aptitude has significantly positive correlation with cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy and general learning strategy. The more students believe that they have language learning ability, the more they use cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy and general learning strategy; 3) the general learning strategy and learning / communicative strategy are significantly positively correlated. Because learning/communicative strategy belong to both learning beliefs and learning strategy, so there is a overlapping; 4) There is a significant positive correlation between motivation and compensation strategy, and the higher the motivation is, the higher the frequency of compensation strategy is. The English learning beliefs and learning strategy are closely related, therefore, English teachers should pay more attention to the students' English learning beliefs, correct the errors of students learning concept, guide students to establish a correct concept of learning, stimulate students' English learning motivation, and enhance students' self-confidence, which can make students more frequent and more effective users of English learning strategy, and teachers should promote English learning, and improve English learning achievement.

E. *English Learning Beliefs and Learning Strategy not Related to English Achievement*

Learning beliefs and learning strategy have some influence on English learning achievement, but they are not related to English learning achievement. The results are quite different from those found by some experts and scholars. Liu's (2003) research on English learning beliefs shows that there is a significant negative correlation between motivation concept and English achievement, and there is a positive correlation between language learning beliefs and English achievement. The study of Mei (2013) pointed out that the learning difficulty concept was positively correlated with the CET4 achievement, and the learning nature was negatively correlated with CET4 achievement; the difficulty of foreign language learning had predictive power to the CET4 achievement, and the learning nature had negative predictive power to CET4 achievement. About English learning strategy, Gong's (2008) study shows, except that compensation and memory strategy are not related, the other learning strategy have significant correlation in between; Among the six kinds of learning strategy, memory strategy, cognitive strategy and meta-cognitive strategy affect students' English achievement most. Zhang's (2009) study has shown that memory strategy is positively correlated with the English achievement, and other learning strategies are not related to academic achievement. There are many reasons for the differences, and one of the most important factors is that there are differences among the subjects.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper analyzes the relationship between English learning beliefs, learning strategy and English achievement through questionnaire and interview on English majors in a normal university. The results show that the students' English learning beliefs are in the middle level, and there is a big deviation; The students' use of English learning strategy is in the middle level; There are gender differences in certain factors English learning beliefs and learning

strategy; English learning beliefs and learning strategy are closely related; English learning beliefs and learning strategy are not correlated with English achievement respectively.

The research results offer some implications for the college English teaching. On the one hand, the teacher should understand the students' English learning beliefs, guide students to make a correct evaluation of their own English learning beliefs, help students to turn correct ideas into action, and guide students to learn how to use their own resources; Teachers should correct students' wrong ideas about language learning, help students to establish correct beliefs of learning, and improve students' level of English learning beliefs and cognition and action. On the other hand, teachers should pay attention to gender differences in the English teaching. Teachers should encourage, guide female students to conduct success-ability attribution and fail-effort attribution, and seek to improve self-confidence and learning aptitude; Besides, the teacher should guide the male students to use more memory strategy and social strategy, guide them to flexibly use more memory strategy, and encourage them to actively make use of social resources and engage in the cooperation learning.

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The Efficacy of Pair Interaction in Teaching Communicative English Grammar

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Abstract—Grammar learning for proficiency has been debated by the language acquisition and linguists proponents. The study aimed at finding out the best grammar teaching strategies for proficiency to be used in actual communication. The study used a quasi-experimental non-equivalent control group design that involved 120 students of English Department of four different private universities in Makassar which were selected randomly from the same year intake. The data were collected through proficiency test which covered the aspects of grammar, listening, speaking, reading and writing. Multivariate analysis was used to examine the proficiency differences among students who learned grammar through pair interaction and those learned through small groups interaction in five areas of proficiency. The data analysis results and interpretation showed that students who learned grammar through pair interaction activities outperformed their peers in small groups interaction to a large extent in all areas of language proficiency. Pair-Interaction activities can be used extensively for low proficiency students in tertiary education as it provides more opportunities for students to practice across the scheduled communicative grammar activities.

Index Terms—pair interaction, grammar teaching, communicative activities, language proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

Controversy over the needs to teach grammar seems to be disconnected from the view point conflict of language acquisition in one hand and language learning on the other that leads to proficiency and mastery of language knowledge. Those who reject the teaching of grammar assume that grammar should not be taught because it can be obtained naturally. Conversely, those who support the teaching of grammar assume that grammar should be taught regularly and systematically to assist the acquisition of the grammatical structure of the language being learned. Without analyzing the fact that grammar can be acquired both naturally and nurturally, the researchers argue that the teaching of formal grammar is still needed, especially in countries that use English as a foreign language, Ellis (2006), Setiono (2004), Hinkel and Fotos (2002), Dardjowidjojo (2000), and Sadtono (1992).

In line with the above notions, the researcher interviewed several English Grammar lecturers at some private universities in Makassar. From the interviews, it was inferred that teaching English grammar could become the very basic priority especially if the objective is written communication, more specifically in term of scientific written communication. On the other hand, if the objective to achieve is oral communication oriented, then the teaching of grammar seems to become uncategorized priority. Lado's notion (1988, 79) says "a person who knows the meaning of all the words of an utterance but none of its grammar will understand most of the message, whereas another who knows all of the grammar and none of the words will understand very little if anything" seems influential profoundly to the communication oriented proponents.

Some English grammar lecturers at several private universities in Makassar admitted that students' English proficiencies were varied from basic to intermediate levels. The teaching of English grammar in English Department of the private universities was still with conventional pattern prescribing structural models and generally separated from the teaching of the four language skills. As a result, such teaching model led to the understanding of language structure with major flaws in the aspects of *auro-oral* proficiency. Hence, the teaching of grammar should be done with a variety of interesting teaching techniques to help students understand and process their *metalinguistic* understanding as a first step towards internalizing the use of grammar (Ellis, 2006; Hedge, 2000; and Ur, 1996). The fundamental question arising then is the need of teaching grammar and strategies in teaching it to students that is believed can optimize the ability of students to understand and to use the grammar in actual communication both for oral and written instead.

In line with the context explained above, the teaching of grammar using communicative approach can be done by using purposeful interaction models and its prevalence is very strong in student proficiency training using grammatical aspects of the practice of communicating. Interaction in the classroom as suggested by Vygotsky (1978) and Bandura (1977) is central on learning to socialize. Interactions performed by students in the classroom with anyone or anything should give them the opportunity to explore ideas, interpret, and react to opposing ideas, and a variety of other communication skills. Students who engage in open dialogue with other participants will have the opportunity to use the language learned by exploration and interpretation of each of these ideas. Therefore, in planning the interactions it is very important to consider the tasks that can be done and learned by the students. If the tasks can be understood and accepted as social activities, the activities within interactions will be considered as the objectives that should be targeted.

Moreover, the students' learning experiences in a social interaction classroom will be actualized within social contexts outside the classrooms that will lead to strengthening the purpose of interactions acted out by the students and other possible values offered by the interaction models, either pair or small groups (3 – 5 participants).

In the context of pair interaction implementation students are requested not only to proficiently use grammatical English in communicating their ideas and notions to others during lecturing session, but also oblige them to use grammatical English when talking or interacting with others in discussing lecturing activities as well as when talking about the grammaticality of the language grammar being learned. In other words, students are habituated to use the English language grammatically for both written and oral communication in every lecturing activities. Hence, the habituating process will automatically bring about positive effects in their daily communication activities beyond lecturing process.

Some studies showed that the teaching of grammar with pair interaction model, for example, in a collaborative manner significantly affected the achievement of language performance, Watanabe and Swain (2007). Pair interactions also contributed positively to the proficiency and language competence, Yassi (2009), and generated joint construction (joint development) in terms of morphological knowledge, Baleghizadeh (2010). In addition, pair interactions also proved to be feasible and practical for use as a method of teaching grammar in a communicative teaching, Hanafiah (2011). To verify the findings above, the researcher concluded that there must be a specific research focusing mostly on the implementation of pair interactions and their higher strengths compared with other models of small group interactions through which this study was based on, entitling "*The Efficacy of Pair Interaction in Teaching Communicative English Grammar*".

The main objective of this study was to improve students' proficiency in using grammatical English both for written and oral communication with pair interactions as the main model of learning. Students' achievement gained through this learning model was compared with other models of small group interactions. Therefore, this study aimed at finding out teaching English grammar strategies that can be used in actual communication for excellent proficiency.

II. THEORETICAL CONSIDERATION

The advantages of pair interaction have been proven by many researchers, among others were Storch (2002), Noni (2003), Watanabe and Swain (2007), Yassi (2009), Baleghizadeh (2010), Tan, Wigglesworth and Storch (2010), and Hanafiah (2011).

Storch (2002) investigated the performance of three pairs of adult ESL students on a writing task assigned in class. The main source of data was the transcripts of their pair talk. Other sources of data included the researcher's observation notes and the written text the pairs produced. Data were analyzed for main features of student interactions and characteristics of collaborative pair work were identified. The results showed that students working in pairs may not necessarily work in a collaborative manner, but where they do collaborate this may have an effect on task performance. In 2007, Storch investigated the merits of pair work by comparing pair and individual work on an editing task and by analyzing the nature of pair interaction. The study was conducted in four intact ESL tertiary classes. Students in class A completed the task in pairs and in class B individually. In classes C and D students were given the choice of completing the task in pairs or individually. In class A all pair talk was audio recorded. Analysis of the edited texts showed that there were no significant differences between the accuracy of tasks completed individually and those completed in pairs. Analysis of the transcribed pair talk showed that most pairs engaged actively in deliberations over language and tended to reach correct resolutions. Thus the results suggest that although pair work on a grammar-focused task may not lead to greater accuracy in completing the task, pair work provides learners with opportunities to use the second language for a range of functions, and in turn for language learning.

In collaboration with Tan and Wigglesworth, Storch (2010) investigated the effect of the medium of communication on the nature of pair interaction. The study involved six pairs of beginner participants in a Chinese class completing seven different tasks. Each task was completed twice, once in face to face (FTF), and another via computer mediated communication (CMC). All pair talk was audio recorded, and on-line communication was logged. Using Storch's (2002) model of patterns of pair interaction, five patterns were identified: collaborative, cooperative, dominant/dominant, dominant/passive and expert/novice. The medium of communication was found to affect the pattern of interaction. In CMC some pairs became more collaborative, or cooperative.

The three different pieces of research done by Storch (2002, 2007, and 2010) and her colleagues favored the use of pair interactions in certain paces of tasks and activities in language classrooms. What so interesting about Storch's studies were the contributions of tasks or activities assigned to students working in pair on patterns of interactions which in turn affect the ways students' language learning. Thus, it is worthy to apply Storch's model of patterns of pair interaction in this research as another perspective to finding the effects on the students' grammar learning.

Noni's research (2003) focusing on face to face teaching and Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in ELT based on individual preference reported that face to face interactions were found to be more effective in improving students' achievement than CALL. It implied that real interactions among students and teacher in classroom setting were richer and more meaningful than virtual interactions on computer.

Collaborative research done by Watanabe and Swain (2007) investigated the effects of second language (L2) proficiency differences in pairs and patterns of interaction on L2 learning, making use of both qualitative and

quantitative data. They designed the study in such a way that four different *core* participants interacted with higher and lower proficiency *non-core* participants. These learners engaged in a three-stage task involving pair writing, pair comparison (between their original text and a reformulated version of it) and individual writing. The core participants also engaged in a stimulated recall after the task. They analyzed each pair's collaborative dialogue in terms of language-related episodes and patterns of pair interaction as well as each learner's individual post-test score. The findings suggested that the patterns of pair interaction greatly influenced the frequency of LREs and post-test performance. When the learners engaged in collaborative patterns of interaction, they were more likely to achieve higher posttest scores regardless of their partner's proficiency level. It seems that proficiency differences do not necessarily affect the nature of peer assistance and L2 learning. Thus, the merit of this research that can be used as a perspective towards this current research is the nature of interactions where students learn hand in hand to solve their problem.

Yassi's research (2009) focusing on a model of grammar learning for proficiency using paired interaction at the Faculty of Letters of Hasanuddin University reported that it was evident for paired interaction contributed significantly to the improvement of students' proficiency in using grammar as well as students' competence in using the four language skills. The findings of Yassi's research implied that through paired interaction, tertiary English language learners could achieve better accuracy in performing their language skills competence.

Baleghizadeh (2010) carried out a study focusing on the investigation of the effect of pair work on a word-building task in two EFL classes. In the study, there were forty Iranian adult students participated. The participants in the experimental group completed the word-building task in pairs following the Think-Pair-Share technique, whereas the participants in the control group did the same task individually. Results of the data analysis showed that the participants in the experimental group achieved significantly higher scores on the given task than the participants in the control group. This fact indicates that the students' joint efforts while collaborating with each other are likely to result in co-construction of morphological knowledge.

The research done by Hanafiah (2011) was basically the verification of Yassi's study. Hanafiah used similar approach in teaching English grammar at Faculty of Teacher Training and Education of UNIDAYAN Baubau, Southeast Sulawesi. Hanafiah concluded that teaching English grammar through 'Learner - Learner Interaction' (LLI) in the pair activities model is a feasible and practical teaching method that puts English grammar into a communicative approach or into action. One of the implications of Hanafiah's research findings is to offer practicality of pair activities model as a teaching strategy when English grammar is intended to be the atmosphere of proper communication.

Two collaborative studies done by Yassi (2009) and continued by Hanafiah (2011) were taking place at EFL tertiary education in Eastern Indonesian setting to investigate the effects of pair work model in teaching grammar for proficiency. Both studies involved single university and contributed to the development of grammar teaching using pair work activities. This current study was quite similar to these two studies but unique in terms of the use of various kinds of grouping students into pair, small groups of three, four and five in four different universities. Apart from Yassi's (2009) and Hanafiah's (2011), the other studies listed and described above were concluded to support the use of pair interaction in teaching English in classroom setting but the majority of them was in ESL setting. Besides, the studies did not clarify the specific target of language elements except the one carried out by Storch (2007) which was designed to use pair work on a grammar-focused task for accuracy. Thus, it was pertinent for the current research to use the previous research findings to help develop the concepts of pair work activities in teaching grammar to achieve proficiency.

III. METHODOLOGY

a. Location and Research Plan

This research was carried out at four different private universities within Kopertis Wilayah IX Sulawesi in Makassar. The purpose of the present study was to obtain a deeper understanding of the effects of classroom interaction strategies in English grammar teaching for proficiency at private tertiary education. The quantitative focus concerned a comprehensive assessment of the English proficiency of the participants in grammar, listening, speaking, reading and writing through varied classroom interaction activities. Thus, a comparative research with respect to quantitative paradigm was used as the research design.

b. Population and Sample

The population of this research was the freshmen students of English Education Department and English Literature at four different private universities in Makassar. The sample selected from the population were 122 (reduced to 120 for the analysis interest) and each of the sample was selected purposively using the assumptions that the majority of them were still genuinely interested in what the study was about and would take the participation seriously. Besides, they had not received a lot of grammatical input through communicative language activities. Thus, progress that may be achieved in learning during the research could be clearly detected. The selection of the sample was not randomized as the structure of the class should be maintained as it was. Besides, there was no specific reason of assigning certain university into any models of grouping and it was randomly assigned as it is assumed that they relatively have similar ability as seen in their pretest scores (UMI 45.35, STKIP-YPUP 41.68, Universitas 45 43.74, and UNISMUH 46.96).

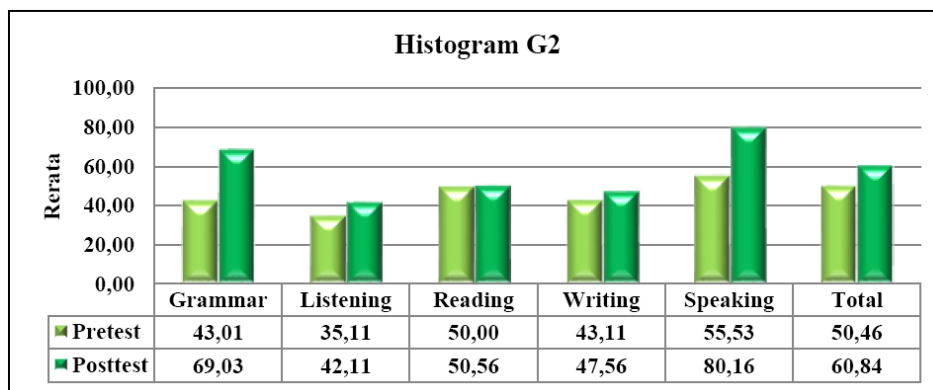
c. Data Collection Procedures

In general, the data collection was done in three phases: (1) Pre-Intervention; (2) Intervention; and (3) Post-Intervention. In the pre-intervention, the researcher piloted the grammar test to 30 students at the English Education Department of UIN Alauddin Makassar, located the target participants at four different campuses (UMI, YPUP, 45 and UNISMUH), set them into four different treatments, and administered the pretests to the whole participants. In the intervention phase, the researcher applied four types of organizing or grouping students in learning grammar for proficiency in communicative or interactive situations. The treatment for the first group (G2) was ‘*Pair-Interaction* activities’ and hence became the experimental group. The group was assigned to have a maximum opportunity to use grammatical points in oral and written communication in pair work activities. It was assumed that the smaller the number of students involved in communication, the more intense and much more opportunity for them to practice. Thus, practicing in paired interaction was assumed to be more potential to increase the amount of practicing time opening the way of achieving proficiency. As for the control groups, the second group (G3) was treated by ‘*Group-Interaction* activities of 3’ (composing 10 small groups), the third group (G4) by ‘*Group-Interaction* activities of 4’ (composing 8 small groups), and the fourth group (G5) by ‘*Group-Interaction* activities of 5’ (composing 6 small groups). All the treatment and procedures for the control groups were similar to those in the experimental group including the core materials. The differences were dealing with the grouping, the material design, and the practicing time for individuals. It was assumed that the larger the number of student involved in communication, the less intense and the less opportunity for them to practice. Thus, practicing in a larger group interaction was assumed to decrease the amount of practicing time. In the Post-Intervention phase, the researcher used a set of test to the whole participants in four different campuses. To avoid bias in assessing the speaking and writing productions, the researcher involved three inter-raters to do the assessment. The assessment results from grammar expressions test, listening test, speaking test, reading test, and writing test, were used as the primary data in this research.

IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS

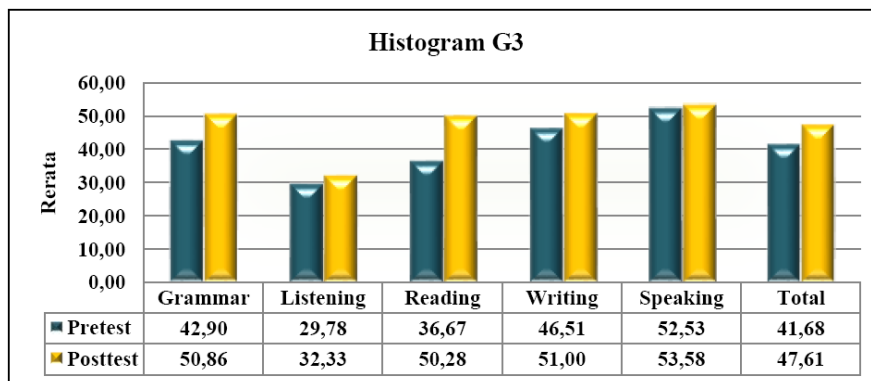
a. Univariate Anova

The mean score of English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Pair-Interaction* activities (G2) before the intervention was 45.35 and increased to 57.88 after the intervention. The areas of linguistics and communication in which the English proficiency increased to a large extent were grammar expressions from 43.01 to 69.03 and speaking from 55.53 to 80.16. A slight increase occurred in the areas of listening (35.11 to 42.11) and writing (43.11 to 47.56); but tended to level off at reading comprehension (50.00 to 50.56). The following histogram figured out the above data more clearly and comprehensively through which it was concludable that students’ achievement improved in all English skills being taught under the model of *Pair-Interaction* activities.



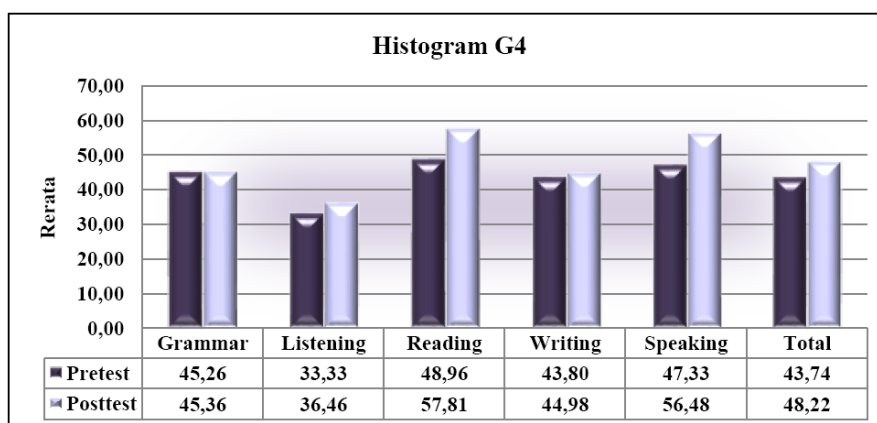
Histogram 1. English Proficiency of Group-of-2-Interaction (G2)

The mean score of English proficiency pretest of the students who learned grammar through *Group-of-3-Interaction* activities (G3) was 41.67 and increased to 47.61 after the intervention. The areas of linguistics and communication in which the English proficiency increased to a large extent was reading from 36.67 to 50.28. A slight increase occurred in other areas; grammar expressions (42.90 to 50.86) and writing (46.51 to 51.00); but tended to level off at listening comprehension (29.78 to 32.33) and speaking (52.53 to 53.58). To see more clearly the students’ proficiency after the implementation of *Group-of-3-Interaction* (G3) model, the following histogram might be of helpful reference, through which it was concludable that all skills being taught under the implementation of the G3 model underwent from adequate to significant improvement.



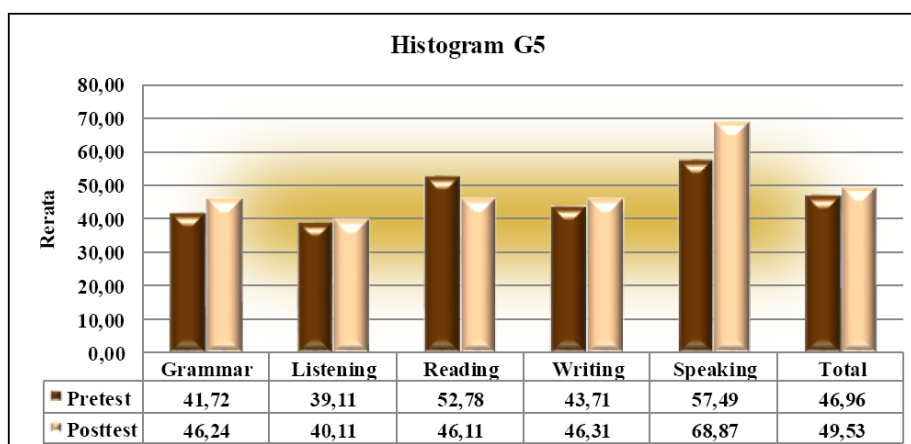
Histogram 2. English Proficiency of Group-of-3-Interaction (G3)

The mean score of English proficiency pretest of the students learning through *Group-of-4-Interaction* activities (G4) was 43.73 and increased to 48.21 after the intervention. The linguistic and communication areas in which the English proficiency increased significantly were reading from 48.96 to 57.81 and speaking from 47.33 to 56.48. A minor increase occurred in case of listening, that is from 33.33 to 36.46. Grammar and writing tended to level off at similar scores. The following histogram would release more comprehensively the students' proficiency improvement through the use of G5 learning model. The data in the histogram showed that although not as significant as that reached through the use of G2 model, all skills being taught under the implementation of G5 model underwent improvement.



Histogram 3. English Proficiency of Group-of-4-Interaction (G4)

In case of *Group-of-5-Interaction* (G5) implementation in learning English Grammar, the mean score of English proficiency pretest of the students was 46.96 and increased to 49.52 after the intervention. The linguistic and communication areas in which the English proficiency increased significantly were speaking from 57.49 to 68.87 and grammar expressions from 41.72 to 46.24. A minor increase occurred in case of writing that is from 43.71 to 46.31. Listening tended to level off at similar scores. Unfortunately because in case of reading area, the students' learning achievement underwent significant decrease, namely from 52.78 to 46.11. The following histogram could be of helpful data presentation to see the effect of interactive learning models especially in case of learning English grammar.



Histogram 4. English Proficiency of Group-of-5-Interaction (G5)

b. Hypothesis Testing

1) ANOVA Test

For *one-factor ANOVA*, the F_{score} for the four groups (G2, G3, G4 and G5) is 7.537 with the probability (p) 0.000. As the probability is smaller than α 0.05 ($0.000 < 0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected or the mean scores of the four groups are significantly different. Besides, the F_{score} for the two tests (Posttest and Pretest) is 32.130 with the probability (p) 0.000. As the probability is smaller than α 0.05 ($0.000 < 0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected or the mean scores of the two tests are significantly different. For *two-factor ANOVA*, the F_{score} for the interaction between group and test is 3.773 with the probability (p) 0.011. As the probability is smaller than α 0.05 ($0.011 < 0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected or there is an interaction between the four groups and the two tests used. The above data showed that different model of interaction in learning English grammar brought about different students' learning achievement in which *Pair Interaction Model* seemed to be the most appropriate to be regularly implemented rather than other threes. The following was the summary table of the anova test above.

TABLE 1.
SUMMARY TABLE OF THE ANOVA TEST

Dependent Variable:MeanScores						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
Corrected Model	4962.691 ^a	7	708.956	9.437	.000	
Intercept	543608.198	1	543608.198	7235.881	.000	
Group	1698.580	3	566.193	7.537	.000	
Test	2413.829	1	2413.829	32.130	.000	
Group * Test	850.282	3	283.427	3.773	.011	
Error	17429.406	232	75.127			
Total	566000.296	240				
Corrected Total	22392.098	239				

a. R Squared = .222 (Adjusted R Squared = .198)

As found that there was a significant difference among the four groups' mean scores, it is important to know which groups' paired mean scores are significantly different through *Tukey test*. The summary results of *Post Hoc Test* using *Tukey test* analysis following the ANOVA test shows the mean difference between the posttest and pretest of G2 is 12.5280. At the 95% confidence interval, the mean scores range from 5.6825 to 19.3735. The significance test of the mean difference between the posttest and pretest of G2 is based on probability level (p) in Sig. column. If the probability is bigger than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$), the H_0 is accepted and if the probability is smaller than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$), the H_0 is rejected. This significance test is effective for all groups compared. The *Tukey test* (Q) results from the interaction of groups' mean scores that significantly different is Q_1 ($0.000 < 0.05$). Therefore, the analysis is continued to test the hypotheses. The summary data can be seen in the following table.

TABLE 2.
POST HOC – TUKEY TEST RESULT SUMMARY TABLE

Multiple Comparisons						
<i>Post_Pre MeanScore Tukey HSD</i>						
(I) Test	(J) Test	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
PostG2	PreG2	12.5280*	2.23796	.000	5.6825	19.3735
PostG3	PreG3	5.9323	2.23796	.144	-.9132	12.7778
PostG4	PreG4	4.3457	2.23796	.524	-2.4998	11.1912
PostG5	PreG5	2.5650	2.23796	.946	-4.2805	9.4105

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 75,127.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

For G2 (*Pair-Interaction*), the mean score is 57.88 with the minimum score of 39.23 and the maximum is 74.68. With the significance level of 95%, the average score is in the range of 54.50 to 61.25. For G3 (*Group-3-Interaction*), the mean score is 47.61 with the minimum score of 33.05 and the maximum is 71.86. With the significance level of 95%, the average score is in the range of 44.44 to 50.77. For G4 (*Group-4-Interaction*), the mean score is 48.03 with the minimum score of 33.54 and the maximum is 68.55. With the significance level of 95%, the average score is in the range of 45.01 to 51.05. For G5 (*Group-5-Interaction*), the mean score is 49.52 with the minimum score of 30.12 and the maximum is 76.71. With the significance level of 95%, the average score is in the range of 45.17 to 53.88. For all groups, the mean score is 50.76 with the minimum score of 30.12 and the maximum is 76.71. With the significance level of 95%, the average score is in the range of 48.92 to 52.60.

The ANOVA (F test) of the four groups' mean scores shows that the F_{score} is 7.841 and the F_{table} is 2.685 at df 3;116 ($7.841 > 2.685$). Since the F_{score} is larger than the F_{table} , it is concluded that the research rejects the null hypothesis and accepts the alternative hypothesis. It means that the mean scores of all groups are significantly different. The *Tukey test* (Q) results from the interaction of groups' mean scores that significantly different are Q_1 ($0.000 < 0.05$), Q_2 ($0.001 < 0.05$) and Q_3 ($0.005 < 0.05$). Therefore, the analysis is continued to test the hypotheses.

For the area of English proficiency in which the students who learned grammar through *Pair-Interaction* activities outweigh their peers in *Group-Interaction* activities can be seen in the summary of some significant results of the Tukey tests (Q) in Tables 3 and 4 below.

TABLE 3.
TUKEY TEST
Multiple Comparisons *Dependent Variable: Posttest_Score*

	(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	G2	G3	10.27100*	2.43221	.000	3.9310	16.6110
		G4	9.84567*	2.43221	.001	3.5057	16.1856
		G5	8.35367*	2.43221	.005	2.0137	14.6936
	G3	G2	-10.27100*	2.43221	.000	-16.6110	-3.9310
		G4	-.42533	2.43221	.998	-6.7653	5.9146
		G5	-1.91733	2.43221	.860	-8.2573	4.4226
	G4	G2	-9.84567*	2.43221	.001	-16.1856	-3.5057
		G3	.42533	2.43221	.998	-5.9146	6.7653
		G5	-1.49200	2.43221	.928	-7.8320	4.8480
	G5	G2	-8.35367*	2.43221	.005	-14.6936	-2.0137
		G3	1.91733	2.43221	.860	-4.4226	8.2573
		G4	1.49200	2.43221	.928	-4.8480	7.8320

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

TABLE 4.
SUMMARY OF TUKEY TEST RESULT

Paired Group	p	α	Notation	Conclusion
Q ₁ (G2 – G3)	0.000	0.05	0.000 < 0.05	Significant
Q ₂ (G2 – G4)	0.001	0.05	0.001 < 0.05	Significant
Q ₃ (G2 – G5)	0.005	0.05	0.005 < 0.05	Significant
Q ₄ (G3 – G4)	0.998	0.05	0.998 > 0.05	Insignificant
Q ₅ (G3 – G5)	0.860	0.05	0.860 > 0.05	Insignificant
Q ₆ (G4 – G5)	0.928	0.05	0.928 > 0.05	Insignificant

The two tables show that the results from the interaction of areas mean scores that significantly different are: (a) Grammar for G2 and G3 (0.001 < 0.05); (b) Grammar for G2 and G4 (0.000 < 0.05); (c) Grammar for G2 and G5 (0.000 < 0.05); (d) Speaking for G2 and G3 (0.000 < 0.05); (e) Speaking for G2 and G4 (0.000 < 0.05); and, (f) Speaking for G5 and G3 (0.014 < 0.05). This means that in case of Grammar, the G2 model of interaction yields in better result rather than that of the other three. In case of speaking, the G2 model of interaction yields in better result than that of G3 and G4 models. On the other hand, the learning achievements yielded through the implementation of G3, G4, and G5 models are insignificant. That is to say, in case of learning English Grammar, the smaller the member of a group interaction model, the better the learning achievement will be. Conversely, the bigger the member of a group interaction model, the worse the learning achievement will be.

2) Hypothesis Test

Hypothesis 1 assumed H_a which stated that, “There is a difference of English proficiency of the students who learned integrative communicative grammar within *Pair-Interaction* activities before and after the intervention.” The Tukey test shows that the mean difference of the Posttest and Pretest of G2 (*Pair-Interaction*) is 12.5280 with the probability (p) = 0.000. Since the probability is smaller than α0.05 (0.000 < 0.05), the null hypothesis (H₀) is rejected which means that there is a significant difference of English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Pair-Interaction* activities before and after the intervention.

Hypothesis 2 assumed H_a which stated that, “There is a difference of English proficiency of the students who learned integrative communicative grammar within *Group-3-Interaction* activities before and after the intervention.” The Tukey test shows that the mean difference of the Posttest and Pretest of G3 (*Group-3-Interaction*) is 5.9323 with the probability (p) = 0.144. Since the probability is larger than α0.05 (0.144 > 0.05), the null hypothesis (H₀) is accepted which means that there is no significant difference of English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Group-3-Interaction* activities before and after the intervention.

Hypothesis 3 assumed H_a which stated that, “There is a difference of English proficiency of the students who learned integrative communicative grammar within *Group-4-Interaction* activities before and after the intervention.” The Tukey test shows that the mean difference of the Posttest and Pretest of G4 (*Group-4-Interaction*) is 4.3457 with the probability (p) = 0.524. Since the probability is larger than α0.05 (0.524 > 0.05), the null hypothesis (H₀) is accepted which means that there is no significant difference of English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Group-4-Interaction* activities before and after the intervention.

Hypothesis 4 assumed H_a which stated that, “There is a difference of English proficiency of the students who learned integrative communicative grammar within *Group-5-Interaction* activities before and after the intervention.” The

Tukey test shows that the mean difference of the Posttest and Pretest of G5 (*Group-5-Interaction*) is 2.5650 with the probability (p) = 0.946. Since the probability is larger than $\alpha 0.05$ ($0.946 > 0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_0) is accepted which means that there is no significant difference of English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Group-5-Interaction* activities before and after the intervention.

Hypothesis 5 assumed H_a which stated that, “*The English proficiency of the students who learned integrative communicative grammar through Pair-Interaction activities will be higher than those learned integrative communicative grammar through Group-3-Interaction activities.*” The Tukey test results for the paired group compared of Q_1 (G2 and G3) shows that the probability (p) level is 0.000. As the probability is smaller than $\alpha 0.05$ ($0.000 < 0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and concluded that the English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Pair-Interaction* activities is significantly higher than those learned grammar through *Group-3-Interaction* activities. In other words, learning grammar for proficiency through *Pair-Interaction* activities will be more effective than learning it through *Group-3-Interaction* activities.

Hypothesis 6 assumed H_a which stated that, “*The English proficiency of the students who learned integrative communicative grammar through Pair-Interaction activities will be higher than those learned integrative communicative grammar through Group-4-Interaction activities.*” The Tukey test results for the paired group compared of Q_2 (G2 and G4) shows that the probability (p) level is 0.001. As the probability is smaller than $\alpha 0.05$ ($0.001 < 0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and concluded that the English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Pair-Interaction* activities is significantly higher than those learned grammar through *Group-4-Interaction* activities. In other words, learning grammar for proficiency through *Pair-Interaction* activities will be more effective than learning it through *Group-4-Interaction* activities.

Hypothesis 7 assumed H_a which stated that, “*The English proficiency of the students who learned integrative communicative grammar through Pair-Interaction activities will be higher than those learned integrative communicative grammar through Group-5 Interaction activities.*” The Tukey test results for the paired group compared of Q_3 (G2 and G5) shows that the probability (p) level is 0.005. As the probability is smaller than $\alpha 0.05$ ($0.005 < 0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected and concluded that the English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Pair-Interaction* activities is significantly higher than those learned grammar through *Group-5-Interaction* activities. In other words, learning grammar for proficiency through *Pair-Interaction* activities will be more effective than learning it through *Group-5-Interaction* activities.

Hypothesis 8 assumed H_a which stated that, “*The English proficiency of the students who learned integrative communicative grammar through Group-3-Interaction activities will be higher than those learned integrative communicative grammar through Group-4-Interaction activities.*” The Tukey test results for the paired group compared of Q_4 (G3 and G4) shows that the probability (p) level is 0.998. As the probability is larger than $\alpha 0.05$ ($0.998 > 0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_0) is accepted and concluded that the English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Group-3-Interaction* activities is not significantly higher than those learned grammar through *Group-4-Interaction* activities. In other words, learning grammar for proficiency through *Group-3-Interaction* activities will not be more effective than learning it through *Group-4-Interaction* activities.

Hypothesis 9 assumed H_a which stated that, “*The English proficiency of the students who learned integrative communicative grammar through Group-3-Interaction activities will be higher than those learned integrative communicative grammar through Group-5-Interaction activities.*” The Tukey test results for the paired group compared of Q_5 (G3 and G5) shows that the probability (p) level is 0.860. As the probability is larger than $\alpha 0.05$ ($0.860 > 0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_0) is accepted and can be concluded that the English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Group-3-Interaction* activities is not significantly higher than those learned grammar through *Group-5-Interaction* activities. In other words, learning grammar for proficiency through *Group-3-Interaction* activities will not be more effective than learning it through *Group-5-Interaction* activities.

Hypothesis 10 assumed H_a which stated that, “*The English proficiency of the students who learned integrative communicative grammar through Group-4-Interaction activities will be higher than those learned integrative communicative grammar through Group-5-Interaction activities.*” The Tukey test results for the paired group compared of Q_6 (G4 and G5) shows that the probability (p) level is 0.928. As the probability is larger than $\alpha 0.05$ ($0.928 > 0.05$), the null hypothesis (H_0) is accepted and can be concluded that the English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Group-4-Interaction* activities is not significantly higher than those learned grammar through *Group-5-Interaction* activities. In other words, learning grammar for proficiency through *Group-4-Interaction* activities will not be more effective than learning it through *Group-5-Interaction* activities.

V. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Analyzing the students' achievement in learning integrative communicative grammar for English proficiency in all language skills through communicative activities in four models of classroom interaction, *Pair*, *Group-of-3*, *Group-of-4*, *Group-of-5*, has revealed many facts as evidence supporting the concepts which was constructed earlier in this research. It was postulated that learning grammar through purposeful classroom interaction strategies, primarily *Pair-Interaction*

activities would affect English proficiency to a large extent in all language skills (Yassi, 2009; Hanafiah, 2011; Baleghizadeh, 2010; Nunan, 2003; and McLeod et al, 2003) compared to *Group-Interaction* activities.

One of the basic research questions initializing the data analysis was whether there is a difference of English proficiency among the students who learned integrative communicative grammar through *Pair-Interaction*, *Group-of-3 Interaction*, *Group-of-4 Interaction*, and *Group-of-5 Interaction*. This is to compare the results of learning of the participants measured by mean score and *Univariate ANOVA* procedures. The calculation results give strong support for a positive answer to this key research question, especially to those involved in *Pair-Interaction* activities. It was proved that this model contributes to the improvement of the scores in the posttest significantly.

The significant difference found to exist throughout the communicative activities/lessons between their significant gains in proficiency after the treatment, as measured by posttests; and the scores for their initial levels of proficiency, as measured by pretests, was evidence of the improvement. As the gain scores in the posttest were quite large up to 12.53 points for all the tests, the gains were also uniformly significant across the five types of test. This evidence supports the *Hypothesis 1* that the English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Pair-Interaction* activities before and after the intervention is significantly different. The question is, what factors account for differences in gain scores of posttest and pretest in this group?

Firstly, the students in all levels of English proficiency had their basic ability to understand and express their ideas and thoughts in English which was, to some extent, however, proved to be minimal in the pretest. Having a good command in all areas of English was also believed as their genuine needs and they had a tendency to pursue lots of efforts to make it true. Thus, this basic capacity together with the integrative communicative grammar teaching, which presupposes students' interaction while learning, can be viewed as significant substances in their cognitive process of learning English that reflects the sociocultural theory proposed by the Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1978).

Secondly, the improvement of English fluency of the students who learned grammar in *Pair-Interaction* was mostly caused by the opportunity for student talking time in students to student interaction. Their productive practicing time was normally up to 40 minutes per session per individual. The minimum participant of conversation allowed them to try ideas and thought together in a very safe environment in which dyadic interaction happens. In foreign language context, paired-interaction activities is a valuable opportunity for students to practice the target language they are learning as identified. Since they are in peer-interaction, they feel that they have equal counterpart to share reciprocal ideas and experiences. Here, the role of the teacher was minimized to a large extent. Therefore, such situation was maintained to be well directed to optimal target language use. McLeod et al, (2003, 164) also asserts that interaction with the greatest opportunity to learn comes when working with pairs. Thus, the finding is realistic to some extent as pairs would benefit from the regular and intensity of individual productive or practicing time through a true human interaction.

Thirdly, the grammar materials were purposefully designed to be integrated within communicative activities to scaffold the development of the students interactive proficiency. This was achieved through mutual exchange, negotiation and co-construction. Therefore a wide range of complementary activities was added. The task-cycle consisted of the performance of the task, the observation of their partner during the performance, the feedback after the performance, and vice-versa. The students also needed a reason to communicate to each other. Hence, information-gap was designed to allow them to help each other to fill in the gap through interactions. Thus, by a well-designed learning materials, they had their scaffolders helping them find related ideas to develop their English proficiency through intensive social interactions.

The discussion of the finding above does not imply that the students who learned grammar through pair interaction activities have mastered all areas of proficiency. What can be proved and learned from such finding is that time intensity with regular practices, familiarity of well-designed grammar tasks for communication, and homogenous peers of interaction, will improve students' English proficiency to a large extent. In other words, the combination of students' genuine needs to learn grammar for English proficiency can be enhanced if integrative communicative grammar takes place properly or within a purposeful interaction.

For the other three kinds of interaction, the results of descriptive and inferential statistics through *Univariate ANOVA* procedures did not give strong support for a positive answer to this key research question. Although the increase of the scores had been tracked from pretest to posttest, the mean difference was proved to be insignificant through the *Tukey* test result. As all the gain scores of the three groups (G3, G4 and G5) in the posttest were not large or ranged from 2.56 to 5.93 points for all the tests, the gains were also uniformly insignificant across the five types of test with some exceptions. This evidence did not support the *Hypothesis 2, 3 and 4* stating that the English proficiency of the students who learned grammar through *Group-Interaction* (three variations) activities before and after the intervention is significantly different. The question is, what factors account the rejection of alternative hypothesis?

Firstly, the students' English proficiency was minimal as evidenced by the group's scores in the pretest. The scores in the posttest increased however, but it was not significant. It was assumed that the size of groups directly influences the amount of possible "talking time" each student has; that in groups of three (G3) student can talk for about a third of the time, a fourth in groups of four (G4) and a fifth in groups of five (G5). This, in turn, affected their fluency and English proficiency. The increase of group size was assumed to decrease the talking time for every individual as one had to share their ideas and thought in English with more than one member. Such decrease consequently reduced the

amount of language practice through social classroom interaction that in turn affected the degree of intensity, fluency and proficiency in using the language.

Secondly, although the groups were designed to make students learning the grammar through interactions, less talkative students might discourage other members as they participated less. It might happen because they were less confident, shy, nervous, embarrassed, tongue-tied, afraid of making a lot of mistakes, spoke in their native language and not in English, had less to say, or simply did not feel convenient to practice the language in such grouping or did not enjoy working together. Whatever the reason, the effects were reflected in the test results as influenced by some weaknesses of interaction in group three and above.

Thirdly, although the grammar materials were designed integratively within communicative activities for groups of three to five, it still did not show the effects to scaffold the development of the students English proficiency to a large extent. Some of them tended to focus on form intensively while others tended to focus on meaning or the use. It was quite rare to find that they were trying to negotiate for problem solving on both as some of them tended to discuss the form in Bahasa Indonesia as they were shy and reluctant to say them in English. While this could actually be achieved through mutual exchange, negotiation and co-construction, the individuals should have reduced their mental blocks before groups processing proceeded. Thus, although by well-designed learning materials of language given to the groups, if students rejected communication and did not take advantage of the opportunities given in group activities, the changes would not be tremendous.

The discussion of the finding above implies that for the *Group-Interaction* (3 – 5 members) activities to take positive effects in English proficiency, the grouping model should be firstly matched with the students' genuine preference of the model. Besides, they should also be encouraged to talk more through well-designed English materials in group interactions and trained social interaction or interpersonal skills to improve their confidence. There should also be a strategy to develop their awareness upon dual focus on form and meaning within discussions. Consequently, 'talking more' needs more practicing time. Therefore, it is clear that the efficacy of Pair Interaction model lies on the increasing of practicing time (Haines, 1995; Harmer, 2001; and Rixon, 2000) and the minimum psychological constraints of static pair as a result of their daily contact with the same person.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The English proficiency of the students who learn grammar through *Pair Interaction* improves to a large extent and outweighs their peers in *Small Groups Interaction*. The result implies the needs of varied interaction models according to students' preference in learning integrative communicative grammar. Therefore, the use of *Pair Interaction* is highly recommended for the low proficient students to give them more time to practice communication by introducing them interpersonal skills in *Pair Interaction* activities.

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A Study on the Application of Paraphrase Strategy in the Translation from Chinese to English

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Abstract—Paraphrase as a kind of translation strategy is often used in translation between two languages, it is also one of the ways to solve translation problems, especially the problem that two languages are not equal at word level. In this paper, the author's material is 'Farewell: Departing for "Downunder"' from *Six chapters from my life "downunder"*, which is written by Yang Jiang. The objective is Howard Goldblatt's English translation. The theoretical basis is Mona Baker's explanation of paraphrase from the perspective of linguistics in her book *In Other Words - A coursebook on translation*. The paper only studies words and expressions, it explores the reasons to cause unequal problems at word level between English and Chinese, and it mainly studies the application of paraphrase strategy from 3 aspects with quantitative and qualitative approaches: firstly, according to Mona Baker's definition about paraphrase strategy in the book of *In Other Words*, paraphrase strategy can be divided into "Translation by paraphrase using a related word" and "Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words", on the basis of this division, the paper counts the number of the two paraphrase strategies used by Howard Goldblatt. Then, the paper contrasts and analyzes the statistical results. At last, the author explores the reasons paraphrase strategy. And the study can improve translation.

Index Terms—paraphrase strategy, contrast and analyze, propositional meaning

I. INTRODUCTION

"Translation is explanation". "paraphrase" is explanatory translation, in other words, that is translation and explanation (Wang, 2015). Many western translation theorists, especially interpretive school, agree to the above opinion. Based on the above opinion, Mona Baker, a successful woman in British translation studies, regards paraphrase strategy as a way to solve the unequal problem at the word level between English and Chinese, she also divides paraphrase strategy into "Translation by paraphrase using a related word" and "Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words".

In the paper, it only studies words and expressions, it contrasts and analyzes the application of paraphrase strategy in the translation from Chinese into English on the basis of an empirical study and Mona Baker's explanation to this strategy from the perspective of linguistics in her book *In Other Words*, the empirical study explores the English and Chinese version of 'Farewell: Departing for "Downunder"' from *Six chapters from my life "downunder"*. The paper also studies the reasons and circumstances to use this strategy.

Six chapters from my life "downunder" is a memoir prose pieces work, which is written 8 years later after Yang Jiang's cadre school experience, it records Yang Jiang's detailed life in the cadre school, the book's name imitates Shen Fu's *Six Chapters of a Floating Life*. It has received great attention at home and abroad after its publication in 1981. "pervades one with a sense of sorrow and loss; we lament as she does but do not feel dejected, we sense her indignation at being wronged but find in this no hate or reproach. Every word is eloquent in its sincerity and truthfulness." commented by a Chinese writer. Her language is simplicity and plainness, which is known as the low-key style, the style is not only her writing style, but also the living style of her person. This book has been translated by Geremie Barne, Howard Goldblatt and Djang Chu respectively. They have strived to represent the original low-key style. Meanwhile, the one translated by Howard Goldblatt uses natural and simple language, he represents the original style better. So, the paper selects Howard Goldblatt's English translation as objective to study the application of paraphrase strategy in the translation from Chinese to English.

II. THE STUDY OF THE APPLICATION OF PARAPHRASE STRATEGY IN THE TRANSLATION FROM CHINESE TO ENGLISH

Every nation has its own life styles, values, ways of thinking, linguistic psychology, behavior standards, cultural traditions, and all of these will pose barrier and differences between English and Chinese, so, lots of words and expressions can not be translated one by one, "paraphrase" is one of the ways to remove this kind of barrier and differences (Guo, 1998). "the work of translators is to explain" is the generalization to paraphrase in the translation. the translation of paraphrase has certain freedom, there is no need to translate one word by one word, translator can do some supplement and explanation, but they can not change the original views and meaning. Paraphrase also called free translation, that is to say, translation sometimes can be explanatory translation or have certain freedom translation (Ma,

2012). Based on Mona Baker's explanation of paraphrase, and both English and Chinese versions of 'Farewell: Departing for "Downunder"' from *Six chapters from my life "downunder"*, the paper studies reasons to cause unequal problems at word level and the application of paraphrase strategy in the English translation, it also analyzes the reasons to use paraphrase strategy.

A. *The Reasons to Cause Unequal Problems at Word Level between English and Chinese*

In this part, the author will talk about the reasons to cause unequal problems at word level between English and Chinese from 6 aspects.

(1) The differences of religious faith

Religious faith is an important part of culture, some religion's history even much more longer than certain languages, so, we can not neglect religion's impact on language. In China, Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism form Chinese special ways of thinking and behavior. There are many Buddhism and Taoism's folktales in Chinese, for example, "borrow sth. to make a gift of it" (借花献佛), "eight immortals lead sea, each show magical power" (八仙过海, 各显神通), "embrace Buddha's feet and pray for help in time of emergency" (临时抱佛脚), "save one life, better than build a seven-storied pagoda" (救人一命, 胜造七级浮屠). "Buddha" and "the Eight Immortals" come from Buddhism and Taoism respectively, it's easy for Chinese people to understand, but it's hard for western people to understand if they do not know religious allusions of China.

However, as for westerners, Christianity has an great impact on their ways of thinking and behavior. They think God made everything, Bible gives them great comfort, many religious figures and allusions are included in this book. Some religious figures and allusions are familiar to westerners, but Chinese people do not know, for example, "a Solomon" refers to smart people, "as old as Methuselah" refers to longevity.

(2) The changes of history

Every nation has its own history, the Chinese nation has its own history and culture, when the history figures and events at different times are reflected on words level, some words are loaded with national culture and local colours. For example, "peach garden sworn brothers" (桃园结义), "endure present hardships to revive" (卧薪尝胆), "burning of books and burying of scholars" (焚书坑儒), "break the caldrons and sink the boats" (破釜沉舟), all of these expressions have a corresponding touching story except for their word meaning. Such as "break the caldrons and sink the boats", it means cutting off all means of retreat to attain victory, this expression describes a story about Xiang Yu, Xiang Yu was a Chinese imperial general in the third century BC who took his troops across the Zhang River on a raid into enemy territory. To his troops' astonishment, he ordered their cooking pots crushed and their sailing ships buried. He explained that he was imposing on them a necessity for attaining victory over their opponents, what he said was truly motivating, but it was not really understood by many of his loyal soldiers as they watched their vessels go up in flames. However, the genius of Xiang Yu's conviction has been validated on the battlefield. These words can not be found in English.

(3) The different customs

Saussure had said, "the customs of a nation usually is reflected on its language, when every nation's unique social life and customs is reflected on wedding, funeral and festival customs, lexical gaps will be formed". Take the marriage of China and Western countries as an example, Chinese people focus on "perfect match" (门当户对) and "the beauty and the geek" (郎才女貌); while there is "marriage of true minds" in English. Chinese people will select "auspicious occasion" (良辰吉日) when they get married, then, they will "worship to Heaven and Earth", "bow to parents" and "bow to each other" (拜天地, 拜高堂, 夫妻对拜); westerners will have a "white wedding" in the church, and "honey moon" is necessary. In addition, there are lots of lexical gaps because of festival customs and calendar, hence, a lot of words and expressions with Chinese characteristic have emerged: "the Double Ninth Festival" (重阳节), "the Dragon Boat Festival" (端午节), "Spring Equinox" (春分), "the middle ten days of a month" (中旬). Expressions such as "couplets" (对联), "set off firecrackers" (放鞭炮) and "paper-cut for window decoration" (窗花) are related to festivals, these expressions have very distinct cultural connotation, the direct corresponding expressions can not be found in other languages (Wang, 2007).

(4) The differences of life environment and experience

Natural environment and social environment form the life environment that human depend on. We human live in the same earth, we have many things in common, and languages are rooted in the survival environment of human, so, the meaning of some words and expressions is same, for example, we have the same "sun" and "moon", we live under the same sky, "with the lamb, and stopped work at sunset", "day" and "night" can find corresponding expressions in different languages.

However, every country has different geographical and life environment, so, the words and expressions are influenced by these environment. For example, rivers, lakes and mountains in China can not be found in other country, expressions with Chinese characteristic are formed. Let's look at another example, "bamboo" is China's native-born plant, there is no original words in England, "笋" in Chinese can only be translated into "bamboo-shoot".

(5) the unique ways of thinking

Different ways of thinking can also cause language differences. Different nations have different feelings towards the same things, then, these things' meaning of culture is different, the same thing may have different associative meanings

at different cultures. For example, different nations may have different views to animals, plants, colours, numbers, their views even may be opposite. The pronunciation of “bat” is similar to “happiness” in Chinese, so, Chinese people will associate with “happiness” when they mention “bat”, but “bat” is the symbol of evil in English; number 4 is the homophonic “dead” in Chinese, so, it’s an ominous number, but the number do not have special cultural meaning in English. In Chinese, number 10 usually expresses deep degree, such as “the peak of perfection”(十全十美), “ten most heinous of crimes” (十恶不赦). Because of the unique ways of thinking, though many words and expressions have same meaning, their associative meaning is different, this will lead to the missing of culture-loaded words’ meaning.

(6)The differences of values

The different cultural traditions make people form different values. Chinese people pay attention to manners and advocate modest, “ the ruler is the minister, the father is the son’s class, the husband is the wife’s class”(君为臣纲,父为子纲,夫为妻纲), and they form modest words and polite expressions in their communication. All of these express modest Chinese culture, they form a sharp contrast with western “freedom” and “democracy”, and these words can not be found in English.

B. The Classification of Paraphrase Strategy by Mona Baker

Mona Baker divides paraphrase strategy into “Translation by paraphrase using a related word” and “Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words”, and the explanation of this strategy by Mona Baker can only be used to deal with the translation at words level between two languages.

She thinks “Translation by paraphrase using a related word” can be used under two conditions: (1) when the concept expressed by the source item is lexicalized in the target language but in a different form; (2) when the frequency with which a certain form is used in the source text is significantly higher than would be natural in the target language.

In addition, if the concept expressed by the source item is not lexicalized at all in the target language, the paraphrase strategy can still be used in some contexts. Instead of a related word, the paraphrase may be based on modifying a superordinate or simply on unpacking the meaning of the source item, particularly if the item in question is semantically complex. This kind of paraphrase is called “Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words”.

C. Statistics and Contractive Analysis of Paraphrase Strategy in the English Translation

The author does an empirical study to English and Chinese versions of ‘Farewell: Departing for “Downunder” ’ with quantitative and qualitative approaches, and she finds that the two types of paraphrase strategy divided by Mona Baker cover all the phenomena using paraphrase strategy in Howard Goldblatt’s English translation on account of unequal problem at word level. Therefore, according to this division, the author counts the number of the two paraphrase strategies in the English translation, she also contrast and analyze the two types of paraphrase strategies.

2.3.1 The Number of the Two Types of Paraphrase Strategies in English Translation

TABLE 1
THE EXAMPLES OF THE TWO TYPES OF PARAPHRASE STRATEGIES IN THE TEXT

The types of paraphrase strategies	Translation by paraphrase using a related word	Translation by paraphrase using a unrelated word
the examples in the text	同属---be assigned 一两天---a couple of days 失散---scatter to the four winds 好生寻找---look high and low 围剿---root out 如火如荼---spread like wildfire	清晨---bright and early every morning 下放---on one’s way down to 行期---any day when we would depart 兵荒马乱---a time of war 耐脏---not show the dirt 离情---sorrows of parting 左放, 右放---no matter how hard I tried 得空---whenever I had the time/during his spare time 土积尘封---dirty, dusty 地僻人穷---poor land and even poorer people 竭泽而渔---drain the pond to get the fish
In total/item	6	11
percentage/%	35.29%	64.71%

From the above table, we know that “Translation by paraphrase using a related word” and “Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words” are indeed used in the text of ‘Farewell: Departing for “Downunder”’, and the total number of paraphrase strategy is 17.(here, the author defines “Translation by paraphrase using a related word” as Strategy 1, defining “Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words” as Strategy 2. the following text comply with this stipulation). Here, the number of Strategy 1 is 6, its percentage is 35.29%; but the number of Strategy 2 is 11, its

percentage is 64.71%. It's obvious that the number of Strategy 2 is more than Strategy 1.

2.3.2 The Contrastive Analysis of the Two Paraphrase Strategies

(1) The similarities of the two strategies:

“兵荒马乱” in the above table describes a scene of war, “a time of war” indeed expresses source item's propositional meaning. But “荒”、“乱” in the expression of “兵荒马乱” are derogatory words, they show a society of turmoil and trouble, they indicate that the author of source text hates and is fed up with war. However, “a time of war” just states the facts objectively, the expression do not appraise war, so it lose its expressive meaning in comparison with the source text. What's more, “离情” is translated into “sorrows of parting” by Howard Goldblatt, the sense of sorrow usually is the main emotion when people leave each other, Howard Goldblatt's translation highlights this point, but “离情” is the emotions of farewell, this kind of emotion can be sorrow, anxious, empty or helpless, the emotion can not be confined to sorrow, so, “sorrows of parting” narrows down the emotional meaning of “离情”. Let's look at another example, the ancient meaning of “如火如荼” is strong and powerful army: the soldiers at the right part of army wear white clothes and hold white flags, such a splendid scene likes the massive white flowers of thatch; the soldiers at the left part of army wear red clothes and hold red flags, such a splendid scene likes raging flames. The expression can be used to describe fiery and busy scene later, the source item can make people associate its meaning through vivid description, although “spread like wildfire” covers up “如火如荼”'s original meaning but loses its original associative meaning. Nevertheless, “spread like wildfire” is consistent with the expression's modern meaning, so, the source items' propositional meaning can also be expressed well.

Hence, we can draw the following conclusions: both of two strategies can achieve a high level of precision in specifying propositional meaning, but their disadvantages is that a paraphrase does not have the status of a lexical item and therefore the target language can not convey the source item's expressive, evoked or any kind of associative meaning. In addition, paraphrase itself means the loss of precision of the source items, this is another similarity of the two paraphrase strategies.

(2) The differences of the two strategies:

The above table tells us that Strategy 1 usually do not let the target text's length have obvious changes comparing to the source text. However, because the target items is not lexicalized in Strategy 2, and it involves filling a one-item slot with an explanation consisting of several items, so it will visibly enlarge the target text, and the target text sometimes will be cumbersome and awkward by this way. Of course, there exists some exceptions: “失散” is translated into “scatter to the four winds” by Strategy 1, the target text is enlarged; meanwhile, “土积尘封” is translated into “dirty, dusty” by Strategy 2, the target text is shorten, but it's rare to happen.

D. The Reasons to Use Paraphrase Strategy

According to Mona Baker, any kind of paraphrase strategies aims to solve the unequal problems at word level between English and Chinese, translators have no option but to do this. So the reason to use paraphrase strategy is there are unequal problems at word level between two languages.

Meanwhile, on the basis of Mona Baker's theory and table1, we can have the following statements: When the concept expressed by the source item is lexicalized in the target language, but the corresponding lexicalized items in the target language is unnatural when they are used (because their frequency of use is significantly lower than the source text), or they are in a different form, then, Strategy 1 is used. However, when the lexicalized items do not exist in the target language, Strategy 1 can not be used, but the paraphrase can still be used by modifying a superordinate or simply on unpacking the meaning of the source item, particularly if the item in question is semantically complex, that's Strategy 2.

III. CONCLUSIONS

According to the statistics, we are sure that paraphrase strategy can be divided into “Translation by paraphrase using a related word” and “Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words”, and table 1 tells us that “Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words” is more than “Translation by paraphrase using a related word”. But the number of the two paraphrase strategies is not representative, because different style leads to different numbers. *Six chapters from my life “downunder”* is a memoir prose pieces work, the results of analysis only show the use of paraphrase strategy, they can not show that all the articles use this strategy, likewise, we can also say that “Translation by paraphrase using a related word” is always less than “Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words”.

“Paraphrase” is explanatory translation, paraphrase strategy is used to solve the unequal problems at word level. The main advantage of the two types of paraphrase strategies is that both of them can achieve a high level of precision in specifying propositional meaning, but their disadvantages is that a paraphrase does not have the status of a lexical item and therefore the target language can not convey the source items' expressive, evoked or any kind of associative meaning, because expressive and evoked meaning are associated only with stable lexical items which have a history of recurrence in specific context. A second disadvantage of paraphrase strategy is the loss of precision of the source items. What's more, in most cases, “Translation by paraphrase using a related word” usually do not let the target text's length have obvious changes comparing to the source text, however, “Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words” will

visibly enlarge the translated text. In addition, the paper shows us that the two strategies aim to solve the unequal problems at the word level in translation, though they have different ways to achieve it. And we clearly know that paraphrase strategy plays an important role in the translation from Chinese into English, and this study can improve translation.

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Research Methods in TEFL Studies: Descriptive Research, Case Study, Error Analysis, and R & D

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Abstract—Articles published in International journals have rich potentials of learning sources since their publication has been scholarly processed through the hands of journal editors. Readers can get a lot of benefits from them. One lesson we might get is the way the writers conducted their researches. Thus, we can learn the research methods from the models found in journal articles. This paper will elaborate the research methods used in the teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL). The elaboration is formulated from the research methods used by journal article writers around the world. A number of international journal articles in TEFL are taken as the corpus of the study. Using a grounded theory, varieties of research methods in TEFL are investigated. Among of them are case study, quasi experiment, qualitative experiment, meta analysis, descriptive research, activity theory, error analysis, R & D, action research, research and development (R&D), and survey method. Due to the limited space, however, the paper will only describe four popular methods: descriptive research, case study, error analysis, and R & D. The description of each method is supported with examples found in international journal articles published around the world.

Index Terms—descriptive research, case study, error analysis, R & D, TEFL studies, journal articles

I. INTRODUCTION

In a previous publication, Atmowardoyo (2010) explains that research method is a systematic procedure a researcher uses to solve the defined research questions. It covers three main items: research design, data collection procedure, and data analysis all of which are usually placed in the third chapter of a thesis, dissertation, or any other form of a research report, following ‘Introduction’ (chapter 1) and ‘Review of the Related Literature’ (chapter 2). This generally becomes a very important section of research activity. A careless procedure a researcher uses will result invalid data, which in turn will result unreliable and probably harmful findings and recommendations.

Research activities are commonly directed to prove a hypothesis or to reveal a new substantive theory. In the world of scientific investigation, some experts use two different research approaches: quantitative approach and qualitative approach. Quantitative approach refers to research design involving deductive thinking to prove hypotheses which in turn will support or reject a theory. The data under analysis are quantified and, therefore, numerical in nature leading to the use of statistical formulas in the analysis. This kind of approach generates some kinds of research methods such as survey, experiments, quasi experiments, and correlation studies. Conversely, qualitative approach refers to research designs involving inductive thinking to reveal hypotheses which in turn will become a substantive theory and even a formal theory. The data under analysis are verbal description poured into field notes. The data analysis includes some steps such as coding, comparison, integration, triangulation, and interpretation. This approach comprises some methods such as phenomenology, ethnography, case study, narrative inquiry, participant observation, biographical study, and grounded theory. A new term ‘QUALIATATIVE’ is now introduced to accommodate the differences in the kinds of qualitative research method (Agar, 2009).

Besides quantitative and qualitative approaches, however, some research methodologists introduce a mixed approach, that is, the mixture of both quantitative and qualitative approaches used in a research project. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006), for examples, are two proponents who elaborated the mixed approach through an article “Linking Research Questions to Mixed Methods Data Analysis Procedures.” Another proponent of mixed research method is Johnson who published an article together with Onwuegbuzie entitled “Mixed Methods Research: A Research Paradigm Whose Time Has Come” (2007). Sage Publications Inc has eventually published a journal of mixed methods under the supports of these proponents.

There are numerous books of research methodology in our library. Many research articles can also be found through the search of scientific journals. The writer can easily find articles about language studies covering studies of pragmatics, sociolinguistics, language acquisition, or psycholinguistics. It is also easy to find articles on language education through the search of journals of language teaching research. This library study examines the research methods commonly used by today’s researchers in the field of language education. The result of the analysis is addressed to reveal the current practice in research tradition in this field. From this, the readers will learn different types of research methods implemented by researchers around the world.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims to answer two questions as follows:

- What kinds of research methods are commonly applied in TEFL studies?
- How do these kinds of research methods operate to achieve the defined goals?

III. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Source of Data

This study involves 30 research articles in TEFL (the teaching of English as a foreign language) studies published in scientific journals from 2002 to 2017. The articles were purposively chosen to formulate condensed description about the types of research methods used in TEFL studies; as well as the procedures taken to achieve the intended research objectives.

B. Data Analysis

The articles were analyzed inductively to generate a description about the research methods employed by article writers. Adopting the qualitative research procedures suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990), data analysis procedures consisting of open coding, axial coding, and selective coding were used. By open coding, the articles under analysis are carefully read to identify the research method applied. The focus of attention is to identify the kinds of the research method, the research objectives, the way of data collection, and the way of data analysis. These focused points are necessary to describe what, why, and how the article writers conduct their studies so as they are successful in communicating their research findings through international scientific journals. Thus, under the open coding, we give labels to any description in the articles which relate to these focused points. The result of open coding is a number of conceptual labels which are going to be used to describe the phenomena implied in the journal articles. By axial coding, we relate one conceptual label to another. One label might refer to the detail of another label or vice versa. We call the detail as the subcategory, whereas the umbrella label is called as the category. The result of axial coding is then a number of categories, and under each category are a number of subcategories.

Selective coding is the process of identifying any phenomena related to the research questions which functions to support the result of axial coding. Very often, in the process of axial coding the researcher finds incomplete categories or subcategories. By the selective coding, the researcher hopes that these incomplete categories or subcategories will be recovered.

Finishing exploring the relationship among categories and/or subcategories, a theoretical description was developed to generate the answers to the research questions: the kinds of research methods commonly used in language and literature studies, and how the methods are operated.

IV. FINDINGS

Types of Research Methods in TEFL Studies

As a part of findings of this library research, under this section the writer describes briefly the kinds of research methods that may be beneficial in TEFL studies. The kinds of methods include the followings: descriptive research, case study, error analysis, and R & D. These four types are amongst the popular methods employed by today's researchers in TEFL studies. Thus, from analysis of the journal articles, the writer generates explanation of these four methods followed by examples of each. Other methods which are also potential for TEFL studies are still left unexplored due to the limited space. These methods include action research, discourse analysis, meta-analysis, activity theory, survey, and program evaluation.

1. Descriptive Research: objectives, instrument, data analysis

There is an agreement among research methodologists about the term descriptive research. Descriptive research is defined as a research method used to describe the existing phenomena as accurately as possible. The word "existing phenomena" makes descriptive research contrary to experiment research which observes not only the existing phenomena, but also the phenomena after a certain period of treatment. The phenomena observed in descriptive research are already available. What is necessary for a researcher to do is collecting the available data through the use of research instruments such as test, questionnaire, interview, or even observation. The main goal of descriptive research is to describe systematically the existing phenomena under the study.

Descriptive research covers some subtypes of research methods such as survey, correlation study, qualitative study, or content analysis. These subtypes are different not in the data availability, but in their procedures of data collection and/or analysis. Thus, descriptive study may involve QUAN analysis or/and QUAL analysis. Survey, for example, is usually designed to investigate a large population's perspective about a particular event or problem. Data collection is commonly conducted through questionnaire administration, and its data analysis involves quantification. Correlation study also involves quantitative data analysis since it is designed to find out the coefficient correlation index between two prevailing variables. Content analysis may involve either QUAN or QUAL data analysis. Whereas the other three: qualitative research, ethnography, and life history tend to involve QUAL data analysis.

Examples of Descriptive Research

From the study of 30 articles published in various journals in language teaching, the writer finds out a number of

titles developed from descriptive research. The first example is (Hassal, 2003). This study is designed to reveal the way Australian learners of Indonesian express request in everyday situation. In an attempt to answer the research problem, Hassal conducted a descriptive research involving 20 students undertaking an undergraduate degree program in Bahasa Indonesia at an Australian University. Dividing the students into Proficiency Group and Low Linguistic Proficiency Group, the researcher collected the required data **by means of interactive role play**. Judgment of appropriacy was determined through a process of discussion with BI native speaker informants consisting of 18 Indonesian students. The result of the study reveals that both groups favor the same request type known as query preparatory. The subjects, however, were reported that they used a different modal verb to perform their request; used Want statements and Hint statements more than native Indonesians do; and used elided imperative less often.

The second example is Lee (2007). This study is designed to answer the following two questions: (1) “What is the nature of teacher feedback in the Hong Kong writing classroom?” and (2) “To what extent is teacher feedback exploited for assessment for learning purpose?” Lee employed a descriptive research to find out the answer to the defined questions. This descriptive research involves the collection of written feedback, interviews with teachers either face-to-face or through email, and focus group interviews. Data analysis involves analysis of teachers’ written feedback, translation, transcription, coding, and summary of email interview data. The study finally reveals the answers as follows: (1) Teacher feedback practices are influenced by institutional context and values, possibly making it hard for them to use feedback to realize the potential of assessment for learning. Teacher feedback is not fully utilized to benefit student learning.; (2) Teacher can be helped to re-examine the goals of writing instruction, how writing is taught, and how assessment should reflect the instructional goals and link to the pedagogical activities.

The third example is Kikuchi (2009), a descriptive research to describe two points: (1) the salient demotivating factors in Japanese classrooms; and the issues should teachers consider to reduce demotivation in Japanese school English classrooms. This qualitative research involves five university students as the main participants. Data were collected through **direct and email interview and questionnaires**. Data analysis procedure was adapted from Huberman and Miles (1994) including data collection, data display, data reduction, and conclusion drawing and verification. This study reveals a list of demotivating factors related to teachers, school facilities, students’ experience; student attitude, group attitude, interference of other languages, and text books.

The fourth example is Griffiths (2008). This is a descriptive research to find out the ways how good language learners (GLL) use language learning strategies. The study involved 131 students being asked to complete **questionnaire known as ELLSI** (English Language Learning Strategy Inventory). The result was analyzed into mean frequencies and statistical differences by the means of SPSS and Mann-Whitney U test). The findings reveal that higher level students do report significantly more frequent use of strategies or activities consciously chosen for the purpose of regulating their own language learning, in particular: strategies to manage their own learning (meta-cognitive); to expand their vocabulary; to improve their knowledge of grammar; to make use of resources such as TV or movies; to involve all language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking).

Another example is Bade (2008). This study was conducted to investigate student attitudes towards grammar in order to integrate this into the 20-week course entitled “English for Living and Working in New Zealand”. The aims of the course were to enable the student to actively and appropriately participate in New Zealand community and workplace settings. This is a descriptive research involving 14 students enrolled for the course. They are from many different countries and aged from 20 to 68. Data were collected through **a questionnaire consisting of 20 questions, 15 which were focused, open-ended questions**. Five others were Yes/No questions. The students on this course showed overwhelming desire to be taught grammar, to concentrate on accuracy, and to have their errors corrected.

2. Case Study

Case study can also be classified as a descriptive research since it is designed to describe the existing condition of a particular case. However, it is different in the subject or phenomena under the study. A case study researcher focuses on a particular case with special characteristics. Thus, case study refers to an in-depth examination about an individual, a unit of organization, or a particular event with special characteristics. In the studies of TEFL, numerous researchers have made use of case study method to construct theoretical descriptions based on the phenomena related to English language teaching and learning. From the examination of 30 articles, six of them (20%) are case studies.

Types of Case Study: Positive, Neutral, and Negative

Observing the case study methods used in TEFL studies, three different types of case study emerged: positive case study, neutral case study, and negative case study. A positive case study is the one using a positive case as the phenomena under observation. The epistemological basis for a positive case study is that “a good theory can be generated from the best practice”. The studies of good English language learners, effective EFL teachers, and effective EFL program management are those of positive case study. The focus of the study is the interrelations of variables contributing to the success of an individual or a group of learners, teachers, or a unit of organization.

In TEFL studies, the emergence of positive case studies was inspired by Rubin (1975) with an article entitled “What can we learn from good language learners.” Since then, numerous articles making use of good language learners (GLL) have been published. Griffith (2008) edited a book covering 23 articles about GLL. Haryanto (1999) has also ever conducted a case study to find out the answers to the following question: “How does motivation of a good Indonesian EFL learner (Indra) operate to achieve success of EFL learning in Indonesian context?” and “What are the learning

strategies performed by Indra as a good Indonesian EFL learner?" This is a case study to an outperforming Indonesian EFL learner, Indra, a pseudonym of a student of senior high school in Indonesia. Data were collected through the process of in-depth-interview, participant observation, and document examination. Data analysis was conducted using the grounded theory adopted from Strauss and Corbin (1990) including open coding, axial coding, selective coding; and story line development. The results of this study has been reported in two articles: Haryanto (2007 a) focusing on the literature review of good language learner studies; and Haryanto (2007 b) focusing on the role of motivation and language learning strategy as the core factors influencing the success of English language learning. Three main categories emerged from this study. First, motivation and learning strategies revealed the main factors influencing the success in English learning; second, motivation fluctuation was influenced by some other factors; and third, dichotomy of motivation as intrinsic and extrinsic was not clear. Instead, the mixture of both kinds of motivation had lead to the learning strategies leading to success of Indra in EFL learning.

In recent years, a number of studies of effective or successful EFL teachers have also been made. Hatifah (2017) explores successful EFL teachers in terms of their verbal cues in classroom interaction. Weda (2016) observes the students' voice about the characteristics of good English teachers at Indonesian secondary schools. Similarly, Khaerati (2016) and Asriati (2015) have also made use of effective EFL teachers as the central phenomena under observation. Both of them try to identify the qualities attributable to effective EFL teachers in Indonesian context.

Neutral case study is a term used to refer to a case study research whereby the researchers do not consider the characteristics of the case under study. The objective of the study is to explain the phenomena in a particular context. The first example is Wai King Tsang (2004), who conducted a research to investigate the role of teachers' personal practical knowledge in interactive decision making for three pre-service non-native ESL teachers. This is a case study of three pre-service non-native ESL teachers. Data were collected by asking the three student teachers to write a language learning/teaching autobiography, a statement of their philosophy and teaching expectations, and a description of their favorite teachers at the beginning of their Practice Teaching course. After-class interviews, non-participant observations, and a video-based method of eliciting introspective data were conducted to triangulate the findings. Inductive analysis approach with content analysis method was applied to analyze the collected data. The findings of this study reveal that teachers apply their personal practical knowledge not only in making interactive decisions, but also in teachers' other decision-making processes. Three implications were proposed: first, bringing personal practical knowledge to the foreground helps optimize the accessibility to, or potential application of, such knowledge in the decision-making process; second, post reflection provides an opportunity for teachers to orchestrate both old and new aspects of personal practical knowledge and raises consciousness of situations in which instructional decisions, planned or immediate, are called for; and third, the study show teachers' maxims to be an effective operationalization of the concept of personal practical knowledge.

The second example is Nixon & McCay (2007), a case study investigating the ways how three elementary teachers (Samantha, Amy, and Natalie) summatively assessed their own students' written work over a three and one-half month period. Data collection was conducted through interview and classroom observation, as well as analysis of artifacts (rubrics, student reflections, assignments, year and unit plans, and professional journals). Data analysis was conducted through holistic data analysis: reading, thinking aloud, coding, and drawing inferences. The result of the study reveals that these three teachers develops four conversational routines or structures in assessing their students' written work, namely: group gossiping or spectating; reading/ rereading; deliberating/ reframing; and collaboratively creating.

The third example of case study is Basturkmen, Helen and Marilyn Lewis (2002). The study set out to investigate the following questions: "How do three students conceptualize and assess their success and the reasons for it on an EAP writing course?" and "How do the students' perspectives relate to the perceptions of their teachers?" This study involves 3 female Students and 2 teachers (one male one female) as the participants. Data collection was conducted through interview and email dialogues with students. Data Analysis was conducted following analytical induction procedures: revisited the data a number of times, individually and together, looking for salient themes and patterns which were then commented on in the researchers' words. The findings of the study maintain that the three students have different views of success; teachers' perceptions of their students' success vary in many respects from those of the students.

Wette (2009) can be taken as the fourth example of case study. The study was conducted to identify the curriculum making principles and practices a number of teachers were familiar with in the literature of second language teacher education.

To achieve the defined objectives, the researcher conducted what she called an interpretative case study of a number of selected teachers of English for the speakers of other languages (ESOL). In an attempt to collect the required data, seven well-qualified, experienced teachers were interviewed weekly. Their documents and materials produced over the duration of a whole were also collected. The interviews and the documents were qualitatively analyzed through the process of coding to generate categories relevant to the research questions. As a result, the case study reveals three main points. The first, the professional knowledge and experience of the study teachers was apparent in their ability to conceptualize and draft plans-in readiness in the pre-course phase, to establish rapport and diagnose learners' developmental priorities in the initial phase, and to weave a coherent curriculum from a variety of components and sources, taking into account conflicting demands and not losing sight of its global structure. The second, curriculum

making practices are consistent with the findings of earlier relevant researches. The third, however, the curriculum making accounts of the seven teachers in this study all differ significantly from much of the advice and information offered in language teacher education literature.

In contrast to positive case study, negative case study researcher makes use of an “unexpected phenomenon” under observation. A popular case study in TEFL studies is Curtiss (1977) who successfully published a book entitled “Genie: A Psycholinguistic Study of a Modern-Day Wild Child”. She observed a 16-year girl, Genie, who was unfortunately deprived away from society since her birth. The phenomena of Genie were explored from her language development.

3. Error Analysis

Studies about learners’ errors in their language production are actually descriptive in nature. Thus, these studies may also be covered under the term descriptive research. However, since the studies are specific in their steps of analysis, such studies are commonly categorized as error analysis.

The term error analysis (EA) was originally used to refer to language studies focusing on the linguistic errors made by second language learners. The term was popularized by Corder (1971) and Richards (1974). Since then, many researchers conducted studies about linguistic deviances produced by second language learners.

Error analysis is usually designed to identify the kinds of learners’ errors in second language learning. Prior to the emergence of EA was CA (contrastive analysis) which revealed an assumption that first language interference was the dominant factor affecting the second language learners’ errors. Ellis (1997: 15) argues that EA is important for three reasons: that learners’ errors are of interesting phenomena raising a question of why learners make errors; that EA is useful for teachers to know what errors learners make; and that EA may actually help learners to correct their errors by themselves. Under the theory of contrastive analysis (CA), language educators predict that any L2 system that is different from L1 system will cause difficulties to the learners. However, under the theory of EA, interference is not claimed to be the only dominant factor. Another factor which is also dominant is overgeneralization, indicating a misuse of L2 system.

Adopted from Huang (2002), the procedure of the error analysis includes the following four steps:

- Data collection, usually from students’ compositions;
- Identification of errors through the process of coding;
- Classification of errors into error types which might be grouped in accordance with the grammatical area (e.g. Errors in articles, errors in nouns, errors in verbs, etc.), the causing factors (L1 interference, overgeneralization, transfer of training, or communication strategy), or the characteristics of errors (global vs. local);
- A statement of error frequency

From the search of journal articles, an example of error analysis was found. This study is Lee and Chen (2009), conducted to find out the kind of errors learners typically make in their writings. This is an Error Analysis involving Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA) with the first corpus is the Chinese Academic Written English (CAWE), especially dissertations written by Chinese undergraduates majoring in English linguistics/applied linguistics. The second corpus is journal articles taken from a variety of high-ranking linguistics and applied linguistics journals with most of the articles selected to roughly match the topics of the Chinese learners’ dissertations. The study reveals high frequency of ‘the’; ‘make’; ‘besides’; ‘can’; concordance of ‘we can see’ in CAWE (Chinese Academic Written English); concordance of TABLE/FIGURE in EXJA (Expert Journal Articles); and high frequency of ‘according to’.

Another example is Haryanto (2007c). He conducted a study to find out the types of grammatical errors made by Indonesian EFL learners in English writing and the sources of their errors. Twenty eight pieces of compositions produced by students of English Department at Makassar State University were analyzed to find out two main features: the grammatical area where the learners make errors; and the factors that may cause the errors. A content analysis descriptive research method with qualitative data analysis technique was applied to seek for the answers to the proposed questions. As a result, the study reveals that from the most frequent to the least, grammatical errors occur in verb patterns, the passives, concord or agreement, nouns, tenses, articles, and others. From the perspective of causing factors, this study reveals that most grammatical errors were caused by two sources: first language interference and overgeneralization.

4. R & D

R & D is a popular acronym for Research and Development. This is a kind of research method originally designed for business sector. Today, however, this method has attracted researchers in the teaching of English as a foreign language. University officers also approve this as a research method for dissertation, since this kind of method can potentially produce new products that meet today community’s necessities. This is in line with the university vision and mission that is formulated to produce graduates with entrepreneurship spirit. A documentary analysis study at the Doctorate English Language Education Program has revealed the evidence that R & D is a preferred research method. Five examples of studies making use of this method are Pongsapan et al (2016); Hasmiati et al (2015); Sunubi et al (2016); Latifa et al (2015); and Atmowardoyo et al (2017).

Pongsapan et al (2016) made use of R & D to develop Instructional Materials for Nursing Students at Toraja, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. The study was designed to find out the language needs and the learning needs; and to develop ESP Speaking Course Material that meet the language and learning needs of the nursing students in Toraja. To achieve these three objectives, they conducted the research in three steps. First, they observed the existing ELT materials for nursing

students. The result of this observation is used as the reasons for developing material for nursing students that meet the students' language need as well as their learning needs. These needs are formulated based on the needs analysis. The second step is designing the blueprint of the ELT materials; and finally, with the assistance of nursing experts and ELT experts as validates, the blueprint was used as the basis for developing the ELT materials. A book entitled English for Nurse was issued.

Hasmiati et al (2015) used R & D to develop an English Course Book for high school students based on Curriculum 13 and local content materials. The research was carried out in several steps adapted from ADDIE model: analyzing the existing textbooks, conducting need analysis, designing the textbook blueprint, developing the prototype material, trying out the prototype through an experiment, and evaluating its effectiveness. As a result, an English textbook for Senior High School that incorporate local culture was issued.

Sunubi et al (2016) developed teaching and learning vocabulary material based on fishbone model for Islamic university students of English. The idea of developing vocabulary teaching and learning material was inspired by Ishikawa's idea stating that fishbone is a tool for analysis providing a systematic way of looking at effect and cause that create or contribute to those effects. This idea was combined with a learning theory involving mind mapping. In an attempt to develop the intended material, they applied ADDIE (analyze, design, develop, implement, and evaluate) in the development process. As a result, a newly developed vocabulary material under the topics Prophet Muhammad, Status of Woman, Lesson Life, and The Power of Istighfar was issued. With this, learners are encouraged to develop the related vocabulary through mind mapping in fish skeleton model.

Latifa et al (2016) used R & D to develop a practical rating scale of speaking test for university students of English in Parepare, Indonesia. They started this study when they noticed that some available rubrics of speaking test are not well implemented in their experiential teaching and learning since they are too complicated. In an effort to develop a practical rubric, they proposed a new rubric, validated it, tested it, and revised it. A practical rubric was then issued.

The last, Atmowardoyo et al (2017) developed an instrument for assessing EFL teachers' performance based on the students' perception. The need and the absence of instruments to assess EFL teachers' performance have inspired them to develop valid and reliable instrument in the form of questionnaire. A two-level study was conducted. The first study is a qualitative research designed to capture as many as possible the qualities attributable to effective EFL teachers as well as those attributable for ineffective EFL teachers. A total number of 86 freshmen were assigned to report their experiences studying English with their favorite EFL teachers and with undesired EFL teachers in their high schools. This study revealed a number of competences attributable to effective EFL teachers; and those of ineffective ones. The second study was designed to develop an assessment instrument for EFL teachers' performance based on the students' perception. The results of the first study were manipulated into an instrument draft in the form of questionnaire with adapted Likert's scale. The draft is validated by experts in language teaching and educational measurements. Then, the draft was revised and tested to 100 high school students to find out the reliability index. The final product is a forty four-item questionnaire consisting of twenty positive statements and 24 negative statements with validity level of 0.98 and reliability index of 90.4. Thus, this study has revealed a valid and reliable instrument for assessing EFL teachers' performance based on the students' perception.

V. CONCLUSION

The study of research methods in TEFL Studies can actually reveal more methods such as discourse analysis, content analysis, narrative inquiry, and developmental study. However, due to the limited space, the writer can only present the four common methods: descriptive research, case study, and error analysis, and R & D. The explanation of these four methods is expected to be beneficial for undergraduate or graduate students who are preparing a research for his or her thesis or dissertation. Learning from examples is sometimes simpler than from the theory. This is the reason why the writer presents this material in this way.

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Incorporating Humor to Develop EFL Learner's Speaking Ability and Willingness to Communicate

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Abstract—The present research attempted at finding out whether using humor techniques in the classroom is effective in developing EFL learner's speaking ability, and second to investigate the effectiveness of these techniques in developing EFL learner's willingness to communicate. For reaching the aims of this study, Iranian adult intermediate EFL learners were chosen based on intact group sampling. First, all the participants took The Oxford Placement test as a homogeneity test. Then, a speaking ability and willingness to communicate pre-test was administered to measure the participants' initial level of speaking ability and willingness to communicate. After that, when the experimental group learnt the speaking ability using humor techniques, the control group just experienced their routine method of teaching. After conducting 8 sessions of the course treatment, a post-test with the same content as the pre-test was conducted one by one for all the participants in order to measure their achievement in English speaking ability. For data analysis, SPSS software was used to run independent samples t-test to make comparisons between the experimental and the control groups' test scores. The results indicated that there is a significant difference in level of 95% certainty in terms of speaking ability and 99% certainty in terms of willingness to communicate between the learners' scores in experimental group which incorporate techniques of humor in EFL classrooms and the learners of the control group.

Index Terms—Humor, humor techniques, speaking ability, willingness to communicate

I. INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Teachers are always looking for creative and attractive teaching strategies that can help them to compete with the internet, media and other forms of home entertainment to attract their students' attention (Cornett, 2001). Literature indicates that in spite of having learners learn curriculum, most teachers desire to have learners enjoy time in their classes (Burgess, 2000). Teachers try to find the most influential ways to connect to learners and guarantee their academic success. For such teachers, achievement can be seen in approaches that make relevant associations and support higher-order thinking (Gurtler, 2002). Accordingly, one factor of human development that has been shown to reinforce familial relationships and supports academic excellence is often ignored by teachers. That factor is humor. Creating real life situations for students can efficiently assist them in learning language. Studies which have been done in humor field shows that the utilization of "humor" in classrooms promote classroom environment, facilitates student-teacher rapport, increases enjoyment, makes less tension, and even makes learning easy and turns it into a real-life experience (Loomax and Moosavi, 1998; Provine, 2002). Schmitz (2002) believes that utilizing humor in the language classroom helps EFL learners to understand and react to element of discourse in language interactions. Thus, it is a good idea that language teachers incorporate humor into the class activities. Schmitz also supported the utilization of humor in language classroom by stating that humor in EFL classes should be presented and investigated. He states that using humor in language courses makes the EFL class interesting and thereby improves learners' proficiency.

Researchers have proposed a variety of techniques in order to be used in a language classroom. Pham (2014) believed that for having humor, language teachers can incorporate jokes and funny stories and comments into their teaching. Pham believed that these are one of the best techniques of humor for language teaching. Ghanei Motlagh, Motallebzade, and Fatemi (2014) also suggest some humorous techniques that can be utilized in a language classroom. They name telling a joke, using funny gesture, and funny drawing on the board. As they claimed, these techniques can change the class atmosphere and result in more funny ideas and expressions by the learners.

One area in which EFL students need to be proficient is speaking ability and willingness to communicate. On the one hand, nowadays, knowing more than one language has become a prerequisite for people to be competent in many areas of their professional environment and be able to cope with the demands of modern life. For many people, there is a need to learn a foreign language to receive promotion in their jobs, to further their education, or to immigrate to other countries. At the same time, English language as the predominant language of the era appears to be the means by which

people are able to accomplish some of their goals in life. Due to this reason, many people around the world make efforts to learn a foreign language. This situation is also true for Iran as an EFL context. However, learning a foreign language in general and communicative skills such as speaking in particular is a challenging task for Iranian EFL learners. According to Castro Villada (2009), in learning a foreign language, speaking skill is considered the most crucial one by many EFL learners to be able to communicate in the target language.

On the other hand, researchers have indicated that student features such as aptitude, attitudes, motivation, and language anxiety associated with a lots of elements of language success (Gardner & Cle ment, 1990). In a situation that modern language pedagogy seriously mentions authentic communication as a necessary section of language learning result will be in the way that learner's differences in communication tendencies will have a meaningful part in language-learning results, both linguistic and nonlinguistic. Considering a social psychological view point to these points, the complex impact of these and other variables has lately been defined in a theoretical model (MacIntyre, Cle ment, Do rnyei, & Noels, 1998) that suggests willingness to communicate (WTC) as an element combining their impacts on authentic communication in the L2. Since humor is utilized as a language teaching tool, it can impact the learning environment positively and make it funny and interesting. Consequently, it can improve class attendance and learning (Deiter, 2000). Humor can be a tool for language instruction and enhance the teaching effectiveness. According to the importance of humor techniques and its impact on learning, the aim of this study is first to investigate whether incorporating humor techniques in the classroom is effective in developing EFL learner's speaking ability, and second to investigate the effectiveness of these techniques in developing EFL learner's willingness to communicate.

There have been many studies in the field of humor techniques and its impact on learning but no study has addressed incorporating humor techniques in the classroom to develop EFL learner's speaking ability, and their willingness to communicate. Pham, (2014) investigated the role of humor in the EFL classroom. Particularly, it investigated university teachers' and students' opinions of the roles of humor in EFL teaching, teachers' experiences of humor utilization, the reasons behind their application (or not application) of humor, teachers' preferences in respect to the humor types, and students' reaction to teachers' utilization of humor. It examined humor in English teaching/learning in the setting of Vietnam. The outcomes showed that the most of the university EFL teachers and students in this research have positive perceptions of and are in agreement about the roles of humor in EFL teaching.

They confirmed that humor has efficient and cognitive profits for students, their learning, and the teacher-student relationship. All teachers utilized humor in their teaching, or mentioned that they do so. The three most common implied types of humor were humorous comments, jokes, and funny stories. Humor was utilized most frequently at the start and towards the end of a class meeting. Most of the students support teachers' utilization of humor – particularly humor in English, comment that humor assists to raise their interest and motivation in learning English, and preferred a humorous teacher to a no humorous one.

Rashidi, Eslami, Rakhshandehroo and Izadpanah (2014) attempted to compare the different uses of humor among EFL learners. In this study, data was collected using Pedagogical Humor Questionnaire. The analyses of data indicated that language teachers and learners believed humor could be an effective teaching tool in language classroom and overcome affective barriers.

Khan and Ali (2010) did a descriptive study on the improvement of speaking English. The study was done on 40 students from 4 government colleges in district Charsadda (NWFD, Pakistan). A questionnaire consists of 15 questions was developed by studying the literature review and through conversation (discussion) with the experts. The results indicated that there is no adequate time for the improvement of speaking ability in the classroom. In fact, due to the limited time for students speaking ability, English is taught as a subject not a language and the routine of rote memory is advanced. The participants also complained about reprimanding, and discouraging by their teachers because of their incorrect speaking. It is concluded that although both teachers and students are accountable for the poor speaking ability, teachers are more responsible due to their professional knowledge and skills.

Khodarahmi and Nia (2014) examined the relationship between EFL learners' perception of their teachers' classroom discipline strategies and their willingness to communicate (WTC) in English inside the classroom. Participants were 87 learners who filled the classroom discipline strategies questionnaire and the scale for WTC inside the classroom. The outcomes discovered that learners' WTC inside the classroom was substantially connected to their perception of the discipline strategies applied by their teachers. In addition, teachers' discipline strategies were recognized to consider 38% of the variance in learners' second language (L2) WTC inside the classroom.

II. METHODOLOGY

The participants of the study were 60 Iranian adult intermediate EFL learners with the age range of 18-24 who were studying English in language institute in Tehran. Totally, 60 participants were chosen in two groups for the purpose of this study. And each group included 30 participants. Three instruments were used in this study: One of them was the Oxford Placement Test to check the homogeneity of the groups. The test included two parts, namely grammar and listening. TOEFL based speaking test and willingness to communicate pre-test was administered to both control and experimental groups to measure the participants' initial level of speaking ability and willingness to communicate. After that, when the experimental group learnt the speaking ability using humor techniques, the control group just experienced their routine method of teaching. In experimental group, students learnt the speaking ability using humor

techniques including beginning the class with a thought for the day, using stories and experiences, relating things to students, planning lectures in segments with humor injected, asking students for humorous material, and telling jokes. At the end of the research, a post-test with the same content as the pre-test was conducted one by one for all the participants in order to measure their achievement in English speaking ability and willingness to communicate. After the required data were collected, in order to analyze data including homogeneity test scores and speaking ability and willingness to communicate pre-test and post-test scores, SPSS software was used. Descriptive statistics of data provided information such as group's means, standard deviations, and frequency. Inferential statistics helped us to test the research hypotheses. For doing this, independent samples t-test was run to make comparisons between the experimental and the control groups' test scores.

III. RESULTS

In this section researcher use various analytical methods to respond to the formulated question.

A. The Estimation of the Mean and Standard Deviation Based on Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Speaking Ability in Control Group

TABLE 3.1:
REPRESENTS OF THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION BASED ON PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES OF SPEAKING ABILITY IN CONTROL GROUP

Control Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Speaking Ability	20.80	.96	21.40	1.10

Statistics in the above table indicates the mean score of pre-test in Speaking Ability in control group is 20.80 ± 0.96 and the mean score of post-test is 21.40 ± 1.10 .

B. The Estimation of the Mean and Standard Deviation Based on Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Speaking Ability in Experimental Group

TABLE 3.2:
THE ESTIMATION OF THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION BASED ON PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES OF SPEAKING ABILITY IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Experimental Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Speaking Ability	20.60	1.00	22.13	1.45

Statistics in the above table indicates the mean score of pre-test in Speaking Ability in experimental group is 20.60 ± 1.00 and the mean score of post-test is 22.13 ± 1.45 .

C. The Estimation of the Mean and Standard Deviation Based on Willingness to Communicate in Both Control and Experimental Groups

TABLE 3.3:
THE ESTIMATION OF THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION BASED ON WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN BOTH CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	Control		Experimental	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Willingness to Communicate	2.98	.57	3.44	.70

Statistics in the above table indicates the mean score of willingness to communicate in control group is 2.98 ± 0.57 and in the experimental group is 3.44 ± 0.70 . And the range of scores is between 1-5.

D. Inferential Statistics

1. Investigating the Distribution of Data

H0: There is no significant difference between the distributions of variables with normal distribution. (Distribution of variables is normal).

H1: There is a significant difference between the distributions of variables with normal distribution. (Distribution of variables is not normal).

Kolmogorov – Smirnov test was used to check the normal distribution of data. In single-sample mode, this test compares the observed cumulative distribution function with the expected cumulative distribution function (normal distribution) in a variable in order measurement level. In other words, in this test, distribution of a trait in a sample is compared with the normal distribution.

In the interpretation of test results, if significant level is more than probability of error ($\alpha=0.05$), then the considered distribution is a normal distribution (the null hypothesis is not rejected). But if a significant level is smaller than probability of error level ($\alpha=0.05$), then the distribution will not be normal (the null hypothesis is rejected).

Test of Examining the Normal Distribution of Variables

TABLE 3.4:
TEST OF EXAMINING THE NORMAL DISTRIBUTION OF VARIABLES

	Kolmogorov Value	Sig	Probability of Error	Result
Post-test of Speaking Ability in Control Group	1.141	.148	0/05	Normal
Post-test of Speaking Ability in Experimental Group	.863	.446	0/05	Normal
Score of Willingness to Communicate in Control Group	.643	.803	0/05	Normal
Score of Willingness to Communicate in Experimental Group	.767	.598	0/05	Normal

Given the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics in the above table and also the significant level, it can be inferred that expected distribution (normal distribution) has no significant differences with observed distribution for all variables and so the distribution of these variables is normal. So parametric statistics should be used to test hypotheses.

2. Hypothesis Test

The first Hypothesis: "Incorporating techniques of humor in EFL classrooms makes significant difference on developing learners' speaking ability".

H0: Incorporating techniques of humor in EFL classrooms makes no significant difference on developing learners' speaking ability.

H1: Incorporating techniques of humor in EFL classrooms makes significant difference on developing learners' speaking ability.

To test this hypothesis, first a comparison was made between mean score of pre-test of each group with mean score of post-tests by paired t-test. And then, a comparison was made between mean score of post-test in experimental group with mean score of post-test in control group by independent t-test. Obviously, if there is a significant difference between post-test of experimental group and control group, then researcher's null hypothesis would be rejected.

E. Formula of Paired T-test

$$t = \frac{\sum D}{\sqrt{\frac{n \sum D^2 - (\sum D)^2}{n-1}}}$$

In the above formula, D is the differences in the mean of post-test with pre-test.

F. Table of Paired T-test

TABLE 3.5:
TABLE OF PAIRED T-TEST

Comparing Pre-test with Post-test of Learners' Speaking Ability in Groups					
		Mean	Standard Deviation	t	sig
Control group	Pre-test	20.80	.96	-4.871	.000
	Post-test	21.40	1.10		
Experimental group	Pre-test	20.60	1.00	-7.594	.000
	Post-test	22.13	1.45		

As it can be observed, pre-test and post-test scores in the speaking ability were separately compared in control and experimental groups. The paired t test in the (Sig <0.01) level is significant. Therefore, it can be concluded that difference between these two tests was significant in experimental and control group.

To determine the difference between the mentioned groups, the achieved scores of speaking ability by experimental group should be compared to the scores of control group using independent group's t-test.

G. Formula of Independent Groups T-test

$$t = \frac{|x_1 - x_2|}{\sqrt{\frac{ss_1 + ss_2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2} \times \left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}\right)}}$$

In the above formula, $ss = (n-1)$.

H. Table of the Independent Groups T-test

TABLE 3.6:
TABLE OF THE INDEPENDENT GROUPS T-TEST

Comparing Post-test Scores of Speaking Ability in Control and Experimental Groups					
		Mean	Standard Deviation	t	sig
Post-test Scores	Control	21.40	1.10	-2.200	.032
	Experimental	22.13	1.45		

As it can be observed, the t test in the (Sig <0.05) level is significant. In other words, there is a significant difference between the achieved scores of two groups, but according to the mean scores of experimental group which obtained more score in speaking ability, it can be said that there is a significant difference in level of 95% certainty between the learners scores in experimental group which incorporates techniques of humor in EFL classrooms and the learners of the control group in terms of speaking ability. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and researcher hypothesis is confirmed.

The second Hypothesis: “Incorporating techniques of humor in EFL classrooms makes significant difference on developing learners' willingness to communicate”.

H0: Incorporating techniques of humor in EFL classrooms makes no significant difference on developing learners' willingness to communicate.

H1: Incorporating techniques of humor in EFL classrooms makes significant difference on developing learners' willingness to communicate.

To determine the difference between the mentioned groups, the achieved scores of willingness to communicate by experimental group should be compared to the scores of control group using independent group's t-test. Obviously, if there is a significant difference between post-test of experimental group than control group, then researcher hypothesis would be confirmed.

I. Formula of Independent Groups T-test

$$t = \frac{|x1 - x2|}{\sqrt{\frac{ss1 + ss2}{n1 + n2 - 2} \times (\frac{1}{n1} + \frac{1}{n2})}}$$

In the above formula, $ss = (n-1)$.

J. Table of the Independent Groups T-test

TABLE 3.7:
TABLE OF THE INDEPENDENT GROUPS T-TEST

Comparing Post-test Scores of Willingness to Communicate in Control and Experimental Groups					
		Mean	Standard Deviation	t	sig
Post-test Scores	Control	2.98	.57	-2.733	.008
	Experimental	3.44	.70		

As it can be observed, the t test in the (Sig <0.01) level is significant. In other words, there is a significant difference between the achieved scores of two groups, but according to the mean scores of experimental group which obtained more score in willingness to communicate, it can be said that there is a significant difference in level of 99% certainty between the learners scores in experimental group which incorporate techniques of humor in EFL classrooms than the learners of the control group in terms of willingness to communicate. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and researcher hypothesis is confirmed.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of this study are comparable with the results of the previous studies in this area. This comparison can be useful for deeper understanding and achieving wider knowledge of incorporating humor teaching techniques and its effect in developing learner's speaking ability and willingness to communicate. However, before making comparison, it should be added that previous studies did not address incorporating humor to develop EFL learner's speaking ability and willingness to communicate that were the focus of attention in our study. They either examined the effect of humor on learning a second/foreign language or they investigated the effect of different factors that help EFL learners to develop speaking ability and willingness to communicate. However, the results of all these related studies are still comparable to these study findings.

To make comparison between the present study and few studies in this area, a search conducted by Pham, (2014) can be mentioned. He aimed to investigate the role of humor in the EFL classroom. The outcomes showed that most of the university EFL teachers and students in this research have positive perceptions of and are in agreement about the roles of humor in EFL teaching. They confirmed that humor has efficient and cognitive profits for students, their learning, and the teacher-student relationship. Most of the students support teachers' utilization of humor – particularly humor in English, and comment that humor assists to raise their interest and motivation in learning English, and preferred a humorous teacher to a non-humorous one.

Although Pham's (2014), study focused on the role of humor in the EFL classroom in general, and the current study focused specifically on speaking ability and willingness to communicate. Still it can be said that his study shared humor variable with the current study. Therefore, the results of this study are in accordance with Pham's, (2014) findings which confirmed that the use of humor has efficient and cognitive profits for students, their learning, and the teacher-student relationship.

Rashidi, et al, (2014) study is also comparable to the current research since they attempted to compare the different uses of humor among EFL learners. The analyses of data indicated that language teachers and learners believed humor could be an effective teaching tool in language classroom and overcome affective barriers.

Regarding the results of Rashidi's, et al, (2014)'s study, it can be said that although their study was congruent with this study findings, the two studies bear some similarities and differences. For instance, while in Rashidi, et al's, (2014) study, they focused on the different uses of humor among EFL learners. Nevertheless, in the current study, while humor techniques were also taken into account, L2 students' speaking ability and willingness to communicate were the focus of attention. Therefore, it can be said that these two studies can fulfill the complementary role.

Khan and Ali (2010) did a descriptive study on the improvement of speaking English. The results indicated that there is no adequate time for the improvement of speaking ability in the classroom. In fact, due to the limited time for students speaking ability, English is taught as a subject not a language and the routine of rote memory is advanced. The participants also complained about reprimanding, and discouraging by their teachers because of their incorrect speaking. It is concluded that although both teachers and students are accountable for the poor speaking ability, teachers are more responsible due to their professional knowledge and skills. Again one common variable of their study with the current study is speaking ability which makes the total findings of two studies comparable.

Khodarahmi and Nia (2014) examined the relationship between EFL learners' perception of their teachers' classroom discipline strategies and their willingness to communicate (WTC) in English inside the classroom. The outcomes discovered that learners' WTC inside the classroom was substantially connected to their perception of the discipline strategies applied by their teachers. In addition, teachers' discipline strategies were recognized to consider 38% of the variance in learners' second language (L2) WTC inside the classroom. Willingness to communicate as a common variable of their study with current study can make the total findings of two studies comparable.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In accordance with the inferential statistics of the study that tested the hypotheses, it was found that there is a significant difference in level of 95% certainty between the learners' scores in experimental group which incorporate techniques of humor in EFL classrooms and the learners of the control group in terms of speaking ability. Furthermore, there is a significant difference in level of 99% certainty between the learners' scores in experimental group which incorporate techniques of humor in EFL classrooms and the learners of the control group in terms of willingness to communicate. The results of this study can have some implications for policy makers, language teachers, and EFL learners.

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Articles

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 - o Time to deliver final package to the publisher

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- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

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- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
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Pre-service Teachers' Perception of Teaching Future EFL Students: A Micro-ethnography Approach <i>Widya Ratna Kusumaningrum</i>	74
Researching Innovations in English Language Writing Instruction: A State-of-the-art Review <i>Weiyu Zhang and Yin Ling Cheung</i>	80
Values Implied in the <i>Wratisasana</i> Palm Manuscripts as Guideline of Politeness in Language of the Character Education: A Study of Theo-Ethno Pedagogy <i>Relin, I Wayan Rasna, and W.S. Binawati</i>	90
The Validity of Hybridity in Derek Walcott's <i>A Branch of the Blue Nile</i> <i>Zohreh Ramin and Monireh Arvin</i>	97
A Study on the Intercultural Communicative Competence Cultivation Strategy of International Secretarial Personnel under the Background of Globalization <i>Qiuping Wang</i>	108
Research Material Development of Drama Appreciation Based on Local Wisdom on Student in Indonesian Literature and Language Education Program at Muhammadiyah University of Makassar Indonesia <i>Anzar, Anshari, and Juanda</i>	113
On Translation Strategies of English Movie Titles <i>Zhihong Bai</i>	119
Language Function Used in ELT Textbook Focused on Medical Conversation <i>I Gusti Ayu Agung Dian Susanthi, I Wayan Pastika, Ida Bagus Putra Yadnya, and Made Sri Satyawati</i>	125
Operationalising the Concept of Mediation in L2 Teacher Education <i>Ghasemali Azadi, Reza Biria, and Mehdi Nasri</i>	132
A Study of Humor in Bone Regency: A Socio-pragmatic Review <i>Andi Muhammad Taufiq, Anshari, and Ramly</i>	141
An Analysis of Characteristics and Relationships of the Characters in the Big Bang Theory from the Perspective of Turn-taking Mechanism <i>Tingting Shi</i>	147
Local Wisdom Values in Balinese Folktales That Are Relevant to Character Education for the First Grade at Primary School <i>Relin, Rasna, I. W., and Binawati, W.S</i>	155
The Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Gender on Writing Proficiency of Iranian EFL Learners <i>Zohreh Mohammadi and Siros Izadpanah</i>	164
On the Relationship of Students' English Learning Beliefs and Learning Strategy in the University <i>Zhen Zhou</i>	175
The Efficacy of Pair Interaction in Teaching Communicative English Grammar <i>Suhartina R</i>	181
A Study on the Application of Paraphrase Strategy in the Translation from Chinese to English <i>Yue Yan</i>	192
Research Methods in TEFL Studies: Descriptive Research, Case Study, Error Analysis, and R & D <i>Haryanto Atmowardoyo</i>	197
Incorporating Humor to Develop EFL Learner's Speaking Ability and Willingness to Communicate <i>Ali Akbar Khomejani Farahani and Zahra Abdollahi</i>	205
