

# Journal of Language Teaching and Research

ISSN 1798-4769

Volume 9, Number 3, May 2018

## Contents

---

### REGULAR PAPERS

- Spanish Composition Errors from a Combined Classroom of Heritage (L1) and Non-heritage (L2) Learners: A Comparative Case Study 439  
*John M. Ryan*
- Vocabulary Skills and Online Dictionaries: A Study on EFL Learners' Receptive Vocabulary Knowledge and Success in Searching Electronic Sources for Information 453  
*Marja-Leena Niitemaa and Päivi Pietilä*
- A Corpus-based Study of Lexis in L2 English Textbooks 463  
*Cathrine Norberg and Marie Nordlund*
- The Scarlet Letter*: Embroidering Transcendentalism and Anti-transcendentalism Thread for an Early American World 474  
*Ramtin Noor-Tehrani (Noor) Mahini and Erin Barth*
- Perception and Experience of Teacher Educators about Their Motivation: A Case Study Approach 480  
*Zafarullah Sahito and Pertti Vaisanen*
- Methods Used to Eliminate the Students' Chintonglish Sentences in Their Writing 491  
*Xiaoying Zhou and Hangjie Liao*
- The Development and Validation of the EFL Learning Context Questionnaire 496  
*Weningtyas Parama Iswari, Haryanto Atmowardoyo, Muhammad Asfah Rahman, and Susilo*
- Note-taking in Persian-English Consecutive Interpreting: Considering Iranian Translation Teachers' and Students' Opinions 504  
*Rasoul Marani and Hossein Heidari Tabrizi*
- The Relevance among Preservice English Teachers' Preparation Courses, Their Views about Teaching and Their Real Teaching Behaviors (A Case Study) 510  
*Hosam ElDeen Ahmed El-Sawy*
- A Study on the Spread of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand under the Strategy of Maritime Silk Road 520  
*Lei Miao and Qiuping Wang*
- Evaluating a New Writing Material: Students' Perception towards the Use of a Teacher-made Coursebook 525  
*Mansur Akil, Arifuddin Hamra, Haryanto Atmowardoyo, and Magdahalena Tjalla*
- Toward the Use of Conceptual Metaphors of "Teacher" Perceived by High-school Students 534  
*Fariba Mansouri Koohestani, Narjes Banou Sabouri, Parisa Farrokh, and Maryam Hessaby Dehbaneh*
-

---

Incorporating Intercultural Competences in Developing English Materials for Writing Classes <i>Haerazi, Dedi Irwansyah, Juanda, and Yek Amin Azis</i>	540
The Pragmatic Strategies Adopted by an Advanced Chinese EFL Learner in Realization of Request Speech Act—A Case Study <i>Yanfei Su</i>	548
Learning Tasks Design in Improving Reading Comprehension Ability of Informational Text of 5th Grade in Indonesia: An Interactive-compensatory Model Use <i>Tri Indri Hardini, Ryan Dwi Puspita, and Rully Agung Yudhiantara</i>	555
The Effect of Visual Contextual Support and Glossary of Words on Guessing Meaning of New Vocabulary Items in English by Pre-university Male EFL Students <i>Kamal Nasrollahi and Samran Daneshfar</i>	561
A Comparison of Corrective Feedback Used in International and EFL Contexts <i>Julia Simhony and Natthapong Chanyoo</i>	573
A Study of the Transitive Construction of Chinese Dream <i>Min Lian</i>	583
Developing Authentic-based Instructional Materials for Writing Skill <i>Andi Kamariah, Djamiah Husain, Haryanto Atmowardoyo, and Kisman Salija</i>	591
Dynamic Assessment in Vygotsky’s Sociocultural Theory: Origins and Main Concepts <i>Samran Daneshfar and Mehdi Moharami</i>	600
Teachers’ Beliefs of Authentic Materials for Teaching Reading in Indonesian EFL Classrooms <i>Desy Rusmawaty, Haryanto Atmowardoyo, Arifuddin Hamra, and Nurdin Noni</i>	608
From Differentiation of the Expressive Effects to Conscious Use of Rhetorical Language <i>Yulan Gu</i>	614
Bilingual-based Instruction in Teaching English for Academic Purposes at Islamic University <i>Sitti Nurpahmi, Muhammad Asfah Rahman, and Kisman Salija</i>	620
The Effect of Using Fun Activities on Learning Vocabulary at the Elementary Level <i>Farideh Bavi</i>	629
Vietnamese Voices: A Project for Activating Student Autonomy <i>Nguyễn Ngọc Lưu Ly</i>	640
The Cultural Factors in Postcolonial Theories and Applications <i>Yufeng Wang</i>	650
Do Cultural Intelligence and Language Learning Strategies Influence Students’ English Language Proficiency? <i>Noor Rachmawaty, M. Basri Wello, Mansur Akil, and Syarifuddin Dollah</i>	655

---

# Spanish Composition Errors from a Combined Classroom of Heritage (L1) and Non-heritage (L2) Learners: A Comparative Case Study

John M. Ryan  
University of Northern Colorado, USA

**Abstract**—In a world of declining institutional budgets, decreasing student enrollments in departments that until now may have had the luxury of separate composition classrooms for heritage and non-heritage students, not to mention individual student schedule limitations, the steady increase in enrollment of L1 or heritage students in composition classrooms which were before primarily geared toward L2 learners has created a new reality and the urgency to rethink the organization, sequence, and emphasis placed on topics and structures in the classroom. The purpose of this case study was to conduct a comprehensive analysis of L1 and L2 student composition error data collected from a sample of fifteen students enrolled in a Spanish Composition (SPAN 302) class at the University of Northern Colorado (UNC). Specific objectives for this project were to determine from the data collected: 1) the frequencies with which L1 and L2 student participants committed word- and sentence-level errors in their compositions; 2) how error frequencies compare between L1 and L2 students over a semester's time, and in particular, with the writing of a series of five different compositions, each targeting a more advanced level of writing proficiency; and 3) how knowledge of both similarities and differences between these two groups might be applied to enhance the author's current pedagogical model that could work for future students from both groups in a single classroom.

**Index Terms**—composition studies, error analysis, Spanish, combined classrooms

## I. PREVIOUS COMPOSITION ERROR STUDIES

Student error analysis is an area of investigation that not only helps to shed light on how students learn, but it also serves as a pedagogical tool that can be used to increase students' awareness of the most common types of errors to avoid. The topic of writing or composition among L2 students is not a new area of investigation (Nas & Van Esch, 2014; DeHaan & Van Esch, 2005; Valdés et al. 1992; Schneider & Connor, 1990), nor is the focus of error analysis of compositions, in Spanish or otherwise (Van Beuningen, 2010; Carduner, 2008; Truscott, 2007; Ferris, 2004). Previous studies that have examined comparisons between L1 and L2 writing in Spanish include Silva (1993) who concluded that, compared to L1 writing, that produced by L2 learners is a more involved process and less efficient in that there is less planning, fewer ideas, and less thorough revisions. In another study, Roca de Larios et al. (2002) identify certain strategies that L1 and L2 learners share such as problem-solving strategies and an interactive approach to composing text. A study that underscores a major difference in L1 and L2 writing is Schoonen et al. (2009) which asserts that the L2 writer is in a sense required to work harder because s/he may have to call on additional cognitive resources to compensate for inadequacies in vocabulary or other linguistic deficiencies. What appears to be lacking in the area of L1 and L2 writing are data-driven studies on how L1 and L2 writing errors compare and how knowledge of similarities and differences might contribute to an intervention model that could improve student writing in a combined classroom.

## II. PROJECT DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The statistical design of this study is one that involves the analysis of error frequency data. As such, the following three phases all supported the collection, analysis, and interpretation of project data, as follows:

*Phase 1: Data collection (grading of compositions) and coding of student errors*

Throughout Spring 2017 semester, the fifteen student participants of this study wrote and submitted five compositions of increasing difficulty, each ranging between 300 and 750 words, and targeting successively more advanced levels of writing proficiency. The course utilized the textbook *La escritura paso a paso* by Lapuerta & Mejía (2008) as a basis to collect data since its chapters (and corresponding composition assignments) are based on successive levels of proficiency, as prescribed by ACTFL. All 75 compositions were graded and errors classified and coded according to the categories appearing in Table 1.

TABLE 1.  
ERROR CATEGORIES USED TO CODE STUDENT COMPOSITION ERRORS

<b>Word-level categories</b>		
1 ) Accent missing/wrong	6 ) Incorrect number	11 ) Verb in wrong tense
2 ) Adverb incorrect	7 ) Indirect obj. pronoun	12 ) Verb in wrong mood
3 ) Capital letter incorrect	8 ) Prepositional pronoun	13 ) Wrong gender
4 ) Copula choice	9 ) Spelling error	14 ) Wrong number (singular/plural)
5 ) Direct object pronoun	10 ) Verb form incorrect	15 ) Wrong word
<b>Sentence-level categories</b>		
1 ) Adjective placement	6 ) New structure needed	11 ) Punctuation mistake
2 ) Article missing	7 ) Noun-adjective agreement	12 ) Reflexive
3 ) Conjunction wrong/missing	8 ) Part of speech incorrect	13 ) Subject pronoun redundant
4 ) English structure	9 ) Personal 'a' is missing	14 ) Subject- verb agreement
5 ) Makes no sense	10 ) Preposition wrong/missing	15 ) Word(s) not necessary

*Phase 2: Tally, sorting, and entry of student error data, review and analysis*

Once all 75 compositions were graded and coded for word- and sentence-level errors, these were then tallied, sorted, and entered into Excel. During this second phase, error data were reviewed and analyzed, as well as further disambiguated in order to take into consideration the following variables: 1) individual student composition error patterns; and 2) composition type (descriptive, summary, narrative, expository, and persuasion) to determine: a) whether certain patterns were more prevalent than others in certain types of writing, and b) the rate of persistence of certain errors over time.

*Phase 3: Data interpretation and reflection*

The last phase of the project was spent completing the analysis, enumerating project findings, and reflecting on the implications this work has on a future model for teaching composition in combined classrooms of L1 and L2 students.

**Participants**

Both L1 and L2 data for this experiment were collected and analyzed as part of a 2017 summer grant program at the University of Northern Colorado.<sup>1</sup> Originally intended to identify the error frequencies of non-native (L2) students alone, the project exceeded its original scope in that four of the fifteen students of the cohort identified themselves as heritage learners with previous personal or non-academic exposure to Spanish. This necessitated early separation and tracking of these students from the remaining eleven, essentially creating both a second, previously unconsidered project cohort of L1 students, as well as a previously unanticipated project variable, namely heritage/non-heritage status.

Given the wide discrepancy between the number of L1 (n = 4) and L2 (n = 11) participants, data for this study are presented both in terms of the number of tokens per error, as well as percentage frequency. Also, in both cases of L1 and L2 students, emphasis is placed on the most common errors committed by each group for each error category.<sup>2</sup>

**Teaching method**

My approach to teaching Spanish composition includes the use of a computer laboratory in order to maximize the amount of time students use class time to practice their writing. This method has proven to be quite effective in creating a composition "boot camp," not only in terms of increased instructor-guided writing, but the additional experiences of group writing and peer-editing among students as well, both of which I have found to be particularly effective for the sharing of information and acquisition of advanced skills.

III. COMPARISON OF L1 AND L2 STUDENT PARTICIPANT DATA

**Overall error frequencies for L1 and L2 students**

The first of the major differences found between L1 and L2 students of this study was in terms of the number of errors committed by each group, both overall and for each error category. As might be expected, L1 learner participants as a group committed significantly fewer errors overall (n = 252) as compared to those by their L2 counterparts (n = 1,801). Notwithstanding the large difference in number between L1 (n = 4) and L2 (n = 11) participants, the average number of errors per L1 participant (n = 63.0) was still found to be strikingly lower than that for L2s (n = 163.72). Comparison of L1 and L2 errors becomes even more interesting when one looks at individual behaviors by each group at word- and sentence-levels, as illustrated in Figure 1.

<sup>1</sup> 2017 UNC Summer Support Initiative Award No. QS232. Also, publication of this article was funded in part by the University of Northern Colorado Fund for Faculty Publication.

<sup>2</sup> In both cases, the top five errors for both L1 and L2 students constituted the majority of errors, ranging overall between 66.55% and 84.18%. of all errors. As the data will also show, in the case of L1 students, a full 84.18% of all word-level errors were represented by the top four error categories.



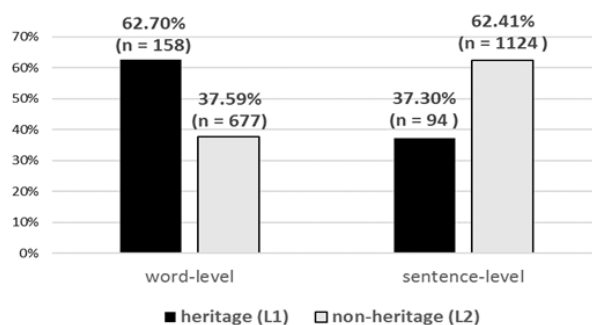


Figure 1: L1 versus L2 student percentage error results for all compositions

The most immediate observation of Figure 1 is that, despite the wide difference in the average number of errors reported above for each group, heritage and non-heritage participants of the study exhibited almost precise inverse tendencies when it came to word- versus sentence-level errors. According to the figure, L1 speakers committed a higher percentage of errors at word- (62.7%) than at sentence- level (37.3%), while L2s committed fewer errors at word- (37.59%) than at sentence-level (62.41%). This initial, more general finding of the data confirms previous anecdotal observations that each group has differing needs when it comes to the acquisition of composition skills, and particularly at word- and sentence-levels.

The following section of this paper examines the data further in terms of word and sentence level errors for both L1 and L2 participants of this study.

**Word-level Errors**

A closer look at the word-level errors committed by L1 and L2 students of the study yielded the following observations.

*L1 student errors at word level*

Table 2 shows the data for all word error categories (in order from highest to lowest) for L1 students:

TABLE 2:  
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF L1 WORD-LEVEL ERRORS FOR ALL COMPOSITIONS

	(1) C-1		(2) C-2		(3) C-3		(4) C-4		(5) C-5		(6) Totals		
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	
accent	17	56.67%	4	30.77%	24	54.55%	19	47.50%	10	32.26%	74	46.84%	84.18%
spelling	7	23.33%	2	15.38%	9	20.45%	4	10.00%	9	29.03%	31	19.62%	
wrong word	0	0.00%	2	15.38%	5	11.36%	4	10.00%	4	12.90%	15	9.49%	
capitalization	1	3.33%	3	23.08%	3	6.82%	4	10.00%	2	6.45%	13	8.23%	
number	1	3.33%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	3	7.50%	2	6.45%	6	3.80%	15.82%
mood	2	6.67%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	2.50%	2	6.45%	5	3.16%	
verb form	1	3.33%	0	0.00%	2	4.55%	2	5.00%	0	0.00%	5	3.16%	
tense	1	3.33%	1	7.69%	0	0.00%	1	2.50%	0	0.00%	3	1.90%	
dir. obj. pron.	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	2.27%	1	2.50%	0	0.00%	2	1.27%	15.82%
prep. pron.	0	0.00%	1	7.69%	0	0.00%	1	2.50%	0	0.00%	2	1.27%	
gender	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	3.23%	1	0.63%	
ind. obj. pron	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	3.23%	1	0.63%	
adverb	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	
copula	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	
<b>totals</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>158</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	

According to the data in Table 2, a full 84.18% of all word-level errors committed by L1 participants is represented by errors in the first four categories, from highest to lowest as indicated in column (6), namely: 1) incorrect (or missing) accent mark (n = 74; 46.84%); 2) incorrect spelling (n = 31; 19.62%); 3) use of the wrong word (n = 15; 9.49%); and 4) incorrect capitalization (n = 13; 8.23%).

Some examples from the data of these four most common categories of L1 word level-errors are underlined and/or explained below:

(1) Accent error: “Llegue a Italia...” with the intended meaning: ‘I arrived in Italy...’ (The first person singular preterit tense form of *llegar* ‘to arrive’ requires a written accent on the final syllable, as in *Llegué*.)

(2) Spelling error: “...invitado por el reí...” with the intended meaning: ‘...invited by the king...’ (the word for ‘king’ in Spanish should be spelled *rey*. The way it is spelled by the student means ‘I laughed.’)

(3) Wrong word: “*Esperamos encontrar especias...*” with the intended meaning: ‘we hope to find species...’ (*Especias* is another Spanish word that means ‘spices.’ The word for ‘species’ in Spanish is *especies*.)

(4) Capitalization: “...*montañas en colorado*...” with the intended meaning: ‘...mountains in Colorado...’ (Colorado is a proper noun in Spanish and should be capitalized).

All other errors committed by L1 students at word level (totaling 15.82%) occurred on average with less frequency (each below 4% of total errors in each case), including: 5) grammatical number (n = 6; 3.8%); 6) incorrect mood (n = 5; 3.16%); 7) incorrect verb form (n = 5; 3.16%); 8) incorrect verb tense (n = 3; 1.90%), 9) incorrect or missing direct object pronoun (n = 2; 1.27%); and 10) incorrect prepositional pronoun (n = 2; 1.27%); etc.

#### L1 word-level trends between compositions

If one compares error results for each of the five compositions (abbreviated by C-1, C-2, etc.) for L1 participants (represented in Table 2 by the last row of totals for columns (1) through (5)), one sees between C-1 and C-2 an immediate drop in the total number of errors (from n = 30 to n = 13), and then a resurgence between C-2 and C-3 (from n = 13 to n = 44), after which it steadily declines from C-3 to C-5, finishing at a total of 31 tokens.

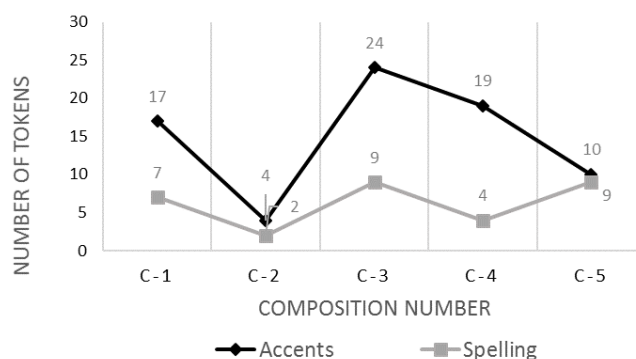


Figure 2: Cross-composition fluctuations in L1 top two word-level errors

A closer look at the individual error categories across all compositions suggests that the most noticeable fluctuations appear in terms of “accent,” and “spelling,” particularly between the first and second compositions. Figure 2 illustrates these fluctuations.

The large drop in errors between C-1 and C-2, as illustrated in Figure 2, might be explained by the very nature of composition 2, whose purpose was to draw information from two fictitiously published (and biased) articles in order to create a single, new unbiased article (Lapuerta & Mejía, 2008). It should not be very surprising that errors would drop in the areas of accents or spelling for C-2 since most of the words that would be used in the new composition could have appeared in the two fictitious articles that had been provided to students as source material. If one accepts these fluctuations as determined by the nature of the composition, it would seem that L1 students of the study actually improved over time in their correct use of accents, but only remained relatively stable in terms of their spelling.

Just as any significant drop in errors must be addressed, so too must noticeable increases, like that occurring for these same students between C-2 and C-3.<sup>3</sup> Once again, as suggested for the drop in overall L1 errors between C-1 and C-2, it may be that the nature of composition 3, which was a personal narrative, significantly more complex than C-2, and definitely more involved than C-1.

#### L2 student errors at word level

Table 3 provides the data for all word error categories (in order from highest to lowest) for L2 students of this study:

<sup>3</sup> One must mention here that if the results for C-2 are an anomaly in the sense that they could have been influenced by the nature of the information provided to the student beforehand, then it follows that the sharp increases that appear between C-2 and C-3 might not be, in fact, as sharp, or even exist at all, if under other circumstances C-2 errors were much higher.

TABLE 3:  
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF L2 WORD-LEVEL ERRORS FOR ALL COMPOSITIONS

	(1) C-1		(2) C-2		(3) C-3		(4) C-4		(5) C-5		(6) Totals		
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	
wrong word	27	21.26%	25	26.60%	38	22.22%	38	21.97%	38	33.93%	<b>166</b>	<b>24.52%</b>	71.34%
accent	17	13.39%	11	11.70%	39	22.81%	18	10.40%	20	17.86%	<b>105</b>	<b>15.51%</b>	
tense	18	14.17%	12	12.77%	34	19.88%	18	10.40%	4	3.57%	<b>86</b>	<b>12.70%</b>	
mood	16	12.60%	13	13.83%	14	8.19%	23	13.29%	10	8.93%	<b>76</b>	<b>11.23%</b>	
spelling	8	6.30%	13	13.83%	5	2.92%	15	8.67%	9	8.04%	<b>50</b>	<b>7.39%</b>	
verb form	7	5.51%	6	6.38%	7	4.09%	19	10.98%	7	6.25%	<b>46</b>	<b>6.79%</b>	28.66%
gender	4	3.15%	7	7.45%	7	4.09%	13	7.51%	6	5.36%	<b>37</b>	<b>5.47%</b>	
copula	10	7.87%	1	1.06%	6	3.51%	8	4.62%	4	3.57%	<b>29</b>	<b>4.28%</b>	
capitalization	1	0.79%	3	3.19%	4	2.34%	17	9.83%	2	1.79%	<b>27</b>	<b>3.99%</b>	
ind. obj. pron.	9	7.09%	2	2.13%	7	4.09%	2	1.16%	4	3.57%	<b>24</b>	<b>3.55%</b>	
dir. obj. pron.	4	3.15%	0	0.00%	5	2.92%	0	0.00%	4	3.57%	<b>13</b>	<b>1.92%</b>	
number	2	1.57%	1	1.06%	5	2.92%	2	1.16%	1	0.89%	<b>11</b>	<b>1.62%</b>	
adverb	3	2.36%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	2	1.79%	<b>5</b>	<b>0.74%</b>	
prep. pron.	<u>1</u>	<u>0.79%</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.00%</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.00%</u>	<u>0</u>	<u>0.00%</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>0.89%</u>	<b>2</b>	<b>0.30%</b>	
<b>totals</b>	<b>127</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>94</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>171</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>112</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>677</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	

According to the data in Table 3, a full 71.34% of all word-level errors committed by L2 participants is represented by errors in the first five error categories (from highest to lowest), as indicated in column (6), namely: 1) use of the wrong word (n = 166; 24.52%); 2) incorrect (or missing) accent mark (n = 105; 15.51%); 3) incorrect tense (n = 86; 12.7%); 4) incorrect mood (n = 76; 11.23%); and 5) incorrect spelling (n = 50; 7.39%).

Some examples from the data of these five most common categories of L2 word level-errors are underlined and/or explained below:

(5) Wrong word: “Respuesta de la pel éula...” with the intended meaning: ‘Review of the movie...’ (*Respuesta* is another Spanish word that means ‘answer.’ The word for ‘review’ in Spanish is *reseña*.)

(6) Accent error: “mi mama...” with the intended meaning: ‘My mom...’ (The Spanish word for ‘mom’ requires a final written accent as in *mamá*)

(7) Tense error: “Ella tuvo miedo.” with the intended meaning: ‘She was scared.’ (Here, the student uses the preterit tense which in Spanish is used to describe a one-time action, or its beginning or end. To express an ongoing feeling or emotion, the imperfect tense is used and so the correct form here should be *tenía*.)

(8) Mood error: “Quiero una guitarra que tiene...” with the intended meaning: ‘I want a guitar that has...’ (The verb in the subordinate clause must be in the subjunctive mood, required by the volitional verb of the matrix clause *querer* ‘to want’.)

(9) Spelling error: “Ay mucha comida...” with the intended meaning: ‘There is a lot of food...’ (The third person existential copula is spelled as *hay*.)

All other word-level errors committed by L2 students (totaling 28.66%) occurred on average with less frequency. These included incorrect verb form (n = 46; 6.79%); incorrect gender (n = 37; 5.47%), and incorrect choice of the Spanish copulas *ser/estar* (n = 29; 4.28%), among others.

*L2 word-level trends between compositions*

If one compares the total number of word errors by L2 participants for each of the five compositions (represented in Table 2 by the last row of totals for columns (1) through (5)), one sees a somewhat different pattern from that which we observed for L1 students of this study. Although there also appears to be a drop between C-1 and C-2 as there was for L1 students, it is much less pronounced for L2s (exhibiting a drop by only 2 to 6 tokens, depending on the category). The more prominent fluctuation for L2 word errors appears to have occurred between C-2 and C-3, surging from a total of 94 to 171 tokens. Total L2 errors remain stable between C-3 and C-4, but by C-5, total L2 errors drop considerably to 112 tokens.

A closer look at L2 individual error categories across all compositions suggests that the most noticeable fluctuations appear in the categories of “wrong word,” “accent,” and “tense.” Figure 3 illustrates these fluctuations.

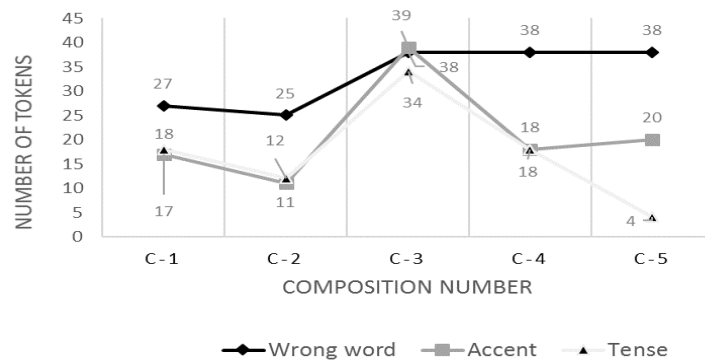


Figure 3: Cross-composition fluctuations in L2 top three word-level errors

Figure 3 suggests that use of the wrong word, the highest of all word-level errors of L2 students, increases in occurrence by C-3 and continues to be a significant problem for this group up to and including the last composition. We see, however, a different pattern for the next two errors, those of accent and tense, which, like wrong word use, also increase exponentially. The difference for these other two errors is that we see improvement after the surge at C-3, with dramatic drops for both between C-3 and C-4, after which accents appear to stabilize at approximately the same rate (with a negligible increase of 2 tokens) by C-5, whereas tense errors continue to improve between C-4 and C-5. The reason suggested for why errors appear to increase dramatically for L2 students, both overall and within certain categories between C-2 and C-3, is the same proposed for this similar surge in errors for L1 students, between these same compositions, namely, the advancement to a more complex type of composition, requiring a creative personal narrative which was based on several days of diary entries, but rewritten in third person, but (Lapuerta & Mejia, 2008).

One last item to be addressed for L2 participants is what appears to be a more widespread distribution of surges in word-level errors at C-4. For all other compositions, although errors appeared in other categories, they did so much less frequently. Once again, the reason proposed for these surges within C-4 is the nature of the composition. C-4's purpose, being to write a small grant proposal required greater diversity in structure than the previous three compositions.

#### *L1 and L2 word-level errors compared*

When comparing the most common word-level errors between L1 and L2 learners of this study we see both similarities and differences in terms of the types of errors committed, their frequencies, or the degree of difficulty of one composition over another. Before making comparisons between L1 and L2 students which are composition-specific, we start with the comparison of overall error patterns. Figure 4 compares total percentage frequencies of L1 and L2 word-level errors found for all five compositions combined.

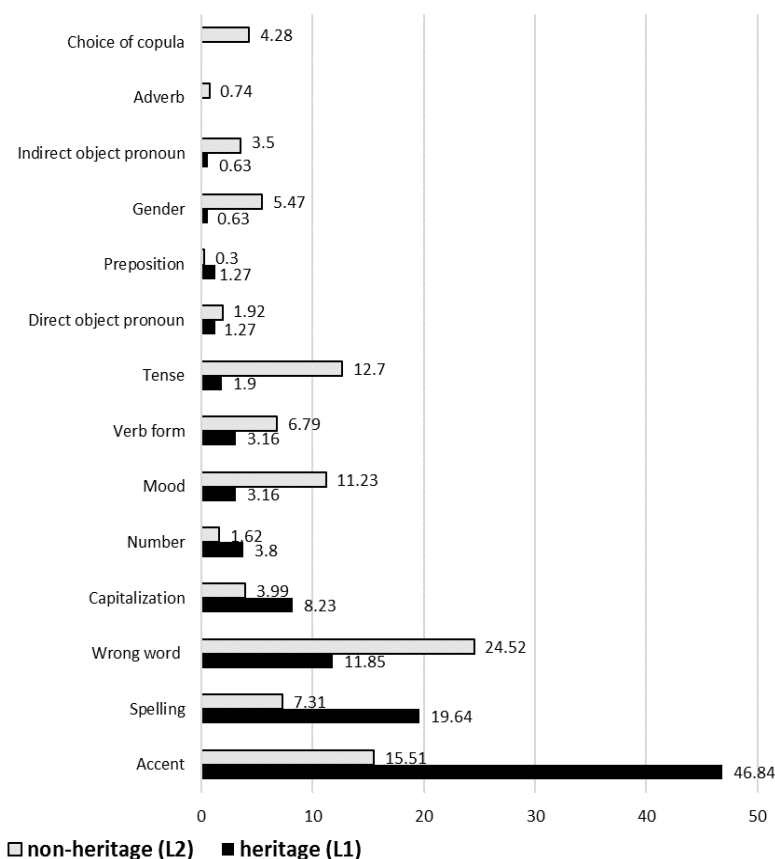


Figure 4: Comparative percentage distribution of overall L1 and L2 word-level errors

Figure 4 suggests that both L1 and L2 groups commit many errors of the same category at word level; however, despite similarity of category, the most important difference is percentage of occurrence. In other words, although L1 and L2 student participants both exhibited similar problems such as accent marks, spelling, tense and gender, the extent to which these errors are committed by each group is very different. For example, according to Figure 4, L1 speakers committed accent errors 46.84% of the time, whereas L2 students did so at a much lower overall rate of 15.51%. On the other hand, L2 speakers of the study chose the incorrect verb tense 12.7% of the time, whereas L1 speakers only 1.9%. The two errors L1 participants were never found to commit were copula choice (which L2 participants committed 4.28% of the time) and incorrect adverb usage (which L2 participants committed at a rate of less than 1% (0.74%). Other error categories in Figure 4 likewise illustrate differences in the extent to which L1 and L2 commit similar errors at word level.

Also interesting in terms of compared L1 and L2 word-level errors are similarities between the groups in terms of trends and fluctuations exhibited between the five compositions of this study. If one compares the composition error totals of Tables 2 and 3, repeated here in isolation, and graphically in Figure 5, it is clear that both groups exhibited strikingly similar trends and fluctuations in each case between contiguous compositions. As Figure 5 shows, despite the wide difference in the total number of tokens for each group (explained previously as due to the difference in number of students representing each group), the percentage of error for each composition is where one must focus attention. In all five cases there appears to be a striking correspondence between both groups as to the percentage of overall error, suggesting that both L1 and L2 students of the study experienced similar levels of difficulty as they moved from one composition to the next of this study.

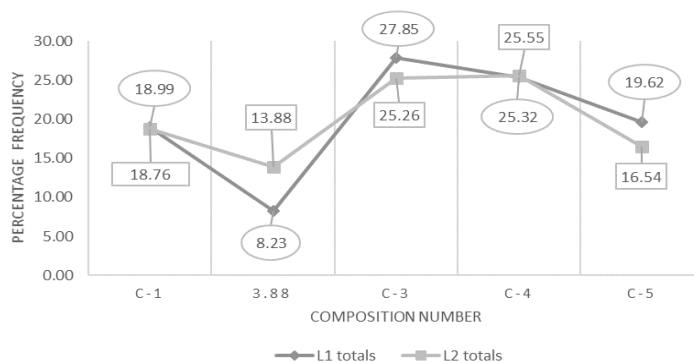


Figure 5: Overall L1 and L2 word error frequencies for all compositions

**Sentence-level Errors**

A closer look at the errors committed by L1 and L2 students of the study at sentence-level yielded the following observations.

*L1 errors at sentence level*

Table 5 shows the data for all sentence error categories (in order from highest to lowest) for L1 students:

TABLE 5: FREQUENCY OF L1 SENTENCE-LEVEL ERRORS FOR ALL COMPOSITIONS

	(1) C-1		(2) C-2		(3) C-3		(4) C-4		(5) C-5		(6) Totals	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
preposition	1	11.11%	2	11.76%	6	25.00%	11	37.93%	2	13.33%	22	23.40%
subj/verb agmt	5	55.56%	2	11.76%	3	12.50%	4	13.79%	0	0.00%	14	14.89%
definite article	0	0.00%	5	29.41%	1	4.17%	5	17.24%	1	6.67%	12	12.77%
punctuation	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	5	20.83%	3	10.34%	4	26.67%	12	12.77%
noun/adj agmt	1	11.11%	3	17.65%	2	8.33%	0	0.00%	5	33.33%	11	11.70%
conjunction	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	4	16.67%	1	3.45%	1	6.67%	6	6.38%
personal 'a'	0	0.00%	2	11.76%	0	0.00%	2	6.90%	0	0.00%	4	4.26%
adjective placement	0	0.00%	2	11.76%	2	8.33%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	4	4.26%
new structure	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	2	6.90%	1	6.67%	3	3.19%
English structure	1	11.11%	1	5.88%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	2	2.13%
reflexive	1	11.11%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	1.06%
unknown	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	3.45%	0	0.00%	1	1.06%
word order	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	4.17%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	1.06%
unintelligible	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	6.67%	1	1.06%
<b>totals</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>94</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

According to the data in Table 5, a full 75.53% of all sentence-level errors committed by L1 participants is represented by errors in the first five error categories (from highest to lowest), as indicated in column (6), namely: 1) incorrect use or missing preposition (n = 22; 23.40%); 2) subject/verb agreement (n = 14; 14.89%); 3) a missing definite article (n = 12; 12.77%); 4) faulty punctuation (n = 12; 12.77%); and 5) faulty noun/adjective agreement (n = 11; 11.70%).

Some examples from the data of these five most common categories of L1 sentence level-errors are underlined and/or explained below:

(10) Wrong or missing preposition: "...*faltar muchos eventos*" with the intended meaning: '...to miss many events.' (The verb *faltar* 'to miss' requires the preposition *a* or 'to.')

(11) Faulty subject/verb agreement: "...*una gran poblaci3n que lo apoyan.*" with the intended meaning: '...a large population which supports him' (In formal written Spanish writing, a collective (singular) noun requires a singular verb, and therefore, the correct form here should be *apoya*.)

(12) Missing definite article: "*Gente duda que...*" with the intended meaning: 'People doubt that.' (Here, the student uses the word *gente* in a general sense and therefore must precede the word with the definite article, in this case *la*.)

(13) Faulty punctuation: "*Lleg3 la hora esperada las 4:30...*" with the intended meaning: 'the expected time arrived, 4:30...' (Like English, in Spanish a comma should be used to indicate the pause which separates these units, particularly in writing that represents a stream of consciousness.)

(14) Faulty noun/adjective agreement: "*Querida mam3 y papa,*" with the intended meaning: 'Dear mom and dad,' (The way this is written, *querida* only modifies *mam3*, and not *pap3*, suggesting that the student only considers her mother to be dear and not her father. The intended form would be *queridos*, which modifies both coordinated terms.)

All other sentence-level errors committed by L1 students of this study (totaling 24.47%) occurred on average with less frequency. Some of these included an incorrect conjunction (n =6; 6.38%), a missing personal ‘a’ (n = 4; 4.6%) or the incorrect placement of an adjective (n = 4; 4.6%), among others.

*L1 sentence-level trends between compositions*

If one compares total sentence-error results for each of the five compositions for L1 participants (represented in Table 5 by the last row of totals for columns (1) through (5)), one sees a different pattern from that which appeared for this same group in terms of word-level errors. For example, rather than the drop in errors that was seen between C-1 and C-2 for word-level errors, one sees rather an overall steady increase in the number of errors between the first four compositions, with a final decrease between C-4 and C-5. I would argue that this is the trend that one would expect from students who are writing successively more complicated compositions, but who, after a semester’s time of writing and rewriting, improve with the last composition.

Despite the overall appearance of a steady increase in error generation until the final composition, a closer look at L1 individual error categories across all compositions, however, does reveal some noticeable fluctuations, particularly in the categories of “preposition,” “subject/verb agreement,” and “definite article,” as illustrated in Figure 6.

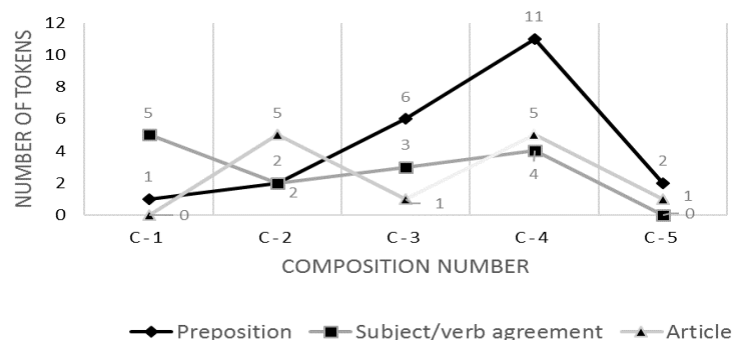


Figure 6: Cross-composition fluctuations in L1 top three sentence-level errors

The fluctuations in Figure 6 once again can be explained in terms of either increase of composition complexity or type. The most prominent of these errors, “preposition,” appears to correspond with the steady increase in overall errors, referenced in the preceding paragraph and as what one would expect with an increase in the complexity of each successive composition. The same holds true for “subject-verb agreement” errors by L1 participants. This same group exhibits a somewhat different fluctuation pattern, however, when it comes to errors of the definite article. The surge in such errors at C-2 and C-4 suggest that, instead of increased complexity, the particular composition type may be the reason for their occurrence. As opposed to C-1 and C-3 which were more personal in nature and therefore, a type of writing with which L1 students were potentially more familiar, C-2 and C-4 were in contrast, more formal types of writing and therefore, ones to which L1 students were much less accustomed.

*L2 errors at sentence level*

TABLE 6: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF L2 SENTENCE-LEVEL ERRORS FOR ALL COMPOSITIONS

	(1) C-1		(2) C-2		(3) C-3		(4) C-4		(5) C-5		(6) Totals	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
preposition	41	21.13%	39	23.08%	43	16.23%	65	22.57%	47	22.60%	235	20.91%
noun/adj agmt	43	22.16%	22	13.02%	33	12.45%	63	21.88%	40	19.23%	201	17.88%
Extra material	21	10.82%	23	13.61%	49	18.49%	30	10.42%	21	10.10%	144	12.81%
article	8	4.12%	21	12.43%	14	5.28%	44	15.28%	17	8.17%	104	9.25%
subj/verb agmt	14	7.22%	8	4.73%	19	7.17%	13	4.51%	10	4.81%	64	5.69%
new structure	7	3.61%	15	8.88%	18	6.79%	14	4.86%	7	3.37%	61	5.43%
personal 'a'	8	4.12%	9	5.33%	10	3.77%	10	3.47%	17	8.17%	54	4.80%
subj. pron. redund.	3	1.55%	3	1.78%	41	15.47%	3	1.04%	4	1.92%	54	4.80%
reflexive	1	0.52%	6	3.55%	10	3.77%	7	2.43%	8	3.85%	32	2.85%
unknown	8	4.12%	4	2.37%	2	0.75%	10	3.47%	7	3.37%	31	2.76%
punctuation	9	4.64%	6	3.55%	8	3.02%	1	0.35%	5	2.40%	29	2.58%
word order	8	4.12%	5	2.96%	7	2.64%	7	2.43%	2	0.96%	29	2.58%
adjective placement	6	3.09%	2	1.18%	3	1.13%	7	2.43%	9	4.33%	27	2.40%
English structure	7	3.61%	2	1.18%	5	1.89%	4	1.39%	5	2.40%	23	2.05%
Conjunction	6	3.09%	3	1.78%	1	0.38%	1	0.35%	9	4.33%	20	1.78%
unknown	4	2.06%	0	0.00%	2	0.75%	9	3.13%	0	0.00%	15	1.33%
part of speech	0	0.00%	1	0.59%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	0.09%
<b>totals</b>	<b>194</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>169</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>265</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>208</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	<b>1124</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

Table 6 shows the data for all sentence error categories (in order from highest to lowest) for L2 students.

According to the data in Table 6, a full 66.55% of all sentence-level errors committed by L2 participants is represented by errors in the first five error categories (from highest to lowest), as indicated in column (6), namely: 1) use of the wrong preposition (n = 235; 20.91%); 2) lack of noun/adjective agreement (n = 201; 17.88%); 3) extra (unnecessary) material (n = 144; 12.81%); 4) a missing definite article (n = 104; 9.25%); and 5) subject/verb agreement (n = 64; 5.69%).

Some examples from the data of these five most common categories of L2 sentence level-errors are underlined and/or explained below:

(15) Wrong or missing preposition: “...*jugar los deportes...*” intended meaning: ‘...to play sports...’ (*Jugar* ‘to play’ is a Spanish verb that requires the preposition *a* ‘to’ before its complement.)

(16) Faulty noun/adjective agreement: “...*una sonrisa luminoso.*” intended meaning: ‘...a luminous smile’ (An adjective in Spanish must agree in gender and number with the noun it modifies. Here the adjective must be in the feminine singular form *luminosa* since the noun it modifies *sonrisa* is in the feminine singular form.)

(17) Extraneous material: “...*estudiando los estudios.*” intended meaning: ‘...studying.’ (Here, the use of *los estudios* ‘studies’ is repetitive or redundant and is not necessary for the meaning of the sentence, so it may be deleted.)

(18) Missing definite article: “...*todos miércoles.*” intended meaning: ‘...every Wednesday.’ (In Spanish, nouns with a generalized meaning must be preceded by the definite article. Also, the plural modifier *todos* ‘all’ requires the definite article in subsequent position.)

(19) Faulty subject/verb agreement: “*Ángela tuve una gran Aventura.*” intended meaning: ‘Angela had a great adventure.’ (The student incorrectly used the first person singular preterit form of the verb. The correct form should have been the third person preterit form, i.e., *tuvo*.)

All other sentence-level errors committed by L2 students of this study (totaling 33.45%) occurred on average with less frequency. Some of these included a missing personal ‘a’ (n = 54; 4.8%); a redundant or unnecessary subject pronoun (n = 54; 4.8%), incorrect use of a reflexive pronoun (n = 32; 2.85%), and incorrect adjective placement (n = 27; 2.4%), etc.

#### L2 sentence-level trends between compositions

If one compares the total number of sentence errors by L2 participants for each of the five compositions (represented in Table 6 by the last row of totals for columns (1) through (5)), we see that these students fared in a similar way to how they performed with word-level errors. In other words, in terms of sentence-level errors, L2 students of this study exhibited a slight drop (totaling an overall 25 tokens) between C-1 and C-2, followed by a pronounced increase of 96 tokens between C-2 and C-3. Total L2 errors continued to increase (even if only slightly by 23 tokens) between C-3 and C-4, but by C-5, total L2 errors dropped by a full 80 tokens. This pattern is strikingly similar to the pattern exhibited for word-level errors.

A closer look at L2 individual error categories across all compositions suggests that the most noticeable fluctuations appear in the categories of “preposition,” “noun/adjective agreement,” and “extra material” errors, as illustrated in Figure 7

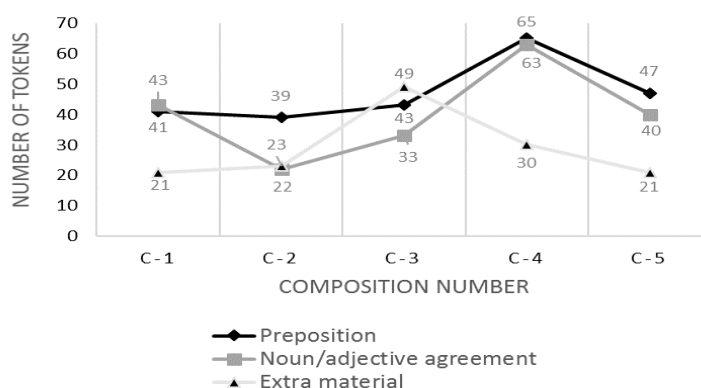


Figure 7: Cross-composition fluctuations in L2 top three sentence-level errors

Figure 7 suggests that both preposition errors as well as those involving faulty noun/adjective agreement follow a somewhat similar trajectory across compositions. More specifically, both of these errors appear to increase exponentially at C4, but then return to essentially the same level as they started at C1. Exhibiting a completely different pattern are those errors involving extraneous material. In this case, errors peaked at C3 and reduced significantly by C4, and then again, at C5. What might explain these patterns is nature of the compositions. C4, as explained in previous analyses, was a significantly more difficult composition to write in terms of formality and structure, and so it makes sense that more complex structural demands would contribute to significantly more errors in these categories. By the



same token, the surge of extraneous material errors exhibited by this group at C3 may also be explained by the nature of the third composition, which as mentioned previously, was free style writing based on a personal narrative.

*L1 and L2 sentence-level errors compared*

When comparing the most common sentence-level errors between L1 and L2 learners of this study we see both similarities and differences in terms of the types of errors committed, their frequencies, or the degree of difficulty of one composition over another. Before making comparisons between L1 and L2 students which are composition-specific, we start with the comparison of overall error patterns in Figure 8.

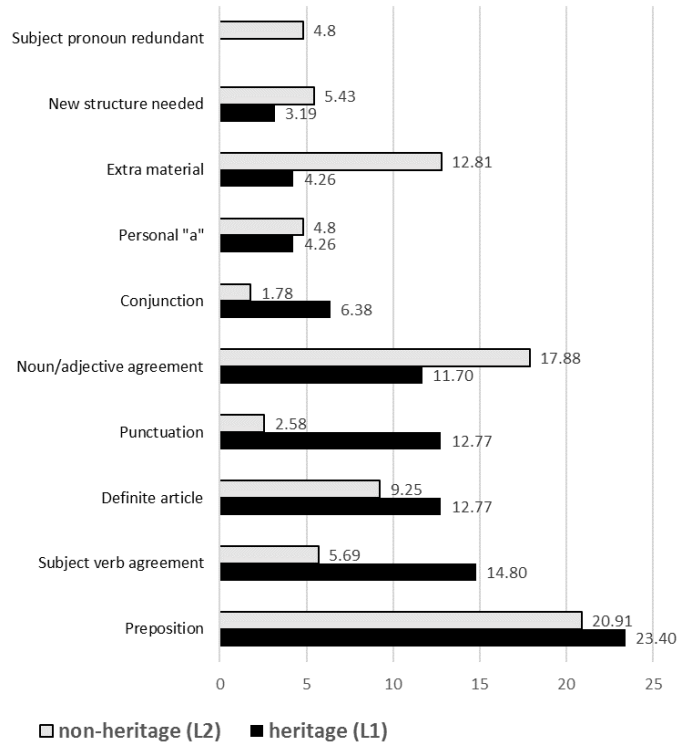


Figure 8: Comparative percentage distribution of overall L1 and L2 sentence-level errors

When comparing the most common sentence-level errors committed by L1 and L2 learners of this study we see once again, as was the case for errors at the word-level, that the same types of errors were committed by both groups, but for the most part they are distributed differently in terms of overall percentage of occurrence. One particular exception to this observation is the prominence of preposition errors by both groups.

Also interesting in terms of compared L1 and L2 word-level errors are the differences between the groups in terms of trends and fluctuations exhibited between the five compositions of this study. If one compares the composition error totals of Tables 5 and 6, isolated and repeated here as Figure 9, it is clear that both groups exhibited strikingly similar trends and fluctuations in each case between contiguous compositions:

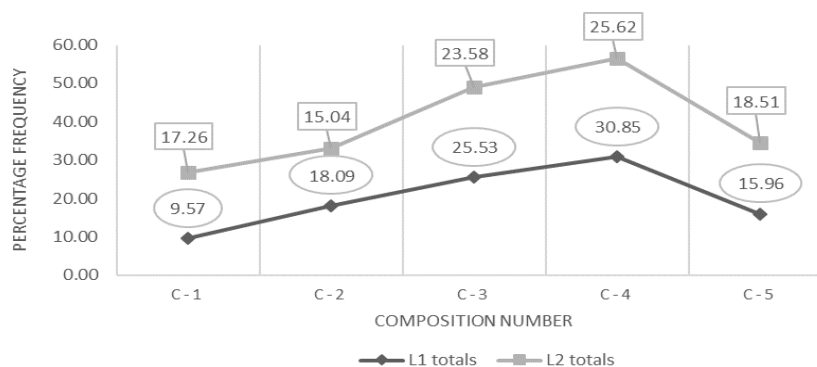


Figure 9: Overall L1 and L2 sentence error frequencies for all compositions

#### IV. CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to analyze and compare the word- and sentence-level errors exhibited by a cohort of fifteen students in a mixed classroom of L1 and L2 learners over a series of five compositions which targeted progressively higher writing proficiency levels. This final section of the paper highlights the major findings of this study and provides likely explanations for the results, along with some implications for how to improve instruction in classrooms with mixed L1 and L2 learners.

##### *L1 and L2 learners exhibit different error types and frequencies*

The data of this study showed that the L1 participants committed on average significantly fewer errors overall than their L2 peers, and that the majority of these errors were committed at the level of the word. L2 student participants, on the other hand, although they were found to make a large number of word-level errors as well, committed significantly more errors at the sentence level. These findings are not surprising for a number of reasons. First of all, most L1 students, particularly those of this study, typically have had little or no previous formal education in Spanish,<sup>4</sup> and therefore, they are not as familiar with the written representation of words other than what they may read at home. This would explain the large number of errors in terms of written accents. Secondly, L1 students might be expected to fare better at the sentence level since sentence construction is a skill they practice constantly, even in spoken form.

L2 student participants also committed their fair share of errors at word level, but as the data showed, they were of a different type. For example, L2 students didn't have as great a difficulty with accents as their L1 counterparts did, but rather, their greatest problem was the use of the wrong word. Another significant problem for L2 participants at the word level was selection of the wrong tense, most usually dealing with aspect, in other words, the preterit versus the imperfect. Neither of these errors at the word level were as significant for L1 participants of this study. This finding is not at all surprising in that comparably, L2 students do not have the Spanish lexicon that L1 students can retrieve when necessary. Also, L1 students do not have to make the conscious choice that L2 students have to make when choosing the right tense.

##### *The effects of time on improvement*

Both L1 and L2 participant groups of this study appeared to follow a strikingly similar overall trajectory in terms of error improvement over time. In almost all cases, both L1 and L2 students decreased their total error output between first and second compositions, but then, took a reverse course and experienced sharp increases in errors between C-2 and C-3, negligible increases between C-3 and C-4, but then dramatic drops between C-4 and C-5. Considering this single common pattern over time for both participant groups, and for both word- and sentence-errors, it would appear that both L1 and L2 students of the study, rather than experiencing sustained improvement over time with the writing of each successive composition, instead began to reach a turning point at the time of the fourth composition where total number of errors began to stabilize, suggesting the beginning of a period of overall improvement, and by the last composition, considerable improvement.

This common trajectory for both groups of students makes sense when one considers that student revisions of their compositions are not finalized and submitted until the end of the semester and so dramatic improvement of the last composition would suggest that the process of intense correction of individual errors played a major role in the improvement of the final composition.

##### *Implications of the data for improved instruction in combined classrooms*

One of the greatest tasks for the instructor of any mixed-group classroom is to have to juggle the differing needs of its students. This is particularly true of a writing class in which individual student progress is the goal. Add to that the additional challenge of the lack of homogeneity within each of the L1 and L2 student groups. Despite these differences, it is the purpose of this section to evaluate the error patterns of this study and to make suggestions for how one might coordinate (in order of priority) different interventions in a combined classroom.

*Major word and sentence errors that are common to both groups early on and repeat at a high rate throughout the semester*—According to the data, word level errors that were most common to both groups early on and continued to be a problem thereafter were the appropriate use of accent marks, spelling, and wrong word choice. Likewise, sentence-level errors common to both groups were incorrect or missing prepositions, noun/adjective agreement, subject/verb agreement, and missing definite articles. It would make sense that these errors should be prioritized as those that can be presented to both groups at the same time, but careful attention must be given to addressing the different ways both groups make the same mistake.<sup>5</sup> One way to address most of these errors (except that of wrong word choice) is to incorporate lectures specific to these topics and to assign in-class and homework exercises and drills not just early on but continuing throughout the semester. Errors involving wrong word choice are a more difficult problem to address in a general sense because the degree to which students commit this error has been observed to vary with the individual. Also, word choice tends to be a different phenomenon for L1 students as it is for L2 students. One common way to

<sup>4</sup> L1 students are not a homogenous group. The situation explained here is currently the case for most L1 students enrolled in Spanish courses at the author's institution. Of course, students studying Spanish at other institutions may have a significantly different formal experience with Spanish and this therefore would affect the results of this study.

<sup>5</sup> For example, L1 student subject/verb agreement errors typically have to do with using plural verbs with collective nouns, whereas L2 errors tend to be a case of targeting the incorrect verb form from a memorized paradigm. Exercises would have to be different for each group in order to address these different phenomena.

preempt some of these errors for both groups could be to share and review specialized vocabulary associated with a given assigned composition, perhaps with an additional prewriting exercise before students write their first draft.

*Major word and sentence-level errors that are NOT common to both groups*—Much like the previous category, because of the relative high number of errors, this category must also be addressed early in the semester. Unlike the previous case, however, these types of high frequency errors require division between the two groups. For example, some of the major errors particular to L2 students were those dealing with tense, mood, gender and the tendency to construct sentences with repetitive or unnecessary information. Whereas L1 students didn't exhibit these errors, they did have their own particular challenges, namely the conventions of capitalization and punctuation. These two very different needs by both groups could be addressed by common lectures, but separate drills and exercises would have to be assigned to each group so that they may practice their respective topical areas.

*Composition-specific errors for both groups*—This study also found that certain errors appeared with much higher frequency in certain types of writing than with others. According to the data, the composition with the highest frequencies of word-level errors for both L1 and L2 participants was C-3 in terms of accents, spelling, and wrong word errors. When it came to sentence-level errors, however, C-4 was the assignment exhibiting higher levels for both groups. For L1 participants in terms of preposition and definite article errors. L2 students also demonstrated more difficulty with C-4, also with prepositions and use of the definite article, however, L2 students also exhibited comparatively high frequencies of other such errors as noun/adjective agreement, the use of extra or redundant material, and subject/verb agreement. The preponderance of word-level errors at C-3 and of sentence-level errors at C-4 for both groups of participants suggests an advantage in terms of how instruction can be geared toward addressing these errors. In other words, one could focus drills and exercises prior to the writing of C-3 on pitfalls that tend to occur at word level. Likewise, immediately following C-3, and before the writing of C-4, additional emphasis can be placed on the errors mentioned.

1) *Persistent errors throughout all five compositions*—Some errors such as incorrect spelling for both groups or incorrect use of reflexive pronouns for L2 students appeared at similar rates throughout all five compositions and would most likely improve from continuous intervention throughout the semester.

#### *Sample size and future studies*

The purpose of the summer research grant that funded this study was to collect and analyze authentic student error data from an existing Spanish composition class that could then be used to: 1) test current grading methods; 2) improve current course content and exercises; and 3) develop a new model for teaching composition to both L1 and L2 learners in mixed classrooms. As such, the sample size and make-up of L1 and L2 participants were determined by student enrollment for the course. The author recognizes the limitations of a sample for which one of its representative cohorts, in this case, L1 learners of the study, consists of only four students. As such, future expansion of this project might include a larger sample size of L1 students to test the results of this case study on a larger scale.

#### REFERENCES

- [1] Carduner, J. (2008). "Teaching Proofreading Skills as a Means of Reducing Composition Errors." *Language Learning Journal* 35: 2283-2295.
- [2] DeHaan, P. & Van Esch, K. (2005). "The Development of Writing in English and Spanish as Foreign Languages." *Assessing Writing* 10: 100-116.
- [3] Ferris, D. (2004). "The Grammar Correction Debate in L2 Writing: Where Are We and Where Do We Go from Here?" *Journal of Second Language Writing* 13 (1): 49-62.
- [4] Lapuerta, P. & Mejía, G. (2008). *La escritura paso a paso*. NJ: Pearson.
- [5] Nas, M. & Van Esch, K. (2014). "Acquisition of Writing in Second Language Spanish." In Geeslin, K., Ed. *The Handbook of Spanish Second Language Acquisition*. MA: Wiley Blackwell.
- [6] Roca de Larios, J., Murphy, L., & Marín, J. (2002). "A Critical Examination of L2 Writing Process Research." In Randsdell, S. & Barbier, M. (Eds.), *New Directions for Research in L2 Writing*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- [7] Schneider, M. & Connor, U. (1990). "Analyzing Topical Structure in ESL Essays: Not All Topics Are Equal." *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 12: 411-427.
- [8] Schoonen R., Snellings, P., Stevenson, M., & van Gelderen, A. (2009). "Toward a Blueprint of the Foreign Language Writer: The Linguistic and Cognitive Demands of Foreign Language Writing." In Manchón, R. (Ed.). *Writing in Foreign Language Contexts: Learning, Teaching and Research*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- [9] Silva, T. (1993). "Toward an Understanding of the Distinct Nature of L2 Writing: The ESL Research and its Implication," *TESOL Quarterly* 27: 657-677.
- [10] Truscott, J. (2007). "The Effect of Error Correction on Learners' Ability to Write Accurately." *Journal of Second Language Writing* 16 (4): 255-272.
- [11] Valdés, G., Haro, P., & Echevarriarza, M. (1992). "The Development of Writing Abilities in a Foreign Language: Contributions towards a General Theory of L2 Writing." *The Modern Language Journal* 76: 333-352.
- [12] Van Beuningen, C. (2010). "Corrective Feedback in L2 Writing: Theoretical Perspectives, Empirical Insights and Future Directions." *International Journal of English Studies* 10 (2): 1-27.



**John M. Ryan** earned his Ph.D. in Rhetoric, Composition, and Linguistics at Arizona State University in Tempe, Arizona, USA in 2008. He earned his Master's degree in Spanish linguistics, also from Arizona State, in 1991. He earned his Bachelor of Science degree in Spanish from Georgetown University's School of Languages and Linguistics in Washington, D.C. in 1985.

He is currently Associate Professor of Spanish Linguistics at the University of Northern Colorado. His research on the acquisition of verbs by children and adults has been published in such journals as the *Journal of Child Language and Development*, *Teaching and Practice in Language Studies* and *Hispania*, and his first book, *The genesis of argument structure: Observations from a child's early speech production in Spanish* (Germany: Lambert, 2012), traces the emergence of the verb phase in the developing language of a monolingual child learning Peninsular Spanish. Other interests include historical news discourse of the Italian American community and the reconstruction of proto Ibero Romance, for which he has recently authored several scholarly papers for different edited volumes.

Dr. Ryan is a member of the Linguist List International Linguistics Community, the Societas Linguistica Europaea, the Linguistic Society of America, the Rocky Mountain Modern Language Association, the Linguistic Association of the Southwest, the National Italian American Foundation, and the Italian American Historical Society.

# Vocabulary Skills and Online Dictionaries: A Study on EFL Learners' Receptive Vocabulary Knowledge and Success in Searching Electronic Sources for Information

Marja-Leena Niitemaa  
Department of English, University of Turku, Turku, Finland

Päivi Pietilä  
Department of English, University of Turku, Turku, Finland

**Abstract**—The study reported in this article examined Finnish EFL learners' ability to search for lexical items and information in online dictionaries and on websites. The study was conducted as part of a project investigating upper secondary school students' digital skills in relation to language learning. The motivation behind the study was that in Finland, the high-stakes school-leaving examinations, including foreign language tests, are currently being digitalized. The aim of the study was to uncover the relationship between word recognition skills and the learners' ability to find lexical items and information in a series of online vocabulary tasks when the choice of the digital sources was not controlled. The results showed, for example, that overall word recognition skills and recognition of low-frequency vocabulary correlated positively with success rates in finding individual words in online dictionaries and factually accurate information on webpages, but not with finding appropriate collocations. Moreover, to succeed in 50% of the look-ups required scoring a minimum of 60% in the vocabulary levels test.

**Index Terms**—digital skills, EFL, online dictionaries, online reading, vocabulary recognition

## I. INTRODUCTION

Statistics indicate that most European teenagers read webpages not only for entertainment but also for information (OECD, 2013), the percentage being as high as 91% in Finland (Statista, 2015). Authorities in many countries have taken the initiative to integrate digital skills in the curricula to ensure that learners can use digital resources to their advantage. For example, all Nordic countries have started to implement national strategies for media literacy, so that the use of digital technology is taught as a general skill needed in all subjects as well as a tool for specific tasks. Moreover, schools provide computers with a high speed of broadband connectivity and connectedness (Nordic@BETT, 2016).

The current view on literacy highlights the ability to use written texts in real-life situations, including information presented in a visual or graphic form. For example, *The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA)* defines reading literacy as “understanding, using, reflecting on and engaging with written texts, in order to achieve one's goals, develop one's knowledge and potential, and participate in society” (PISA, 2015, p. 49). This entails adequate language skills combined with multiple literacies including digital skills (Leu & al., 2013; OECD, 2013). Digital skills refer to *medium-related skills*, including basic computer use and navigation across sites with menus and hyperlinks, and *content-related skills*, for example, the ability to search, select and evaluate information, as well as communicate and create content in digital environments (Van Dijk & Van Deursen, 2014). Regarding language-related skills, lexical knowledge is traditionally considered one of the foundational literacy skills (Alderson, 2005; Jeon & Yamashita, 2014; Nation, 2006; Schmitt, Jiang & Grabe, 2011). It is reasonable to assume that content-related digital skills are closely connected with lexical knowledge, as reading and writing are often intertwined in online practices.

With respect to Finland, learning activities in language classrooms, as well as the high-stakes school-leaving examinations in foreign languages, are currently being digitalized. This entails, for example, integrating multimodal features in test tasks. At this turning point, however, teenagers' digital skills are far from adequate. Research on Finnish 9<sup>th</sup> graders revealed that 15-year-olds scored on average 25% of the maximum points in medium-related tests including basic computer use, and 41% in content-related tasks, such as searching for information (Karakainen & al., 2017). The present study set out to examine upper secondary school learners' digital skills from a language learning perspective. The aim was to investigate which online dictionaries and informational websites upper secondary school English learners use when they can choose the sources freely, and in what way successful use of online sources relates to vocabulary recognition skills.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Looking up words has been studied from multiple perspectives, including learners' dictionary behaviour and effects on reading comprehension, writing and vocabulary retention (e.g., Atkins & Varantola, 1998; Dziemianko, 2010; Laufer & Hill, 2000; Laufer & Levitzky-Aviad, 2006; Liou, 2000). However, most studies have not involved dictionaries that are freely available on the Internet. Instead, researchers have mostly exploited electronic glosses, dictionaries tailor-made for research purposes (e.g., Laufer & Levitzky-Aviad, 2006; Peters, 2007; Tono, 2011), hand-held pocket electronic dictionaries (e.g., Boonmoh, 2012), or an existing online dictionary linked to the words of the reading task at hand (Liou, 2000). Further, most studies have been conducted among university students, and the subjects' English language skills have been rather vaguely defined as intermediate or advanced. Therefore, very little is known about what younger learners do when their dictionary choices are not controlled. The present study investigated which online dictionaries and informational websites upper secondary school English learners use when they can choose the sources freely, and in what way and how successfully they use them in relation to their vocabulary recognition skills.

### A. Dictionaries and Reading

Online reading for information comprises distinctive reading processes: reading to understand the problem posed in the task, locating task-relevant information, evaluating the findings, combining information from various sources, and finally, sharing the results with others. The first two stages form a bottleneck: if the learner does not comprehend the task and find the information needed, it is impossible to continue (Leu & al.; 2013, p. 1164). Another characteristic of reading online is that different learners utilize their own individual search paths to solve the same task, and thus encounter different amounts of text.

Dictionary entries represent a special form of expository text (*The DIALANG Assessment Framework*; cited in Alderson, 2005, p. 126–128), and dictionary use can be viewed as reading for information. However, reading dictionary entries differs from reading websites. Firstly, webpages provide multimodal information, which may facilitate comprehension (Alderson, 2005). In contrast, online dictionaries rarely supply more than sound, as moving images may be distracting (Lew, 2012). Secondly, even short website text is contextualized and coherent, whereas dictionary entries comprise brief definitions without context, and the discourse of the usage examples is likely to be unfamiliar to learners. Thirdly, dictionary entries are mostly read to gain a quick access to the word meaning, so looking up words is ancillary to some other task, whereas websites are read also for pleasure.

### B. Dictionary Use

Despite different materials and methods used, the literature on previous studies reports several common findings regarding L2 learners' dictionary behaviour. First, learners' dictionary skills are often inadequate (e.g., Boonmoh, 2012; Chan, 2014). Not knowing how to use the dictionary, learners stop searching as soon as possible, scan through the beginning of the entry and choose one of the first meanings instead of examining all the senses (e.g., Tono, 2011). Second, dictionary behaviour seems to be related to language skills. Advanced learners prefer to answer without consultation, but they succeed well in finding the target words if they search for them. Weaker learners look up more words, but they do not benefit from the dictionary because of their poor lexical skills. Thus, the frequency of search queries is not linearly related to the number of correct answers (e.g., Atkins & Varantola, 1998; Liou, 2000; Peltari & Mutta, 2014). Further, many learners have difficulties when a familiar word is used in an unfamiliar sense, as they tend to believe that the meaning they know is the only one (Atkins & Varantola, 1998; Chan, 2014).

In general, learners display a positive attitude towards using digital reference tools (e.g., Boonmoh, 2012; Dziemianko, 2012), but they do not always choose to use them. Learners may overestimate their lexical knowledge, thinking that they know the word or that they can infer the meaning (Laufer & Yano, 2001). Some learners consider the consultation process too slow and tedious, particularly if their dictionary skills are inadequate (Boonmoh, 2012), while others find dictionary use distracting when reading longer texts for global comprehension. Moreover, the reading purpose has an impact on dictionary behaviour, so that translating and summarizing may generate more queries than reading for global meaning (e.g., Peters, 2007; Tono, 2011). The decision to use reference tools may also depend on the learner's ability to manage his or her own learning (Kalaja & al., 2011).

Consulting online dictionaries involves several stages of decision-making: which words to search, which sources to consult, which item to select from the entry, and whether to conduct additional queries (Tono, 2011). When navigating between the task and the information sources, the learner must maintain task relevant information in the working memory. This is all the more complicated if the dictionary user works simultaneously in two or more languages. Thus, many researchers share the view that reading dictionary entries is a cognitively complex process involving multiple skills related to language knowledge, information processing and problem-solving, in other words, competences that are essential in reading comprehension in general (Tono, 2011).

### C. Dictionaries and Vocabulary

Nation (2015) has suggested that consulting monolingual entries is possible even with small vocabularies of 2000 to 3000 words, as the word definitions are constructed using high-frequency vocabulary. On the other hand, dictionary use is a complicated process requiring lexical skills: recognizing the meanings of the words listed in the entry, reading the

definitions, selecting the best option, and inferring the meaning even if none of the meanings offered seems appropriate (Chan, 2014; Liou 2000). Productive knowledge is needed in typing search queries without major spelling mistakes, as even expert-constructed dictionaries cannot necessarily identify misspelt words (Lew, 2012; Lew & Mitton, 2012). It is also known that many learners find monolingual entries incomprehensible and prefer bilingual sources (e.g., Laufer & Levitzky-Aviad, 2006). Not surprisingly, if the definition vocabulary is equally difficult as the words being looked up, the entries can be hard for learners to understand (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014). Moreover, the readability of dictionary entries can also be affected by various other factors, such as the number of words employed or the use of the passive voice. The information given in some online dictionaries may even be misleading (Nesi, 1998, 2012). In sum, dictionary entries are not effortless reading.

### III. THE STUDY

The study had two objectives: firstly, to uncover EFL learners' information search processes by observing a group of upper secondary school students, and secondly, to explore the connection between lexical recognition skills and successful use of online sources. The study was deemed to be important and of current relevance, not only because of potential implications for the updating of foreign language curricula and language tests, but also in view of finding efficient ways to help learners use online resources effectively. Thus, the study addressed two questions:

1. What online dictionaries and informational websites do upper secondary school students use when they can choose the sources freely, and in what way and how successfully do they use them?

2. What is the relationship between word recognition skills and successful use of online sources?

Recent research findings have showed that teenagers' digital skills are inadequate (Kaarakainen & al., 2017), so it was expected that locating lexical items and information online would not be easy for all learners. As lexical knowledge is commonly considered one of the central components of literacy skills (e.g., Alderson, 2005; Nation, 2006; Schmitt, Jiang & Grabe, 2011), and as online practices involve a great deal of reading, it was hypothesized that lexical knowledge would be an important factor in consulting digital sources successfully.

#### A. Subjects

The 22 subjects (4 females, 18 males) volunteering to join the experiment were second-year students, aged 17–18, of a Finnish academically oriented and municipally maintained upper secondary school. They had previously studied L2 English for seven years (c. 600 45-minute lessons) at the comprehensive school, and c. 120 lessons at the upper secondary school. By the end of the second year, they were expected to have reached CEFR level B2 (Council of Europe, 2001). The subjects were informed that the results would not affect their course grades, but that the study would be important for designing online tests.

#### B. Methods and Materials

*Self-reports:* Before the experiment, the subjects were asked what types of online dictionaries they used, and whether language teachers had informed them about various online dictionaries and/or instructed them how to consult the dictionaries.

*Vocabulary:* Vocabulary recognition skills were tested using the *Vocabulary Levels Test* (Schmitt, Schmitt & Clapham, 2001; Nation, 1983) with 30 items in the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> frequency bands (henceforth the *VLT*). In addition, the 10<sup>th</sup> frequency band (henceforth *K\_10*) was analyzed separately to examine the role of rare words in using online sources.

*Online Tasks:* The subjects performed altogether three online tasks on three separate occasions. The tasks were conducted using similar desktop computers in a computer room which had been booked for 75 minutes. The subjects had free access to online dictionaries and search engines, but using mobile phones was not allowed during the sessions. The individual working process of each student was videoed using freely downloadable software, *CamStudio*. The subjects were instructed in how to use the program and encouraged to ask for assistance should any technical problems occur.

The online tasks represented different textual genres and task types. Tasks 1 and 3 consisted of gap-filling. The subjects were instructed to fill in the gaps following L1 (Finnish) prompts so that the additions fitted the context and register. Task 1, with eight target items, was a promotional letter to a potential customer from a company providing investment services. Task 3, with 13 target items, was a blog of a young boy reflecting on the advantages and disadvantages of obtaining a college degree. One noun (*annuity*) and one pragmatic formula (a formal letter ending) were categorized as *search for factual information*, as finding the answers was expected to require consulting also other sources besides dictionaries. All the other target items included *finding* or *checking meanings* of individual words or phrases. Task 2 was an experiment to simulate a real-world task. It was based on poorly written instructions for the use of a laser pointer. The subjects were asked to proofread, edit, and rewrite the text. The text included eight inappropriate word choices, but they were not indicated in any way.

No standardized tests being available, the tasks were designed by the researcher. Gap-filling was chosen for several reasons: it has been used in dictionary research before (e.g., Atkins & Varantola, 1998; Dziemianko, 2010); the subjects were familiar with the test type; it integrates reading and writing, which is typical of online practices (Van Dijk & Van

Deursen, 2014); and the researcher was able to choose the target items so that they represented various degrees of *objective complexity* (Singer & al., 2012), involving several queries, choosing from multiple alternatives and meanings, or searching for a rare word or a common word with an unfamiliar meaning. In contrast, a non-complex target would be easy to find if the entry offered only one translational counterpart or more than one suitable option. A seemingly simple target item may, however, be *subjectively complex* (Singer & al., 2012), for example, due to the learner's inadequate word recognition skills or low motivation to carry out the task.

The task texts were analyzed for word frequencies using the lexical profiler at *Lextutor.ca* (Cobb, 2013). It was found that 96% of the vocabulary in the gap-filling task consisted of high-frequency words from the 1<sup>st</sup> to the 3<sup>rd</sup> frequency bands, and 2–3% of the words were mid-frequency vocabulary from the 4<sup>th</sup> to the 8<sup>th</sup> frequency bands (see Schmitt & Schmitt, 2014 for the definitions of frequency). The remaining words were proper nouns. The proportion of mid-frequency vocabulary was slightly higher (7%) in the editing/rewriting task. Whenever possible, the targets in the gap-filling tasks were compared against the skill level rating in the CEFR<sup>1</sup>. Interestingly, some targets were profiled as high frequency words by *Lextutor*, whereas the CEFR rating referred to a higher competence level.

*Assessment:* Successful use of online sources was defined as an ability to navigate across online sites with menus and links (medium-related skills), to locate and select the items required and to evaluate whether the findings fitted the context (content-related skills). The responses were first divided into answers involving look-ups and those without consulting any sources, and then categorized as *fully successful*, *partly successful*, or *unsuccessful*. The criterion of a *fully successful* choice was that the meaning and use were accurate and the word was appropriate for the context and register. All contextually suitable variants were accepted, e.g., *funds* instead of *assets*, whereas *money* was considered too vague and informal. If the meaning was inaccurate, the word was not a common collocate, or if it was in a wrong form, it was counted as *partly successful*. For example, the collocation *make a mistake* fitted the context only in the past tense. This may be considered overly strict, but on the other hand, the subjects had ample time to check their answers using online sources. A word or phrase that did not fit the context or register, or came with a wrong meaning, was rated *unsuccessful*, e.g., *\*examination* instead of *degree* in the sense of academic qualification.

#### IV. RESULTS

In the two subsections that follow, the results pertaining to the two research questions are provided. Firstly, the subjects' self-reports on their dictionary use and their look-up practices are presented (RQ 1), and secondly, the success rates in the online tasks are analyzed and compared across the scores in the *VLT* and *K\_10* (RQ 2). Although the focus of the study was on the consultation of digital sources, the answers given without consultation are also reported, as they comprised over half of all the responses (52%). The correlational analyses were computed using SPSS Statistics 23.

##### A. RQ 1: What Online Dictionaries and Informational Websites Do Upper Secondary School Students Use When They Can Choose the Sources Freely, and in What Way and How Successfully Do They Use Them?

*Self-reports:* Before the experiment, the subjects were asked whether they had been taught how to use online dictionaries and what types of dictionaries they usually consulted. The responses revealed that the majority (18 out of 22) had received neither information nor training, whereas four students had been given some information about the possibility of using online sources but no training. The majority (14) reported using bilingual (Finnish-English-Finnish) online sources, two subjects consulted monolingual dictionaries, whereas three subjects used both.

*Sources consulted:* In the gap-filling tasks, the subjects consulted eleven free multilingual Internet dictionaries<sup>2</sup> (*eudict.com*, *Free Dictionary*, *ilmainensanakirja.fi*, *Kaannos.com*, *Sanakirja.org*, *suomienglantisanakirja.fi*, *suomisanakirjat/sivistyssanakirja*, *Taloussanakirja*, *Wiktionary*, *Wikiword*, *WordReference*). No expert-constructed learners' dictionaries were used. In addition, the subjects used one translating tool, *Google Translate*, one search engine, *Google.com* and five other informational sites, *Forum.virtualtourist.com*, *Investopedia*, *Lainatieto.fi*, *UsingEnglish.com* and *Wikipedia* either in English or Finnish. In the editing and rewriting task, the queries were limited to *Sanakirja.org*, *Google Translate* and *Google.com*.

The videos demonstrated that the subjects had one primary source, which was either the only source they consulted or the source they consulted first. The most widely used primary sources were *Google Translate* and *Sanakirja.org*. In gap-filling, *Google Translate* was the most frequently used source (120 times) and *Sanakirja.org* was the most frequently consulted dictionary (109 times). All the other sources were used from one to thirteen times. Nine subjects out of 22 consulted only one source, four participants had two sources, three subjects used three sources and six students visited from four to nine different sites.

*Words looked up:* In gap-filling, the range of the words looked up was from 1 to 20. Four targets were searched by at least half of the subjects: 19 subjects out of 22 searched the adjective *entrepreneurial*, 14 subjects queried the colligation *keen on developing* and the noun *curriculum*, and half of the subjects looked up the prepositional verb *bump*

<sup>1</sup> Information on BNC-COCA-25 frequency bands was retrieved from *Lextutor.ca*, and the CEFR rating from *Cambridge Dictionary Online* and *English Vocabulary Profile*.

<sup>2</sup> The sources with Finnish titles, *ilmainensanakirja.fi*, *Kaannos.com*, *Sanakirja.org* and *suomienglantisanakirja.fi*, are free multilingual dictionaries; *suomisanakirjat/sivistyssanakirja*, provides synonyms and academic vocabulary; *Taloussanakirja*, focuses on economic vocabulary; *Lainatieto.fi*, provides information about loans.



into. In contrast, the collocation *make a mistake* and the verb form *caught* were searched rarely. The latter was searched to check the spelling or the tense to replace forms like *\*cought* or *\*cathed*.

Most targets were queried once. In case of objective and/or subjective complexity, more queries were conducted per target item. For example, although an unknown word, *curriculum* was easy to find, as the sources offered only one option, whereas the adjective *entrepreneurial* required a more complicated search path. However, five subjects could find it with one query, eight subjects made two queries, and three subjects conducted from three to five successive queries. Also, searching for the collocation *make an appointment* and an explanation for *annuity* generated three or more queries.

In the editing and rewriting task, the item queried the most was the verb *becomes* with 14 look-ups. This common verb is usually difficult for Finnish learners, as the senses of *come* and *become* are not differentiated in Finnish. In contrast, the majority did not notice the erroneous collocation *\*keep a presentation* in the text, and only two subjects searched and found the correct combination *give a presentation*. The reason for this error is probably that the Finnish verb for 'keep' is used in the corresponding L1 collocation. Ten students did not recognize the meaning of the noun *deafness*, which was used in a wrong context. Although a common word with only one meaning, it may have been unknown to the subjects.

Finally, a correlation was computed between the *VLT* score (vocabulary recognition) and the number of words searched by the subjects. (For the actual *VLT* scores, see the next section on RQ 2). The highly significant negative correlation ( $-.632$ ;  $p = .002$ ) suggested that the subjects who scored high in the *VLT* looked up fewer words. Moreover, when the number of successive queries was examined, the negative correlation ( $-.507$ ;  $p = 0.16$ ) showed that a high *VLT* score indicated also fewer successive queries for the same item.

*Look-up practices:* The video recordings revealed that the subjects differed in terms of digital skills, look-up practices, the degree of language awareness, the amount of reading while searching, and how persistently they conducted queries. The recordings demonstrated that several participants lacked basic technical skills. For example, inefficient typing complicated the querying process to the extent that the "did you mean" function in the dictionary could not suggest any contextually suitable alternatives. Neither could all the subjects use the copy-and-paste feature. One subject chose a 27-word long search result, but, unable to copy and paste the text, had to go 18 times from the entry to the task and back again. In contrast, skilled searchers often had their primary source opened in its own window next to the task, which allowed quick navigation between the entry and the task. Moreover, the observations showed that dictionary skills were inadequate. In the survey, most subjects reported using bilingual (Finnish-English-Finnish) online dictionaries, but in the recordings the subjects actually consulted multilingual sources, which they exploited them bilingually ignoring the monolingual features provided in them.

The subjects differed also in content-based skills. Skilled searchers crosschecked the finding, exploiting both the bilingual and monolingual features in the dictionary. They searched from L1 to L2 and vice versa checking the definitions from English-English sources, and studied also the additional information provided. For example, one subject filled a gap first with *funds* without looking up the word. However, he decided to check the meaning, got 16 alternatives, scrolled down for the definition of *funds*, read the example sentence and then concluded that the meaning was appropriate. In contrast, low-skilled subjects often chose the first alternative in the entry. This resulted in a wrong choice particularly when the prompt and/or the target word had multiple meanings, e.g., *\*placement* instead of *investment*. Moreover, some learners accepted readily the phrase generated by Google Translate, even if it did not make any sense, such as *\*offer substitute advisory officer* instead of the correct *offer* or *provide investment advice*. Neither did they continue searching even if they realized that the first search result was not suitable. For example, having queried a bilingual source for *annuity*, one subject gave the (wrong) meaning in L1 and wrote that nothing else was found. Some subjects, contrary to the prompt, copied explanations word by word from the source.

It was observed that the amount of text read by the subjects varied considerably. Searching for a formal letter ending, one subject queried *formal letter* first via *Google.com*, read the search results, found suggestions *yours faithfully* and *yours sincerely*, then continued querying two other sites, *UsingEnglish.com* and *WordReference.com*, and encountered the same suggestions with slightly different explanations. Finally, the subject examined the images under *formal letter ending*, which verified the previous search results. Another subject read hardly any text. He remembered *sincerely*, wrote that down, searched for the L1 meaning for this word, apparently became confused with the literal meaning, and decided to end the formal letter with *yours*.

Most subjects tended to rely on what they knew about the topic, but were unable to rethink when finding contradictory information. A case in point was searching a contextually appropriate explanation for *annuity*. Most subjects did not read the text of the task carefully enough to discover the contextual clues. Having probably encountered the L1 cognate in the context of a bank loan, it seemed difficult for some students to start thinking of an insurance policy instead. This is what happened to a participant who persisted with the idea of a bank loan, although he had encountered the contextually suitable meaning several times during a complicated search path via two dictionaries and three websites.

When checking their word choices, some subjects decided to change a fully acceptable answer for another appropriate choice, e.g., *have an impact on your investment* was changed for *affect your investment*, *an entrepreneur kind of person* for *entrepreneurial* or *continued spreading* for *kept on spreading*. A kind of "tip of the tongue"

phenomenon (Aitchison, 1994) was also observed. Some students knew approximately what the lexical item they needed would sound or look like before checking it, e.g., *\*revolob* instead of *develop*, *\*sincinerally* instead of *sincerely*, or *\*entrenepour* instead of *entrepreneur*. Moreover, most of the students filled the blanks in the order of appearance, while six subjects changed the working order postponing a difficult target, such as *entrepreneurial*, for later.

In the editing and rewriting task, the targeted test items were not indicated. The subjects were unfamiliar with this task type and did not know how to exploit online sources when solving it. Most subjects began reading the text and paused when they suspected that a word did not fit the context. When pausing only for a short stretch of time, the subject usually changed the word immediately, but at this point, some subjects changed a correct choice to an inappropriate alternative. Another approach was to change the sentence structure so that no look-up was needed.

Table I gives a summary of two profiles of learners, one with good and the other with poor digital skills, based on the results of RQ 1 of the present study.

TABLE I.  
DIGITAL SKILL PROFILES

	Skilled and productive	Low-skilled and ineffective
Mechanics	<b>Adequate digital skills</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Types in the query quickly and efficiently</li> <li>Exploits the spell checker</li> <li>Uses the copy &amp; paste function</li> <li>Keeps several windows open simultaneously</li> </ul>	<b>Inadequate digital skills</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Types in the query with several spelling mistakes</li> <li>Does not exploit the spell checker</li> <li>Does not know how to use the copy &amp; paste function</li> </ul>
Dictionary use	<b>Multifaceted use of sources</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Uses two or more information sources</li> <li>Uses bilingual and monolingual information</li> <li>Exploits additional information</li> <li>Persistent. Conducts successive queries when needed</li> </ul>	<b>Limited use of sources:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Uses one primary information source</li> <li>Uses bilingual information</li> <li>Does not read additional information</li> <li>Gives up easily. Stops querying if the item is not found immediately</li> </ul>
Locating information		
Evaluating information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Compares the alternatives</li> <li>Crosschecks the findings</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Chooses the first or one of the first alternatives in the entry</li> <li>Does not crosscheck the findings</li> </ul>
Language awareness	<b>High degree of language awareness</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Aware of register and polysemy, and knows that certain words collocate</li> </ul>	<b>Low degree of language awareness</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Not aware of register or polysemy, and does not know that certain words collocate</li> </ul>
Reading	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Reads carefully. Highlights the task relevant parts or moves the cursor along the lines</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Reads carelessly. Moves the cursor all over the entry without focusing on the task-relevant parts</li> </ul>

*In sum:* The video observations related to RQ 1 (*What online dictionaries and informational websites do upper secondary school students use when they can choose the sources freely, and in what way and how successfully do they use them?*) revealed several features about the subjects' digital skills. Firstly, they confirmed that most subjects had not received proper instruction in using online dictionaries or information about the features of various types of dictionaries. No expert-constructed learner's dictionaries were consulted. A typical subject used one dictionary as a primary source, but was not motivated to exploit all the features provided in it or did not know how to do so due to inadequate skills in searching and locating online information. Secondly, the amount of text read by the subjects varied considerably. Skilled subjects searched several sites, crosschecking their findings before decision-making, while low-skilled subjects hardly read any text. Thirdly, content-related skills, such as formulating queries, selecting information and evaluating search results, were related to lexical knowledge, as low-skilled subjects tended to choose the first option in the entry, and moreover, accepted readily the expressions generated by the translation tools. Fourthly, in line with previous findings, the subjects scoring high in the *VLT* looked up fewer words and conducted fewer successive queries. Finally, previous knowledge had a controversial role, as some lexically skilled subjects relied on what they knew, although contextual clues and online sources indicated otherwise.

#### B. RQ 2: What Is the Relationship between Word Recognition Skills and Successful Use of Online Sources?

In the gap-filling tasks, 48% of the responses involved using online sources. Nearly half of the look-ups were fully successful, one third were partly successful, and one fourth of the answers failed (Table II). Expectedly, the success rate was higher in finding individual lexical items than in finding formulaic sequences.

TABLE II.  
SUCCESS RATES IN ONLINE GAP-FILLING

Success	All items		Individual words		Formulaic sequences		Factual information	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Fully successful	71	43	30	56	38	39	3	20
Partly successful	54	33	11	20	44	42	3	20
Unsuccessful	40	24	13	24	18	19	9	60
Total	165	100	54	100	100	100	15	100

The two items including factual information appeared to be the most difficult to find, as more than half of the answers (60%) failed. In the editing/rewriting task, only 13% of the answers included consulting sources. The proportion of fully successful answers was 48%, whereas 35% failed. Due to the small number of observations, this task was not analyzed further.

The subjects' success rates in the *VLT* test (word recognition) and separately in *K\_10* (infrequent vocabulary) are presented in Table III.

TABLE III.  
PERFORMANCE IN THE *VLT* AND *K\_10*

	<i>VLT</i> (max. 120)	<i>K_10</i> (max. 30)
Mean	80.41	14.27
SD	30.27	6.95
Min.	24.00	5.00
Max.	115.00	27.00

To investigate the relationship between word recognition skills and successful use of online sources, correlations (Pearson's  $r$ ) were first computed between the gap-filling results and the scores in the *VLT*, and then between the gap-filling results and *K\_10* (see Table III). The number of look-ups conducted by the subjects differed considerably, the range being from 1 to 20. Thus, the values were weighted by the frequency of items looked up, and also by the frequency of successive queries per target item.

*Finding Individual Words:* A positive moderate correlation ( $r = .334$ ) existed between the *VLT* score and *fully successful* look-ups. *Partly successful* answers showed a negative moderate correlation ( $r = -.359$ ) with the *VLT*. *Unsuccessful answers* had a stronger negative correlation with the *VLT* score ( $r = -.537$ ). Regarding infrequent vocabulary, a positive correlation was observed between *K\_10* and *fully successful* answers ( $r = .255$ ), a negative correlation between *K\_10* and *partly successful* answers ( $r = -.313$ ), and a negative but stronger correlation between *K\_10* and *unsuccessful answers* ( $r = -.616$ ). All the correlations were highly significant ( $p = .001$ ). Conducting successive queries for the same item did not strengthen the correlations.

*Finding Formulaic Sequences:* All the correlations were negative; weak between the *VLT* and *fully successful* findings ( $r = -.236$ ), strong between the *VLT* and *partly successful* answers ( $r = -.815$ ), and moderate between the *VLT* and *unsuccessful* findings ( $r = -.511$ ). The connections with rare words were also negative: the correlation between *K\_10* and *fully successful* findings was weak ( $r = -.212$ ), strong between *K\_10* and *partly successful* answers ( $r = -.730$ ), and moderate between *K\_10* and *unsuccessful findings* ( $r = -.561$ ). All the correlations were highly significant ( $p = .001$ ). Conducting successive queries for the same item had a minimal effect on the correlations.

*Finding Factual Information:* The correlation between the *VLT* and *fully successful* information search was positive and moderate ( $r = .308$ ), but this time the correlation was slightly stronger ( $r = .323$ ) when successive queries were conducted, and the *VLT* correlated positively also with *partly successful* answers ( $r = .396$ ) in contrast to the former analyses. The correlation between the *VLT* and *unsuccessful* findings was negative ( $r = -.516$ ). The correlations were highly significant ( $p = .001$ ).

Regarding low-frequency words, the correlation between *K\_10* and *fully successful* findings was positive but weak ( $r = .172$ ,  $p = 0.05$ ). Unexpectedly, the connection between *K\_10* and *partly successful* findings was positive and fairly high ( $r = .582$ ), and even slightly stronger when successive queries were made ( $r = .593$ ). The correlation between *K\_10* and *unsuccessful* answers was negative ( $r = -.571$ ). These latter correlations were highly significant ( $p = .001$ ).

Overall, the analyses of the subjects' word recognition skills and using online dictionaries and other digital sources revealed that to succeed in 50% of the look-ups required scoring 60% in the *VLT* at the minimum. This would correspond to a vocabulary size of roughly 6000 words<sup>3</sup>. Only one participant succeeded with a smaller score, whereas five subjects did not get half of the look-ups correct even with a score over 60%.

*Answers without consulting sources:* Regarding answers given without consulting any online sources, it was found that the *VLT* scores correlated strongly with *fully successful* individual words ( $r = .776$ ) as well as with *fully successful* collocations ( $r = .754$ ). The correlations were highly significant ( $p = .000$ ). In contrast, the correlation between the *VLT* and responses requiring factual information was positive but non-significant ( $r = .384$ ;  $p = .078$ ). Regarding recognition of rare words, strong correlations were observed between *K\_10* and *fully successful* individual lexical items ( $r = .697$ ;  $p = .000$ ), as well as between *K\_10* and *fully successful* collocations ( $r = .751$ ;  $p = .000$ ). Moreover, *K\_10* scores correlated positively with responses requiring factually accurate information ( $r = .450$ ;  $p = .036$ ).

*In sum:* The analyses for RQ 2 (*What is the relationship between word recognition skills and successful use of online sources?*) revealed a tendency that better word recognition skills were related to successful use of dictionaries and other online sources, and vice versa, the lower the vocabulary score the more unsuccessful answers were produced. Overall, to succeed in 50% of the look-ups required a score over 60% in the *VLT*, which is considerably more than suggested by Nation (2015) with respect to using monolingual dictionaries.

The type of target items influenced the consultation process, so that finding individual words and factually accurate information were more closely related to vocabulary knowledge than finding collocations. Looking up word combinations required awareness of the fact that certain words collocate, and extra effort was needed in the search, such as scrolling down for examples and additional information.

The importance of lexical knowledge in using online sources was highlighted by the fairly high negative correlations between the vocabulary scores and the consultation results that failed. But why was the correlation between the

<sup>3</sup> The rough estimation was calculated applying the method in Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski (2010: 21).

vocabulary scores and finding the right individual words in dictionaries only moderate? Firstly, the consultation process depended largely on medium- and content-related digital skills. Dictionary entries are difficult to read without knowing how the dictionary functions and what features it provides; even brief definitions may contain unknown words, and additional information is scattered in different locations, which requires scrolling down and navigating across hyperlinks. Secondly, most of the subjects with the highest word recognition skills answered without consulting any sources. This was evidenced by the strong correlations between vocabulary scores and correct individual words and phrases given without consultation.

With respect to the role of low-frequency vocabulary, positive correlations were found between recognition of rare words and finding individual words in dictionaries, and between rare words and finding factual information, but the connections were weak. Unexpectedly, recognition of rare words had a remarkably high positive correlation with factual information which was only partly successful. The finding may indicate that even partial knowledge of infrequent words can facilitate global comprehension when reading texts on informational sites. Furthermore, a connection was found between knowledge of rare words and factual information given without consulting sources, which may indicate that the students who know rare words also have more general knowledge.

## V. DISCUSSION

The present study observed a group of Finnish EFL learners using online dictionaries and informational webpages in two different types of task, and examined the relationship between word knowledge and successful use of online sources. The findings indicated that vocabulary recognition played an important role in every stage of conducting online tasks, and overall, to succeed in 50% of the queries required scoring at least 60% in the vocabulary test.

Regarding the first stage in online reading, i.e., understanding the problem, several subjects did not know how to approach the editing and rewriting assignment simulating a real-world task. Thus, these results were not analyzed due to the small number of observations. In contrast, everyone was able to perform the gap-filling tasks. However, some subjects failed to notice contextual clues provided in the familiar task type. Most of the subjects had received no training in dictionary consultation. Consequently, they were unaware of the range of dictionaries available, and unfamiliar with the features in the dictionaries they used, or unable to take advantage of them. Further, the observations revealed inadequate medium-related and content-related digital skills; a lack of basic skills made the use of online sources slow and inefficient and hindered the navigation across sites. Regarding language skills, quick vocabulary recognition was needed when selecting information, consulting monolingual features in dictionaries and evaluating search results, whereas typing and reformulating queries required also productive word knowledge. Accordingly, the higher the vocabulary recognition score, the better the subject succeeded in locating individual target words and finding factually accurate information. In contrast, the subjects scoring low in the vocabulary test often chose the first option in an entry without checking the meaning, and took the suggestions generated by the translation tools at face value.

Previous research has found that learners who score high points in vocabulary tests conduct fewer queries. In the present study, the difference in the number of queries was significant only between the subjects with the lowest and highest vocabulary points, as the look-up frequencies seemed to be affected also by other factors, for example, individual choice to use the affordances. As one subject with a high vocabulary score put it, searching for words was interesting. It was also observed that conducting several queries for the same item did not necessarily improve the results in finding individual words and phrases, but helped when searching for factually accurate information.

Collocations were both subjectively and objectively complex targets, and thus, more difficult to locate. Either the dictionary did not provide the phrase, or detecting it required scrolling down and extra clicking for additional information. Finding formulaic sequences was also largely affected by the degree of language awareness, that is, being aware that common words collocate or that formal and informal phrases are not the same. Not finding the target collocation, some subjects translated it verbatim from L1, so, not surprisingly, the correlation between the vocabulary test score and finding phrases remained negative. When combining information from various sources, the subjects needed good working memory to evaluate the details provided simultaneously in different locations. In the searching process, most subjects relied on their previous knowledge, even if the contextual clues did not support what they knew. Thus, ability to evaluate one's previous knowledge was crucial when combining information and encountering contextual clues.

In sum, the findings showed that successful use of online sources requires familiarity with different types of dictionaries, ability to exploit all the features provided in them, knowledge of certain central concepts, such as register, collocation and polysemy, and furthermore, substantial vocabulary knowledge combined with adequate digital skills. This is what teachers could explain to those EFL learners who wonder why they have to study words, when they can always look them up.

## VI. CONCLUSION

The present study investigated which online dictionaries and informational websites Finnish upper secondary school English learners used when they could choose the sources freely, and in what way and how successfully they used them.

Moreover, the study aimed at discovering the role of vocabulary recognition skills in using electronic dictionaries and online sources for finding words and factual information. The main findings were the following:

- Vocabulary recognition skills correlated positively with locating and evaluating individual words and finding factual information, but not with finding collocations.
- Word knowledge was particularly important when the learner needed to select and evaluate the search results, infer the appropriate meaning in an entry, generate and reformulate search queries, and read and combine information from various sources.
- To succeed in 50% of the look-ups required scoring at least 60% in the vocabulary test.
- Conducting online tasks successfully required multiple skills: quick vocabulary recognition skills, knowledge of how online dictionaries function, persistence in formulating and conducting queries, familiarity with the concepts of register, collocating words and polysemy, critical attitude towards previous knowledge, and digital skills including basic computer use and ability to search, locate, select, combine, and evaluate information.

With respect to pedagogical implications, dictionary skills should be included in foreign language curricula as an essential part of literacy. EFL learners need a language teacher to introduce different types of dictionaries, demonstrate how the features in online dictionaries function, organize opportunities to learn how to search, locate, select and evaluate information, and more importantly, to share their search results and compare their individual search paths with those of their peers.

#### REFERENCES

- [1] Aitchison, J. (1994). *Words in the mind. An introduction to the mental lexicon*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- [2] Alderson J.C. (2005). *Assessing reading*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- [3] Atkins, B.T.S (ed.) (1998). *Using dictionaries: Studies of dictionary use by language learners and translators*. Tübingen: Niemeyer.
- [4] Atkins, B.T.S. & K. Varantola (1998). Language learners using dictionaries: the final report on the EURALEX/AILA research project on dictionary use. In Atkins (ed.), *Using dictionaries: Studies of dictionary use by language learners and translators*. Tübingen: Niemeyer, 21–81.
- [5] Boonmoh, A. (2012). E-dictionary use under the spotlight: students' use of pocket electronic dictionaries for writing. *Lexikos* 22, 43–68.
- [6] CamStudio. (n.d.). <https://camstudio.en.softonic.com/?ex=DSK-347.0> (accessed 20/1/2017)
- [7] Chan, A. (2014). How can ESL students make the best use of learners' dictionaries? *English Today* 30.3, 33–37. doi:10.1017/S0266078414000248.
- [8] Cobb, T. (2013). Lextutor. [www.lextutor.ca/](http://www.lextutor.ca/) (accessed 21/1/2017)
- [9] Council of Europe (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [10] Dziemianko, A. (2010). Paper or electronic? The role of dictionary form in language reception, production and the retention of meaning and collocations. *International Journal of Lexicography* 23.3, 257–273. doi:10.1093/ijl/ecp040.
- [11] Dziemianko, A. (2012). On the use (fullness) of paper and electronic dictionaries. In Granger & Paquot (eds.), *Electronic lexicography*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 319–337.
- [12] Granger, S. & M. Paquot (eds.) (2012). *Electronic lexicography*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [13] Jeon, E. & J. Yamashita (2014). L2 reading comprehension and its correlates: a meta-analysis. *Language Learning* 64.1, 160–212. doi: 10.1111/lang.12034.
- [14] Kaarakainen, M., Kaarakainen, S., Tanhua-Piironen, E., Viteli, J., Syvänen, A. & A. Kivinen. (2017). Digiajan peruskoulu 2017. Tilannearvio ja toimenpidesuosittukset. Valtioneuvoston selvitys- ja tutkimustoiminnan julkaisusarja 72/2017. [Comprehensive school digitalisation: Status review and recommendations for action for 2017, English abstract]. <http://www.utu.fi/fi/Ajankohtaista/Uutiset/Documents/Digiajan%20peruskoulu%202017%20E2%80%9320Tilannearvio%20ja%20toimenpidesuosittukset.pdf> (accessed 1/12/2017).
- [15] Kalaja, P., Alanen, R., Palviainen, Å. & H. Dufva. (2011). From milk cartons to English roommates: context and agency in L2 learning beyond the classroom. In P. Benson & H. Reinders (eds.), *Beyond the language classroom*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 47–58.
- [16] Laufer, B. & M. Hill (2000). What lexical information do L2 learners select in a CALL dictionary and how does it affect word retention. *Language Learning & Technology* 3.2, 58–76.
- [17] Laufer, B. & Y. Yano (2001). Understanding unfamiliar words in a text: do L2 learners understand how much they don't understand? *Reading in a Foreign Language* 13.2, 549–564.
- [18] Laufer, B. & T. Levitzky-Aviad. (2006). Examining the effectiveness of “bilingual dictionary plus” – a dictionary for production in a foreign language. *International Journal of Lexicography* 19.2, 135–155. doi:10.1093/ijl/eck006.
- [19] Laufer, B. & G. Ravenhorst-Kalovski. (2010). Lexical threshold revisited: lexical text coverage, learners' vocabulary size and reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language* 22.1, 15–30.
- [20] Leu, D.J., Kinzer, C.K., Coiro, J., Castek, J. & L.A. Henry. (2013). New literacies: a dual-level theory of the changing nature of literacy, instruction, and assessment. In D.E. Alvermann, N.J. Unrau & R.B. Ruddell (eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association, 1150–1181. DOI: 10.1598/0710.42.
- [21] Lew, R. (2012). How can we make electronic dictionaries more effective? In Granger & Paquot (eds.), *Electronic lexicography*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 343–361.
- [22] Lew, R. & R. Mitton (2012). Online English learners' dictionaries and misspellings: one year on. *International Journal of Lexicography* 26.2, 219–233. doi:10.1093/ijl/ecs016.

- [23] Liou, H. (2000). The electronic bilingual dictionary as a reading aid to EFL learners: research findings and implications. *Computer Assisted Language Learning* 13, 467–476.
- [24] Nation, P. (1983). Testing and teaching vocabulary. *Guidelines* 5, 12–25.
- [25] Nation, P. (2006). How large a vocabulary is needed for reading and listening. *The Canadian Modern Language Review* 63.1, 59–82.
- [26] Nation, P. (2015). Principles guiding vocabulary learning through extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language* 27.1, 136–145.
- [27] Nesi, H. (1998). Defining a shoehorn: learners' dictionary entries for concrete nouns. In Atkins (ed.), *Using dictionaries: Studies of dictionary use by language learners and translators*. Tubingen: Niemeyer, 159–178.
- [28] Nesi, H. (2012). Alternative e-dictionaries: Uncovering dark practices. In Granger & Paquot (eds.), *Electronic lexicography*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 363–378.
- [29] Nordic@BETT (2016). How far are the Nordic countries in using ICT to teach students in primary and lower secondary school 21<sup>st</sup> century skills? [www.emu.dk/sites/default/files/Nordic%20BETT%20Final%202020.pdf](http://www.emu.dk/sites/default/files/Nordic%20BETT%20Final%202020.pdf) (accessed 17/2/2017).
- [30] OECD (2013). OECD skills outlook 2013: First results from the survey of adult skills. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- [31] Pelttari, S. & M. Mutta (2014). Language learners' seeking paths and strategies: one dimension of digital literacy. In M. Mutta, P. Lintunen, I. Ivaska, & P. Peltonen (eds.), *Tulevaisuuden kielenkäyttäjät Language users of tomorrow*. AFinLA Yearbook. Jyväskylä: Jyväskylän yliopistopaino, 157–175.
- [32] Peters, E. (2007). Manipulating L2 learners' online dictionary use and its effect on L2 word retention. *Language Learning & Technology* 11, 36–58.
- [33] PISA 2015. Assessment and analytical framework: Science, reading, mathematics and financial literacy. <http://www.oecd.org/publications/pisa-2015-assessment-and-analytical-framework-9789264255425-en.htm> (accessed 15/7/2016).
- [34] Schmitt, N., Schmitt, D. & C. Clapham (2001). Developing and exploring the behavior of two new versions of the Vocabulary Levels Test. *Language Testing* 18.1, 55–88.
- [35] Schmitt, N., Jiang, X. & W. Grabe (2011). The percentage of words known in a text and reading comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal* 95, 26–42.
- [36] Schmitt, N. & D. Schmitt (2014). Reassessment of frequency and vocabulary size in L2 vocabulary teaching. *Language Teaching* 47.4, 484–503. doi:10.1017/S0261444812000018.
- [37] Singer, G., Danilov, D. & U. Norbistrath (2012). Complex search: aggregation, discovery and synthesis. *Proceedings of the Estonian Academy of Sciences* 61.2, 89–106.
- [38] Statistics Finland. (n.d.). Internet usage for searching for information on Wikipedia or other online encyclopedias in Finland in Q1 2015, by age group. In Statista - The Statistics Portal. <https://www.statista.com/statistics/551756/internet-usage-for-searching-for-information-by-age-group/> (accessed 23/3/2017).
- [39] Tono, Y. (2011). Application of eye-tracking in EFL learners' dictionary look-up process research. *International Journal of Lexicography* 24.1, 124–153. doi:10.1093/ijl/ecq043.
- [40] Van Dijk, J. & A. Van Deursen. (2014). Digital skills. Unlocking the information society. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

**Marja-Leena Niitemaa** is a doctoral student at the Department of English, University of Turku, Finland. She has taught English at upper secondary school level and worked as a developer and teacher of English CLIL classes in the Turku area. Her research interests include vocabulary learning and teaching, computer assisted language learning, and the integration of personal face-to-face communication and digital learning. Focusing on vocabulary learning, she has contributed to a volume on foreign language learning and teaching aimed at practising language teachers and teacher trainees.

**Pävi Pietilä** is Professor of English at the University of Turku, Finland, where she is responsible for the SLA section of her department. Her publications include *The English of Finnish Americans* (1989), *L2 Speech* (1999), *Lexical Issues in L2 Writing* (2015, co-editor), in addition to a number of journal articles. Her research interests include second language acquisition and attrition, vocabulary acquisition and use, L2 academic writing, L2 speaking skills, and the lexis-grammar interface.

# A Corpus-based Study of Lexis in L2 English Textbooks

Cathrine Norberg  
Luleå University of Technology, Sweden

Marie Nordlund  
Luleå University of Technology, Sweden

**Abstract**—Despite the fact that textbooks are central in foreign language learning, only limited research has explored to what extent L2 textbooks support language learning and whether the content in them is relevant from a vocabulary perspective. This study investigates the vocabulary in seven English textbooks used in Swedish primary schools. A corpus has been constructed based on the words in the textbooks. By means of a concordancing software tool, the material has been analyzed by comparing the vocabulary between the books and to words on the *New General Service List* and in the *VP-Kids corpus*. The analysis shows that many words in the textbooks occur only occasionally in common everyday language use. It also demonstrates that there is great variation in the number and selection of words across the books indicating that there does not seem to be a common thought behind word selection in textbooks used in Swedish schools.

**Index Terms**—vocabulary, course books, frequency lists, young learners of English, representativeness, corpus

## I. INTRODUCTION

Since the 1990s an increasing number of researchers have used corpus-based approaches in many areas of linguistic enquiry, among them, in the development of methods for language teaching (Biber & Reppen, 2002; Granger, 2002). Corpus linguistics has almost been established as a norm in the creation of dictionaries (McCarthy, 2008), and more recently in the construction of reference grammars (Burton, 2012). Corpora have been used as a powerful tool to identify non-native language features in foreign language learners' language production, such as the over-representation of certain phrases or linguistic features (Granger, 2002). As a pedagogical tool it has challenged many traditional approaches to language studies in a number of different ways (e.g. Hunston & Francis, 1999), and has shown particularly useful in studies of collocational patterns and word frequency (Schmitt, 2000).

As yet, however, only limited corpus linguistic research has focused on the construction of textbooks and the vocabulary content in them from a pedagogical point of view. The few studies that have employed corpus-based approaches with a focus on teaching materials have mainly focused on academic written materials (e.g. Hoey, 2000; Thompson, 2000). Studies addressing the needs of young learners have mainly been left unattended (Foster & Mackie, 2013; Keck, 2004). Considering the centrality of the textbook in foreign language learning and teaching, particularly for the lower ages of learning (Konstantakis & Alexiou, 2012; Skolverket, 2006), this is surprising.

The aim of this study is to explore i) whether textbooks used in Swedish primary schools are constructed in ways that support vocabulary learning, ii) whether there is consensus as to how many words, and the distribution of them, books used for the same school level should contain, iii) to what degree the words in the books correspond to common everyday language use, and iv) whether there appears to be a common thought behind the selection of words in the books. To do this a corpus consisting of seven English textbooks used in Swedish primary schools has been created. Following Foster and Mackie's (2013) construction of a literary corpus to analyze Dr. Seuss' works from a vocabulary standpoint, the appropriateness of using the books is discussed in the context of learning English as a foreign language (EFL), raising such questions as whether they facilitate or even hinder successful vocabulary acquisition. In analyzing to what extent the vocabulary in the textbooks corresponds to common everyday language the occurrence of lexical verbs, adjectives and nouns in the books has been compared to the representation of the same categories on the *New General Service List* (NGSL) (Browne, 2013) and in the *VP-Kids corpus* (Roessingh & Cobb, n.d.). Since the Swedish national curriculum states that all teaching should find its base in scientific research (Skolverket, 2011), an investigation of the construction and content of EFL textbooks from a pedagogical standpoint therefore appears both worthwhile and important. No similar study has been conducted in a Swedish context.

## II. VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AND SIZE

To build up a substantial vocabulary is a cornerstone in foreign language learning. Vocabulary knowledge is essential in the development of reading (Cameron, 2001; Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010), and has been identified as closely related to overall success in learning a foreign language. To study words is, however, not a quick fix. To fully

know a word means knowledge of meaning and form, register, collocation and association, among other things (Nation, 2013). To gain this knowledge and to enable automatization of word knowledge and recognition (Tyler, 2012) a word must be encountered many times in a variety of contexts. Words do not appear to be stored in isolation in our brains, but are connected to each other in semantic networks (Aitchison, 2012) and only when a learner encounters the same word often and in different contexts are those connections likely to be internalized and thus remembered (Nation, 2008). Language learning materials should therefore be constructed in ways that make it possible for learners to meet new words repeatedly and in different contexts (Cameron, 2001).

How often a word should recur in a textbook to enable learning is difficult to say. The figures vary among researchers with estimates ranging between 5–6 (Cameron, 2001; Nation, 1990) and twenty (Waring & Takaki, 2003) occurrences. Repeated exposure has been shown as 3–4 times more important for beginners than for advanced learners (Zahar, Cobb & Spada, 2001). Another important issue in foreign language learning is vocabulary size, both in terms of how many words a textbook for a particular level should comprise and how many words a student for a particular level of learning should know. Such figures are, for instance, presented in curricula in Greece, South Korea and Spain (Jiménez Catalán & Mancebo Francisco, 2008; Konstantakis & Alexiou, 2012; Shin & Chon, 2011), but are not visible in the learning objectives in Swedish curricula. In the works preceding the *Common European framework of reference for languages* (CEFR; Council of Europe, 2001), on which the Swedish syllabi are based, 2,000 words are, however, set as a target for B1 level – the level students should have reached for a passing grade at the end of compulsory school (school year 9).

It is also difficult to establish how many words a learner of a foreign language should know to achieve adequate comprehension of a text of average difficulty. But there are studies showing that knowledge of high-frequency words is closely related to text coverage and successful language learning (Nation, 2006; Nation & Beglar, 2007). Nation's (2006) study of what vocabulary is needed for unassisted comprehension of English, based on fourteen 1,000 word-family lists from the *British National Corpus* (BNC), shows that the first two lists cover 88% of the word tokens in a novel like *Lady Chatterley's Lover*. In a similar fashion, the 250 most frequent words in children's speech have been calculated to make up 75–80% of children's total language production (Roessingh & Cobb, n.d.). These figures undoubtedly demonstrate that a small number of words “do the bulk of the work” (Schmitt, 2000, p. 73), whereas others occur comparatively infrequently. Learning the first 1,000–2,000 words, which occur repeatedly in any discourse, should thus facilitate vocabulary learning and comprehension considerably, and provide a solid basis for further learning.

### III. PREVIOUS CORPUS-BASED STUDIES ON LEARNING MATERIALS FOR YOUNG LEARNERS

As mentioned, research focusing on the structures of textbooks for young learners is scarce (Keck, 2004), in particular with a focus on vocabulary learning and teaching (Criado & Sánchez, 2012). There are, however, some important examples. Shin and Chon (2011) studied the vocabulary profile of elementary and secondary English textbooks used in South Korea by comparing the vocabulary in them to the words on West's (1953) 2,000 *General Service List* (GSL), a list preceding NGSL, the words in Coxhead's (2000) *Academic Word List* and the vocabulary in three general corpora of English. They found that 68% of the words in the textbooks were not on the GSL, and a high number of words were academic words. The comparison of the vocabulary with the words in the three corpora showed that the textbooks contain a large number of words used infrequently in everyday language production.

Similar studies have been conducted with a focus on vocabulary in children's literature. Foster and Mackie (2013) analyzed the vocabulary frequency coverage of the words in Dr. Suess' books to the lexical coverage in the *VP-Kids corpus* and the BNC to determine the appropriateness of using the books in an EFL context. Their conclusion was that the books are fairly representative of both children's language and general language production. The frequency coverage compared to the *VP-Kids corpus* and the BNC showed almost identical figures: 86 and 84% respectively of the words in the Suess corpus were found among the 1,000 most frequent words in the two corpora. Their analysis also included a comparison of the most frequent lexical verbs, adjectives and nouns in Dr. Suess' writing to the same word classes in a children's literature corpus (the *CLLIP corpus*). Also this comparison showed a reasonably good correspondence, in particular for verbs and adjectives.

A corpus-based study to analyze the vocabulary in children's literature has also been conducted by Thompson and Sealey (2007). They compared the vocabulary profile of the *CLLIP corpus* to a corpus of adult fiction and newspaper texts to find out whether the language in writing for children demonstrates different linguistic properties compared to texts aimed at adults. They concluded that the vocabulary in children's fiction shares much of the characteristics of the language in adult fiction, but to a lesser degree the vocabulary profiles of news text. The top ten most frequent lexical verbs, adjectives and nouns in the two corpora showed a very high degree of overlap.

Another study focusing on vocabulary in a school context is Konstantakis and Alexiou's (2012) investigation of the vocabulary in five EFL textbooks used in Greece in the first two years of primary school. Quite contrary to researchers like Nation (2006, 2013) and Nation and Beglar (2007), they argue that the Greek books are insufficiently loaded with mid- and low-frequency words. Their analysis, based on a comparison to the BNC 2,000 word list, shows that the books include between 74% and 85% of the most frequent words on the BNC list. According to them, a vocabulary of this size is “insufficient for anything but the most basic form of communication” (Konstantakis & Alexiou, 2012, p. 40). A



similar standpoint is taken by Milton and Vassiliu (2000) who emphasize that frequency lists are not organized according to themes or topics. Many words describing the animal world for example, are not likely to appear among the 2,000 most frequently occurring words in general English, but are important in the world of children. Konstantakis and Alexiou's study (2012) also shows that the vocabulary across the Greek books is extremely varied in word selection and length.

Vocabulary content in teaching materials has also been addressed by Rixon (1999). She examined seven textbooks aimed at first-year beginner students of English with the purpose of uncovering evidence of consensus or divergence as to vocabulary content and vocabulary size. Like Konstantakis and Alexiou (2012), she discovered that there are wide differences in what appears as a suitable number of words to present to children in their first year of learning English. Her study also revealed that there is little consensus as to vocabulary selection across the books. Close to half of the total inventory of the words turned out to be unique to one or other of the books. Similar results are presented by Jiménez Catalán and Mancebo Francisco (2008) who conducted a corpus-based investigation of the vocabulary input in four EFL textbooks used in primary and secondary education in Spain. The present study intends to investigate whether similar phenomena are visible in English textbooks used in Swedish schools.

#### IV. EFL IN SWEDISH SCHOOLS

The start of EFL instruction in Swedish schools is flexible; schools may decide to start anywhere between school years 1 and 4, but the majority of students start their English education in school year 3. When EFL instruction is introduced teaching is usually limited to 20–30 minutes per week and consists mainly of songs and rhymes, and vocabulary most commonly comprises words from familiar domains (Skolverket, 2011), such as colors, clothes, family members, animals and body parts. As students advance to higher school levels, the number of classes each week increases and classes become longer. Regardless of starting age, the total number of hours for EFL instruction is 480 hours throughout the nine-year long compulsory school. National tests for English take place in school years 6 and 9 to assess students' listening, reading, speaking and writing skills. Textbooks are very infrequent for the youngest students and usually not introduced until school year 3 or 4, but from thereon they constitute an important feature of EFL teaching with approximately 75% of teachers using a textbook in almost every class (Skolverket, 2006).

#### V. MATERIAL AND METHODOLOGY

This study analyzes a corpus consisting of seven textbooks commonly used in Swedish primary school years 3 and 4 (students aged 9–10 years) published by three well-known Swedish publishers. The books *Happy* (Hansson, 2010), *Lift off, juniors* (Bowen & Söderlund, 2007), *Lighthouse* (Bowen & Söderlund, 2003) and *Right on!* (Nihlén, Gardenkrans & Robinson Ahlgren, 2006) are used for school year 3, and *Good stuff* (Keay, Coombs & Hoas, 2005), *New champion* (Bermheden, Sandström & Wahlgren, 2005) and *What's up?* (Gränsson, Hjälm, Widlund & Cowle, 2006) for school year 4. The corpus, hereafter referred to as SWYLC (the *Swedish Young Learner Corpus*), consists of a total of 34,380 running words. Although some of the books have accompanying workbooks, our analysis in this article is limited to the material in the textbooks. Since content words are the most important carriers of meaning in communication, the focus of attention is on lexical verbs, nouns and adjectives. They make up slightly more than a third of the corpus (12,714 words). SWYLC was constructed by scanning all the textbooks and transforming the texts into .txt format. The electronic documents generated were carefully checked to eliminate possible scanning errors due to font and background problems. Words that had not been scanned (e.g. words in pictures) were entered manually. All the texts were then tagged according to, among other things, word class, number and tense in accordance to the BNC Basic C5 Tagset<sup>1</sup>. To search the corpus the concordance software MonoConc Pro was used.

A type in this study includes the base form of a word and all inflected regular forms. Irregular word forms, both plural noun forms and verb forms, which are often learned as separate words, are listed as separate types. To analyze the proportion of "raw vocabulary input" in relation to new vocabulary introduced in the textbooks the type/token ratio (TTR) was used (Criado & Sánchez, 2012). It is often used to compare the lexical diversity of materials, and is calculated by using the formula  $\text{type/token} \times 100$  (Seong-sig, 2002). The higher this ratio the more varied and specialized a particular material is in terms of its vocabulary. This ratio is thus an important indication of to what extent words are recycled in a material. The TTR score can, however, only be used to compare material of equal size, as the type/token relationship typically follows a parabolic curve: the larger a text is, proportionally the fewer the types (Sánchez & Cantos, 1997). Since the books analyzed here differ in length, the standardized type/token ratio was used to homogenize the figures and make them comparable (see Table 1). It calculates the TTR based on every 1,000 word and calculates an average of it (Seong-sig, 2002). The *WordSmith Tools* (Scott, 2008) software program was used for the calculation of the STTR.

To establish to what extent the vocabulary input in the books reflect common language production, and to measure the proportion of high- and low-frequency words in them, the words in the books were compared to the occurrence of lexical verbs, adjectives and nouns in NGSL and the *VP-Kids corpus*. NGSL is derived from a 273 million-word sample of the *Cambridge English Corpus* (a 2-billion word corpus) and covers the 2,800 most frequently used words by native speakers of English. The *VP-Kids corpus* covers the 2,500 most frequently produced words by over 500 native English-

speaking children (5–7 years of age). It is derived from samples of spontaneous speech including more than 700,000 words. These two reference materials have been widely used in comparative analyses of lexical distribution and frequency coverage (e.g. Cobb, 2007; Foster & Mackie, 2013; Nation, 2004; Thompson & Sealey, 2007). In this study, comparison was made by using the Web-VP BNC-20 tool found on the Compleat Lexical Tutor v. 8 website.<sup>2</sup> The tool sorted the textbook material into groups matching three groups of NGSL and ten groups of the *VP-Kids corpus* (see Tables 3 and 4 below).

Even if NGSL covers general language, and our study has a focus on the language intended for young learners, a comparison to it, combined with the *VP-Kids corpus*, appeared relevant. It has been shown that there seems to be little difference in the distribution of the most frequently used words produced by children and general language production (Foster & Mackie, 2013). The study will thus not provide a comprehensive result, but is nevertheless likely to give telling indications of to what extent the books analyzed reflect general language production. It should be noted that in analyzing the vocabulary profile of SWYLC (see 6.3) compared to native language production, the comparison was only made to NGSL, as the *VP-Kids corpus* does not provide frequency information of separate word classes.

## VI. ANALYSES

### A. Types and Tokens in the Textbooks

To explore whether there is a systematic approach to vocabulary size in the construction of textbooks for young EFL learners in Sweden, and whether the books facilitate vocabulary learning, the number of types and tokens and the type/token ratio in the entire corpus and its sub-corpora were analyzed. The figures are presented in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1.  
NUMBER OF TOKENS AND TYPES IN SWYLC AND ITS SUB-CORPORA.

	Tokens	Types <sup>3</sup>	STTR
SWYLC	34,380	2,899	30.31
Corpus Year 3	10,721	1,272	27.03
<i>Happy</i>	1,186	254	24.20
<i>Lift off, Juniors</i>	2,492	440	26.55
<i>Lighthouse</i>	4,464	520	23.15
<i>Right on!</i>	2,570	673	34.60
Corpus Year 4	23,668	2,538	31.65
<i>Good Stuff</i>	9,424	1,311	31.48
<i>New Champion</i>	5,758	926	33.34
<i>What's up?</i>	8,486	1,305	30.42

As can be seen, there is significant variation between the books both as to the number of word types (different words) and tokens (running words) in them. There are 419 more types in the book with the largest number (*Right on!*: 673) than the one with the fewest (*Happy*: 254) for school year 3. The difference in terms of the number of types for school year 4 is 385 with 1,311 types in *Good Stuff* compared to 926 in *New Champion*. The difference between the books with the lowest and highest number of tokens is 1,384 for year 3 and 3,666 for year 4. Also the type/token relationship displays notable differences across the books, in particular for school year 3 with a STTR of 23.15 for *Lighthouse*, to be compared to 34.60 for *Right on!*. The STTR for school year 4 is 30.42 for *What's up?* and 33.34 for *New Champion*. These differences in the base number of words in books intended for the same level of learning indicate that there is a lack of an explicit target of how many words students for a particular level of learning should know, and in line with this how many words books intended for the same school level should contain.

Differences in lexical diversity imply, as mentioned, different opportunities for repetition of new words introduced in materials. There is no established figure as to what is an optimal type/token relationship for a language learning material. But to bring some understanding of the figures presented here, the STTRs reported from similar studies on learning materials could be used. Criado and Sánchez (2012), for example, studied students' opportunities for repetition in two EFL textbooks used in Spanish elementary schools and reported almost identical STTRs as for SWYLC, and concluded that although the proportion of tokens differs between the books, both offer adequate opportunities for repetition with figures not deviating much from the expected pattern of normal distribution of words in texts where about 50% of the words in any non-manipulated text are likely to occur only once (Criado & Sánchez, 2012, pp. 90–91). It should, however, be mentioned that the figures presented in their study are not entirely comparable with those for SWYLC. Criado and Sánchez (2012, p. 82) regard different word forms, such as singular and plural forms of regular nouns as two separate types. In our study they are defined as two forms of the same word type. Following their definition of type, the number of types in SWYLC would be much higher, and thereby also the STTR.

Another point of reference for the type/token ratio presented for SWYLC is the figures presented in Seong-sig's (2002) study of four elementary school English textbooks used in South Korea which, among other things, analyzes the lexical diversity of the books, and compares the figures to the lexical variation of authentic spoken language. The STTR presented for the Korean books is on average 16.09, to be compared to 33.12 for general English. Seong-sig explains that the difference mainly depends on the fact that many expressions are repeated continually across the books to ensure

learning. In this light, the STTR for SWYLC may again appear high, and may also be taken as a sign that recycling of words has not been considered in constructing the texts.

To better understand the figures behind the type/token relationship presented for SWYLC from a vocabulary learning perspective, types and tokens of the lexical verbs, adjectives and nouns together with the type/token ratio for these categories in the respective books were analyzed (see Table 2 below). Since some of the categories presented include figures lower than 1,000, and the STTR is the average TTR based on every 1,000 words, TTRs are presented instead of STTRs. As mentioned, the TTRs of material with large differences in size are not one hundred percent comparable. Therefore the presented TTRs should be interpreted with some caution.

TABLE 2.  
LEXICAL VERBS, ADJECTIVES AND NOUNS IN SWYLC AND ITS SUB-CORPORA.

	Lexical verbs			Adjectives			Nouns		
	Tokens	Types	TTR	Tokens	Types	TTR	Tokens	Types	TTR
<b>Year 3</b>	1,073	144	12.71	868	111	13.11	2,234	472	20.66
<i>Happy</i>	89	29	34.57	76	21	26.67	328	127	39.27
<i>Lift off, Juniors</i>	223	65	26.05	219	35	16.44	547	176	31.55
<i>Lighthouse</i>	435	64	14.68	336	58	17.26	791	193	24.32
<i>Right on!</i>	328	94	27.58	237	71	31.25	568	293	47.97
<b>Year 4</b>	2,478	271	10.56	1,292	266	20.41	4,156	1,083	25.76
<i>Good Stuff</i>	1,151	198	16.74	532	157	28.36	1,636	554	32.56
<i>New Champion</i>	557	124	22.40	387	122	32.03	890	357	39.75
<i>What's up?</i>	770	140	17.14	372	145	38.58	1,630	611	37.27

A comparison of the figures for *Happy*, the book with the highest TTR for lexical verbs (34.57) with the figures of *Lighthouse*, the book with the lowest TTR (14.68) for the same category, as an example, illustrates the correlation between the degree of recycling and a high or low TTR score. Closer analysis of the figures for the two books showed that 16 of the 29 verb types in *Happy* (55%) occur only one time in the book, and five of them (17%) more than five times. In *Lighthouse*, 16 of 64 of the verbs (30%) occur one time and eighteen (28%) more than five times. A low TTR is thus an indication of a higher degree of recycling. In a similar fashion, a closer look at the figures of the TTR for nouns in *Right on!*, the book with the highest TTR (47.97), compared to *Lighthouse*, the book with the lowest (24.32) revealed that 131 of 293 nouns (45%) in *Right on!* occur once in the book, and fourteen (5%) five or more times. In *Lighthouse*, 56 of 193 (29%) nouns occur one time, and forty of them (21%) five or more times. Again, a lower TTR indicates a higher degree of recycling. Considering that five exposures to a language item have been estimated as a minimum for learning to take place (Cameron, 2001; Nation, 1990) and that young learners need more than older learners, the figures presented for SWYLC show, although with some variation, that recycling has received little attention in constructing the books.

**B. The Frequency Distribution of Lexical Verbs, Adjectives and Nouns in SWYLC.**

The previous section discussed the number of types and tokens across English books used in Swedish primary schools. This section presents an analysis of the proportion of high- and low-frequency words in SWYLC, and how it corresponds to the vocabulary in NGSL. Using the Web-VP BNC-20 tool, the word classes analyzed were compared to the distribution of these words in NGSL (Table 3) and the *VP-Kids corpus* (Table 4). The tool sorted the material into three groups matching the groups of NGSL with K1 representing the 1,000 most frequently occurring words in English, K2 the next 1,000 most frequent words and so on (K1–K3). The words matching the words in the *VP-Kids corpus* followed the same principle, but with words sorted into ten groups of 250 words in descending frequency order. Words appearing beyond the list and corpus compared were categorized as off-list words.

TABLE 3.  
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF LEXICAL VERBS, ADJECTIVES, NOUNS IN SWYLC COMPARED TO NGSL.

Frequency level	Lexical verbs		Adjectives		Nouns	
K1	53.63		32.04		30.35	
K2	22.15	(75.78)	25.57	(57.61)	15.62	(45.97)
K3	7.96	(83.74)	8.74	(66.35)	10.26	(56.23)
Off-list	16.26	(100)	33.65	(100)	43.77	(100)

The figures are percentage of total number of words with accumulated coverage in parenthesis.

As shown in Table 3, 53.63% of the lexical verbs, 32.04% of the adjectives and 30.35% of the nouns in SWYLC are found among K1 level words in NGSL. These figures make an average of 38.68% and show that a high percentage of the content words in the books, nouns and adjectives in particular, are words occurring rather seldom in common everyday language. On average a third of the words are not found among the 2,800 most frequent words in English. The figures for nouns in this respect are as high as 43.77%. It has been estimated that 80% of the words in English are found among K1 words (Nation, 2006). Even though this percentage includes function words as well, the figures presented nevertheless suggest that a high proportion of the lexical words in the books occurs relatively infrequently in everyday language use.

The comparison of SWYLC to the *VP Kids-corpus* (Table 4) shows a better correspondence compared to the figures presented in relation to NGSL with 52.48% (62.84% of the verbs, 45.30% of the adjectives and 49.29% of the nouns) of the words found among the 1,000 most frequently occurring words (see the fourth frequency level).

TABLE 4.  
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF VERBS, ADJECTIVES, NOUNS IN SWYLC COMPARED TO THE *VP KIDS-CORPUS*.

Frequency level	Lexical verbs	Adjectives	Nouns
1–250	18.40	10.03	13.49
251–500	20.83 (39.23)	15.53 (25.56)	13.42 (26.91)
501–750	13.89 (53.12)	9.71 (35.27)	12.08 (38.99)
751–1,000	9.72 (62.84)	10.03 (45.30)	10.30 (49.29)
1,001–1,250	6.60 (69.44)	8.74 (54.04)	6.08 (55.37)
1,251–1,500	5.56 (75.00)	5.18 (59.22)	6.52 (61.89)
1,501–1,750	3.82 (78.82)	4.85 (64.07)	5.19 (67.08)
1,751–2,000	2.08 (80.90)	4.85 (68.92)	4.08 (71.16)
2,001–2,250	2.43 (83.33)	3.24 (72.16)	3.71 (74.87)
2,251–2,500	1.74 (85.07)	1.62 (73.78)	3.56 (78.43)
Off-list	14.93 (100)	26.21 (100)	21.57 (100)

The figures are percentage of total number of words with accumulated coverage in parenthesis.

Seen in relation to estimations that the 250 most frequently occurring words used by children, of which 44% cover lexical verbs, adjectives and nouns, make up 75–80% of their total language production (Roessingh & Cobb, n.d.), the figures presented for SWYLC are again low and show that the Swedish books contain a high proportion of lexical words seldom used by native-speaking children. Only an average of 14% of the word classes investigated are found among the words listed in the first frequency band (1–250) of the *VP-Kids corpus*. On average a fifth of the words in SWYLC are not found in the *VP-Kids corpus*.

### C. The Vocabulary Profile of SWYLC Compared to NGSL

To analyze the vocabulary profile of the books and compare it to general language production, the top ten most frequently occurring lexical verbs, adjectives and nouns in SWYLC and NGSL were compared. The words and their proportions are presented in Table 5. It should be noted that irregular word forms are listed as separate types in SWYLC, but not in NGSL. Since the *VP-Kid corpus* does not provide frequency information, no words from that corpus are presented. To enable comparison between the books, Tables 6–9 (Appendix) present the frequency of the top ten most frequently occurring words in the individual textbooks. Following Rixon (1999), and to answer the question about a possible core vocabulary in books intended for a particular school level, the words were divided into four groups illustrating in how many of the books they appear: one book, two–four, five–six, and all seven books.

TABLE 5.  
THE TOP-TEN MOST FREQUENT LEXICAL VERBS, ADJECTIVES AND NOUNS IN SWYLC AND NGSL

Lexical verbs		Adjectives				Nouns			
SWYLC	NGSL	SWYLC	NGSL	SWYLC	NGSL	SWYLC	NGSL		
<b>like</b> 0.74	<b>say</b> 0.38	<b>red</b> 0.31	<b>good</b> 0.22	<b>mum</b> <sup>b</sup> 0.38	<b>time</b> 0.23				
<b>go</b> 0.63	<b>go</b> 0.36	<b>big</b> 0.28	<b>new</b> 0.14	<b>dad</b> 0.32	<b>people</b> 0.22				
<b>got</b> 0.58	<b>know</b> 0.30	<b>little</b> 0.20	<b>first</b> 0.13	<b>friend</b> 0.23	<b>year</b> 0.20				
<b>see</b> 0.42	<b>get</b> 0.29	<b>white</b> 0.20	<b>right</b> 0.12	<b>name</b> 0.27	<b>way</b> 0.13				
<b>come</b> 0.35	<b>think</b> 0.28	<b>black</b> 0.20	<b>last</b> 0.10	<b>dog</b> 0.25	<b>thing</b> 0.13				
<b>want</b> 0.29	<b>like</b> 0.27	<b>blue</b> 0.18	<b>long</b> 0.08	<b>house</b> 0.24	<b>day</b> 0.12				
<b>look</b> 0.29	<b>make</b> 0.24	<b>old</b> 0.15	<b>great</b> 0.07	<b>day</b> 0.16	<b>child</b> 0.10				
<b>play</b> 0.29	<b>see</b> 0.23	<b>green</b> 0.13	<b>little</b> 0.07	<b>cat</b> 0.15	<b>company</b> 0.10				
<b>say</b> 0.20	<b>take</b> 0.19	<b>great</b> 0.12	<b>old</b> 0.07	<b>beep</b> 0.13	<b>life</b> 0.09				
<b>love</b> 0.20	<b>come</b> 0.18	<b>yellow</b> 0.12	<b>each</b> <sup>a</sup> 0.07	<b>animal</b> 0.13	<b>man</b> 0.09				

<sup>a</sup> *different, high, late, next* also 0.07

<sup>b</sup> includes instances of *mom*

Figures are percentage of running words.

Bold font illustrates words appearing in both SWYLC and NGSL.

As shown, six of the most frequent verbs (*like, go, got, see, come, and say*) are found among the most frequently occurring words in general language. Although this may be understood as a sign of correspondence, there are also notable differences. Closer analysis of the frequency patterns of the verbs identified as occurring with high frequency in both SWYLC and NGSL, for example, shows that *like, go, got* and *see* appear considerably more frequently in the books compared to the NGSL. *Like* and *go* account for 0.74% and 0.63% respectively of the total tokens in SWYLC compared to 0.27% and 0.36% in NGSL. Considering that SWYLC is a much smaller corpus compared to the material NGSL is based on, the focus on these two verbs in the textbooks stands out even more and may be seen as a distinctive feature of SWYLC. In *Happy* (see Appendix, Table 6) the percentage of *like* is close to 2% of all the words in the book. Since irregular forms are separate types in SWYLC, but not in NGSL, the proportional difference is even higher for *see* and *go*. It is also noticeable that the informal verb form *got* is extremely common in the textbooks. This figure is not shown explicitly in NGSL, as it is included among the tokens of *get*. But, considering that *get* accounts for 0.29% of the

verbs in NGSL, and *got* 0.58% of the words in SWYLC, the figures clearly show the importance placed on this verb form in the textbooks. It is the most common verb in *What's up?* appearing as often as 93 times.

On the whole, the verbs in the textbooks indicate a pattern where great emphasis is placed on students' ability to express likes and wants, their coming and going in the world, and their physical observations of it. Verbs expressing abstract reasoning and opinions such as *think* and *know* are not among the most frequent verbs in the books, but are listed as common words in NGSL. Closer analysis of *see* in the books shows that the majority of the tokens involve visual seeing and not understanding. Despite such signs of a core vocabulary as to the representation of verbs, it should be noted that only *like* and *see* are represented as high-frequency verbs in all the seven books (see Appendix, Table 6). *Play* and *go* occur in five and six books respectively, the other verbs in between two and four of the books.

If the verbs in the textbooks show a certain degree of overlap with the verbs in NGSL, the lexical profile of the adjectives and nouns shows a more diverging result: only three of the adjectives (*great*, *little* and *old*) and one of the nouns (*day*) in SWYLC are found among the ten most frequent adjectives and nouns in NGSL. The most eye-catching observation of the adjectives is the extreme focus on colors in the textbooks. Six color terms are found among the top ten most frequently occurring adjectives in SWYLC. *Red* occurs proportionally more frequently in the books than the most frequent adjective *good* in NGSL. Closer examination of the individual textbooks (Appendix, Table 7) moreover revealed that between three and seven colors are among the most common adjectives in the books (cf. Rixon, 1999). The dominance of colors is particularly noticeable in *Lift off, juniors* (year 3) with *red*, *black* and *yellow* as the three most frequent adjectives in the book covering close to 3% of all tokens. The same book also shows a high percentage of *green*, *blue* and *white*. No colors are listed among the most frequently occurring words in NGSL. Apart from color terms, there seems to be little consensus as to what adjectives students should learn. Of a total of 32 different adjectives listed as the top ten most common adjectives in the books (Appendix, Table 7), fifteen are unique to one book.

As for nouns, the textbooks indicate a focus on words for family members and the animal world with *mum/mom* and *dad*, and for the latter *dog* and *cat* as particularly common. Like color terms, these words are not listed as the most frequently occurring items in NGSL. It is also noticeable that general terms for humans (*people*, *man*, *child*, *woman*, etc.) are not among the most frequent words in SWYLC. These are common terms in general language production (*woman* is missing). Other similar superordinate terms frequent in NGSL, but not equally common in the teaching materials with the exception of *day* are, for instance, *time* and *year*. *Time* occurs with high frequency in two of the books, but not in the others. *Year* does not appear as a high-frequency word in any of the books.

It can thus be concluded, that except for the representation of verbs, the lexical profile of SWYLC diverges in many significant ways from everyday language. As for a common thought behind the selection of words in the books, there seems to be a general consensus among publishers that color terms, words for pets and family members, and ways of expressing likes are important words for young learners to know. Frequency data of this kind should, however, as pointed out by Thompson and Sealey (2007), be studied with caution, and should always be complemented with contextual analysis. Closer analysis of the words listed as high-frequency words in the individual books (Appendix, Tables 6–8) showed that although there seems to be a certain degree of consensus as to vocabulary selection, there is considerable variation across the books. Only *like* and *see* occur among the top ten most frequently occurring words in all the books, and 71 of a total of 118 words are unique to one book.

## VII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In analyzing the lexical content of English textbooks used in Swedish primary schools at two different school levels from a vocabulary acquisition standpoint, this study has shown that books used in Swedish schools for the purpose of learning and teaching English as a foreign language vary to a considerable extent both in vocabulary size, the type/token relationship and the selection of words. A comparison to reference materials (*New General Service List* and *VP-Kids* corpus) covering general language production and the language produced by native English-speaking children moreover shows that the books include a large proportion of low-frequency words, that is, words not frequently used in common everyday language.

Wide differences across the books in terms of content and vocabulary size do not only indicate an absence of a common pedagogical idea as to the construction and content of vocabulary intended for a specific school level in the Swedish school system, it also implies that students following different books will be provided with different opportunities for vocabulary exposure, and as a consequence possible disparities in vocabulary size (cf. Jiménez Catalán & Mancebo Francisco, 2008). Compared to the type/token ratio in books presented in similar studies (e.g. Seong-sig, 2002), the figures for the Swedish textbooks moreover appears high, which means that students using the books are provided with limited opportunities to consolidate new words introduced to them. Preliminary results from accompanying workbooks indicate similar results (Nordlund & Norberg, forthcoming).

One may perhaps believe that books intended for young learners should focus on the language used by children, and therefore deviate a bit from the frequency coverage of general language. The material analyzed does indeed show a better correspondence with the frequency of the words in the *VP Kids* corpus, but the figures for the books are again low in relation to those of native-speaking children's language production (Roessingh & Cobb, n.d.).

In establishing whether there is consensus as to what words students should learn for a specific school level and whether these words correspond to the vocabulary profile of everyday language, this study reports both diverging and

converging results. Similarities with general language use are mainly found among verbs with six of the ten most common verbs in the books corresponding to the top ten most frequently used verbs in English, although with proportional differences. Despite this partial overlap, which to some extent was expected, as many of the verbs are almost impossible to avoid in general speech, great differences in the lexical profile of adjectives and nouns indicate that the distribution of words in everyday language production has not been considered in the selection of words for the books. Only three of the adjectives and one of the nouns in the books are high-frequency words in general English. Compared to the words in NGSL, the absence of superordinate terms like *people*, *child*, *thing* and *man* is noticeable in the textbooks, although such terms would, as pointed out by Rixon (1999, p. 68), provide students with networks and hierarchies of meaning and enable them to make their meaning come across even when more precise words are missing.

As to the question whether the material analyzed shows a consensus in the vocabulary input, analyses of the vocabulary in individual books revealed that even if the material seems to focus on words important in children's lives, closer analysis of what words are shared by the books, showed that only two words are high-frequency words in all the seven books, and 62% of the top ten most frequent words (71 of 118) are exclusive to one book. Since different books were analyzed for years 3 and 4 in this study, it was not possible to investigate vocabulary progression within the same textbook series, but a comparative analysis of school years 4–6 books of two of the teaching materials part of this study (*Good stuff* and *New champion*; Nordlund, 2016) shows that only about 20% of the words recur throughout all three books and approximately 60% occur in one book only. A high proportion of these words are one-time words. Such figures indicate a low area of common consent as to vocabulary input in the books (cf. Konstantakis & Alexiou, 2012).

Evidently, there are words in the books which are not among the most frequently occurring words in general language use, but which nevertheless are important to know if progression beyond beginner level is to take place, and which are important to make communication possible in different thematic areas (Konstantakis & Alexiou, 2012, p. 36). Therefore, the representation of words like *dog*, *cat*, and color terms may fulfill a purpose, although one may question the enormous focus placed on them. Most Swedish students attending third and fourth year of school already know the names of the most common colors and pets in English from nursery rhymes and pre-school activities. A bit surprising is the complete absence of words related to school activities in the books. Not even the very word *school* is a high-frequency word in the books.

The authors of this study are fully aware of the fact that students need to know more than the 1,000–2,000 most frequent words in English to communicate and get their meanings across. It is also evident that it is not possible to produce a text consisting of only high-frequency words. Such texts would be both boring and awkward, and there are themes that require words more seldom used in English. The point is rather to find a good balance of high- and low-frequency words in texts to promote learning and make the texts enjoyable and meaningful to read and work with. To exactly determine what this balance should be to provide learners with the best learning possibilities is difficult to say, but including too many low-frequency words in materials for young learners in particular is not likely to help students acquire words and build up a basis for further learning. On the contrary, it may lead to both frustration and lack of interest, and as a consequence unsatisfactory results.

This study has provided empirical evidence of the lack of common criteria as to vocabulary size, lexical diversity and vocabulary profile in EFL textbooks used in Swedish primary schools. Like similar studies conducted on EFL textbooks used in other countries, it appears as if the books have not been constructed in consideration to research on how words are learned. Since the textbook is central in many language teaching activities, further studies focusing on vocabulary acquisition and the design of textbooks from different perspectives and contexts are encouraged. The present study has shown the value of using corpus linguistic approaches in analyzing textbooks, and how materials can be compared and analyzed by means of using free concordancing tools on the Internet. Future corpus-based studies on learning materials could, for instance, explore how national tests are constructed from a vocabulary perspective. If EFL textbooks used in Swedish schools do not explicitly show or mention what words students for a specific level of learning should learn, national tests, which are constructed to assess students' knowledge of words and language comprehension, would perhaps bring light to what is understood as passing knowledge for a particular school level.

#### Notes

1. Available at: [www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/docs/c5spec.html](http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/docs/c5spec.html)
2. Available at: [www.lextutor.ca/vp/comp](http://www.lextutor.ca/vp/comp)
3. MonoConc Pro does not take lemma into consideration, which means that the number of lemmas in Tables 1 and 2 was adjusted manually.



APPENDIX

TABLE 6.  
THE TOP-TEN MOST FREQUENT LEXICAL VERBS IN THE TEXTBOOKS CONSTITUTING SWYLC.

<i>Happy</i>	<i>Lift off, Juniors</i>		<i>Lighthouse</i>		<i>Right on!</i>		<i>Good Stuff</i>		<i>New Champion</i>		<i>What's up?</i>		
like	1.77	see	0.80	like	1.01	go	1.13	like	0.88	see	0.61	got	1.10
play	1.10	like	0.76	come	0.83	let	0.74	go	0.76	got	0.54	go	0.72
read	0.59	sleep	0.56	got	0.72	wear	0.51	want	0.51	go	0.40	like	0.65
point	0.51	go	0.52	see	0.65	like	0.47	come	0.55	know	0.36	want	0.40
see	0.51	look	0.52	put	0.58	run	0.43	love	0.44	look	0.36	get	0.31
call	0.42	play	0.44	look	0.56	see	0.43	say	0.44	like	0.35	play	0.31
love	0.25	come	0.32	go	0.40	got	0.39	got	0.35	think	0.24	eat	0.25
jump	0.17	sat	0.32	say	0.38	miss	0.35	know	0.29	hear	0.21	live	0.24
open	0.17	scream	0.24	play	0.31	play	0.31	live	0.28	say	0.21	see	0.22
say <sup>a</sup>	0.17	chase <sup>b</sup>	0.20	thank	0.29	sing	0.31	see	0.28	take <sup>c</sup>	0.21	look <sup>d</sup>	0.18

<sup>a</sup> *climb* and *ask* also 0.17  
<sup>b</sup> *eat* and *put* also 0.20  
<sup>c</sup> *thank* and *want* also 0.21  
<sup>d</sup> *love* also 0.18

Top-ten adjectives appearing in one book, two–four books, five–six books and all the books:

**1 book** (19): *ask, call, chase, get, hear, jump, let, miss, open, point, read, run, sat, scream, sing, sleep, take, think, wear*

**2-4 books** (10): *come, eat, know, live, look, love, put, say, thank, want*

**5-6 books** (3): *go, got, play*

**All 7 books** (2): *like, see*

TABLE 7.  
THE TOP-TEN MOST FREQUENT ADJECTIVES IN THE TEXTBOOKS CONSTITUTING SWYLC.

<i>Happy</i>	<i>Lift off, Juniors</i>		<i>Lighthouse</i>		<i>Right on!</i>		<i>Good Stuff</i>		<i>New Champion</i>		<i>What's up?</i>		
big	0.76	red	1.00	big	0.76	red	0.89	red	0.31	good	0.43	new	0.24
old	0.76	black	0.92	good	0.47	hot	0.54	little	0.30	nice	0.28	old	0.20
blue	0.59	yellow	0.84	left	0.38	blue	0.51	big	0.23	big	0.23	great	0.19
black	0.51	little	0.76	yellow	0.36	good	0.47	best	0.16	great	0.21	nice	0.18
new	0.51	blue	0.72	bad	0.34	green	0.39	good	0.16	old	0.21	American	0.14
green	0.42	green	0.64	green	0.34	white	0.39	white	0.15	white	0.21	good	0.14
red	0.42	white	0.52	red	0.34	black	0.31	blue	0.13	sorry	0.19	hot	0.12
white	0.42	big	0.44	right	0.29	favourite	0.27	great	0.13	young	0.17	fun	0.11
small	0.34	quick	0.32	happy	0.27	runny	0.27	black	0.12	red	0.16	big	0.08
pink <sup>a</sup>	0.25	brown <sup>b</sup>	0.24	long	0.27	yellow	0.27	cool	0.12	black <sup>c</sup>	0.14	happy <sup>d</sup>	0.08

<sup>a</sup> *yellow* also 0.25  
<sup>b</sup> *fat* and *long* also 0.24  
<sup>c</sup> *hot* also 0.14  
<sup>d</sup> *lost* and *sorry* also 0.08

Top-ten adjectives appearing in one book, two–four books, five–six books and all the books:

**1 book** (15): *American, bad, best, brown, cool, fat, favourite, left, lost, pink, quick, right, runny, small, young*

**2-4 books** (13): *blue, great, green, happy, hot, little, long, new, nice, old, sorry, white, yellow*

**5-6 books** (4): *big, black, good, red*

**All 7 books** (0)

TABLE 8.  
THE TOP-TEN MOST FREQUENT NOUNS IN THE TEXTBOOKS CONSTITUTING SWYLC.

<i>Happy</i>	<i>Lift off, Juniors</i>		<i>Lighthouse</i>		<i>Right on!</i>		<i>Good Stuff</i>		<i>New Champion</i>		<i>What's up?</i>		
balloon	0.93	cat	0.92	finger	0.83	day	0.51	dad	0.51	mum	0.71	friend	0.86
cat	0.67	fish	0.76	dog	0.74	zoo	0.51	mum <sup>d</sup>	0.40	dad	0.57	name	0.59
dog	0.67	house	0.76	grandma	0.54	name	0.43	day	0.38	chapter	0.54	beep	0.53
house	0.67	mouse	0.76	nose	0.49	time	0.43	dog	0.31	morning	0.31	dad	0.22
book	0.59	witch	0.56	animal	0.43	turn	0.43	summer	0.30	grandad	0.19	house	0.19
name	0.59	dog	0.48	night	0.34	mum	0.35	friend	0.25	man	0.19	present	0.19
rabbit	0.59	bird	0.44	tree	0.34	morning	0.31	bed	0.24	boy	0.17	animal	0.16
red	0.59	dad	0.44	box	0.31	nose	0.31	name	0.24	reporter	0.17	cousin	0.16
bag	0.51	hat	0.44	cat	0.31	dentist	0.27	time	0.22	school	0.17	football	0.16
football <sup>a</sup>	0.51	mum	0.44	birthday <sup>b</sup>	0.27	brother <sup>c</sup>	0.23	doctor	0.21	bed <sup>e</sup>	0.16	family <sup>f</sup>	0.15

<sup>a</sup> *pet* also 0.51  
<sup>b</sup> *sun* and *zoo* also 0.27  
<sup>c</sup> *colour, dress, home* and *sister* also 0.23  
<sup>d</sup> includes instances of *mom*  
<sup>e</sup> *house* also 0.16  
<sup>f</sup> *film* also 0.15

Top-ten nouns appearing in one book, two–four books, five–six books and all the books:

**1 book** (37): *bag, balloon, beep, bird, birthday, book, box, boy, brother, chapter, cousin, dentist, doctor, dress, family, film, finger, fish, granddad, grandma, hat, home, man, mouse, night, pet, present, rabbit, rat, reporter, school, sister, summer, sun, tree, turn, witch*

**2-4 books** (15): *animal, bed, cat, dad, day, dog, football, friend, house, morning, mum, name, nose, time, zoo*  
**5-6 books** (0)  
**All 7 books** (0)

## REFERENCES

- [1] Aitchison, J. (2012). *Words in the mind: An introduction to the mental lexicon* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [2] Bermheden, C., Sandström, L.-G., & Wahlgren, S. (2005). *New champion 4*. Stockholm: Bonnier Utbildning.
- [3] Biber, D., & Reppen, R. (2002). What does frequency have to do with grammar teaching? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 24(2), 199–208.
- [4] Bowen, M., & Söderlund, K. (2003). *Lighthouse 4*. Malmö: Gleerups.
- [5] Bowen, M., & Söderlund, K. (2007). *Lift off, juniors*. Malmö: Gleerups.
- [6] Browne, C. (2013). The New General Service List: Celebrating 60 years of vocabulary learning. *The Language Teacher*, 37(4), 13–16.
- [7] Burton, G. (2012). Corpora and coursebooks: destined to be strangers forever? *Corpora*, 7(1), 91–108.
- [8] Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching languages to young learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [9] Cobb, T. (2007). Computing the vocabulary demands of L2 reading. *Language Learning & Technology*, 11(3), 38–64.
- [10] Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe, Modern Languages Division.
- [11] Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(2), 213–238.
- [12] Criado, R., & Sánchez, A. (2012). Lexical frequency, textbooks and learning from a cognitive perspective: A corpus-based sample analysis of ELT materials. *Revista Española Lingüística Aplicada*, 25(1), 77–94.
- [13] Foster, J., & Mackie, C. (2013). Lexical analysis of the Dr. Seuss Corpus. *Concordia Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, 4, 1–21.
- [14] Gäransson, M., Hjäm, A., Widlund, K.-E., & Cowle, A. (2006). *What's up? 4*. Stockholm: Bonnier Utbildning.
- [15] Granger, S. (2002). A bird's eye view of learner corpus research. In S. Granger, J. Hung & S. Petch-Tyson (Eds.), *Computer learner corpora, second language acquisition and foreign language teaching* (pp. 3–33). Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- [16] Hansson, C. (2010). *Happy year 3*. Textbook. Malmö: Gleerups.
- [17] Hoey, M. (2000). The hidden lexical clues of textual organization: A preliminary investigation into an unusual text from a corpus perspective. In L. Burnard & T. McEnery (Eds.), *Rethinking language pedagogy from a corpus perspective* (pp. 31–42). New York: Peter Lang.
- [18] Hunston, S., & Francis, G. (1999). *Pattern grammar: A corpus-driven approach to the lexical grammar of English*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- [19] Jiménez Catalán, R.M., & Mancebo Francisco, R. (2008). Vocabulary input in EFL textbooks. *RESLA*, 21, 147–165.
- [20] Keay, C., Coombs, A., & Hoas, B. (2005). *Good stuff 4*. Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell/Liber.
- [21] Keck, C.M. (2004). Corpus linguistics and language teaching research: Bridging the gap. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(1), 83–109.
- [22] Konstantakis, N., & Alexiou, T. (2012). Vocabulary in Greek young learners' English as a foreign language course books. *The Language Learning Journal*, 40(1), 35–45.
- [23] Laufer, B., & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, G.C. (2010). Lexical threshold revisited: Lexical text coverage, learners' vocabulary size and reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 22(1), 15–30.
- [24] McCarthy, M. (2008). Accessing and interpreting corpus information in the teacher education context. *Language Teaching*, 41(4), 563–574.
- [25] Milton, J., & Vassiliu, P. (2000). Frequency and the lexis of low level EFL texts. In K. Nicolaidis & M. Mattheoudakis (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 13<sup>th</sup> International Symposium on Theoretical and Applied Linguistics* (pp. 444–455). Thessaloniki: Aristotle University.
- [26] Nation, I.S.P. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. New York, NY: Newbury House.
- [27] Nation, I.S.P. (2004). A study of the most frequent word families in the British National Corpus. In P. Bogaards & B. Laufer (Eds.), *Vocabulary in a second language: Selection, acquisition, and testing* (pp. 3–13). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- [28] Nation, I.S.P. (2006). How large a vocabulary is needed for reading and listening? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 63(1), 59–82.
- [29] Nation, I.S.P. (2008). *Teaching vocabulary: Strategies and techniques*. Boston, MA: Heinle Cengage Learning.
- [30] Nation, I.S.P. (2013). *Learning vocabulary in another language* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [31] Nation, I.S.P., & Beglar, D. (2007). A vocabulary size test. *The Language Teacher*, 31(7), 9–13.
- [32] Nihlén, C., Gardenkrans, L., & Robinson Ahlgren, A. (2006). *Right on! 3*. Stockholm: Liber.
- [33] Nordlund, M. (2016). EFL textbooks for young learners: A comparative analysis of vocabulary. *Education Inquiry*, 7(1), 47–68.
- [34] Nordlund, M., & Norberg C. (forthcoming). Vocabulary recycling in EFL teaching materials for young learners.
- [35] Rixon, S. (1999). Where do the words in EYL textbooks come from? In S. Rixon (Ed.), *Young learners of English: Some research perspectives* (pp. 55–71). Harlow: Longman.
- [36] Roessingh, H., & Cobb, T. (n.d.). Profiling the vocabulary of K-2 learners. Retrieved on April 19, 2016 from <http://www.uclagary.ca/langugaelearning/profilingvocabulary>.
- [37] Sánchez, A., & Cantos, P. (1997). Predictability of word forms (types) and lemmas in linguistic corpora. A case study based on the analysis of the *CUMBRE Corpus: An 8-million-word corpus of contemporary Spanish*. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 2(2), 259–280.
- [38] Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [39] Scott, M. (2008). *WordSmith Tools version 5*. Liverpool: Lexical Analysis Software.
- [40] Seong-sig, K. (2002). A corpus-based analysis of the words in the elementary school English textbooks. *English Teaching*, 57(3), 253–277.



- [41] Shin, D., & Chon, Y.V. (2011). A corpus-based analysis of curriculum-based elementary and secondary English textbooks. *Multimedia-Assisted Language Learning*, 14(1), 149–175.
- [42] Skolverket. (2006). L äromedlens roll i undervisningen. Grundskoll ärares val, användning och bed ömning av läromedel i bild, engelska och samh ällskunskap [The role of teaching materials in teaching: Secondary school teachers' choice, use and evaluation of teaching materials in Arts, English and Social Sciences]. Stockholm: Skolverket.
- [43] Skolverket. (2011). Curriculum for the compulsory school, preschool class and the recreation centre, 2011. Stockholm: Skolverket.
- [44] Thompson, P. (2000). Citation practices in PhD theses. In L. Burnard & T. McEnery (Eds.), *Rethinking language pedagogy from a corpus perspective* (pp. 91–102). New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- [45] Thompson, P., & Sealey, A. (2007). Through children's eyes? Corpus evidence of the features of children's literature. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 12(1), 1–23.
- [46] Tyler, A. (2012). *Cognitive linguistics and second language learning: Theoretical basics and experimental evidence*. London: Routledge.
- [47] Waring, R., & Takaki, M. (2003). At what rate do learners learn and retain new vocabulary from reading a graded reader. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 15(2), 130–163.
- [48] West, M. (1953). *A general service list of English words*. London: Longman.
- [49] Zahar, R., Cobb, T., & Spada, N. (2001). Acquiring vocabulary through reading: Effects of frequency and contextual richness. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57(4), 541–572.

**Cathrine Norberg** is Associate professor of English at Lule å University of Technology, Sweden. Her main research interest is corpus linguistics with a focus on gender, and educationally related issues.

**Marie Nordlund** is Senior Lecturer in English at Lule å University of Technology, Sweden. Her main research interest lies within corpus linguistics and applied linguistics.

# *The Scarlet Letter*: Embroidering Transcendentalism and Anti-transcendentalism Thread for an Early American World

Ramtin Noor-Tehrani (Noor) Mahini  
Acalanes High School, Lafayette, California, USA

Erin Barth  
Acalanes High School, Lafayette, California, USA

**Abstract**—Published in 1850 by Nathaniel Hawthorne, the dark romantic story of *The Scarlet Letter* was immediately met with success, and Hawthorne was recognized as the first fictional writer to truly represent American perspective and experience. At the time when most novelists focused on portraying the outside world, Hawthorne dwelled deeply in the innermost, hidden emotional and mental psyches of his characters. Despite being acquainted to both famed transcendentalists Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry David Thoreau and married to the transcendentalist painter Sophia Peabody, Hawthorne was often referred to as anti-transcendentalist or dark romantic writer in *The Scarlet Letter*. Is he also influenced by the transcendentalist movement in his famed novel? Evidence shows that he is more transcendentalist than anti-transcendentalist in *The Scarlet Letter*.

**Index Terms**—Nathaniel Hawthorne, *Scarlet Letter*, Hester Prynne, Roger Chillingworth, Arthur Dimmesdale, Pearl, transcendentalism, dark romanticism, anti-transcendentalism

## I. INTRODUCTION

Riding the wave of heightened nationalism after the second independence war against Great Britain in 1812, Americans began to write their own school textbooks, celebrate the birth of American literature using American scenes and themes, and even establish their own American intellectual, philosophical, and social movements. One of these movements is the American transcendentalism that began in the mid-nineteenth century (1830-1860) in Boston and Concord of New England. This transcendentalist movement was inspired by the publication of Ralph Waldo Emerson's essays, "Nature" in 1836 and "Self-Reliance" in 1841. Stemming from the larger 19th-century European romanticism, New England transcendentalists (Goodman, 2017; Habich and Nowatzki, 2010) reject Calvinism, or the doctrine of predestination practiced by the Puritans, by asserting that human nature is innately good and that truth can be acquired from intuition and nature, not from reason and logic. As such, authority or society-imposed formal institutions such as government and religion may prevent people from using their intuition and cause them to become corrupt. In contrast with transcendentalism, anti-transcendentalism (better known as dark romanticism) is based on the belief that evil and sin are inherent characteristics in human beings. Therefore, optimistic outlook on humanity is naïve because people must struggle to obtain goodness and avoid evil, which can exist even in a physical form in society.

As an American novelist during this interesting time of contrasting intellectual and literary philosophies, Nathaniel Hawthorne weaves both transcendentalism and anti-transcendentalism thread into his immediately successful novel *The Scarlet Letter* to give readers a chance to evaluate different beliefs and different aspects of the early American life at the New England settlement in the seventeenth century. His story revolves around the life of a young and married Hester Prynne who is punished by her Puritan village to perpetually wear a scarlet letter "A" on her bosom for committing adultery in the absence of her husband, Roger Chillingworth. She gives birth to Pearl, an illegitimate child from her secret affair with the Puritan Reverend Arthur Dimmesdale. At times, Hester and those immediately related to her seem to espouse both or even wrestle between these two contradictory transcendentalist and anti-transcendentalist belief systems, as Hawthorne explores the psychological effects of sin and guilt while simultaneously examining the inner struggle between good and evil through his characters.

## II. BACKGROUND

Published in 1850 by Nathaniel Hawthorne, the dark romantic story of *The Scarlet Letter* was immediately met with success. It had made quite an impact on Europe's literary circles, portraying Hawthorne as the first fictional writer to truly represent American perspective and experience. At the time when most novelists focused on the outside world, Hawthorne dwelled deeply in the innermost, hidden emotional and mental psyches of his characters. More than one and a half century later, *The Scarlet Letter* is now part of the American literary canon, invoking incessant critical reviews on

its numerous and rich political, religious, scientific, and social themes. The wide range of modern themes on *The Scarlet Letter* includes: feminism (Daniels, 2005; Wang, 2010); literary symbolism (Lei, 2015); medicine/toxicology (Khan, 1984; Applebaum, 2008); morality (Taylor, 2005; Bloom, 2011); politics (Hunt, 2009; Strong, 2017); socio-cultural aspects (Young, 2007; Kumar, 2016); or socio-religious topics such as Christianity (Stuart, no date; Walsh, 2009), Islam (Hariyanti and Nurhayati, 2017), and Puritanism (Gao et al., 2014), etc.

Despite being acquainted to both famed transcendentalists Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry David Thoreau and married to the transcendentalist painter Sophia Peabody, Hawthorne was often referred to as an anti-transcendentalist or dark romantic writer in *The Scarlet Letter* because he shows his disagreement with the transcendentalist point of view by describing the presence of sin (Trepanier, 2003) and evil in man, or human tendency toward evil (Manzari, 2012). Is Hawthorne also influenced by the transcendentalist movement? In *The Scarlet Letter*, is he more anti-transcendentalist or more transcendentalist? The answers are presented in later sections of this article. As Hawthorne selects his weak, pitiful anti-transcendentalist characters as male and depicts good-natured, self-reliant transcendentalist characters as female in his famed novel, perhaps Hawthorne can also be considered an American feminist writer ahead of his time.

### III. TRANSCENDENTALIST ASPECTS OF *THE SCARLET LETTER*

*The Scarlet Letter* contains both transcendentalist and anti-transcendentalist views and ways of life organizing around the central theme of sin. Hester's sin is her adultery with Dimmesdale, which produces her child Pearl. Dimmesdale's sin is his failure to publicly admit his act of adultery with Hester. And Chillingworth's sin is his ruthless torture of Dimmesdale, despite the latter's remorse and sufferings. The basic premises of transcendentalism depicted in the novel include beliefs in self-confidence and self-reliance, in transforming or changing for the better, in individual worth and dignity of manual labor, in innate goodness of people, in the benefits of living close to nature, and in the fact that truth is acquired through intuition, not reason nor logic.

#### A. *Self-confident, Self-reliant, and Dignity of Manual Labor*

In *The Scarlet Letter*, it is initially determined by the local government that the typical penalty of death for adultery is mercifully reduced due to the fact that Hester's husband may already be "at the bottom of the sea" (deceased) and she can be effectively considered a widow (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 60). As a result, Hester is condemned to stand on the scaffold for three hours at mid-day for public humiliation and wear the scarlet letter A on her chest for the remainder of her life. Although Hester is initially filled with grief and shame for being subject to ridicule and harsh judgment by the townspeople, she chooses to be self-confident and self-reliant. She walks with dignity and displays her own free will, "...he placed his right upon the shoulder of a young woman, whom he thus drew forward; until, on the threshold of the prison-door, she repelled him, by an action marked with natural dignity and force of character, and stepped into the open air, as if by her own free-will." This image shows that when the town beadle tried to force Hester to move forward from the prison door, the dignified and proud Hester rejected his force. She would not let authorities of her society push her around and make her feel weak and vulnerable.

Hester even embroiders the condemned scarlet letter A with luxurious red velvet and gold thread on her chest, "...was that SCARLET LETTER, so fantastically embroidered and illuminated upon her bosom. It had the effect of a spell, taking her out of the ordinary relations with humanity, and inclosing her in a sphere by itself" (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 52). This sentence depicts Hester's strong will to turn her life around, despite her adversity. Instead of letting the scarlet A letter be a symbol of her shame, she selects the finest red cloth and embroiders the letter A with illuminated gold thread to celebrate her unique life, away from the relation with her fellow Puritan society. Perhaps, instead of wearing the typical scarlet letter A as a symbol of shame (Adultery), she proudly wears hers as a token love for Dimmesdale (the initial letter of Arthur, Reverend Dimmesdale's first name) and continues to live a life undisturbed by the harsh judgment of others around her.

To support her infant child Pearl, Hester settles on the outskirts of town, in an abandoned cottage that is next to the seashore and surrounded by the forest to the west (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 78). Alone, she utilizes her skills in needlework to make a living and raise Pearl. She does not leave town, perhaps with a dream to reunite with her lover again someday.

#### B. *Transformation and Innate Human Goodness*

During the early years of her seclusion from society, Hester experiences some transforming or changing in herself, "to the credit of human nature, that, except where its selfishness is brought into play, it loves more readily than it hates. Hatred, by a gradual and quiet process, will even be transformed to love, unless the change be impeded by a continually new irritation of the original feeling of hostility" (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 156). This transformation in Hester, from anger or resentment to love, is a clear display of transcendentalism. She can experience the beauty of love due to good human nature, reflecting transcendentalist ideology. Because of her transformation and her innately good character, Hester never stops helping those who are destitute or sick around her, "Except for that small expenditure in the decoration of her infant, Hester bestowed all her superfluous means in charity, on wretches less miserable than herself, and who not unfrequently insulted the hand that feed them...she employed in making coarse garments for the poor..." (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 80). It should be noted that her kind-hearted actions are not required or imposed by the law, as she is shunned

by society and even looked down by people whom she helps. Her “human tenderness,” a prominent transcendentalist characteristic, causes the town people to begin to appreciate her charity work; they see the change in the meaning of the fiery letter A on her chest, from “Adultery” to “Able” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 158). They proudly talk about her to newcomers to town; and the town leaders also start to propose the removing of her sign of punishment, the scarlet letter A, from her chest after only seven years (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 165). Hester’s decision to openly acknowledge her sin allows her to keep it from destroying her from the inside, to move on with life, to seek forgiveness, and to flourish as an “able” and caring individual in society – thereby increasing the worth of herself and her societal standing.

### C. *Living Close to Nature*

Living on the outskirts of town with Pearl, surrounded by nature - the sea and the woods, Hester also starts to learn about herself, “She had wandered, without rule or guidance, in a moral wilderness...Her intellect and heart had their home, as it were, in desert places...For years past she had looked from this estranged point of view at human institutions...The tendency of her fate and fortune had been to set her free” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 196). Because of her acquired freedom of thought or of speculation, she can comfortably advise her lover, Reverend Dimmesdale, of the various actions he can take to reduce his guilt and sufferings after she discloses to him that Chillingworth is the assumed entity of her long-lost husband (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 193).

It is in the forest, or nature, where Hester and Dimmesdale reconnect their feelings for each other - and nature responds with a burst of sunshine to celebrate “the bliss of the two spirits! Love...” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 199). Here in the deep forest, Hester and Dimmesdale can put down their guard, reclaim their deep love toward each other, and agree to escape together to England to begin their life anew, “Do I feel joy again...O Hester, thou art my better angel!...This is already a better life! Why did we not find it sooner?” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 198). This special moment shows that society-imposed formal institutions such as government and religion collapse in the heart of this couple deeply in love. Seven long years of immense guilt and harsh punishment imposed by society cannot change them and cannot deter them from committing their “sin” again, out of love.

The woods, the seaside, and the nature surrounding Hester and Pearl are also the places where the innocent Pearl is free to express herself, “The truth seems to be, however, that the mother-forest, and these wild things, which it nourished, all recognized a kindred wildness in the human child. And she was gentler here than in the grassy-margined streets of the settlement, or in her mother’s cottage,” to develop her free-spirit character, and to become independent like her mother, “In the little chaos of Pearl’s characters, there might be seen emerging-and could have been, from the very first-the steadfast principles of an unflinching courage-an uncontrollable will-a sturdy price, which might be disciplined into self-respect...which she inherited from her mother must be great indeed...” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 176). Just like Hester, Pearl is a wonder because she is independent and is not corrupted by institutional rules and laws of society.

### D. *Acquiring Truth through Intuition*

In addition, Pearl becomes an observant child full of intuition because she somehow feels and guesses that Dimmesdale is her father without him admitting it or without her mother telling it to her. As a three-month old infant, Pearl instinctively responds to Dimmesdale’s voice at the first scaffold scene (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 65). As a three-year old child, she tenderly caresses Dimmesdale’s hand when the minister argues on her mother’s behalf to keep her (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 112). As a young girl, she asks Dimmesdale to hold her hand and her mother’s hand on the scaffold publicly at “noontide” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 149). At seven years old, she knows that the reason her mother wears a scarlet A on her chest is the same reason as the Reverend Dimmesdale puts his hand over his heart (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 175). She also hopes that Dimmesdale can go back from the meeting in the forest to town with her and her mother “hand in hand, we three together, into the town” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 208).

## IV. ANTI-TRANSCENDENTALIST ASPECTS OF *THE SCARLET LETTER*

As discussed above, in addition to transcendentalist aspects shown primarily in Hester and Pearl, anti-transcendentalist elements are also presented in Hawthorne’s famed novel. These elements include moral corruption, guilt, hatred, revenge, etc. that are expressed prominently in the characters of Dimmesdale and Chillingworth. These two characters represent aspects of anti-transcendentalism because Dimmesdale is a man of dignity and a religious Puritan minister, and Chillingworth is a rational man of high academic learning. In a way, Puritans are like anti-transcendentalists because they believe that humans are born sinners, predestined in the eyes of God.

### A. *Human Sin and Its Psychological Effects*

Dimmesdale’s decision to keep his sin a secret burdens him from the very beginning of the novel, at the first scaffold scene. He is found to have “an air about him, an apprehensive, a startled, a half-frightened look – as of a being who felt himself quite astray and at a loss in the pathway of human existence...” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 64). Dimmesdale’s straying from the path of human existence exemplifies the fear of his own sin, which makes up his dark moral corruption.

We know that Dimmesdale does not have the courage to admit his sin because he first refuses the older clergyman John Wilson's request to question Hester about the name of her fellow sinner. Later, at the governor's request that Dimmesdale must question Hester, he indirectly conveys to Hester that he does not have the courage to admit his sin, "Take heed how thou deniest to him-who, penchance, hath not the courage to grasp it for himself..." (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 65). In contrast to Hester, who embraces her sin to transform and grow the strength in her character, Reverend Dimmesdale does not have the bravery to face the consequences of his sin, which can be the death penalty under the Puritan rule.

Because Dimmesdale attempts to maintain his composure as a dignified religious leader, his guilt manifests as his health continuously deteriorates, and his self-respect is diminished throughout the novel. As time goes on, he is described as "emaciated; his voice, though still rich and sweet, had a certain melancholy prophecy of decay in it; he was often observed... to put his hand over his heat, with first a flush and then a paleness, indicating pain" (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 117). When Hester first sees Dimmesdale walking in the forest, "He looked haggard and feeble, and betrayed a nerveless despondency in his air" (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 184). He also personally admits to Hester, "...whatever of good capacity there originally was in me, all of God's gifts that were the choicest have become the ministers of spiritual torment. Hester, I am most miserable!" (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 187).

Except for the description of Dimmesdale's guilt and physical/emotional pain, readers learn nothing about the growth of Dimmesdale as a character, unlike Hester. He does not develop any valuable virtue out of his seven remorseful years, and he even admits to Hester that he has plenty of penance but does not achieve penitence (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 188). Despite Hester's complete devotion, Dimmesdale lacks courage, "Think for me, Hester. Thou art strong. Resolve for me" (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 192), honesty, and morality. Hiding behind the protection of his revered priesthood profession and social position as a result of Hester's courage, he even admits that children naturally do not like him (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 203). Young and innocent children have an instinct to recognize naturally good-hearted people. On the other hand, Dimmesdale knows that he has the magic power under the veil of pure and religious devotion to attract young women and virgins in his congregation, perhaps just like with Hester years ago when she was vulnerable at the time of her loneliness (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 215). Perhaps, Dimmesdale truly loves and admires Hester for her strength, because he refuses to take any virgin as his wife when suggested by the townspeople (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 122).

When Dimmesdale agrees to flee town with Hester (thereby committing another sin), he finds himself so liberated of the first burden that he has carried around for seven years that he wants to act out of his normally respectful character, by wanting to use profanity language on children or to flirt with virgin congregationalists of his church. This makes us question if his guilt or remorse for the past seven years is totally sincere. But the weight of his sin is not so easily purged, and he suddenly becomes very weak. After the Election sermon, he reveals his sin to the town and dies.

#### *B. Revenge as Dark Human Emotion and Conviction*

Another character with dominant anti-transcendentalist qualities in the novel is Chillingworth, the assumed entity of Hester's long-lost husband. Chillingworth is a highly learned man, and his sin is of different nature from Dimmesdale and Hester. His sin resides in his persistent vindictiveness toward Dimmesdale, which turns him into a devil because he absolutely refuses to forgive his wife's lover.

On the first day coming back to civilization after being kept by the native "Indians" for two years and upon learning of his wife's betrayal and shame, Chillingworth decides to hide his true entity from the Puritan town because he does not want to be known as the husband of a shameful woman (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 74). He forgives his wife and does not seek vengeance against her because he recognizes that there is a large difference in age between them and because of his deformity (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 71-72). However, he thinks that his wife's secret lover wrongs both of them, perhaps because Hester's lover's unconfessed sin denies her infant a father. Chillingworth then takes on a new mission "to look into the mystery" and find the hiding transgressor as he declares, "It irks me, nevertheless, that the partner of her iniquity should not, at least, stand on the scaffold by her side. But he will be known!" and "I shall seek this man as I have sought truth in books, as I have sought gold in alchemy. There is a sympathy that will make me conscious of him. I shall see him tremble...Sooner or later he must needs be mine!" (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 60-61 and 73).

With his great determination to revenge the hiding transgressor, Hester can feel the darkness in her husband's heart and wonders if her husband is actually like a devil - the Black Man. The anti-transcendentalist characteristic in Chillingworth manifests fully during the seven years after that fateful scaffold day, as Chillingworth relentlessly pursues his revenge, "He had begun an investigation, as he imagined, with the severe and equal integrity of a judge, desirous only of truth...He now dug into the poor clergyman's heart like a miner searching for gold; or rather, like a sexton delving into a grave" (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 125). Even after befriending Dimmesdale, learning about the minister's secret sin, and seeing him collapse under the tremendous guilt, Chillingworth misses no opportunity to mentally torment the poor minister and lengthen his misery, instead of disclosing the minister's sin (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 167).

A good-hearted man would have pardoned a guilt-ridden and repentant person like Dimmesdale, but Chillingworth refuses to do so. That causes the suffering minister to tell Hester, when he finds out about the true entity of Chillingworth: "We are not, Hester, the worst sinners in the world. There is one worse than even the polluted priest! That old man's revenge has been blacker than my sin. He has violated, in cold blood, the sanctity of a human heart.

Thou and I, Hester, never did so!” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 191). Dimmesdale is right in noting that relentless revenge is a sin that is worse than any other sin committed by human beings. It causes the pain and sufferings in people to perpetuate in eternity with no ending. Against humanity, revenge can kill the human heart, restricting the ability to love and to forgive.

### C. Devil in Physical Form

During this time, another anti-transcendental characteristic is seen in Chillingworth - that is he literally becomes a devil in physical form, “At first his expression had been calm, meditative, scholar-like. Now there was something ugly and evil in his face” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 124). Eventually Chillingworth’s evil becomes so invasive that the Puritan village and little Pearl could see the devil of the Black Man in him. Ironically, even Chillingworth notices that he himself has changed from a kind, trustworthy man with “constant if not warm affections” to a devil, as he admits it to Hester: “A mortal man, once with a human heart, has become a fiend for his especial torment!” (Hawthorne, 1850, p. 168-169). Although Chillingworth recognizes his own transformation, he refuses to change for the better and forgive Dimmesdale. As the minister Dimmesdale dies of his weakness and moral corruption, the devil Chillingworth dies within a year of Dimmesdale because he lacks the subject of his vile revenge.

## V. CONCLUSIONS

As addressed above, there are both transcendentalist and anti-transcendentalist aspects presented in this novel. Although the elements of “sin” and “evil” are pervasive in the story, this book ends on an optimistic note about human nature - highlighting the basis of transcendentalism. It is interesting to find out in the conclusion of this story that although Chillingworth harbors immense hatred and relentlessly pursues torturous revenge toward Reverend Dimmesdale, he has enough empathy and tender feelings for the little innocent Pearl to leave all his great fortune in New England and Great Britain to help the child of his eternal enemy. This generous action from the old and deformed husband that Hester hates and betrays is astounding, considering that Hester’s lover Dimmesdale does not even help Hester raise Pearl and leaves Pearl with nothing after this death.

It is also noteworthy to see that the main characters who espouse the anti-transcendentalist point of view all die off in the novel after seven or eight years: Dimmesdale of his own tormenting guilt and Chillingworth of his incessant hatred toward his perceived enemy. Meanwhile, the transcendentalist characters like Hester and Pearl continue to flourish and prosper in their own way. Across the Atlantic Ocean, well-to-do Pearl is described as having a good and possibly aristocratic family life to be able to send her mother valuable gifts with armorial seals to comfort her. And when Hester comes back to the Puritan village that initially shunned and alienated her, she continues to comfort and counsel the suffering people around her, until the day she dies and is buried alongside with her lover. While Chillingworth and Dimmesdale display human possibilities of committing evil acts and self-destruction, Hester and Pearl represent the human capability for healing, surviving, and thriving. Perhaps Hawthorne is suggesting to future generations that although human nature is both good or bad, goodness will always prevail.

## REFERENCES

- [1] Applebaum, L. (2008). The Scarlet Letter: Deadly nightshade, dogwood, and henbane. *The Herbarist* 74, 30-33.
- [2] Bloom, H. (2011). Bloom’s Guides: The Scarlet Letter – New Edition. New York: Infobase Publishing.
- [3] Gao, J. et al. (2014). The influence of Puritanism on the sin and punishment in *The Scarlet Letter*. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences* 4(27), 175-179.
- [4] Goodman, R. (2017). Transcendentalism. *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (Summer 2017 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (ed.) <https://plato.stanford.edu/archives/sum2107/entries/transcendentalism> (Accessed 11/30/2017).
- [5] Habich, R. and R. Nowatzki (2010). *Research Guide to American literature: Romanticism and Transcendentalism 1820-1865*. New York: Facts on File, Inc.
- [6] Hariyanti, T. and D. Nurhayati. (2017). Pearl in Hawthorne’s the Scarlet Letter: a socio-religious perspective. *Arab World English Journal* 1(1), 65-78.
- [7] Hawthorne, N. (1850). *The Scarlet Letter*. Illinois, USA: Perma-Bound International. Published in 1988.
- [8] Hunt, C. (2009). The persistence of theocracy: Hawthorne’s *The Scarlet Letter*. *Perspectives on Political Science* 38(1), 25-32.
- [9] Khan, J. (1984). Atropine poisoning in Hawthorne’s *The Scarlet Letter*. *The New England Journal of Medicine* 311 (6), 414-416.
- [10] Kumar, R. (2016). Socio-cultural patterns of privacy and interconnections in Hawthorne’s *The Scarlet Letter*. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Approach and Studies* 3(5), 101-112.
- [11] Lei, N. (2015). A brief study on the symbolic meaning of the main characters’ names in *The Scarlet Letter*. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 5(10), 2164-2168.
- [12] Manzari, A. (2012). Contextual American transcendentalism. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 2(9), 1792-1801.
- [13] Strong, T. (2017). Hawthorne, the politics of sin, and Puritanism. *Telos*. Spring 178, 121-142.
- [14] Stuart, J.W. (no date). Christian Imagery in Hawthorne’s The Scarlet Letter. <http://www.hawthorneinsalem.org/ScholarsForum/MMD1824.html> (accessed 12/30/2017).
- [15] Taylor, C. (2005). Moralism and morally accountable beings. *Journal of Applied Philosophy* 22(2), 153-160.
- [16] Trepanier, L. (2003). The need for renewal: Nathaniel Hawthorne’s conservatism. *Modern Age* 45(4), 315-323.
- [17] Wang, Y. (2010). A representative of the new female image – Analyzing Hester Prynne’s feminist consciousness in *The Scarlet Letter*.

*Letter. Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 1(6), 893-897.

- [18] Walsh, C.M. (2009). Nathaniel Hawthorne with His Biblical Context. PhD Dissertation. University of Nevada. <https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/thesedissertations/1115/> (Accessed 12/30/2017).
- [19] Young, R.V. (2007). Individual and Community in *The Scarlet Letter*. *The Intercollegiate Review*, 32-40.



**Noor** (meaning Light) **Mahini** (full name Ramtin Noor-Tehrani Mahini) was born in October 2001 in Berkeley, CA and is currently a junior at Acalanes High School in Lafayette, CA, USA. Noor has been a high-achieving student since middle school, excelling in computers, math, and science. He applies his deep critical thinking in most things he does, especially in writing English essays and in conducting a small climate change research project awarded by the Acalanes Parents Club at school. Raised by first-generation immigrant parents (Ramtin T. and Xuangga, who received PhD/engineering and MPH/toxicology, respectively, from University of California, Berkeley), Noor's life purpose is to develop a morally respectable character and to become a responsible, devoted citizen to his people/his country and an advocate for human rights.

Noor is a third degree black belt in Tae Kwon Do and enjoys tennis and golf. He is currently doing long-term volunteer work at Youth Tennis Advantage (YTA) to assist children with academics and tennis. Although he loves piano, he is better in viola as he has been playing viola in school orchestras for 5 years. Regardless of what his future college major and career aspiration may be, his life goal is to help make this world a better place.



**Erin Barth** received her Bachelor's and Master's degrees as well as her teaching credential from University of California, Davis, USA.

She is currently an English teacher at Acalanes High School in Lafayette, CA. She lives with her husband Ben, daughter Madeline, and their two Boxers Fletcher and Calvin.

Mrs. Barth enjoys going the extra mile for her students. She is always willing to spend time after school in order to help her students improve their writing skills and develop their appreciation for literature.

# Perception and Experience of Teacher Educators about Their Motivation: A Case Study Approach

Zafarullah Sahito

School of Applied Educational Science and Teacher Education, Philosophical Faculty, University of Eastern Finland, Joensuu, Finland;  
IBA University, Airport Road, Sukkur, Sindh, Pakistan

Pertti Vaisanen

School of Applied Educational Science and Teacher Education, Philosophical Faculty, University of Eastern Finland, Joensuu, Finland

**Abstract**—This study was designed to explore the perception and experiences of motivation of teacher educators of the universities of Sindh province of Pakistan. The data was collected and analysed through case study approach, the qualitative research design and thematic-narrative analysis technique. The total twenty-one teacher educators revealed their stories in the form of narratives about their motivation. The findings of this article would be found suitable, authentic and reliable resource, which would be an excellent addition in to the existing literature of motivation in order to understand the phenomenon, its process and causations.

**Index Terms**—motivation, case study, thematic-narrative analysis, teacher educators

## I. INTRODUCTION

Motivation term frequently used as the psychological concept in the culture in any organisation (Maehr & Mayer, 1997), which revolves around the physiological and psychological needs of employees in order to activate their behaviour (Okumbe, 1998) through some processes of moving (Webster's, 2002) to achieve the goals and incentives (Hornby, 2000) through encouragement of the behavior of subordinates (Balunywa, 2003). It is an act and a process to get involvement, attachment and commitment to perform any activity or assignment honestly, actively, positively and sincerely for the benefits of all stakeholders. It explains the behaviour of individuals consists of actions, desires and needs concern with the reality and truth, which directs the behavior, its causes of the repetition and vice versa through the development of preference for specific behavior (Pardee, 1990). The internal and external factors are important to stimulate the desires and energy of employees to become interested and committed to their job and roles to achieve the goals. Whereas, the motivation plays a vital role closely related to the student interest, educational reforms, teaching practice and teachers' well-being (Han & Yin, 2016) through the interaction of both conscious and unconscious factors.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the perception and experience of TEs about their motivation at their respective departments. It was tried to know about the feelings of the TEs about their job activities and engagements and the enhancement of their job activities and engagement positively. As the motivation is positively correlated with choice, achievement (Legault et al. 2006) and responsibility (Daniels & Arapostathis, 2005) to make employee satisfied and cool to get in in their work with high interest. In this regards, Three research questions were designed to explore the answers from the data of TEs such as (a). What is the perception of TEs about motivation? (b). How TEs perceive the motivation in their personal and professional life? (c). How TEs experience the motivation at their working place?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation is a complexed term having no consensus to understand (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2001). Hereford, it is differentiated through two aspects such as initial motivation concerned with the reasons for deciding to do something and sustain motivation, refers to the effort for sustaining to do something (Williams & Burden, 1997). The definition of motivation that makes researchers to agree consists of the direction and magnitude of human behaviour, which can be described to teach and remain in the profession (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Generally, motivation is the combination of intrinsic and extrinsic actions, which are concerned with internal and external factors respectively. As intrinsic motivation consists of actions from inside the person that positively affects the behavior, performance and well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000a) of employees. It exists, increases and improves the behavior of an employee to perform well for internal self-satisfaction concerned with the expression and feelings of personal desires or values (Lashway, 2001). It can be encouraged through freedom and trust of employees to appreciate their abilities, intentions and efforts (Ryan & Deci, 2000b) to catalyse their students to become satisfied to work with autonomy, competence and relatedness (Ryan and Deci, 2000a; Medved, 1982), as it plays a vital role in teachers' motivation in China (Tang, 2011). Because the performance approach, goal orientation, reflective thinking, intrinsic motivation and control-expectancy belief were



found associated with the mastery of goal orientation and achievement (Malmberg, 2008) among Finnish and Swedish teachers. Whereas, the extrinsic motivation is connected with external rewards such as salary or pay (Armstrong, 1996), free accommodation, free meals, material assets, positive evaluations, weekly paid duty, extra teaching allowances, advance payments and loans, leave encashment and medical facilities or allowances. The pay is most important and powerful motivating factor, increase and enhancement in it, which creates and enhances the satisfaction and motivation among teachers that influence their performance (Kiseesi, 1998; Wayne, 1998) directly. As extrinsic motivation is associated with the performance of an activity in order to achieve required results through some rewards and awards such as salary or wages. Although the activity might be difficult, boring and unpleasant, but the activity can be made worthwhile and interesting through different types of rewards (Lashway, 2001). While, raised in teaching or workload increase the dissatisfaction and demotivation among teachers. Whereas, in private institutions the financial payoff is given to teachers for teaching extra classes (Ward, Penny & Read, 2006) to increase their satisfaction and motivation. As Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory explains that teachers willingly dedicate their energies and time to institutional obligations if they are given sufficient salary and financial benefits to feed, shelter and protect their families well (Kavarlemo, 2000) that provide them the assurance of security and sustainability to pursue the organisational goals (Ouma, 2007) for further economic development.

### III. METHODOLOGY

The qualitative research design was employed, revolving around epistemological and ontological (Crotty, 1998) assumptions of philosophy, supported by interpretivism and epistemological constructionism, which means the reality is multiple and multidimensional and the knowledge is constructed and a subjective in nature (Creswell, 2009) respectively. The data was collected through semi-structured interviews from the sample of TEs, who were approached through their heads of department and organisation, friends and friends of friends, as to get first hand real and true primary data. The sampling approach was used to keep and maintain the confidence with TEs in order to avoid from any disturbance. The short description and explanation of the concept or the topic was shared and discussed with the sample of TEs before conduction of every interview. The list of characterizing traits was used as the criteria for judgement of the quality for reliability, validity and usability of the study (Sparkes & Smith, 2009, 2014), followed by the steps suggested by Tracy (2010). Furthermore, the identical numbers were assigned to each TE in order to keep confidential their identity and the interviews data (Shaw & Gould, 2001). Because the case study with thematic-narrative analysis, the qualitative research is better suited to delineate the personal meanings of the narrated sentences depending on the vast, huge and in-depth experiences of the participants without losing any richness and genuineness of the responses and said statements (Flick, 1998; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

A case study approach was used for the study followed by the thematic-narrative analysis, to collect and analyse the data. The case study research is an empirical inquiry to investigate the contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context through using single or multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 1984) with the adaptation of multiple-case design. While, narrative inquiry is suitable and strong tool to employ as an analysis tool in the fields of organisational, educational studies, etc. to transmit the subjective experiences to captures the correct human and personal experiences and their relationship between individual experiences and cultural context (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). It focus on the content of stories and their meanings depending on reality, socially and culturally constructed knowledge, differences and texture of experiences (Polkinghorne, 1995) to convert the said dialogues or narratives in to the real meaning through analysis (Riessman, 2008). As the narrative analysis treats stories as a knowledge creator tool and technique to constitute the social reality of a narrator (Etherington, 2004), conducted with personal (Etherington, 2006, 2000; Wosket, 1999) or with other's clients (Etherington, 2007) or sample to use for summative type of studies (Muylaert, Júnior, Gallo, Neto & Reis, 2014). The criteria of narrative inquiry and analysis consisting of preparation, initialization, main narration, questioning and small talk (Jovchelovich & Bauer, 2002) phases. The limitations of this study included TEs fears of being recorded their interviews, which led to a decision not to record the interviews on audio or video tapes. Then the important statements and their details were recorded and then transcribed in detail just after the completion of the interviews in order not to miss any bit of information.

For this study forty (n=40) participants were recruited through the snowball and purposive sampling techniques to collect the in-depth, true and real data through semi-structured interviews. As, the number of research sample may be several and ranging from one (1) to thirty (30) or forty (40) to report properly (Creswell, 2012) in well manner try to cover most of the aspects. The recruited sample of TEs was consists of nineteen (19) male and twenty one (21) female, which were recruited from the seven (7) universities of the province of Sindh, Pakistan, consist of fourteen (14) teacher education departments. There were three (3) large universities consisting of more than fifty departments, institutes and centers each. While, four (4) small, young and newly established universities consist more than five (5) departments each.

### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The interviews provide a great opportunity to listen the different and attractive professional stories of TEs. The twenty one (21) stories of TEs were found impressive to produce authentic primary data for this study to analyse as

narratives and then to produce themes. The names of TEs were kept confidential as per promised agreement done before conducting the interview(s). The important informative said narratives were recorded, selected and coded, to use for the analysis of the study consist of the perception and experience of their motivational process at their departments.

#### *A. Perception of TEs about Motivation*

The definition and description of motivation was extracted from the views (perception) of the TEs that motivation is a desire, willingness and intention that stimulate the energy or behaviour of employees to work with interest, dedication and commitment to achieve the organisational goals. It revolves around the conscious and unconscious factors such as the passion of needs, value of incentives and the expectations of the employees. It consists of actions, desires and needs of the employees, which gives the direction to their behavior towards the positiveness, achievement and success. Motivation is process to unite the employees to make their efforts in one particular direction for the betterment of organisation and concerned stakeholders. It is connecting force, which bring all stakeholders on the same page to put their efforts as input to make working environment and process powerful to bring radical reforms in order to achieve the organisational goals.

#### *B. Motivation Perceived and Experienced by TEs in Their Personal and Professional Life*

TEs perceived the motivation in their personal and professional life as motivation as respect and personal initiation; motivation as discipline in life; motivation as need fulfilment (earning to deal with family expenditures); motivation as self-realization and self-satisfaction; motivation as model consideration and inspiration; and motivation as social services. While, motivation in professional life is perceived as motivation as job security; motivation as readiness to accept any assignment; motivation as work and time management; motivation as dedication, commitment, delivery and performance; motivation as students' satisfaction and their support; motivation as social relationship and interaction; motivation as responsibilities and duties; motivation as professional growth and development; motivation as scholarship and authority; motivation as self-assessment and self-evaluation. The detailed description and narration of the themes is as under.

##### *1. Motivation as respect and personal initiative*

Motivation as respect and personal initiative was considered by 67% TEs, which help the employees to take personal initiatives to work well in their respective organisation. Respect describes the status, position and rank of TEs in an organisation, community and society. As the TE (11) said that "Respect inspires, motivates and makes TEs to feel proud about their profession, as teaching profession considered as a prophetic profession to teach the students to be a good human beings". Whereas, desire for respect and status is a fundamental right that motivate TEs to work for the betterment of the people as they respect them a lot. The rank of TEs is directly linked with the authority and power to fulfill their responsibilities to benefit the people as they receive the respect (An, 2015) from them. As they want and struggle for a higher status that to be respected by the majority of the people as subjective well-being (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Niemiec & Ryan, 2009; Ryan, Chirkov, Little, Sheldon, Timoshina & Deci, 1999; Twenge & Campbell, 2002). The raising of rank, position and status fulfil the psychological, social and esteem-related needs and requirements of TEs to work with high motivation in their professional organisational climate for lifelong success and achievement.

##### *2. Motivation as the discipline in life*

Motivation as the discipline in life was by 43% of TEs, which is a process to attract the employees to work with sincerity and honesty. As it became the permanent routine (discipline) in their life, which appreciate them to work without fear of injustice, inequality and inequity. As TE (37) said that "Routine of fulfilling the responsibility of work by TEs create discipline in their lives that increased their sense of duty to complete their work to be a permanent employee of a reputable organisation with transparency". Because, transparency is considered as a fundamental driver of efficiency to create value in any organisation (Berggren & Bernshteyn, 2007), which enable the employees to achieve the aims and objective. Whereas, the discipline saves the time of the employees to manage their routine activities well in advance.

##### *3. Motivation as need fulfilment*

Motivation as need fulfilment means earning to deal with family expenditures was accepted and believed by 91% of TEs. As TE (2) said that "Motivation of TEs is created, maintained and increased through need fulfilment, which is directly related to the earnings to meet and deal with family expenditures in order to keep family members happy. TEs work with high willingness to earn for their family especially for need and requirements of their children such as education, pocket money, food, housing, etc." This statement support the Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, which states that people are motivated by five basic needs such as physiological, safety and security, belongingness, love, self-esteem, and self-actualization needs. The Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a genuine and sincere explanation for the motivation of human behaviour (Rauschenberger, Schmitt & Hunter, 1980) to change employees behaviour (Cangemi, 2009), even though each employee has its own motivational behaviour (Redmond, 2010). However, persons degenerates towards the lower needs to achieve satisfaction (Borkowski, 2009; Redmond, 2010) for their family and their selves. The second side of the coin is the financial and fringe benefits in the shape of salary or good wages and other allowances. The financial benefits help employees to fulfill the needs of their family in order to live a happy life

that make connections between motivations and rewards (Galanaki, 2013; Mok & Siddique, 2011; Owolabi, Ajiboye, Bakare, Bello, Omotoso & Adeleke, 2013).

#### 4. *Motivation as self-realization and self-satisfaction*

Motivation as self-realization and self-satisfaction was considered by 64% of TEs. As TE (18) said that, "Some TEs have a high level of self-realization to work in their department for the benefits of their students and personal growth and development, which increase their work performance with the passage of time". Self-realization creates self-satisfaction among TEs as TE (8) said that, "Self-realization provides me the peace and rest of mind to work hard, which make me able to achieve some awards and rewards of best teacher in department that gives me immense pleasure and self-satisfaction that increase my level of motivation". Self-satisfaction bring internal and external appreciation to perform well that the ultimate desire of human nature to be valued (Ndungu, 2017) and satisfy the higher self-esteem, which brings more confidence, willingness and eagerness to be innovative (Mason, 2001) for substantially (Alam, Saeed, Sahabuddin & Akter, 2013).

#### 5. *Motivation as model consideration and inspiration*

Motivation as model consideration and inspiration was considered by 71% of TEs. As TE (21) said that, "Motivated TEs are respected and liked by their students as role model because they inspire their students by their attitude, knowledge and socialization". These TEs mentor their students with soft, social and loving attitude to learn a lot in order to bring their good grades and success. As another TE (23) said that, "TEs inspire their students, which works as a motivating factor to work hard through some discussions and suggestions to overcome the problems and issues". The acquired inspiration creates passion, dedication and commitment among students to get high success in their life, which has a direct and strong bond with team spirit to be distinguished (Han, Yin & Wang, 2015) to achieve their aims and objectives (Mart, 2013). As the best leaders (teachers) invest their time and energy to coach their students for better performance through sitting, mingling and discussing as team members. In the way, the performance of students and colleagues increased through learning the essential leadership skills to inspire others and to achieve the organisational goals (Hudson, 2013). Because committed and inspired employees remained more productive, stay with the organisation longer and deliver their best (Sammons, Kington, Lindorff-Vijayendran & Ortega, 2014) for their students and organisational success.

#### 6. *Motivation as social services*

Motivation as social services was considered by 75% of TEs. As TE (32) said that, "The motivation of TEs increased when they serve as social actors to discuss the different things with other teachers, parents and students than their own. TEs feel happy and satisfied when the teachers and parents used to come to get some suitable suggestions for the betterment of studies of their students and children respectively from the TEs". TEs help the people with their personal matters and issues as social services to society and humanity such as guidance and counseling sessions. As another TE (20) said that, "The motivation of TEs increased when they help the common people and especially the needy ones who need physical, social and psychological help". Getting the opportunity to support any one physically, socially and psychologically to solve their issues and problems is considered as the blessing, which make the TEs happy and satisfied that bring increase in their motivation extrinsically and intrinsically to work and learn new things (Park, 2011) to maintain their motivation based on their personal satisfaction, wants and needs (Ganta, 2014).

#### 7. *Motivation as job security*

Motivation as job security was considered by 62% of TEs. As TE (23) said that, "TEs like so much the job security at their department, which is the only fundamental factor to make employees purely satisfied, cool and relax to work well for successful professional life". Job security is considered the prime key factor of TEs motivation, which works as the safeguard to protect the employees from any unwanted happenings to maintain the healthy life and environment in their organisation(s). The pleasant environment, friendly management, good salary package, organisational justice, career opportunities and job security (Okpara & Wynn, 2008) were found the uppermost factors of satisfaction and motivation of teachers. Because, job security support the employees to be strong in order to face and solve the different issues and problems (Iverson, 1996; Morris, Lydka & O'Creevy, 1993) to become a more productive resource. Whereas, job insecurity creates fear, worry and uncertainty (Ashford, Lee & Bobko, 1989) to decrease the performance (Bolt, 1983; Mooney, 1984; Rosow & Zager, 1985) of the employees that lead towards the organisational injustice that decrease the organisational productivity (Imran, Majeed & Ayub, 2015).

#### 8. *Motivation as readiness*

Motivation as readiness to accept any assignment was considered by 61% of TEs. As TEs (3) said that, "Motivation is readiness, which creates the interest among TEs to accept the tasks to work well through internal whole hearted feelings and energies". Readiness means willingness and agreement to accept any assignment to work for the betterment of students and organisation. Because willingness and interest to work help the employees a lot to make them cheer to perform their tasks and assignments. As the interest for work means the readiness, which was found as the central and essential factor to boost up the employees motivation at their department and organisation (Harpaz, 1990; Kovach, 1987; Lindner, 1998; Safiullah, 2015) to perform effectively and identically.

#### 9. *Motivation as work and time management*

Motivation as work and time management was considered by 56% of TEs. As TE (30) said that, "Motivation is available in work and the management of time, which can be managed through proper planning and organising

continuously". Work and management of time are essential factors of motivation of the TEs, which help them to progress well in their professional life. As another TE (27) said that, "TEs remain more motivated who manage their time as per work and assignment and they priorities them as per importance and closing dead line". The understanding and practice of work and time management provide a good sense and humor to TEs to complete their assignments well. The main resources of good working are comprised of all time availability of human and material resources to support the performance (Chandrasekar, 2011; Naharuddin & Sadegi, 2013) of employees in order to get success and achievement. It supported by the both physical and psychosocial components to increase performance (Chandrasekar, 2011) with incentives that have positive impact on employee's motivation and performance (Khan, Azhar, Parveen, Naeem & Sohail, 2011).

#### *10. Motivation as dedication, commitment, delivery and performance*

Motivation as dedication, commitment, delivery and performance was considered and accepted by 72% of TEs. As TE (28) said that, "Motivation comes from the trust between administration and TEs, which brings dedication, commitment, delivery and performance. Trust can be created through involvement and participation of TEs in all types of planning, policy designing and their implementation and decision making process". The employees participation and trust development is very much important factor of human resource management, which the employees' empowerment (Uma, 2015). As the high participation of employees in decision making process is associated with significantly higher competence, impact and self-determination (Emamgholizadeh, Matin & Razavi, 2011), which support and ensure the ownership among employees to stay with and work hard with dedication and commitment to deliver their best for their organisation. Confidence is increase due to empowerment to work with freedom through taking suitable decisions in the mutual favour and benefits of the organisation and all concerned stakeholders. Because the decision making power and experience increase the level of confidence, trust and belief among employees, which create the commitment, dedication, trustworthy, high motivation, satisfaction and innovation among human resources (Elnaga & Imran, 2014) to bring success and achievement in the organisation.

#### *11. Motivation as students' satisfaction and their support*

Motivation as students' satisfaction and their support was considered and accepted by 65% of TEs. As TE (19) said that, "Motivation as students' satisfaction and their support is revolving around the availability of good human and material resources, their dealing and social interaction, mutual understanding and regular teaching learning process make students satisfy and motivated". Here the students' satisfaction and motivation is interrelated and interconnected with the qualified teaching staff, suitable material resources and the social interaction of all staff, which has positive effect (Chi-Ho, 2015) on their progress. As Chinese culture prioritizes the collective benefits that is why the organisational missions are viewed as greater than personal needs (Chi-Ho, 2015) and requirements. As students' satisfaction was found directly connected with their teacher motivation, which has a rich diverse history (Hsu, 2003) and depending on fair dealing and mutual understanding and respect connected with individuals' behavior (Porter, Bigley & Steers, 2003; Steers & Porter, 1991). Whereas, the individual behaviour is a dynamic, which follows the process to be a successful resource of any organisation, community and society. TEs listen the matters and issues of their students and support them through suitable suggestions and advices. They are supported through practical work in their subjects' areas such as pedagogy, andragogy, management, curriculum, psychology, etc.

#### *12. Motivation as social relationship and interaction*

Motivation as social relationship and interaction was considered and accepted by 67% of TEs. As TE (1) said that, "Basically, motivation is a social relationship and interaction depending on mutual respect, which is especially given by the management and students to their teachers". Respect is found here a great bound among the main stakeholders to work with motivation and friendly feelings. As another TE (10) said that, "Mutual respect, discussion and collective decision making make the working team and department successful". All TEs and staff members were found equal in working team to fulfil their own duties and responsibilities. It consisting of respect to each other except any designation and grade in all perspectives across the multidisciplinary group, which create the collaboration among all members and leadership (Adams, Cain, Giraud & Stedman, 2012) in order to bring positive change (Fiore, 2008) for development. Emotional attachment based on respect and help was found a strong social relationship to bring all stakeholders of a team closure to each other to implement the instructions (Jiang, 2010) to achieve the organisational objectives.

#### *13. Motivation as responsibilities and duties*

Motivation as responsibilities and duties was considered and accepted by 69% of TEs. As TE (14) said that, "Taking responsibilities and duties at work itself a motivation, which creates a fun to work well. Furthermore, the active involvement in work gives me an insight of complete all assignments properly well in time to progress for betterment of all". The fulfilment of responsibilities and duties make enable the employees to progress well, which make them capable to implement their own ideas with liberty (Leach & Westbrook, 2000; Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2003). Because the responsible employees perform their job accurately and learn new things to implement in a better way in their team and group of professionals. Whereas, during working in group the trust building and management is produced that increased the confidence level and developed the positive relationships among TEs and their heads, which increased the interest and responsibility, dedication and commitment (Han, Yin & Wang, 2016), curiosity and trustworthy (Bijlsma & Koopman, 2003) among all stakeholders to manage their conflict (Chan, Huang & Ng, 2008) and avoid any trouble (Ertürk, 2010). Because trust forms the foundation for effective communication, retention,

motivation and contributions of energy to solve real work issues; review progress; build fun and shared experiences; and celebrate group successes and achievement publicly.

#### *14. Motivation as professional growth and development*

Motivation as professional growth and development was considered and accepted by 66% of TEs. As TE (29) said that, "Professional growth and development is a major area that motivate the majority of faculty members at university level. In this regards, the trainings and workshops have prominent value at this level and place, which are the core areas to advance the career through skill development". Professional growth and development are modern methods and techniques to advance the career and professional development that keep the high needs, requirement, and priorities from employees to be in their profession. These needs and requirements attract, motivate and retain the talented people (Choudhary, 2016) to remain responsible to arrange, organise, design and produce the finishing product of high quality. For this, the advancement in knowledge, skills and disposition is needed to enhance the TEs performance by increasing their satisfaction and motivation level through enhancement of their professional growth and development of their job (Saleem, Shaheen & Saleem, 2012). Because, the training, career development and organisational commitment have positive effect on employee's job satisfaction and motivation (Kayal & Ceylan, 2014), which facilitate and provide the opportunities to get their promotion well in time. Whereas, the career advancement is the prime technique and factor of job design that increase the motivational level of employees (Sushil, 2014) to achieve the work life balance and sustainability.

#### *15. Motivation as cognitive competence, scholarship and authority*

Motivation as cognitive competence, scholarship and authority was considered and accepted by 58% of TEs. As TE (15) said that, "Motivation plays a vital role to increase the willingness of the TEs to work hard to study and research about their respective field and interested topics to learn a lot. This learning increase dimensions the thinking and rethinking to get more information about the particular research topic in order to get more wisdom means cognitive competence". While, wisdom and cognitive competence increase the scholarship (means knowledge, understanding and its utilization for development and problem solution) of the researchers (TEs), which make them authority in their particular research areas with the passage of time especially, when research scholars interact with information in the World Wide Web (WWW) to share their research ideas and solutions. Because it consists of predictive and evaluative judgment (Rieh & Belkin, 2000) to bring positive, real and true solutions for humanity. Whereas, the characteristics of information objects and sources, knowledge, and situation were found the influencing factors to do judgment about quality and authority (Rieh & Belkin, 2000), which bring high quality scholarship and wisdom among researchers. Because the cognitive competence do influence the educational attainment (Dalen, Hjern, Lindblad, Odenstad, Ramussen & Vinnerljung, 2008) and motivate the teachers and their students to work hard for the scholarship and authority. That is why the potential neglect is being placed in the institutions with insufficient resources for stimulating the students' development (Gunnar & Kertes, 2005; Johnson, 2002; Rutter, 2005), which would be converted in to competence, scholarship and then authority. Because today's students is tomorrow's teacher, TE, researcher, etc.

#### *16. Motivation as self-assessment and self-evaluation*

Motivation as self-assessment and self-evaluation was considered and accepted by 64% of TEs. As TE (7) said that, "Motivation is a realisation of self-assessment and self-evaluation and vice versa. It may be product and may be process of self-assessment and self-evaluation". Because the self-assessment and self-evaluation are term used interchangeably and is a process to know the self- image, self-respect and self-progress in the perception of others through observation and the collection of views especially from the students about their teachers. As self-assessment is defined as the focused attention to some aspect of behavior or thinking (Schunk, 2004), which is also known as self-judgment that identifies the progress toward performance depending on standards and criteria that what has been known and what is need to learn or do to retain and progress in the organisation. Whereas, the self-assessment means to engage individuals about their own learning and working means to evaluate their own work for the sake of improvement (McMillian & Hearn, 2008), which is necessary for the TEs to be motivated employees towards the improvement and inspiration. It may be prepare individuals for lifelong learning and working because it is the ability to self-critique and to reflect on their performance in order to meeting the requirements or not (Johnson & Gelfand, 2013). Self-assessment is a scientific technique and tool, which create realisation among TEs to critique as to perform better than last time and spare their place and respect in their department. Because self-assessment of TEs or teachers has direct link with the students' training to become experts as self-assessing in order to create intellectual growth and life-long learners (Logan, 2015).

The cumulative percentage scores are collected, added, divided and multiplied in order to find out the average cumulative mean percentage of the group in order to triangulate the explored percentage of satisfaction and motivation level by Diagonal model of job satisfaction and motivation (DMJSM). As DMJSM revealed that, the range of both approaches is from 58 to 61, which is 60% in round figure. The 60% agreement of an employee or group shows him or them as satisfied and motivated with his or their job. Whereas, the agreement percentage less than 60% indicates dissatisfaction, and agreement of higher than 72% means the employee is highly satisfied and 90% or more than that is extremely satisfied (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017). The details of the percentage is given in the table.1 as follows.

TABLE.1  
CUMULATIVE PERCENTAGE OF WHOLE GROUP

S#	Perceived Experience	Percentage
01	Motivation as respect and personal initiative	67%
02	Motivation as the discipline in life	43%
03	Motivation as need fulfilment	91%
04	Motivation as self-realization and self-satisfaction	64%
05	Motivation as model consideration and inspiration	71%
06	Motivation as social services	75%
07	Motivation as job security	62%
08	Motivation as readiness	61%
09	Motivation as work and time management	56%
10	Motivation as dedication, commitment, delivery and performance	72%
11	Motivation as students' satisfaction and their support	65%
12	Motivation as social relationship and interaction	67%
13	Motivation as responsibilities and duties	69%
14	Motivation as professional growth and development	66%
15	Motivation as cognitive competence, scholarship and authority	58%
16	Motivation as self-assessment and self-evaluation	64%
Average cumulative percentage of whole group (Sum total) 1051 divided by (Grand total) 1600 multiply by 100 for %		65.69%

The Average cumulative percentage of whole group is found 65.69%, which shows the initial level of satisfaction and motivation that is about 60% (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017). In this connection, the majority of the explored statement and narratives support the finding of the content and process theories but majority of the narratives are supporting the content or need theories of JSM. The majority of TEs thinking is that the job is necessary for them, which is a combination of rights, duties and responsibilities (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2016) in order to support their family and save them from poverty, disrespect, ignorance and inferiority complexes (Parveen, Sahito, Gopang & Khamboh, 2015). That is why they try to work in their organisation even though they are fully satisfied or not with the majority of the factors such as organisational conditions, environments, rules and their proper implementation. Because, there is a huge unemployment and poverty in the country and people are facing many issues and problems in their daily life due to unemployment, political instability, terrorisms, extremism, unethical and negative students and teachers political movements in educational institutions to support gangsterism and blackmailism. No fully transparent systems are available in any educational institutions and the institutions are hijacked by many pressure groups, which are supported by in power political parties, fear flourishing political parties, bureaucracy and gangster groups. Therefore, it can be said that majority of TEs are satisfied and motivated due to their responsibilities and commitments towards their families, communities and internal feelings towards the teaching profession. The another reason is that the teachers have less opportunities to move to another job due to less salary, facilities, respect and peace of mind, which are available to some extent here in universities.

## V. CONCLUSION

It is conclude that the motivation played a pivotal role to work progressively in any organisation to develop himself or their selves to achieve the organisational goals. The whole process of motivation is depending on the willingness of the employees to work progressively, which is not possible without the will, permissions and notifications of the heads of the organisation, who always dictate their employees especially the TEs. Even though the TEs are qualified and trained human resources who know their work, responsibilities and duties well enough to perform on every coast. Due to lack of trust the relationship between TEs and their heads of department and organisation negatively affected, which do not support the working environment to be conducive to work well. It negatively affect the inputs of the TEs to work for the betterment of their organisation and its all stakeholders. Therefore, the visionary leadership is needed who listen the matters and issues of TEs well and support them to deal with every issue and problem to maintain their motivation level to work progressively. Because visionary leadership work hard to know the professional, psychological, social and physical needs of their employees (TEs) for better results and progress. For that, they give appropriate place in the development of the material resources, policies and planning, instructions and guidelines to support them for sustainability. It can be concluded that employees' satisfaction and motivation is one of the important factor of sustainability of employees, departments, organisations, whole system of education and nation, which affect the quality education positively to improvement of the standards of education in Pakistan (GOP, 2009).

It is generalised that every employee's performance is important for any organisation to progress, which can be achieved only through motivate, positive attitude and reinforcement of the employees to strengthen their behaviour. Employees' do their work well with high level of motivation as rewards and punishment, appreciation and sense of belonging (Shiraz, Rashid & Riaz, 2011) to achieve the required goals of the organisation, which are concerned with different stakeholders such as students, their parents and faculty.

## REFERENCES

- [1] Adams, B. L. M.S., Cain, H. R., Giraud, V., & Stedman, N. L. P. (2012). Leadership, motivation, and teamwork behaviors of Principal investigator's in interdisciplinary teams: A Synthesis of research. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 11(2), 171-191.
- [2] Alam, M. S., Saeed, A. S. A., Sahabuddin, M. & Akter, S. (2013). Relationship between employee recognition and employee contribution in service industry. *International Journal of Business and Marketing Management*, 1(1), 1-8.
- [3] An, J. H. J. (2015). Respect: Refrainment from impression management behavior despite high impression motivation. Wharton Research Scholars. 125. Retrieved on dated: 30.10.2017, time: 15.24. [http://repository.upenn.edu/wharton\\_research\\_scholars/125](http://repository.upenn.edu/wharton_research_scholars/125).
- [4] Armstrong, M. (1996). *A Handbook of human resource management practice*. London, Kogan.
- [5] Ashford, S., Lee, C. & Bobko, P. (1989). Content, causes, and consequences of job insecurity: A theory-based measure and substantive test. *The Academy Management Journal*, 32(4), 803-829.
- [6] Balunywa, J. W. (2003). Entrepreneurship and Small Business Enterprise Growth in Uganda; A Paper presented at the symposium on modalities for financing SMEs' in Uganda, Kampala.
- [7] Berggren, E., & Bernshetyn, R. (2007). Organizational transparency drives company performance. *Journal of Management Development*, 26(5), 411-417.
- [8] Bijlsma, K. M., & Koopman, P. (2003). Introduction: Trust within organisations. *Personnel Review*, 32(5), 543-555.
- [9] Bolt, J. F. (1983). Job security: its time has come. *Harvard Business Review*, 61(6), 115-123.
- [10] Borkowski, N. (2009). *Organizational behavior, theory and design in health care*. Jones and Bartlett Publishers, Ontario, Canada.
- [11] Cangemi, J. (2009). Analysis of an Adversarial Labor/Management Situation in a Latin American Industrial Setting: A Case Study using Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. *Organization Development Journal*, 27(1), 37-47.
- [12] Chan, K., Huang, X., & Ng, P. (2008). Managers' conflict management styles and employee attitudinal outcomes: The mediating role of trust. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 25 (2), 277-295.
- [13] Chandrasekar, K. (2011). Workplace environment and its impact on organisational performance in public sector organizations. *International Journal of Enterprise Computing and Business System*, 1(1), 1-20.
- [14] Chi-Ho, C. (2015). An exploration of the relationships between job motivation, collective benefit, target awareness, and organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese culture. *Comprehensive Psychology*, 4(14), 1-9.
- [15] Choudhary, D. S. (2016). Job enrichment: A Tool for employee motivation. *International Journal of Applied Research*, 2(5), 1020-1024.
- [16] Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F.M. (2000). *Narrative Inquiry: Experience and story in qualitative research*. Published by Jossey-Boss, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., San Francisco.
- [17] Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*, 3<sup>rd</sup> (ed.). London, England: Sage Publications.
- [18] Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*, 4<sup>th</sup> (ed.). Pearson Education, Inc., Boston, USA.
- [19] Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. London, England: Sage Publications.
- [20] Dalen, M., Hjern, A., Lindblad, F., Odenstad, A., Ramussen, F., & Vinnerljung, B. (2008). Educational attainment and cognitive competence in adopted men – A study of international and national adoptees, siblings and a general Swedish population. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 30, 1211–1219.
- [21] Daniels, E., & Arapostathis, M. (2005). What do they really want? Student voices and motivation research. *Urban Education*, 40(1), 34-59.
- [22] Diener, E., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2002). Will money increase subjective well-being? *Social Indicators Research*, 57, 119–169.
- [23] Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2001). *Teaching and researching motivation*. New York, NY: Longman.
- [24] Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation*, 2<sup>nd</sup> (ed.). New York, NY: Longman.
- [25] Elnaga, A. A., & Imran, A. (2014). The Impact of employee empowerment on job satisfaction: Theoretical study. *American Journal of Research Communication*, 2(1), 13-26.
- [26] Emamgholizadeh, S., Matin, H. Z., & Razavi, H. Z. (2011). Is participation in decision making related to employee's empowerment? *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(9), 3504-3510.
- [27] Ertürk, A. (2010). Exploring predictors of organizational identification: Moderating role of trust on the associations between empowerment, organizational support, and identification. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 19(4), 409-441.
- [28] Etherington, K. (2000). *Narrative approaches to working with adult male survivors of childhood sexual abuse*. London: Jessica Kingsley.
- [29] Etherington, K. (2004). *Becoming a reflexive researcher: using ourselves in research*. London: Jessica Kingsley.
- [30] Etherington, K. (2006). Chicken or egg? An exploration of the relationships between physical and psychological symptoms with a woman diagnosed with Tourette's syndrome. *In Counselling and Psychotherapy Research*, 6(2), 138-146.
- [31] Etherington, K. (2007). Ethical research in reflexive relationships. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 13 (50), 599-616.
- [32] Fiore, S. M. (2008). Interdisciplinarity as teamwork: How the science of teams can inform team science. *Small Group Research*, 39(3), 251-277.
- [33] Flick, U. (1998). *An Introduction to qualitative research*. London: Sage Publications.
- [34] Galanaki, E. (2013). Gender and the importance of fringe benefits: Exploring their link with organisational commitment and job satisfaction, 2013 European Academy of Management Conference, Istanbul, Turkey, 26-29, June 2013.
- [35] Ganta, V. C. (2014). Motivation in the workplace to improve the employee performance. *International Journal of Engineering Technology, Management and Applied Sciences*, 2(6), 221-230.

- [36] Government of Pakistan [GOP], (2009). National professional standards for teachers in Pakistan. Policy and Planning Wing, Ministry of Education, Islamabad.
- [37] Gunnar, M., & Kertes, D. (2005). Prenatal and postnatal risks to neurobiological development in internationally adopted children. In D. Brodzinsky, & J. Palacios (Eds.), *Psychological Issues in Adoption. Research and Practice* (pp. 27–47). USA: Praeger Chapter 3.
- [38] Han, J., Yin, H., & Wang, W. (2015). Exploring the relationship between goal orientations for teaching of tertiary teachers and their teaching approaches in china. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 16, 1–11.
- [39] Han, J., & Yin, H. (2016). Teacher motivation: Definition, research development and implications for teachers. *Cogent Education*, 3(1), 1-18.
- [40] Han, J., Yin, H., & Wang, W. (2016). The effect of tertiary teachers' goal orientations for teaching on their commitment: the mediating role of teacher engagement. *Educational Psychology*, 36, 526–547.
- [41] Harpaz, I. (1990). The importance of work goals: an international perspective. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 21(1), 75-93.
- [42] Hornby, G. (2000). Improving parental involvement. London: Cassell.
- [43] Hsu, W. L. (2003). Studies on work motivation in Taiwan: A Critical review. *Chinese Journal of Applied Psychology*, 19, 89-113.
- [44] Hudson, P. (2013). What Makes School Leaders Inspirational and How Does This Relate to Mentoring? *Open Journal of Leadership*, 2(4), 87-94.
- [45] Imran, R., Majeed, M., & Ayub, A. (2015). Impact of organisational justice, job security and job satisfaction on organisational productivity. *Journal of Economics, Business and Management*, 3(9), 840-845.
- [46] Iverson, R. D. (1996). Employee acceptance of organizational change. The Role of organizational commitment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 7(1), 122-49.
- [47] Jiang, X. (2010). How to motivate people working in teams. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(10), 223-229.
- [48] Johnson, D. E. (2002). Adoption and the effect on children's development. *Early Human Development*, 68, 39–54.
- [49] Johnson, C. S., Gelfand, S. (2013, July). Self-assessment and writing quality. *Academic Research International*, 4.4, 571-580.
- [50] Jovchelovich, S., & Bauer, M.W. (2002). Entrevista Narrativa. In: Bauer MW, Gaskell G. Pesquisa qualitativa com texto, imagem e som: um-manual prático. Petrópolis: Vozes; p. 90-113.
- [51] Kavarlemo, J. M. (2000). Identifying the organizational training needs; unpublished presentation to Cambridge Shire University. Fareway conference, Kampala.
- [52] Kayal, C., & Ceylan, B. (2014). An Empirical study on the role of career development programs in organizations and organizational commitment on job satisfaction of employees. *American Journal of Business and Management*, 3(3), 178-191.
- [53] Khan, S. H., Azhar, Z., Parveen, S., Naeem, F., & Sohail, M. M. (2011). Exploring the impact of infrastructure, pay incentives, and workplace environment on employees' performance: A case study of Sargodha University. *Asian Journal of Empirical Research*, 2(4), 118-140.
- [54] Kiseesi, L. M. (1998). Job Satisfaction among Support Staff of Makerere University Hall of Residence. Unpublished M.A education Management Thesis MUK University.
- [55] Kovach, K. A. (1987). What motivates employees? Workers and supervisors give different answers. *Business Horizons*, 30(5), 58-65.
- [56] Lashway, L. (2001). Leadership for accountability. National Association of Elementary School Principals, National Principals Resource Center, 1615 Duke Street, Alexandria, 1-6. Publication Type: Collected Works-Serials; ERIC Publications, Number: ED458673.
- [57] Leach, F. J., Westbrook, J. D. (2000). Motivation and job satisfaction in one government research and development environment. *Engineering Management Journal*, 12(4), 3-9.
- [58] Legault, L., Green-Demers, I., & Pelletier, L. (2006). Why do high school students lack motivation in the classroom? Toward an understanding of academic motivation and the role of social support. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 98, 567-582.
- [59] Lindner, R. J. (1998). Understanding employee motivation. *Journal of Extension*, 36(3), 1-8.
- [60] Logan, B. (2015). Reviewing the value of self-assessments: Do they matter in the classroom? Research in *Higher Education Journal*, 29(September), 1-11.
- [61] Maehr, M. L., & Meyer, H. A. (1997). Understanding motivation and schooling: Where we've been, where we are, and where we need to go. *Educational Psychology Review*, 9, 371-409.
- [62] Malmberg, L. E. (2008). Student teachers' achievement goal orientations during teacher studies: Antecedents, correlates and outcomes. *Learning and Instruction*, 18, 438–452.
- [63] Mart, C. T. (2013). A Passionate teacher: Teacher commitment and dedication to student learning. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 2(1), 437-442.
- [64] Mason, A. (2001). Population change and economic development in East Asia: challenges met, opportunities seized. Stanford: Stanford Univ Press.
- [65] McMillian, J. H. & Hearn, J. (2008, Fall). Student self-assessment: The key to stronger student motivation and higher achievement. *Educational Horizons*, 87(1), 40-49.
- [66] Medved, J. A. (1982). The Applicability of Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory. *Educational Leadership*, 39, 172–183. ERIC Number: EJ261569
- [67] Mok, W., & Siddique, Z. (2011). Radical and ethnic inequality in employer provided fringe benefits?. Discussion paper No. 625. Institute for the Study of Labor. <http://ftp.iza.org/dp6255.pdf>. Retrieved on dated: 30.10.2017 time: 15.45.
- [68] Mooney, M. (1984). Let's use job security as a productivity builder. *Personnel Administration*, 29(1), 38-44.
- [69] Morris, T., Lydka, H., O'Creevy, M. F. (1993). Can commitment be managed? A longitudinal analysis of employee commitment and human resource policies. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 3(3), 21-42.



- [70] Muylaert, C.J., Junior, V.S., Gallo, P.R., Neto, M.L.R., & Reis, A.O.A. (2014). Narrative interviews: An Important resource in qualitative research. *Rev Esc Enferm USP*, 48(2), 184-189.
- [71] Naharuddin, N. M., & Sadegi, M. (2013). Factors of workplace environment that affect employees' performance: A Case study of Miyazu Malaysia. *International Journal of Independent Research and Studies*, 2(2), 66-78.
- [72] Ndungu, D. N. (2017). The Effects of rewards and recognition on employee performance in public educational institutions: A Case of Kenyatta University, Kenya. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research: A Administration and Management*, 17(1), 42-68.
- [73] Niemiec, C. P., & Ryan, R. M. (2009). Autonomy, competence, and relatedness in the classroom applying self-determination theory to educational practice. *Theory and Research in Education*, 7, 133-144.
- [74] Okpara, J. O., & Wynn, P. (2008). The Impact of ethical climate on job satisfaction, and commitment in Nigeria: Implications for management development. *Journal of Management Development*, 27(9), 935-950.
- [75] Okumbe, J. A. (1998). Educational Management. Theory and Practice. Kenya: University of Nairobi Press.
- [76] Ouma, L. (2007). Effect of motivational theory to the performance of primary school teacher in Kampala District. Unpublished (Masters of education) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda. [psca.co/resources/steward/dictionary-e.shtml](http://psca.co/resources/steward/dictionary-e.shtml). Retrieved on date: 13.02.2016 time: 13.32.
- [77] Owolabi, K. A., Ajiboye, B. A., Bakare, O. D., Bello, T. O., Omotoso, A. O. & Adeleke, O. (2013). Librarians' attitude toward monetary and non-monetary incentives in University libraries: A Case of Selected University libraries in Nigeria. *Annals of Library and Information Studies*, 60, 22-26.
- [78] Pardee, R. L. (1990). Motivation Theories of Maslow, Herzberg, McGregor & McClelland. A Literature Review of Selected Theories Dealing with Job Satisfaction and Motivation. 1-24. ERIC Number: ED316767. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED316767>. Retrieved on date: 29.10.2017 time: 15.58.
- [79] Park, Y. (2011). How motivational constructs interact to predict elementary students' reading performance: Examples from attitudes and self-concept in reading. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 21(4), 347-358.
- [80] Parveen, S., Sahito, Z., Gopang, A.S. & Khambh, M.A. (2015). Job Satisfaction among Government High School Teachers of the Province of Sindh, Pakistan. *Journal of Elementary Education*, 25(2), 125-137.
- [81] Polkinghorne, D. E. (1995). Narrative configuration in qualitative analysis. *Qualitative studies in education*, 8(2), 5-22.
- [82] Porter, L. W., Bigley, G. A., & Steers, R. M. (2003). Motivation and work behavior, 7<sup>th</sup> (ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- [83] Rauschenberger, J., Schmitt, N., & Hunter, J. E. (1980). A Test of the Need Hierarchy Concept by a Markov Model of Change in Need Strength. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 25(4), 654-670.
- [84] Redmond, B. F. (2010). Need Theories: What Do I Want When I Work? Work Attitudes and Motivation. The Pennsylvania State University World Campus.
- [85] Rieh, S. Y., & Belkin, N. J. (2000). Interaction on the Web: Scholars' Judgment of Information Quality and Cognitive Authority. *Proceedings of the 63rd Annual Meeting of the ASIS*, 2000, pp. 25-38.
- [86] Riessman, C. K. (2008). Narrative methods for the human sciences. London: Sage.
- [87] Rosow, J. M., & Zager, R. (1985). The case for employment security. *Across Board*, 22: 34-41.
- [88] Rutter, M. (2005). Adverse preadoption experiences and psychological outcomes. In D. Brodzinsky, & J. Palacios (Eds.), *Psychological Issues in Adoption. Research and Practice* (pp. 47-67). USA: Praeger Chapter 3.
- [89] Ryan, R. M., Chirkov, V. I., Little, T. D., Sheldon, K. M., Timoshina, E., & Deci, E. L. (1999). The American dream in Russia: Extrinsic aspirations and well-being in two cultures. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 25, 1509-1524.
- [90] Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000a). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American psychologist*, 55(1), 68-78.
- [91] Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000b). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.
- [92] Safiullah, A. B. (2015). Employee motivation and its most influential factors: A Study on the telecommunication industry in Bangladesh. *World Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(1), 79-92.
- [93] Sahito, Z. & Vaisanen, P. (2016). Dimensions of Job satisfaction of Teacher Educators: A Qualitative Study of the Universities of Sindh Province of Pakistan. *Journal of Curriculum and Teaching*, 5(2), 43-54.
- [94] Sahito, Z. & Vaisanen, P. (2017). The Diagonal Model of Job Satisfaction and Motivation: Extracted from the Logical Comparison of Content and Process Theories. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(3), 209-320.
- [95] Saleem, S., Shaheen, W. A., & Saleem, R. (2012). The Impact of job enrichment and job enlargement on employee satisfaction keeping employee performance as interviewing variable: A Correlational study from Pakistan. *Kuwait Chapter of Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, 1(9), 145-165.
- [96] Sammons, P., Kington, A., Lindorff-Vijayendran, A. & Ortega, L. (2014). Inspiring Teachers: Perspectives and Practices, CfBT, Reading, MA.
- [97] Schermerhorn, J. R., Hunt, J. G., & Osborn, R. N. (2003). Organizational behavior: Instructor's resource guide, 8<sup>th</sup> (ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- [98] Schunk, D. H. (2004). Learning Theories: An Educational Perspective. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Merrill Prentice/Hall.
- [99] Shaw, I., & Gould, N. (2001). Qualitative research in social work. London, England: Sage Publications.
- [100] Shiraz, N., Rashid, M. & Riaz, A. (2011). The Impact of Re-ward and Recognition Programs on Employee's otivation and Satisfaction. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 3(3), 1428-1434.
- [101] Sparkes, A.C., & Smith, B. (2009). Judging the quality of qualitative inquiry: Criteriology and relativism in action. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 10, 491-497.
- [102] Sparkes, A.C., & Smith, B. (2014). Qualitative research methods in sport, exercise and health from process to product. Oxford, England: Routledge.
- [103] Steer, R. M., & Porter, L. M. (1991). Motivation and work behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- [104] Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory, 2<sup>nd</sup> (ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- [105] Sushil, S. (2014). Role of job enrichment and job enlargement in work life balance. *Global Journal of Finance and Management*, 6(3), 239-244.
- [106] Tang, W. L. (2011). An empirical study of college English teachers teaching motivation. *Contemporary Modern Languages Studies*, 4, 29-33.
- [107] Tracy, S.J. (2010). Qualitative quality: Eight big-tent, criteria for excellent qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 16(10), 837-851.
- [108] Twenge, J. M., & Campbell, W. K. (2002). Self-esteem and socioeconomic status: A Meta analytic review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 6, 59-71.
- [109] Uma, M. H. D. (2015). Employee participation: A Tool of motivation and high productivity. *Pacific Business Review International*, 8(3), 99-102.
- [110] Ward, M., Penny, A., & Read, T. (2006). Education reform in Uganda – 1997–2004: Reflections on Policy, Partnership, Strategy and Implementation. United Kingdom: Department for International Development (DFID).
- [111] Wayne, F. C. (1998). Managing human resources: Productivity quality of work life and profit, 5<sup>th</sup> (ed.). Mc Grain Hill, New York.
- [112] Webster's. (2002). Dictionary and Thesaurus, 2<sup>nd</sup> (ed). Jigsaw Publishing, the Terrace Wellington, New Zealand.
- [113] Williams, M., & Burden, R. L. (1997). Psychology for Language Teachers: A social constructivist approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [114] Wosket, V. (1999). Therapeutic use of self: Counselling practice, research and supervision. London: Routledge.
- [115] Yin, R. K. (1984). Case study research: Design and methods. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

**Zafarullah Sahito** is a Ph.D-Student at School of Applied Educational Science and Teacher Education, Philosophical Faculty, University of Eastern Finland, Joensuu. Mr. Sahito is a permanent employee (Assistant Professor) at the department of Education, Sukkur IBA University, Sindh, Pakistan. He has over 18 years of teaching, training and research experience at school and university level in Pakistan.

**Pertti Vaisanen** is working as a Professor and vice Dean at School of Applied Educational Science and Teacher Education, Philosophical Faculty, University of Eastern Finland, Joensuu. Dr. Vaisanen is a Ph.D supervisor of Mr. Zafarullah Sahito, who is working on the project titled: "A Study of Job Satisfaction and the Motivation of Teacher Educator towards Quality Education". He has over 35 years of teaching, training, administrative and research experience in Finland.

# Methods Used to Eliminate the Students' Chintonglish Sentences in Their Writing

Xiaoying Zhou

School of Foreign Languages, Nanchang Normal University, Nanchang, China

Hangjie Liao

Purdue University, West Lafayette, USA

**Abstract**—In this paper the authors discuss four types of English in Chinese students' English writing. They are Pure English, China English, Sinicized English and Chinese Tone English (Chintonglish). As the Chintonglish (Chinese Tone English) sentences appear frequently in students writing, the authors will discuss this type of "English" from the psychological and cultural point of view, which may serve as a guide for the Chinese students' writing of good English. In the authors' opinion the methods used for the elimination of such Chintonglish sentences in the students' English writing are to point out the cause of such Chintonglish mistakes to the students clearly, create an English communicative environment and choose some typical pieces of passages for the students to read and imitate.

**Index Terms**—Chintonglish, English writing, psychology, elimination, methods, sentences

## I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays English writing is gradually becoming one of the required courses among Chinese students. In order to test students' ability writing is an important part in the popular national CET for students majoring in science or in English. The popular CET test has a section for English writing. That is why over the past few years many major language magazines carried many papers discussing English writing of college students.

However it's a pity that no matter how experienced an English teacher may be, Chinese students will inevitably hand in their written homework in Chinese Tone English, which is quite different from China English and is different from Sinicized English, too. This kind of English is such a piece of writing, which appears like English but reads quite like Chinese. In other words, this kind of English is not English in its real sense. It is a piece of writing, which is just a collection of English words only sometimes here and there with some idiomatic expressions. It is just like a Chinese actor dressed in foreign costume. It appears like English but reads like Chinese. Therefore the authors call this kind of English as Chinese Tone English. As this kind of "English" occurs among Chinese college students writing quite frequently, the authors think it is high time to have a deep-going research in this kind of "English" so that English teachers may have a scientific view of this kind of "English" and can teach the students in a more scientific way and the students, in turn, can have a clear view of this kind of linguistic "symptom" and consciously avoid writing this "English" in their written homework. For the sake of convenience, the authors use an invented character "Chintonglish" to call this kind of "English", meaning "Chinese Tone English"

This type of "English" is quite different from China English and Sinicized English in many respects. Sinicized English refers to that type of English which is used by Chinese students or Chinese English learners. It is much influenced or interfered by their tongue. It is a deformed English which is not in conformity with English rules and regulations, neither is it in conformity with English cultural customs as well. As it is a type of deformed English, which will eventually be extinguished with the deepening of East-West communication. However someone holds that there is no clear distinction between China English and Sinicized English. It is just a matter of degree. Anybody who lives in China or has lived in China for a rather long period of time will surely be influenced by Chinese culture and consequently he must surely show their Sinicized traces in his writing or speaking. This is an objective law and nobody can change it. It involves many aspects, such as in the language itself, or the speaker's mental and cultural levels and so on. A Chinese will say: "Where? Where?" used to mean: "I'm flattered!" Because "Where? Where?" is a typical Chinese expression. If it is explained according to its surface meaning the listeners would become perplexed or even become confused without explanations. When the students translate "老郭" into English, they will often write as "old Guo" or "Lao Guo". It is a pity that both these two English forms are not correct, for here "老" means not being old in age but has some intimacy or informality meaning. It is often used between friends. Sometimes the addresser may be younger than the addressee. Therefore using "Old Guo!" or "Lao Guo!" are both incorrect from the view point of pure English. The most interesting phenomenon is "surname + lao" pattern (姓+老). For example we can not say or write "Guo Old" to express "郭老". It is quite different from the original meaning. For "郭老" refers not only to a man famous for his knowledge, but also noted for his noble characters or something like that. This is a very popular

expression in Chinese culture. In modern Chinese history there were three “Laos”, they are Guo Mojo, Dong Biwu, Xu Teli etc. because they have all rendered their great contributions to Chinese society and consequently they won the Chinese people’s respect and love. Here, an Old can never be used to express this meaning. It is why someone uses “Venerable + surname” pattern to explain the meaning of this kind of expression. Thus Guo Mojo is called as Guo the venerable or “Venerable Guo” and so on and so forth. (Li Wenzhong 1993). As China is a country with very long history and rich cultural tradition, there must be a lot of pure Chinese expressions in Chinese language. Therefore, no matter how experienced or well informed a man may be he will not be able to avoid such expressions in the English writings. The question is how to minimize such kind of Sinicized English traces to the least.

However there is also one other type of English, which is not only different from China English, but also different from Sinicized English as well. In the authors’ opinion it can be classified as a type of “Chinese Tone English”. Chinese Tone English is a type of “English” most frequently used in Chinese students’ writings. For the sake of convenience, the author uses an invented character “Chintonglish” to call this kind of “English”.

## II. METHODS USED TO ELIMINATE THE STUDENTS’ CHINTONGLISH SENTENCES IN THEIR WRITING

In the authors’ opinion the methods used for the elimination of such Chintonglish sentences in the students’ English writing are to point out the cause of such Chintonglish mistakes to the students clearly, to create an English communicative environment and to choose some typical pieces of passages for the students to read and imitate.

### (1) Point out the cause of such Chintonglish mistakes to the students clearly

First of all the teachers must point out where lies the mistake in front of all the students so that the students may try their best to avoid such mistakes as much as possible. Checking their homework without explaining them the causes of their mistakes the result may not be obvious. For if such sentences in one piece of their English writing are corrected by the teacher, such mistakes may appear in another piece of writing again. For the influence of their mother tongue will follow them like a shadow whatever they are doing. It is only when the students are clearly aware of the cause of such mistakes can they consciously avoid such mistakes in their English writing as much as possible. So the teacher must point out where lies the mistake in front of all the students so that the students may try their best to avoid such mistakes as much as possible.

Generally speaking, there exist four types of English in writing among Chinese students. They are Pure English, China English, Sinicized English and Chinese Tone English (Chintonglish). Pure English is the standard English, which is not only true western in its content, but also quite English in its sentence grammar and text structure.. Besides, it reads quite English as well, for every sentence is carefully written and every word is carefully chosen. However it’s a pity that the students who can write this type of English are quite rare in number. China English is based on the standard English as its core to express various things in Chinese culture. It is not influenced or interrupted by their mother tongue (Chinese) and enters into communication through such reproductive means as transliteration, borrowing and semantic reproduction. It is mainly composed of vocabulary, sentence patterns and text structure with Chinese nature. However, it should not be confused with Sinicized English, for it is something like British English. American English and Australia English, which bear some special meaning as compared with standard English. Sinicized English refers to that type of English which is used by Chinese students or Chinese English learners. It is much influenced or interfered by their tongue. It is a deformed English which is not in conformity with English rules and regulations, neither is it in conformity with English cultural customs as well.

However there is also one other type of English, which is not only different from China English, but also different from Sinicized English as well. In the authors’ opinion it can be classified as a type of “Chinese Tone English”. Owing to Chinese students’ mental activities in writing English according to Chinese language, the sentences are not in conformity with English grammar rules. Therefore the author calls this kind of “English” as “Chinese Tone English”

### (A) Chinese Tone English “Chintonglish”

As nowadays English writing is becoming an increasingly important part in Chinese English courses, and consequently English writing is becoming an important part in their English texts too. In view of this case the authors collected many such examples in the writing course. Upon analyses the author finds it very interesting to analyses such Chinese Tone English “Chintonglish” writings from the view point of psychology or social culture. For example in the teaching of English writing, the author once asked the students to write a letter to a friend of theirs. While checking their written homework the author came upon such a sentence “I have received your letter for three weeks”. There is no doubt that the reader can know its meaning. But upon thinking carefully the authors find this sentence somewhat incorrect. How come? The authors find that this sentence is written out of Chinese grammar. For, while the student is writing this sentence, his mind naturally runs along the grammar structure of his native language --- Chinese without thinking whether the sentence he is writing is correct or not in its English grammar. In the hands of a foreigner this sentence must be written as “Your letter reached me three weeks ago” or “I received your letter three weeks ago”, or even “I have delayed your letter for three weeks”. Chinese Tone English “Chintonglish” is a type of “English” most frequently used in Chinese students’ writing. In the teaching practice the authors collected a lot of such “Chinese Tone English” sentences. Through careful study the authors find that although these sentences seem quite divergent in their structures and meanings, they actually came out of the same stereotyped thinking pattern ---writing English out of Chinese grammar structure. No matter what he is writing, this pattern functions from the very beginning. Having this in

mind the authors find that the very seemingly complicated English writing problem suddenly becomes quite simple and easy.

**(B) Chinese Tone English “Chintonglish” sentences can be subdivided into four types:**

Roughly speaking, these types of English sentences can be subdivided into the following types. (a): Logical confusion. (b): Structure confusion. (c): Incorrect use of words. (d): Grammatically wrong in the whole sentence.

**(a): Logical confusion**

From the view point of English language there must be some logically incorrect sentences while the students write their English sentences they think in Chinese grammar. Below this title are included a group of sentences, which are not logically correct. For examples once the authors asked the students to write a short article to compare the temperature of two cities in China. For these two cities are located far apart, one in north China and the other in the south. The author came upon the following sentences: “The temperature difference of the two cities is different,” means “The two cities differ greatly in their temperature”.; The most interesting sentence is the following one, which deals with the comparison of the liquid content in two bottles: “The liquid in C is more than two times B” (Meaning: The liquid in Bottle C is two times more than that in Bottle B); “Only know that there is six liters liquid in Bottle D” (Meaning: We only know that Bottle D contains six liters of liquid). There are many other such sentences, the above are just some of them. They are some logically incorrect sentences while the students write their English sentences they think in Chinese grammar.

**(b): Structure confusion**

As the sentences are written according to the native language structure in the students’ mind, many sentences are wrong in their structure. Therefore many sentences with structural confusion can be found. My students wrote in their homework: “In a word creatures is not living without it” (Wrong use of predicate. It means “In a word, all creatures cannot live without it”.); “In March and November has a slightly higher temperature.” (Incorrect use of subject and predicate: It means “In March and November the temperature is slightly higher than usually”). “There is different, we need every kind of air is different too” (The structure of the whole sentence is wrong. It means “The gases in the air are different in quantity and the amount of every gas we need is different, too”); “Air is important for us to live, study and so on. We should protect our air in order to we find a better environment to study and work” (Incorrect use of adverbial infinitive phrase, It means “As air is important for our life, study and work. We should protect it from being polluted so that we can have a better environment”); “But it is the most hot in city A than in city B” (Incorrect use of comparison. It means: “But as compared with the temperature in city B, city A is hotter”); “D and E are not as same the size as them” (Wrong use of predictive and adverbial, It means: “Bottle D and Bottle E are not the same in size as other bottles”); There are many other such structural confusion sentences in the students homework. The above are just a few examples among many. As they are too many to list the authors will not list them one by one.

**(c): Incorrect use of words**

Sometimes the students, if not well trained, will most likely write English articles in sentences piled with English words. For example, there are some sentences in my students’ homework: “It’s containing is four times as much as Bottle B and Bottle A” (Meaning: The amount of liquid it contains is four times as much as that in Bottle A). “On July the temperature of the two cities begin to reduce.” (Meaning: “In July the temperature of the two cities begins to fall”). The students do not use the words correctly.

**(d): Grammatically wrong in the whole sentence**

According to the authors’ investigation, many college students may write such Chinese Tone English “Chintonglish” sentences in their written homework. For example: “Its contain is 12 Liters”. (Meaning: It contains 12 liters). “Bottle A contains red ink least” (Meaning: “The liquid contained in Bottle A is the least” or “Bottle A contains least liquid”); “We also can know the high temperature months in Nanchang is more than in Beijing” (Meaning: “We can also know that the temperature in Nanchang during the hotter months is higher than that in Beijing”); “Any living thing all must depend on air to live through” (Meaning: “All living things depend on the air for their living”). Therefore the following stereotyped pattern appears:

我（已）收到你的信三个星期（了）

↓            ↓            ↓            ↓

I have received your letter for three weeks.

Look every part of the sentence is in strict conformity with the structure of Chinese language. While writing this English letter, the student has nothing in his mind but some English words or expressions, with the result that the sentence he wrote becomes a sentence with broken grammar.

**(C) The cause behind such Chinese Tone English “Chintonglish” sentences**

Writing is a complicated psychological process, which involves many factors. Besides, English writing involves many other factors too. It involves not only the writer’s English level, but his cultural background as well. This is why English writing has always been one of the headache problems for Chinese students. Up to now we are in the dark as to the concrete psychological process in the students mind in their English writing. No matter how well the students’ English may be, as the students live and work in a Chinese cultural surrounding, they must eventually be influenced by their Chinese culture. No matter how high a man jump he will eventually fall to the same place he is in. Therefore the problem is how to reduce the influence of the Chinese cultural impact on the students’ mind to the minimum in their

### English writing.

However, no matter how hard a student may try to write his English well he may not get rid of this cultural impact completely on his mind in every process of writing. Let's brush aside the legends with traditional Chinese cultural background, so far as ordinary sentence is concerned, the Chinese students may most likely to be influenced by the structure of his native language --- Chinese --- sentence structure, resulting in a Chinese Tone English "Chintonglish" sentences.

Take the sentence at the beginning of this paper for example: "I have received your letter for three weeks". Obviously this sentence means "我收到你的信已经三个星期了". In the eye of a foreigner it is a wrong sentence according to his own native language pattern. The process is as follows: In writing this letter the student, first of all, thinks in Chinese. Thus the Chinese sentence "我收到你的信已经三个星期了" appears in his mind. Then he managed to "Translate" it into "English" word by word, i.e. according to his native language structure. In the eye of the student, by translation or writing refer just the change of every Chinese expression into English, ignoring its English character, to say nothing of the textural structure. The following sentences are some typical examples:

- 1 In summer welcome to Nanchang  
 ↓ ↓ ↓  
 夏天 欢迎(你) 来南昌
- 2 Any living thing all must depend on air to live through.  
 ↓ ↓ ↓ ↓  
 一切生物 都 必须依靠空气 (来) 生存

It can be seen that all the above examples are nothing but Chinese Tone English "Chintonglish" sentences. No matter how hard a teacher may try to do so, this type of "English" sentences can not be completely eliminated, for the most famous translators cannot completely avoid such sentences, to say nothing of English beginners. The teacher must point out where lies the mistake in front of all the students so that the students may try their best to avoid such mistakes as much as possible.

### (2) Create an English communicative environment

As the Chinese students are "surrounded" by their Chinese cultural environment all the times, they must unavoidably be influenced by their native language and culture in their writing. Therefore the most important thing is to create an English atmosphere for the students so that they can have a "oasis" to live in. To the English-thirsty students this "oasis" is of great importance for their English study. Different from foreign students, who are grown up in foreign atmosphere, Chinese students are grown up in Chinese cultural environment, every action and every word bear the brand of Chinese culture and language. Chinese Tone English "Chintonglish" is a piece of writing, which is just a collection of English words only sometimes here and there with some idiomatic expressions. It is just like a Chinese actor dressed in foreign costume. No matter how hard he may act he will not act like a foreigner does. So the teacher's task is a try to create an English atmosphere whenever possible. For example, conduct a communicative teaching course in the class, hold an English "corner" in school campus or in street corner, or in parks etc. where the students can talk with foreigners at will and on any topic they like. This is a very good way for the students to enrich their English knowledge and enlarge their vocabulary.

### (3) Choose some typical pieces of passages for the students to read and imitate.

Reading and imitation have always been two ideal ways for students to learn typical English. The merits of reading and imitation of some typical pieces of English writings is that the students can imitate not only the great writers' ability to control the greatest invention man has ever created --- the language, but their power to use the most elusive phenomenon of language --- the style, so that they can naturally write perfect English. It is well known that in both the history of East and west, many famous writers have benefited much from reading and imitating famous master's writings. For example, famous British writer R.L. Stevenson had benefited greatly from his reading and imitation of famous writings. He said: Whenever I read a book or a passage that particularly pleased me, in which a thing was said or an effect rendered with propriety in which there was either some conspicuous force or some distinction in the style, I must sit down at once and set myself to ape that quality. As teachers we must choose some typical pieces of passages for the students to read and imitate.

## III. SUMMARY

The Chinese Tone English (Chintonglish) has no communicative value. It is generally not accepted in communication for they are considered as wrong sentences. It is an unavoidable process in the students' written homework. Therefore, the teacher's task is to try to "eliminate" such kind of Chinese Tone English (Chintonglish) sentences in their writing, so that the students may be as close to the foreigner's writing as possible.

The Chinese Tone English (Chintonglish) are typical Chinese in nature both in the grammar or in the expressions. They are completely broken English in the eye of a foreigner. Chinese Tone English (Chintonglish) exists among the students in great number and the examples are too many to list, the author thinks it is necessary to conduct a deep-going research into this type of English in great details so as to find its real causes. We should find the methods used for the elimination of such Chintonglish sentences in the students' English writing. This is the chief purpose for the writing of

this paper.

#### REFERENCES

- [1] Cai Yun. (1991). "Writing Process and Writing Ability". *Modern Foreign Languages*. Guangzhou. (4): 52-59
- [2] Catherine Ann Cameron, King Lee, Suzanne Webster, Kim Munro, Anne Kalthryn Hunt, Muttay J. Linton. (1995). "Text Cohesion in Children's Narrative (1996) Writing". *Applied Psycholinguistics*. Cambridge University Press. Britain.
- [3] Chen Jinying. (1994). "How to Teach Chinese Students to Write Good English" *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, Beijing, (2): 21-25
- [4] Cai Yun. (1991). "Writing Process and Writing Ability". *Modern Foreign Languages*. Guangzhou. (4): 53-59
- [5] Huang Weixin. (1996). "A Case Study: Current Problems in English Students' Reading and Writing". *Modern Foreign Languages*. Guangzhou. (9): 46-51
- [6] Li Wenzhong. (1993). "China English and Chinglish" *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, Beijing, (4): 34-39
- [7] Lin Li. (1991). "Analysis of the Teaching of College English Writing". *Modern Foreign Languages*. Guangzhou. (7): 54-60
- [8] Xie Zhijun. (1995). China English: Interference Variety in Cross culture Communication. *Modern Foreign Languages*. Guangzhou. (2) 54-60.
- [9] Xu Liejiong. (1994). The Width and Depth of Cross-linguistic studies. *Foreign Languages Teaching and Research*, Beijing. (9): 64-70.
- [10] Yang Zhonglin. (1994). The Role of proofreading in English Proficiency Test. *Foreign Languages Teaching and Research*, Beijing (11): 47-56.
- [11] Yang Yuchen & Wen Zaorong. (1994). "An Analysis on Sentence Types and Structures in Chinese Students' English Writing". *Modern Foreign Languages*. Guangzhou. (5): 28-33.
- [12] Zhao Yongqing. (1995). From Written Discourse to Teaching of Reading. *Modern Foreign Languages*. Guangzhou. (1) 36-41
- [13] Zhang Zuo Chen. (1995). An Account of the Psychological Process of Writing for Chinese Learners of English. *Modern Foreign Languages*. Guangzhou. (10) 62-69
- [14] Zhang Jin. (1981). "An Outline of Comparative Grammar between English and Chinese" commercial Press, Beijing, PRC.

**Xiaoying Zhou** was born in Nanchang, China in 1962. She received her Bachelor of Arts in Foreign Language Department in Huadong Normal University, Shanghai, China in 1987.

She is currently a professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Nanchang Normal University, Nanchang, China. Her research interests include linguistics and English teaching methods.

**Hangjie Liao** was born in Yichun, China in 1989. He received his M.S degree in Aeronautics and Astronautics Engineering from Purdue University, USA, in 2012. He is currently pursuing the PH.D degree in Purdue University.

He is a Research Assistant in Purdue University.

# The Development and Validation of the EFL Learning Context Questionnaire

Weningtyas Parama Iswari

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

Haryanto Atmowardoyo

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

Muhammad Asfah Rahman

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

Susilo

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

**Abstract**—A context where learning a language takes place may be one of many factors influencing the result of the learning. So far, there has been very few, if not at all, a ready-to-use instrument to examine systematically the condition of learning contexts, especially related to English as a foreign language. Therefore, this study intends to develop a self-reported questionnaire for that purpose, named the EFL Learning Context Questionnaire (ELCQ). The instrument was developed in reference to the existing theories and previous related studies. The development process started with writing the draft of the questionnaire in English and then translating into Indonesian language. The next stage would be validation the instrument, including: expert judgement for content validity and to gather constructive feedbacks (i.e. revisions and suggestions), initial piloting for analysing item validity and reliability (N = 64), and final piloting using Factor Analysis to obtain a stable self-reported instrument (N = 692). The validation result showed that the QELC has been proved to be a valid and reliable questionnaire. Since the ELCQ has been validated through some formal stages, it can be assumed that this instrument can be used in EFL contexts, especially in Indonesia. However, because this study took place in only one region, further studies across samples, time and countries are needed to improve the applicability of the ELCQ.

**Index Terms**—learning context, contextual factors, factor analysis, validity, reliability

## I. INTRODUCTION

The English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Learning Context Questionnaire (ELCQ) is a self-reported questionnaire for students which is developed to measure how good particular contexts, at school and out-of-school where EFL learning takes place, is. This is based on the understanding that not only do internal factors (e.g. motivation, aptitude, learning strategies) but also external factors, in this case referred to as contextual factors (e.g. parents, learning activities and resources) contribute to the success of language learning. In this research, the contextual factors are social, psychological and physical factors related to language learning environment at school and out-of-school contexts.

The importance of language classroom has been conjured up by Thapa and Lin (2013) who underlined that in an EFL context where students have limited opportunities to communicate in English, classroom interaction becomes an important way to enhance the students' linguistic resources and communicative skills in the target language. Meanwhile, according to Freed, et al. (2004) outside schools can also be a place for EFL students to be engaged in the target language, and at home, the involvement of significant others, such as parents, may have positive impacts on students' academic performance, motivation and positive behavior (Kek, et al., 2007; Fan & Williams, 2010).

The questionnaire was developed to figure out the condition of an EFL learning context which is measured through its contextual factors from the perceptions of secondary school students in Indonesia based on their own experience learning English at schools and out-of-schools. In this country, English is a foreign language and offered as a compulsory subject from secondary school to university levels and as an optional subject at elementary schools. This relatively long duration of time for Indonesian students learning English at schools was not guaranteed for their adequate proficiency in English, since according to Lamb (2002) students in an EFL setting have to deal with difficult circumstances (e.g. low exposure to the target language and educational limitations for development of target language skills).

Very few, if not at all, comprehensive instruments measuring contextual factors were available to use for EFL settings, in particular for the Indonesian context. Therefore, there was a need to develop such a questionnaire. The questionnaire was first developed in English, for future, wider uses, and then translated in the Indonesian language to



make sure that Indonesian students completing the questionnaire had no language problems and could focus on responding to the questionnaire items.

The primary purpose of this research was to develop and validate the EFL Learning Context Questionnaire through some stages: drafting the ELCQ, translating it into the Indonesian language, having expert judgement, and validating, including initial piloting for estimating its reliability and item validity, and final piloting for construct validity. In this vein, this paper aimed at addressing the following research questions related to the validation process after the questionnaire was prepared:

1. To what extent is the ELCQ reliable when the questionnaire is administered to senior high school students in Indonesia?
2. In terms of validity, how valid is each item on the ELCQ?
3. Does each scale construct the contextual factors?

#### **A. Literature Survey**

The ELCQ covers two main educational settings, namely 'school' representing formal education and 'out-of-school' representing non-formal (e.g. private language courses) and informal education (home). Despite the fact that in EFL contexts most EFL learning takes place in classroom, learners are expected to exploit the target language outside the class as well. As Lamb (2002) ensured that good language learners are able to find learning opportunities in the context of their everyday lives even when learning resources are limited.

##### ***Out of school***

Although in EFL settings, like in Indonesia, opportunities to use the target language are limited, there are some learning resources and activities that motivated students can make use of. Lamb (2004) inventoried Indonesian students' activities outside school, as follows: attending private course, watching TV/video, listening to songs, studying, reading books/magazines, conversation, computer use and others, with the learning sources of such as dictionary, play station, conversation book, and exam practice book. In line with this, Ardhasheva and Tretter (2013) said that additional support in English learning could be beneficial, particularly for those in middle school where language and content demands are higher.

Related to support in English learning outside school, the attitude of the significant others to the learners, such as parents, siblings and peers, can be a crucial factor in motivating them to learn (Lamb, 2007; Mali 2015). According to Fan and Chen (2001), parental involvement in form of parents' expectation or aspiration for their children's academic achievement had the strongest relationship with students' academic achievement, as it motivated them to study through engagement and self-efficacy towards English (Fan & Williams, 2010).

##### ***At school***

Classrooms are central organizing units of schools, where students are facilitated by teachers to learn, within a particular amount of time, through activities that result in learning (Schaper, 2008). Renandya (2014) argues that what was going on in the classroom in forms of classroom activities become the central elements of a language class. For developing the students' target language skills, these activities need to be intended for language use (Moss & van-Duzer, 1998), fun (Renandya, 2014) and personalized (Bernard, 2010). Through classroom activities students get input and produce output of the target language that trigger interactions or conversations between the teacher and students or among students. Referring to Vygotskian sociocultural theory (Hall & Walsh, 2002), interaction in language classroom is vital, because through this social activity the students construct knowledge with the help and scaffolding of more knowledgeable peers or teachers.

Teachers play a very important role in facilitating students to learn English as a foreign language. To ensure good teaching processes to take place in a classroom, effective teachers are essential (Dixon, et al., 2012), as the quality of effective teachers is described as teachers' ability to provide their students with clear, understandable, and motivating information, and to build effective communication, create comfortable learning atmosphere and pay attention to their students' condition, such as their learning and motivation, and course organization (Arikan, et al, 2008).

## II. METHOD

### ***Participants***

The participants of this research were senior high school students in Samarinda City in Indonesia. For the initial piloting, the number of the participants was 64 students selected randomly from a senior high school, and for the final piloting 692 students were randomly selected from 12 senior high schools in the city.

### ***The questionnaire***

The questionnaire was developed in reference to some relevant theories and previous research findings with regards to contextual factors affecting EFL learning. The ELCQ is a closed, self-reported questionnaire comprising two sections that correspond to EFL learning contexts, namely 'at school' representing formal education and 'out-of-school' representing informal education (home) and non-formal education (private English course). It has 115 items in forms of statements distributed under 18 questions that represent the 14 scales of the contextual factors. These items are divided into the two sections, of which the out-of-school context comprises four scales with 34 items, and the at-school context has 10 scales with 81 items. The breakdown of the ELCQ design is shown in Table 1:

TABLE 1.  
THE SCALES OF THE ELCQ

<i>Scales</i>	<i>No. of items</i>	<i>Scales</i>	<i>No. of items</i>
Out-of-school context		Personalized activities	7
Out-of-school activities	9	Interaction	5
Learning resources at home	10	Learning resources/facilities at school	6
Private English Course	6	Teacher's English proficiency	9
Parental involvement	9	Learning materials	11
At-school context		Classroom atmosphere	7
L2-use activities	8	Teacher personality	10
Fun activities	6	Teaching skills	13

To investigate students' views and opinions about a series of statements, the questionnaire uses a 6-point Likert scale (Brown, 2001), ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree for agreement scales, and from Never to very often for frequency scales. For scoring purposes, each response to a positively worded statement is given score similar to the point assigned to each response option (e.g. strongly disagree=1 and strongly agree=6), while the scores for negatively worded items are reversed (e.g. strongly disagree=6 and, strongly agree=1). At the end, the scores are summed up and averaged. The following criteria were used to interpret the scores of the ELCQ:

<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>Interpretation</u>
5 - 6	You perceive that you have a <b>very good</b> condition of EFL learning context
4 - 4.9	You perceive that you have a <b>good</b> condition of EFL learning context
3 - 3.9	You perceive that you have an <b>average</b> condition of EFL learning context
2 - 2.9	You perceive that you have a <b>poor</b> condition of EFL learning context
1 - 1.9	You perceive that you have a <b>very poor</b> condition of EFL learning context

### *Procedures*

The English version of the ELCQ was translated into Indonesian language, and both English and Indonesian versions of the questionnaire were sent for expert judgement to three experts (i.e. a specialist in educational evaluation and research, and the other experts specializing in English language education) for the content validity of the instrument. They evaluated the questionnaires in terms of general evaluation and relevance of the questionnaire items to represent the contextual factors, and to give suggestions for its improvement.

After the drafts were revised in reference to the experts' suggestions, the Indonesia version of the ELCQ was piloted to 64 senior high school students in a public school in Samarinda. The result of this initial piloting was statistically analyzed using the IBM SPSS version 21 with Cronbach Alpha for reliability and Pearson Product Moment for item validity estimations.

In addition to that, this stage was also intended to evaluate the administration procedures, including to determine the time required for administering the questionnaire and assess the clarity of the questionnaire items and instruction. The results of the initial piloting were used to revise the ELCQ for further validation process. The next was final piloting, in which the ELCQ was administered to the 692 students in order to select which scales (the dependent variables) in the questionnaire significantly construct the contextual factors (the independent variable). The scales which were not affecting the independent variable would be removed. For this purpose, Factor Analysis using the IBM SPSS version 21 was employed to get a stable self-reported questionnaire.

For the initial and final piloting, the ELCQ was administered during regular classes by the researcher and two assistants. The teachers of the related classes were only present to introduce the researcher and then left the class. This is in line with Dörnyei's (2010) suggestions for confidence-building strategies that questionnaire administrators should be external persons, as in this study it would make students feel free to give objective responses related to their English class and teacher.

## III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### *A. Result*

First of all, the ELCQ was evaluated by the three experts and they only gave minor revisions mostly on the wordings of the questionnaire items. After being revised, it was distributed to the students for the initial piloting, the data collected were entered and organized in the excel spreadsheet program as the preparation for further statistical analysis to answer the research questions. At this stage, the reliability and item validity were estimated statistically and the results are presented below.

#### *Reliability*

Reliability of the ELCQ was computed statistically using Cronbach Alpha, as Dörnyei (2010) argued that Cronbach Alpha is proved to give an accurate internal consistency estimate and appropriate for answers that are coded

dichotomously, such as a Likert scale. The result of the calculation using the SPSS program showed that the ELCQ had a reliability of .91.

*Item Validity*

In addition to reliability, the initial piloting measured item validity of the ELCQ. The correlational statistics analysis Pearson Product Moment using the SPSS program was operated to estimate the questionnaire item validity, and the result suggested that for the ELCQ, 28 of 115 items were invalid, leaving 87 valid items ( $> R_{table}=0.246$ ).

*Construct Validity*

Once the ELCQ was proved to be reliable and had 87 valid items, this instrument was tried out to a bigger size of samples (692 students) in order to find out whether the scales (the independent variables) included in the questionnaire significantly construct the contextual factors (the dependent variable). For this purpose, Factor Analysis using the SPSS program was used, and the result of the computation was presented in the following tables.

TABLE 2.  
THE FIRST KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.921
Approx. Chi-Square	4474.550
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity df	91
Sig.	.000

In order to continue further steps in factor analysis, two main requirements need to be fulfilled, they are the value of Measure of Sampling (MSA) should be above .5 and the significant level should be lower than 0.05. Based on the table above, the KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy for the ELCQ is .921 with the significance level of .000. This means that the data may proceed to further analysis.

The computation revealed that all dependent variables had the values of MSA higher than 0.5 which means that those variables were observable. The next data was the total variance, in which two components were identified since their total initial eigenvalues were higher than 1 (6.154 and 1.689 respectively). The next SPSS output presented in Table 3 shows the selection of the dependent variables that belong to component 1 or 2.

TABLE 3.  
ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX

	Component	
	1	2
Out-of-school activities	.768	.045
Learning resources at home	.803	.146
Parental involvement	.618	.323
Private English Course	.467	.010
L2-use activities	.522	.416
Fun activities	.662	.181
Personal activities	.661	.332
Interaction	.622	.414
Learning resources	.608	.228
Teacher's English proficiency	.011	.843
Learning materials	.532	.594
Classroom atmosphere	.451	.607
Teacher's personality	.099	.861
Teaching skills	.259	.836

After rotation, data were extracted and there were five scales deleted from Component 1 or categorized into Component 2, including: Teacher's English proficiency, Learning Materials, Classroom Atmosphere, Teacher Personality and Teaching Skills. One variable (i.e. Private English course) was removed, because its MSA was .467 ( $< .5$ ). The KMO and Bartlett's test was conducted again for the extracted data.

TABLE 4.  
THE SECOND KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.884
Approx. Chi-Square	2.132.288
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity df	.28
Sig.	.000

The result presented in Table 4 shows that the extracted scales in component 1 may proceed for further analysis as the value of MSA was .884 ( $> .05$ ) and the significant level was .000 ( $< .05$ ). Compared to the initial MSA, the values of MSA after extraction of the four irrelevant scales were all lower but they still met the requirement ( $> .05$ ), as presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5.  
THE MSA VALUES BEFORE AND AFTER EXTRACTION

No	Dependent Variables	Initial MSA	After Extraction MSA
1.	Out of school activities	.880	.850
2.	Learning resources at home	.887	.838
3.	Parental involvement	.948	.929
4.	L2-use activities/tasks	.936	.881
5.	Fun activities	.952	.929
6.	Personal activities	.951	.907
7.	Interaction	.930	.868
8.	Learning resources	.939	.909

As it has been revealed that the value of MSA was higher than .05, the next computation was to see the reliability of the questionnaire after the irrelevant scales were removed. To measure the reliability of the questionnaire, a reliability statistics was run and the result is shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6.  
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.865	8

The result shows that Cronbach's alpha is .865, which indicates a high level of internal consistency for the questionnaire.

### B. Discussion

The result of the study will help answer the research questions posed previously in the Introduction session. Therefore, the following discussion will be organized according to those research questions.

*To what extent is the ELCQ reliable when the questionnaire is administered to senior high school students in Indonesia?*

Reliability indicates the consistency of a tool across different contexts (Salkind, 2007). This study measured the questionnaire's reliability in terms of its internal consistency, that is, according to Salkind, the reliability of measures (scales) that have multiple items. This study used Cronbach Alpha index to analyze the questionnaire. The result of the computation using Cronbach Alpha showed that the ELCQ had a reliability of .91, which means that the questionnaire can be said to be 91% consistent or reliable (and 9% inconsistent or unreliable). This reliability coefficient was considered high, as Salkind gives rules of the thumb that an alpha of .70 or higher is acceptable to establish reliability.

*In terms of validity, how valid is each item on the ELCQ?*

A high reliability is useless if an instrument is not valid. Three kinds of validity were examined in this study, namely: content validity, item validity and construct validity. Content validity is "the representativeness of our measurement regarding the phenomenon about which we want information" (Mackey & Gass, 2005:107). It was evaluated by the three experts before administering the ELCQ to the students for the initial piloting. The item validity is the extent to which an individual item measures what it purposes to measure (Nugent, 2013). It was also measured during the initial piloting and computed using Pearson Product Moment, resulting in 87 valid items. A questionnaire with valid items is important to make sure that data collected from this instrument represent the real meaning of the concept under investigation. In this study, the valid items of the ELCQ are intended to elicit information from the students concerning their own perceptions and facts on the contextual factors of English language learning at school and out-of-school contexts.

*Does each scale construct the contextual factors?*

The last research question of this study refers to the construct validity of the ELCQ. Construct validity refers to "the degree to which the research adequately capture the construct of interest" (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 108). Mackey and Gass (2005) argue that construct validity is the most complex type of validity, because many of the variables observed (e.g. aptitude, language proficiency) are not easily or directly defined. Using Factor Analysis, the construct validity of the ELCQ scales was examined. The result revealed that of the 14 scales of the questionnaire, eight scales loaded predominantly on Component 1, which supported the construct of the contextual factors. Accordingly, the final version of the ELCQ covers eight scales, including: Out-of-School Activities, Learning Resources at Home, Parental Involvement, L2-use Activities, Fun Activities, Personalized Activities, Interaction and Learning Resources. Those scales were considered appropriate theoretically and statistically to represent contextual factors influencing students' EFL learning in and out of school contexts. Meanwhile, the other five scales which belong to Component 2 have the potential to be further developed as a questionnaire related to teacher factors that can be used in combination with the ELCQ.

## IV. CONCLUSION

The EFL Learning Context Questionnaire was intended to measure students' EFL learning contexts based on the students own perceptions. It was designed to measure how far the contextual factors contribute to EFL learning. To

make sure that the questionnaire is a consistent measure for the intended concept, it was piloted through drafting, expert judgement, initial piloting for item validity and reliability, and final piloting using factor analysis for construct validity.

The statistical results ensure that the ELCQ has valid items and all contextual factors covered in the questionnaire relate to the construct (the contextual factors). The results of factor analysis suggest that of the fourteen scales validated, one scale (private course) should be removed and the rest were split into two components. The first component includes all scales relating to the learning contexts and the second component relates to teachers.

Based on the validation results, this questionnaire for EFL learning contexts cover eight valid scales, they are out of school activities, learning resources at home, parental involvement, L2-use activities/tasks, fun activities, personal activities, interaction and learning resources.

V. FUTURE SCOPE

Other researchers who are interested in investigating the contextual factors of language learning are encouraged to use the ELCQ, as this study has proved that the ELCQ is a valid and reliable questionnaire. They may find evidence whether the questionnaire will be reliable and valid if replicated in other EFL locations in and out of Indonesia. They can also prove whether a revised version of the ELCQ will be more reliable and valid than the version investigated in this study. As this study has resulted in two components representing two different constructs: the contextual factors and teacher-related factors, future studies may try to combine these two components into one questionnaire, considering that this study found evidence that the scales in both components are all valid.

APPENDIX. THE ITEMS OF THE EFL LEARNING CONTEXT QUESTIONNAIRE

<b>I. Out-of-School Context</b>
1. How often are you exposed to English by doing the following activities outside school?
a. Reading books/magazine/novels, etc.
b. Conversation with parents/siblings/relatives
c. Using technology (e.g. computer, mobile-phone)
d. Self-studying (e.g. with exercise books)
e. Correspondence with friends
2. How often do you use the following learning resources to help you learn English at home?
a. A computer (with internet connection)
b. English software (e.g. <i>Learn English</i> , <i>Speak English</i> )
c. Readings for pleasure (e.g. novels, stories, magazine, comics, poetry)
d. Readings for information (e.g. newspaper, articles)
e. Books to help with your school work
3. How much do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about your parents/siblings/relatives' involvement in your learning English?
a. My parents ask me to study English
b. My parents ask me to practice my English
c. My parents want me to get a good score in English
d. I speak English with my parents/siblings/relatives
e. I learn English from my parents/siblings/relatives
f. My parents provide me with English learning resources (e.g. books, dictionaries, computer)
g. My parents/siblings/relatives inspire me to learn English
<b>II. School Context</b>
4. How often do you do the following task/activities in your English class?
a. Classroom tasks require me to speak English
b. Classroom tasks require me to write in English
c. I practice English in pairs or groups
d. I read long texts (e.g. literature/poetry/stories) in English
e. Classroom tasks require me to understand spoken English.
f. I have class discussion using English
g. I do a project in my English class
h. English tasks require me to pay attention to language forms (e.g. grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation)
5. How often do you do the following activities in your English class?
a. I sing or listen to songs
b. I play games while learning
d. The learning activities in my English class are fun
6. How often do you have your English tasks relevant to your life/interest
a. I talk about my life or interest
b. I write about my life or interest
c. When doing my English tasks, I am allowed to choose topics of my interest
g. The task/activities in my English class relate to my life/interest
7. How often do you interact using English in your English class?
a. I interact in English with my teacher
b. I interact in English with my classmates
c. I have the opportunity to discuss in English with my friends.

- d. If I don't understand something in my English class, I ask questions in English
- e. I respond to my teacher's questions in English.
- 
8. How often do you learn English using the following learning resources/facilities available at school?
- a. A library
- b. A language laboratory
- c. Computers
- d. Internet connection
- e. A tape recorder
- f. Videos
- 

## REFERENCES

- [1] Ardhasheva, Y. & Tretter, T.R. (2013). Contributions of individual differences and contextual variables to reading achievement of English language learners: an empirical investigation using hierarchical linear modeling. *TESOL Quarterly*, vol.47 no.2, 323-351.
- [2] Arikan, A., Taşer, D. & Saraç-ş üzer, H.S. (2008). The effective English language teacher from the perspectives of Turkish preparatory school students. *Education and Science*, vol.33 No.150, 42-51.
- [3] Bernard, J. (2010). Motivation in foreign language learning: The relationship between classroom activities, motivation, and outcomes in a university language learning environment. Honors Theses, Dietrich College, Paper 74.
- [4] Brown, J.D. (2001). Using surveys in language programs. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [5] Dixon, L.Q, et al. (2012). What we know about second language acquisition: A synthesis from four perspectives. *Review of Educational Research*. vol.2 no.1, 5-60.
- [6] Dörnyei, Z. (2010). Questionnaire in second language research: Construction, administration and processing. New York: Routledge.
- [7] Fan, W. & Williams, C.M. (2010). The effects of parental involvement on students' academic self-efficacy, engagement and intrinsic motivation. *Educational Psychology*, vol.30 no.1, 53-74.
- [8] Fan, X. & Chen, M. (2001). Parental involvement and students' academic achievement: a meta-analysis. *Educational Psychology Review*, vol.13, no.1, 1-22.
- [9] Freed, B.F., Segawitz, N. & Dewey, D.P. (2004). Context of learning and second language fluency in French. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* vol.26, 275-301.
- [10] Hall, J.K. & Walsh, M. (2002). Teacher-student interaction and language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, vol.22, 186-203.
- [11] Kek, C. Y., Darmawan, I.G.N. & Chen, Y.S. (2007). Family, learning environment, learning approaches, and students outcomes in Malaysian private university. *International Education Journal*, vol. 8 no.2, 318-336.
- [12] Lamb, M. (2002). Explaining successful language learning in difficult circumstances. *Prospect*, vol. 17 no.2, 37-52.
- [13] Lamb, M. (2004). 'It depends on the students themselves': independent language learning at an Indonesian state school. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, vol. 17 no. 3, 229-245
- [14] Lamb, M. (2007). The impact of school on EFL learning motivation: An Indonesian case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, vol. 41 no.4, 757-780.
- [15] Mackey, A. & Gass, S.M. (2005). Second language research: Methodology and design. New York: Routledge.
- [16] Mali, Y. C. G. (2015). Motivational factors in the Indonesian EFL writing classroom. *Bahasa & Sastra*, vol.15 no.1, doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.17509/bs\\_jbpsp.v15i1.794](http://dx.doi.org/10.17509/bs_jbpsp.v15i1.794).
- [17] Moss, D. & van-Duzer, C. (1998). Project-based learning for adult English language learners. Washington DC: National Clearinghouse for ESL Literacy Education. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED427556. Available online: <https://www.ericdigests.org/1999-4/project.htm> (accessed 20/10/2017).
- [18] Nugent, P.M.S. (2013). Item validity. *PsychologyDictionary.org*. Available online: <https://psychologydictionary.org/item-validity/> (accessed 22/10/2017).
- [19] Renandya, W. A. (2014). Essential factors affecting EFL learning outcomes: A personal reflection. *Academia. Edu*. Available online: [nanyang.academia.edu/WillyARenndya](http://nanyang.academia.edu/WillyARenndya) (accessed 11/12/2014)
- [20] Salkind, N. J. (2007). Encyclopedia of measurement and statistics. London: Sage Publications.
- [21] Schaper, E. A. (2008). The impact of middle school students' perceptions of the classroom learning environment on achievement in mathematics. Doctoral dissertation, University of Massachusetts, USA.



**Weningtyas Parama Iswari** is a lecturer at the English Language Department of Mulawarman University, Indonesia. She obtained her master's degree in TESOL-International from Monash University, Australia, and is currently pursuing her doctorate program in English Language Education at the State University of Makassar. Her research interest is in English Language Teaching and second language acquisition.



**Haryanto Atmowardoyo** is a professor and head of the English Language Education Graduate Program at the State University of Makassar. He got his master's degree in English Language Education from the State University of Malang and a doctorate degree in the same field from the State University of Jakarta, Indonesia. Currently, he is the Chef Editor of English Language Teaching *ELT Worldwide*.



**Muhammad Asfah Rahman** is a professor at the State University of Makassar. He completed his master's and doctorate degrees in the field of Instructional Design and Technology at the University of Pittsburgh, PA, USA. He has more than 30 years of experience in the teaching of English as a foreign language at teacher training college. His strong background is in instructional design and technology, elementary and secondary school teacher training, teacher professional development, teaching English to young learners, and education management.



**Susilo** is a professor of ELT in the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Mulawarman University. He got his Ph.D from the State University of Malang in 2004. In 2007, he got Fulbright Senior Research Grant in CUNY, USA. His main interest of research is in ELT in remote regions of Indonesia, Discourse analysis, Contrastive rhetoric, and Postmodern.

# Note-taking in Persian-English Consecutive Interpreting: Considering Iranian Translation Teachers' and Students' Opinions

Rasoul Marani

Department of English, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch, Isfahan, Iran

Hossein Heidari Tabrizi

Department of English, Faculty of Foreign Languages, Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch, Isfahan, Iran

**Abstract**—Note-taking is one of the essential skills which is used to facilitate the process of consecutive interpreting and the different aspects of the cited skill has been investigated in the history of interpreting. But despite of this significance, very little related research could be found about note-taking in Persian-English consecutive interpreting. Due to this paucity, the present study explored and examined the translation teachers' and students' opinions in this respect in order to identify the weaknesses of teaching and utilizing note-taking during the process of consecutive interpreting particularly in Iranian academic contexts. For the purpose of this research, four interpreting teachers from different Iranian universities, besides 10 male and female undergraduate translation students of quoted academic context who had passed interpreting courses, were selected meticulously and by means of phone interview, the required data were collected. The results of this investigation clearly indicate that, as well as teaching interpreting courses by the non-qualified teachers more often than not, the used syllabuses for interpreting courses do not cover all aspects of the issue and should be redesigned according to the students' future needs in the role of the professional interpreters. Additionally, while almost all general concepts, techniques and strategies are totally unfamiliar to translation students, they entirely acknowledge the necessity of learning much more about note-taking.

**Index Terms**—essential skills, interpreting syllabuses, Iranian academic context, teaching note-taking, utilizing note-taking

## I. INTRODUCTION

With the advent of different nations and languages, translation as a kind of mediator had narrow the existing gap between people and made them closer from different aspects specially in cultural and commercial relations. Although it seems that the oral translation was initially used, due to the lack of relevant documents, in translation studies the written translation has a longer history. However, after 1950s interpreting as the new concept of the oral translation was defined by some scholars like Hermann (1956/2002) and Vermeer (1992). Subsequently, because of the increasing attention to the field of interpreting, several classifications of this concept have been introduced in accordance with the time, place, and type of the used translation which the two most famous and applied types named simultaneous and consecutive interpreting.

Regardless of general similarities of the two named famous types of interpreting, they are significantly different when performing. For example, while the vocal pause plays a key role in consecutive interpreting, there is no pause during the simultaneous type, that means the listening and speaking processes occur at the same time. Moreover, unlike the other type, consecutive interpreting is mostly used when the exchange of statements between gatherings is a two-way communication. Furthermore, necessity of using special tools such as electronic devices and booths in simultaneous interpreting can be mentioned as the significant differences. On the other hand in consecutive, the interpreters' performance depend on some essential skills including listening comprehension, language proficiency, and more importantly note-taking skill, which should be taught in interpreting courses.

According to Chen (2016), at first in the prescriptive approach of note-taking literature the authors mostly introduced note taking systems and principles and all the works in this stance tried to explain how notes should be taken based on the writer's personal experiences whether as a professional interpreter or as an interpreter trainer also some times in both responsibilities. Evidently, the first note taking system was presented by Rozan in 1956. Then after, adapting his rules, other experts such as Allioni (1989), Becker (1972), Gillies (2005), Kirchhoff (1979) and Matyssek (1989) established their own systems usually built on the Rozan's system.

Applying practical note taking principles, language experts faced with two challenges. The first one is the possibility of teaching note taking systems and principles to students and the second one is how to teach them methodically. This situation led to beginning of a shift from prescriptive to descriptive approach. Meanwhile, the theory of individuality



was developed and some authors rejected the systematic teaching of note taking because they believed that note-taking is an individual activity and should not be thought. However, Researchers such as Ilg and Lambert (1996) Seleskovitch and Lederer (1995), who did not accept the individuality theory, conducted some major studies targeted three different group: post graduated interpreting students, undergraduate language students, and community interpreters. Although because of apparent differences between students teachers had to use various objectives and training materials. Finally, a similar result was obtained from research that is in the process of interpreting taking note could draw attention away from other activities. Thus one of the emphasized recommendations to the students is not to taking notes at the initial steps of learning in order to focus on other exercises such as speech analysis, memory training, and summarizing.

Afterwards, considering the fact that quality is a central issue of the interpretation teaching, researchers concentrated on the relationship between note-taking and interpreting quality in their investigation and subsequently used student interpreters as participants. In 2007, Dam tested her previous hypotheses proposed in 2005 by her and some other scholars about features of efficiency and non-efficiency of notes. She analyzed notes taken by 5 professional interpreters during the process of interpreting between Spanish to Danish and proved two hypotheses: “the more notes, the better the target text and vice versa” and “the more abbreviations/the fewer full words, the better the target text and vice versa” (p. 194). Before Dam (2007), Her (2001) conducted a study analyzing the notes taken by undergraduate students interpreting between Chinese and English. The results showed direct relationship between the quality of notes and the quality of interpreting. She also added that all qualified notes did not necessarily result in a qualified interpretation. After that, other scholars such as Dai and Xu (2007), and Wang and Zhou (2010) could not affirm Dam’s hypothesis and found no effective relationship between the quality of notes and interpreting. Similarly, Cardoen (2013) rejected Dam’s two aforesaid hypotheses and claimed that fewer notes, more full words and fewer abbreviations lead to fluent chunks. She arranged her study by using students as participants and setting the language pair of Spanish and Dutch.

Since the last few decades, according to the basic characteristic of interpreting which is a cognitively demanding task, the third approach to interpreting studies named cognitive load. Although most of studies related to this subject such as Seeber (2011, 2013), Tommola and Hyona (1990) investigate cognitive load in simultaneous interpreting, few research can be found on cognitive load in consecutive interpreting. Seeber’s (2013, p. 19) definition of cognitive load is “the quantity of capacity the performance of a cognitive task takes up in a naturally capacity- limited system.” Reviewing the relevant analysis of note-taking show that the main issue is keeping the efficacy of notes while decreasing the cognitive load of taking notes. A number of experts like Paas and Merriënboer (1994) and Paas, Tabbers, Tuovinen, and Van Gerven (2003) worked specifically on the cognitive load theory and introduced two aspects of this theory: The first one indicates the factors influencing cognitive load named causal dimension and the second one demonstrates the factors affecting by cognitive load called assessment dimension including mental load, mental effort and performance. Chen (2016) worked on the assessment factors and related measures in detail.

In light of the foregoing review, it seems that examining and analyzing the trainers’ and trainees’ opinions about the interpreting courses especially in the respect of note-taking is one of the forgotten topics in this field. In other words, there is a noticeable lack of research investigating the interpreting teachers’ and students’ views, ideas, and their positive or negative attitudes towards note-taking systems, principles also related teaching methods. So, considering the learners’ contribution to the learning process as the processor, performer, and initiator also the teachers’ role as the catalyst, consultant, and content determiner in quoted process (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), this study attempted to explore trainers’ and trainees’ opinions about note-taking exclusively in the Persian-English consecutive interpreting in order to identify the weaknesses of teaching and utilizing cited skill particularly in Iranian academic contexts.

## II. METHOD

Each study could be categorized according to its time and aim. Based on the aim of research, there are three kinds of investigations named fundamental, applied, and developmental. In this regard, Saldanha and O’Brien (2014) classified research into two main types: basic versus applied research. Correspondingly, Chesterman and Williams (2002) considered research as conceptual and empirical ones (quoted in Mousavi 2015). Therefore, this study is called an empirical one, because data collection has been done by means of phone interviews from real practices. Additionally, time is a considerable criterion of research grouping by which studies are divided into historical, survey, and experimental research. Regarding the fact that this research involved selecting a sample of respondents from a population and administering the phone interview, this is a survey one. Furthermore, since the main question in this paper is “What are the translation teachers’ and students’ opinions about note-taking in Persian-English consecutive interpreting” it is labeled as an interpretative study (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2010).

### A. Participants

Having taken into account all the indispensable details, two different groups of people were invited to participate in this study: interpreting teachers and translation students. The characteristics and the selecting procedure for each of which are particularly explained in below.

**1) Interpreting Teachers.** To form the first group of participants, the researcher faced some difficulties. For example, because of the transport and cost problems, the number of available teachers was restricted. Nevertheless, a

list of those teachers was prepared from which four volunteers from different universities consisted of Shahrekord University, Islamic Azad University of Isfahan (Khorasgan), and Sobh-E-Sadegh Institute of Higher Education accepted to give a one-session phone interview. To establish this sample (henceforth referred to as 'Group A') which is done through the stratified random sampling, the important factor was their involvement in teaching interpreting and another characteristics such as sex, age, being faculty members of English department of universities and the years of experience in teaching were disregarded.

2) **Translation Students.** To complete the participants' arranging process, 10 translation students (henceforth referred to as 'Group B') were selected through the cluster sampling method because the target population was widely dispersed; subsequently preparing a list of members of that population was not possible. So, five male and five female translation students were randomly chosen from eight universities, namely Kharazmi University in Tehran; Islamic Azad University of Isfahan (Khorasgan) and of Shahreza, Payame Noor University of Isfahan (Main Branch, Shahin-Shar, Najaf Abad, Golpayegan, and Dolat Abad Branch) which every academic year accept translation students and offer the interpretation courses in their programs. Except sex, other characteristics of the students such as age and average grade that had no effect on the result were not considered. Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of participants including their type, sex, number, age, and so on:

TABLE 1  
DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS

Types of Participants	No.	Age Range	Sex		Educational Background			Nationality	Native language
			Male	Female	Ph.D.	M.A.	B.A.		
			Interpreting Teachers	4	30-53	3	1		
Translation Students	10	25-36	5	5	-	-	10	Iranian	Persian

### B. Instruments

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), in qualitative study there is a primary instrument which is researcher themselves. That is, in order to collect data comprehensively in this type of research that deals with human experiences, there is a need of mutable instrument to capture all complexity of situation. In addition to this natural instrument, to understand the participants' opinions' and beliefs about not-taking in their own words, the phone interview was chosen as the main research instrument with the following particulars and specifications: a semi-structured interview including a set of questions in an open-ended format in which the attention span was limited so that the important topic made clear for interviewees (Arey et al., 2010). What is noteworthy is that because of the responders' scattering, conducting a face to face interview was time-consuming and impossible in some cases. So ignoring the parties' inability to use non-verbal channel of communications, the researcher decided to replace phone interview with the earlier mentioned type for it has some advantages like being cheaper and quicker than the other types, availability of respondents from a dispersed population, deletion of traveling hardship, reduction of interviewer's effects, and so forth (see Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

### C. Procedures

Since two different groups of participants had been determined for interview, two different types of questions was needed. Moreover, no similar and related interview had been conducted by other researcher previously. Therefore, considering the topic of this paper, the researcher himself prepared two series of questions covering all important aspect of the issue. Then after, fourteen phone interview session were held for the members of group A and B one by one as the interviewee by the researcher as the interviewer. Each session lasted approximately 15 minutes which was completely in Persian to ensure that the participants could share their ideas precisely. All the interviews were tape-recorded to transcribe and to analyze the given answers.

According to Mackey and Gass (2005), in a qualitative research before analyzing the raw data, the collected information should be organized to a manageable and easily understandable form. So, the transcribed recorded interviews were classified and their fundamental and important parts were highlighted. Subsequently, regarding the research topic, the data were codified by identifying their implicit facts and themes to extract a logical conclusion from the main points. Simply put, in qualitative research, one of the common ways of codification is examining the data for emergent patterns and themes while concerning anything related to the research goal. Lastly, through the mentioned schemas and settings, the data were narrated by the investigator.

## III. RESULTS

As it mentioned previously, responders of the interview were two different groups answered via dissimilar but related questions that each of which will be reported as the following.

### A. Phone Interview with Group A (Interpreting Teachers)

Without regard to the general initial question which was about the teachers' years of experience in training interpreting, the following questions were addressed.

**1) Interview Question Two.** Are you familiar with methods and general principles of note-taking in consecutive interpreting? All the teachers indicated that tailored to the needs of the course, they are familiar with this issue. But further explanation given exposed that their knowledge do not cover all aspects of the topic technically.

**2) Interview Question Three.** Do you believe that teaching note-taking is a need for interpreting courses? Why? Responds to this question showed a total consensus on the necessity of teaching note-taking. One of the teachers explained that due to lack of language proficiency among translation students, who do not have enough experience to handle a consecutive interpreting, teaching some essential skills such as note-taking could be helpful for them in order to have a better performance.

**3) Interview Question Four.** Do you teach note-taking in your interpreting courses? Depending on the number of sessions devoted to the courses, all teachers allocated almost 2 or 3 sessions in the semester to introduce note-taking concept and its related issues. Therefore, because of this limitation covering at least one of the appropriate resources of this topic is impossible and just a brief sketch of this skill would be given to students. As a result, no practice could be done and note-taking will remain as a theoretical issue in those courses.

**4) Interview Question Five.** Do you believe that the existing methods and principles of note-taking are applicable in Persian-English consecutive interpreting or they should be localized for that situation? Except on member, others confirmed the idea proposed by Group A in the same question and they added that nature of each language is an effective elements during the process of note-taking and using principles complied with the language spoken in consecutive interpreting could reduce the amount of attention needed for writing down the source language words on the one hand, and it could accelerate the production of target language words on the another hand.

**5) Interview Question Six.** Do you believe that teaching note-taking would affect the performance of students as an interpreter in the future or not? The received answers indicated that besides other supporting techniques and strategies of interpreting, note-taking by reducing short memory usage, causes the better allocation of interpreters' focuses on the other important parts of interpreting. Consequently, the more concentration the interpreters have, the strong performance they would produce.

#### *B. Phone Interview with Group B (Translation Students)*

As the opening question the interviewer asked about the university in which they passed the B.A. program also the number of credits regarding to the interpreting courses. Then other specific questions were posed as below respectively.

**1) Interview Question Three.** Are you familiar with methods and general principles of note-taking in consecutive interpreting? All participants responded that they do not know anything about note-taking particularly and they are not familiar with basic concepts of interpreting generally. Not surprisingly, some members of this group did not distinguish different modes of interpreting from each other at all.

**2) Interview Question Four.** Were the interpreting techniques be taught in your interpreting courses? As all interviews declared, they usually passed 2 or 3 interpreting courses in their educational program at B.A. level but they had never seen the relevant syllabus of note-taking in each course. Rarely, in some cases all their written practices were focused on the transcription of some audio or video files which is totally irrelevant exercise.

**3) Interview Question Five.** Do you believe that teaching note-taking is a need for interpreting courses? Why? Having not a clear picture of the note-taking, all students agreed that since this is an inseparable part of consecutive interpreting, training this issue is seen as a vital need for translation students.

**4) Interview Question Six.** Do you believe that learning note-taking would affect your performance as an interpreter in the future or not? Although none of the interviewees had experience of consecutive interpreting in a real situation, they all stated that one of the biggest challenges which interpreters face with is the human short-memory limitation that can be solved via learning note-taking skills.

#### IV. DISCUSSION

Based on the findings of the first group's interview, teaching note-taking is not considered as a main part of interpreting courses' syllabus among most Iranian universities by reason of several matters. First and foremost reason is that, a significant number of those courses are taught by teachers who are mostly not graduated in translation studies and they usually don't have enough experiences in interpreting too, whereupon they are not familiar with the common teaching methods of note-taking neither academically nor experimentally. Further, time limitation can be mentioned as the second reason. Actually, covering all interpreting skills completely during one or two semester is surely impossible. Additionally, the other major reason is the students' lack of language proficiency which results in curriculum changes by teachers. It means that teachers usually are forced to teach initial abilities such as speaking and listening comprehension instead of technical skills like note-taking and memory enhancement.

However, there is a small number of teachers who completely and methodically teach note-taking in their interpreting courses. To facilitate learning, they usually start the course by native language practices (Persian language) and let the students to gained initial experiences of note-taking without regard to other language barriers. Then, general rules and principles are taught but students are still free to apply them in detail or not. It means that they are not obliged to follow

all rules absolutely while taking notes and personal methods are applicable besides. Sometimes, sharing note-taking experiences could be more beneficial rather than to teach a specific rule. But it should be bear in mind that experience does not eliminate the need of learning.

Not surprisingly, results related to the second group interviewees are compatible with Dabaghi, Moinzadeh, and Mobasheri (2015) and show that a high percentage of translation students not only are unacquainted with general concepts of interpreting but also are not introduced to techniques and strategies used in consecutive interpreting such as note-taking, regardless of the type of university at which they had studied. That is why they could not be of the opinion that whether not taking has significant effect on their performances as the interpreter or not. But all of them largely concur with the fact that note-taking skill should be taught in interpreting courses because according to the Giles's Effort Model, this skill is an integral part of consecutive interpreting process and it can obviate the need for more time and memory to remember the speeches. More emphatically, for students who want to do interpreting purposefully and professionally in the future, learning essential skills specifically note-taking is not only a need but also a must.

As a translation student, the researcher own experiences revealed the unpleasant fact that ignoring the real objectives of interpreting courses, teachers usually replace the syllabus of apparently similar but basically different courses with the primary designed curriculum to achieve those objectives. Simply put, instead of teaching interpreting, they deliberately or inadvertently teach topics like laboratory courses which are actually for improving students' listening-speaking skills in their B-language (mostly English) or audio-visual translation courses which are about movie translation. Sadly enough, it has resulted in the students' incompetence.

#### V. CONCLUSION

Referring the previous discussion, in this paper the interpreting teachers' and translation students' opinions about note-taking in Persian-English consecutive interpreting was investigated. So based on the interpreted results, the conclusion is twofold. First, in spite of the fact that almost all general concepts, techniques and strategies are totally unfamiliar to translation students, they entirely acknowledge the necessity of learning much more about note-taking. Second, as well as teaching interpreting courses by the non-qualified teachers more often than not, the used syllabuses for interpreting courses do not cover all aspects of the issue and should be redesigned according to the students' future needs in the role of the professional interpreters. Broadly speaking, as the other researchers like Heidari Tabrizi (2008) and Mousavi (2015) argued, translation studies program at Iranian academic context needs to be revisited in the respect of most curriculums. Also the researcher emphases that translation profession should be more complied with the relevant academic issues.

Emphatically, each research study is confronted with some limitations which can affect the obtained results that should be considered and specified to avoid in future research. The most considerable limitation refers to time shortage. Conducting totally fourteen phone interviews with participants was excessively time consuming task which added to the time spent for transcribing tape-recorded speeches. Furthermore, the scarcity of Iranian related studies as well as inaccessibility to some useful foreign interpreting source books imposed extra limitations which run into several difficulties. Finding and replacing the alternative sources not only took so long time but also was impossible sometimes.

Despite of the quoted limitations, this study opens up some interesting questions for further research. For example, the similar study can be conducted considering other two language pairs instead of Persian and English. That is, researcher can redesign this study based on two language pairs except the ones examined here. The findings obtained from those research may result in different conclusions or may support this investigation. The other suggestion which seems to be more logical is that other essential skills for consecutive interpreting such as short-term memory enhancement should be considered by investigator and its effect on the interpreters' performance could be examined. Moreover, this subject can be studied from extra linguistic aspects like sociolinguistic or psycholinguistic features.

As the ending point, it should be noted that there is a distinguishable difference between two concepts note-taking and note-making. Although the former is widely used in the vast majority of literature on the consecutive interpreting, it seems that the latter is more appropriate term to express what exactly is done by an interpreter while jotting the words. Simply put, note-taking means to write down all the words of the speaker completely, but note making means to write down words needed for reproducing speeches in the other languages.

#### REFERENCES

- [1] Allioni, S. (1989). Towards a grammar of consecutive interpretation. *The Theoretical and Practical Aspects of Teaching Conference Interpretation*. Udine: Campanotto.
- [2] Ary, D., Jacobs, L. Ch., Razavieh, A. & Sorensen, Ch. (2010). Introduction to research in education. (8th ed.). Belmont: Wadsworth.
- [3] Becker, W. (1972). Notizentechnik. Gernersheim, Germany: BBK.
- [4] Chen, S. (2016). Note taking in consecutive interpreting: A review with special focus on Chinese and English literature. *The Journal of Specialised Translation*, Issue26, 151-170. Retrieved from <http://www.jostrans.org/> (accessed 12/06/2017).
- [5] Chesterman, A. & Williams, J. (2002). The map: A beginner's guide to doing research in translation studies. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.
- [6] Cardoen, H. (ed.) (2013). The Effect of Note taking on Target-Text Fluency. Leuven, Belgium: CETRA.

- [7] Cohen, L. Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (5th ed.). London: Routledge. Retrieved from <http://www.jostrans.org/> (accessed 12/06/2017).
- [8] Dabaghi, A., Moinzadeh, A. & Mobasheri, M. (2015). Accreditation of interpreter training courses curriculum in bachelors of English translation in Iranian universities. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, Vol 4, No 6, 1-7
- [9] Dai, W. & Xu, H. (2007). An empirical study of the features of interpreters' notes in Chinese-English consecutive interpreting: The examples of professionally trained and unprofessional interpreters. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 39(2), 136-144.
- [10] Dam, H.V. (2007). What makes interpreters' notes efficient?: Features of (non-)efficiency in interpreter's notes for consecutive. *Doubts and Directions in Translation Studies: Selected contributions from the EST Congress, Lisbon 2004, (Vol. 72)*, 183-197.
- [11] Gillies, A. (2005). *Note taking for consecutive interpreting: A short course*. Manchester. St. Jerome. Retrieved from <http://books.google.com/book> (accessed 10/06/2017).
- [12] Her, H. (2001). Notetaking in basic interpretation class: An initial investigation. *Studies of Translation and Interpretation*, 6, 53-77.
- [13] Heidari, H. (2008). *Towards developing a framework for the evaluation of Iranian undergraduate students' academic translation* (Doctoral thesis, Shiraz University, Iran).
- [14] Hermann, A. (1956/2002). *Interpreting in antiquity* (R. Morris, Trans). In F. Pochhacker & M. Shlesinger (Eds.), *The interpreting studies reader*. London/New York: Routledge, 15-22
- [15] Ilg, G. & Lambert, S. (1996). Teaching consecutive interpreting. *Interpreting* 1(1), 69-99.
- [16] Kirchhoff, H. (1979). Die notationsprache als hilfsmittel des konferenzdolmetschers im konsekutivvorgang. *Sprachtheorie und Sprachpraxis*. Tübingen: Gunter Narr.
- [17] Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- [18] Mackay, A. & Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- [19] Matyssek, H. (1989). *Handbuch der notizentechnik für dolmetscher*. Heidelberg: Julius Groos
- [20] Mousavi, M.S. (2015). *Interpreter training specific techniques: A didactic approach*. (Doctoral thesis, Allameh Tabataba'i University, Iran).
- [21] Paas, F. & Merriënboer V. (1994). Instructional control of cognitive load in the training of complex cognitive tasks. *Educational Psychology Review* 6(4), 351-371
- [22] Paas, F., Tuovinen, J., Tabbers, A., & Gerven, V. (2003). Cognitive load measurement as a means to advance cognitive load theory. *Educational Psychologist* 38(1), 63-71.
- [23] Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, Th. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. (3th ed.). England: Cambridge University Press.
- [24] Saldanha, G. & O'Brien, Sh. (2014). *Research methodologies in translation studies*. London: Routledge.
- [25] Seeber, K. G. (2011). Cognitive load in simultaneous interpreting: Existing theories - new models. *Interpreting* 13(2), 176-204.
- [26] Seeber, K. G. (2013). Cognitive load in simultaneous interpreting: Measures and methods. *Target* 25(1), 18-32.
- [27] Seleskovitch, D. & Lederer, M. (1989/1995). *A systematic approach to teaching interpretation*. (J. Harmer, Trans.). Silver Spring, MD: Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf
- [28] Tommola, J. & Hyona, J. (1990). Mental load in listening, speech shadowing and simultaneous interpreting: A pupillometric study. *Foreign Language Comprehension and Production*. Turku: AfinLA.
- [29] Vermeer, H. J. (1992). *Skizzen zu einer Geschichte der Translation*. Frankfurt: Verlag für interkulturelle Kommunikation.
- [30] Wang, W. D. Z. & Wang, L. (2010). An empirical study of note taking characteristics and output quality in interpreting. *Foreign Language World* 4, 9-18.



**Rasoul Marani** (Iran, 1983) is currently a master's student in English Translation Studies at the Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch (IAUKB), Isfahan, Iran. He completed his bachelor's degree in English Translation at Payame-noor University at Isfahan, in 2010.

His previous study titled "Professional Interpreters' Notes in Persian-English Consecutive Interpreting: On the Choice of Form and Language" was published by RELP (Research in English language pedagogy), Volume 5, Issue 2, Summer and Autumn 2017, Page 133-146. Translation studies especially interpreting are his research interests.



**Hossein Heidari Tabrizi** (Iran, 1969) is an assistant professor of TEFL at the English Department of Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch (IAUKB), Isfahan, Iran. His research interests include Testing, Translation studies, Discourse Analysis, and Sociolinguistics.

# The Relevance among Preservice English Teachers' Preparation Courses, Their Views about Teaching and Their Real Teaching Behaviors (A Case Study)

Hosam ElDeen Ahmed El-Sawy  
Damanhour University, Egypt;  
Jouf University, KSA

**Abstract**—This study aims at investigating the relevance among three factors: preservice English teachers' preparation courses, their views about teaching and their real teaching behaviors. This is a case study focusing on three preservice teachers of English in Egypt. Data was collected through three tools: an observation sheet, a semi-structured interview and a focus group. Results of the study revealed that there is a gap between what preservice English teachers learn in their preparation courses, their views about effective teaching and their real behaviors in class. The reasons which the participants gave for not applying what they have learned theoretically include: insufficient preservice training, students' low level, insufficient class time, students' resistance of changing the way they are used to learn, insufficiency of equipment in schools, students' preference of using the native language in learning, and in one case the teacher herself preferred the traditional grammar translation method. The study recommends early coordination between teacher preparation institutions and schools. The study recommends the incorporation of senior teachers in teacher preparation programs to try to breach the theory-practice gap. The study also recommends that teacher educators should analyze the given causes of the theory-practice gap and develop the English teachers' preparation courses in accordance.

**Index Terms**—preservice English teachers, preparation courses, teaching behaviors, gap

## I. INTRODUCTION

The teacher is the keystone in the educational system. Thus, teacher preparation programs are very important for the development of any educational system. The teaching of English in Egypt faces many problems. The most serious problem is that students in pre-college stages study English from Kindergarten until they finish high school; though, They achieve very high marks in national exams, their real level of English is very low. They do not master the four language skills in a satisfactory way. This is due to many reasons but the most important reason from my point of view is the teacher.

Teachers of English in Egypt are prepared at colleges of education and are provided with different theories and methods of teaching English as a foreign language. However, when they start their career a great difference is noticed between what they have learnt at college and what they really practice in schools. This gap between theory (what they have learnt at college) and practice (how they teach in schools) starts early in their teaching practice courses. This poses the question of the avail and worthiness of teacher education in Egypt and its relation to teaching practices.

The gap between the theory and practice in teaching English as a foreign language is an important topic for investigation. This topic of theory practice gap has not been investigated deeply in Egypt. It is important to investigate the English teacher preparation programs in Egypt and investigating the gap that occurs between theory and practice. This could help find out the roots of the problem and could help find possible solutions.

Preservice English teachers in Egypt often complain about the lack of relevance of the theoretical courses in their preparation programs and the real teaching in classes. The big challenge for teacher educators is creating relevant links between practice and theory in English teachers' preparation programs.

## II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Examining the literature in the area of the gap between theory and practice in English teachers' preparation and their real teaching behaviors reveals the focus on certain issues. These issues include: explaining the gap showing its significance; teachers views about this problem; and the suggested solutions.

### **Explaining the gap and its significance:**

Some main issues in this respect is the collaboration between teacher preparation institutions and schools. Another issue is the linkage between what is taught in teacher preparation and practicing it directly when learned. Another main

issue is the various reasons of the gap between theory and practice in teaching English. These three issues appears in many studies.

Many teacher preparation programs do not carefully address the classroom contexts in which teachers work (Buthelezi, 2004). In this regard, Samuel (1998) asserted that preservice teacher education, should form a collaboration between institutions of teacher training and schools. He argued that both teacher educators and teachers should constantly check the existing teaching practices and theories to find out the gap between practices and theories so that they can work collaboratively to breach this gap through new techniques. Similarly, Mukeredzi and Mandrona (2013) examined the experiences of 14 Bachelor of Education students who participated in a four-week teaching practice in a school in South Africa. The researchers collected data from the preservice teachers' reflective journals and conducted collaborative reflection sessions. Results of their study revealed that preservice teachers had positive experiences concerning collaborative reflection sessions and classroom practices. However, the preservice teachers had negative experiences with supervisors and the school system. The researchers argued that the challenges which preservice teachers experience may constitute their ability to obtain great benefit from their preservice training.

Ping (2015) investigated preservice teachers' perception of their preparation. The study aimed at checking the 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013 cohorts studying for a BA in TEFL and examining the effectiveness of four- -year pre-service English preparation program in Chinese universities, and what needs to be modified or sustained from the perspective of preservice teachers. Data was collected through the use of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Three hundred participants completed the questionnaires and two hundred of them were randomly selected for the semi-structured interviews. One issue of the study was related to the gap between theory and practice. The study revealed that preservice teachers only had tests to demonstrate what they had learned instead of applying the theories they learn in real teaching practice. Consequently, most of the BA preservice TEFL teachers had forgotten the theoretical knowledge they had learned when asked about it in the final exam. They researcher asserted that only when abstract theory was linked with classroom practice could learners remember and apply it.

Kırkgoz (2008) conducted a case study focusing on the impact of teacher training on their implementation of the Communicative Oriented Curriculum in teaching English to young students in Turkish formal schools. The researcher collected data through various tools including classroom observations, interviews and lesson transcripts. Thirty-two teachers participated in this case study. Results of the study revealed that teachers' prior training had an effect on the extent of their implementation of the communicative oriented curriculum. The study recommends providing teachers with ongoing opportunities for training and development, especially during the first few years of applying a new curriculum. Kırkgoz (2008) gave some reasons for the gap between practice and theory. The main reason was that the new curriculum aims and objectives were borrowed from western contexts with little attention to the specialty of Turkish settings. The researcher adds that other reasons explaining the theory-practice gap are teachers' perceptions, their prior training, the insufficient guidance, the effect of textbooks, large classes and lack of suitable needed resources. The researcher reported that studies exploring these reasons are reported by researchers from different contexts such as Kırkgoz, 2006, 2007 in Turkey; Hu, 2002 in China; Carless, 1998, 2001, 2003 in Hong Kong; Nunan, 2003 in the Asia-Pacific region ; and Li, 1998 in South Korean.

Özdemir et al (2015) investigated how much knowledge preservice teachers can apply in their teaching practice. The researcher collected data through an open-ended interview. The participants of the study were forty-two senior year students from various departments at the faculty of education at a university in Turkey. The study revealed that, the themes participants could turn into practice the most successfully were "communication with the students" and "classroom management". Whereas, the least themes successfully transformed into practice were "knowledge of subject area", and "students' development assessment". The reason provided for the gap between theory and practice was the lack of sufficient number of practical courses in the teacher preparation program investigated.

Cheng et al (2010) examined the inconsistencies between student teachers' best teaching strategies and their most commonly employed ones. The researchers collected data through an interview. Findings of the study revealed three main reasons of the inconsistencies between theory and practice. These three reasons were the preservice teachers' perceptions of teaching, their pre-training experience, and the school context in which they do their practice.

Hatasa (2013) focused on exploring the reasons the theory-practice gap occurs and persists. The researcher stated that the social perceptions of researchers and teachers are different and this is the main reason for the gap between theory and practice. Moreover, the researcher emphasizes that the profession of a researcher is greatly different form the profession of a teacher. Consequently, both teachers and researcher have different ways in interpreting the value of different teaching practices.

Tudor (2003), claims that the teacher's reality is thus an ecological one which is shaped by the attitudes and expectations of students, parents, school administrators, material writers and many others including, of course, each teacher as an individual in his or her own right. The factors contributing to the gap between teachers' beliefs and actual teaching practices may be rooted in teachers' inability to articulate their beliefs, or in student variables (e.g. student proficiency level and learning attitudes or motivation) in educational contexts (e.g. a mandated syllabus, insufficient instruction time, large classes, grammar-based examinations). They may also result from institutional culture e.g. institutional requirements, heavy teaching load, negative collegiality, or from teachers' wish to promote a particular image of themselves (cited in Fayyaz and Omar 2014 ).

As seen in this section, a lot of studies discussed the theory-practice gap focusing on its causes. However, none of these studies focused on the comparison among the three major factors involved in the problem. These factors can be clarified by comparing what preservice EFL teachers learn, their own views about effective teaching techniques and their real teaching behaviors. This is the purpose of the present study.

#### **Teachers' views about the theory-practice gap:**

Few studies tried to investigate what preservice teachers think about the relationship between theory and practice. Peercy (2012) studied preservice teachers' perceptions of their preparation programs and their awareness of the practical and theoretical issues involved in these programs. The study also investigated the image those preservice teachers form for themselves as teachers. The study found out that the issue of theory-practice relationship is clear in ESL perceptions of their preparation programs. Moreover, exploring theory and practice has continuing importance because teachers' understandings of the relationship between theory and practice differ in ways that are related to the image preservice teachers form for themselves as teachers. That is why there is a strong need for more research that investigates what aspects of preparation programs are perceived as valuable or not valuable and what are the factors affecting this perception. The researcher added that it is necessary to encourage preservice ESL teachers to discuss their assumptions about the language, and help them discover the practical implications of these assumptions in teaching English. The researcher also pinpointed the importance of guiding preservice ESL teachers to analyze the theories related to the nature of language and think of ways they can apply these theories in teaching English as a second language.

Fayyaz and Omar (2014) discussed the relationship between beliefs and practices as well as factors shaping the beliefs of EFL/ESL teachers. The researchers found out that teachers have both interpersonal and intrapersonal beliefs. These beliefs are formed from theories preservice teachers study as well as their own experiences in life. The researchers added that these beliefs are not rigid as they are modified during actual practice in school settings. The researchers discovered that the influence of taught theories in real practice is little. This refers to the gap of theory and practice in language teaching. What preservice teachers learn in their preparation programs has little influence on their actual teaching of the language.

Safari and Rashidi (2015) studied the application of post-transmission theories by Iranian English language teachers and the challenges they face when applying these theories. The participants in the study were ten experienced teachers of English and three teacher educators. The researchers gathered data through three instruments: reflective narratives, collaborative dialogues and interviews. The researchers found out that participants thought that it is important to modify the Iranian teacher preparation programs using alternative approaches and methods to achieve a better result. However, they clarified that this process of development of teacher preparation programs should be carefully thought of by all personal involved.

As seen in this section, very few studies covered the issue of students' beliefs and views about teaching English. Also, most of these studies focused on general beliefs and views about teaching the language. That is why the present study seeks to investigate preservice English teachers' views about teaching language in relation to their training and their real teaching behaviors.

#### **Suggested Solutions to the problem:**

The suggested solutions to the problem of theory-practice gap include taking into consideration students' learning experiences; mentoring systems between teachers and researchers; bringing practicing teachers into higher education context; online collaboration between preservice teachers; and incorporating more practical courses in English teacher preparation programs. These solutions were presented by the following studies.

Edge and Mann (2013) found out that their initial teacher preparation program might have hindered students' ability to close the gap between theory and practice because it never took the student teachers' own experiences as a learner as a starting point; they did not explicitly guide student teachers in exploring their own initial beliefs about language learning and teaching. They concluded that if this is done, they are going to have a positive effect on both students' willingness to entertain new theoretical notions and their ability to integrate new ideas with existing ideas.

D'Souza (2014) examined the benefits of an unintended mentoring relationship between researchers and beginning teachers during a longitudinal, qualitative study. The study highlights the opportunity for teacher preparation to serve as a bridge to close the gap in learning between the relatively theoretical world of teacher preparation and practical world of classroom teaching. The study analyzed extensive qualitative data relating to two beginning teachers over a five-year period. This study provided support for developing communities of practice to bridge the gap of support between teacher preparation and the teaching profession. The study recommends creating a support network between two individuals with an established, trusting relationship and comparable theoretical groundings. Finally, the relationship must be built around non-evaluative, questioning strategies that encourage teacher inquiry. The established trust and bridge of ideas between a researcher and a participant completing preparation at the same university are key factors in successful support (D'Souza, 2014).

Cope and Stephen (2001) discussed the challenges in the field of teacher preparation programs in two settings, namely schools and higher education institutions. The researchers clarified that the incorporation of practicing teachers in teacher preparation programs has many merits. These merits include the presentation of situated and practical knowledge of teaching to preservice teachers thus providing more quality professional input. The researchers also indicated that the relationship between theory and practice aspects of the preparation programs are questionable. It is



concluded that involvement of practicing teachers in teacher preparation programs may act as a foundation for developing effective teacher preparation programs and could contribute to the professional development of teachers as well as teacher educators.

Dooly and Sadler (2013) investigated the effect of online collaboration in the field of teacher education programs. The study lasted for two years during which two groups of preservice teachers from Spain and the United States worked collaboratively online with the purpose of achieving better understanding and application of the communicative language teaching approach. The two groups gave each other peer feedback on different learning and teaching activities. The researchers used different tools such as Moodle, emails, Skype, wikis, and podcasting. The researchers analyzed data gathered during the online collaboration between the two groups. Results of the study revealed that the group online collaboration helped teacher development because it created opportunities, which are not available in more traditional teacher preparation programs. The study also revealed that the online collaboration enabled preservice teachers to create strong connections between theoretical aspects and their actual practice inside classrooms.

Kareva (2013) states that one of the biggest challenges that face teacher education in Europe seems to be the gap between theory and practice. The researcher states that the main reason for this gap is the lack of practical work. The researcher suggests that the solution could be to incorporate CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) or elements of it into teacher preparation programs or modify the courses in these programs to be more similar to CELTA activities. By this, the teacher preparation programs can become more practical. Consequently, the gap between theory and practice will be diminished.

To sum up, research concerning the theory-practice gap in teaching English has focused on the reasons of the gap, teachers' perceptions and some solutions to the problem. It is clear that this area needs more research to clarify the factors involved in the problem trying to figure it out reaching the roots and complications that creates it. This could lead to breaching this theory-practice gap and consequently improve the quality of teaching English as a foreign or a second language.

### III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. How are preservice English teachers prepared in Egypt?
2. What are preservice English teachers' views about effective teaching?
3. What are preservice English teachers' real teaching behaviors in classes?
4. How much is the gap among what preservice English teachers learn in their preparation courses; what they view as effective teaching and what they really do in class?

### IV. METHOD

#### **Participants:**

Three preservice teachers of English from Damanhour, Egypt participated in this project.

#### **Instruments:**

##### **1- Observation sheet of preservice English teachers' teaching behaviors:**

An observation sheet was designed to help record preservice English teachers' real teaching behaviors (appendix 1). The observation sheet focused on the following aspects:

- Teachers' techniques in teaching new vocab.
- Teachers' techniques in developing the four language skills
- Teachers' use of teaching aids
- Teachers' use of native language
- Levels of students' involvement
- Other aspects

##### **2- Interview**

An interview was conducted with the three preservice English teachers. It was a semi-structured interview with a list of flexible questions allowing for further viewpoints from interviewees. The interview questions focused on preservice English teachers' views about effective techniques for the observed aspects: vocabulary presentation, skills development, use of teaching aids, use of native language and students' involvement (Appendix 2).

##### **3- Focus group**

The focus group consisted of the three preservice English teachers and focused on one question which is why did not they apply what they have learnt in preparation courses in their real teaching?

### V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

#### *A. Question 1: How Are Preservice English Teachers Prepared in Egypt?*

The researcher studied the English teacher preparation program at the faculty of education, Damanhour University, Egypt as a representative sample of English teachers' preparation programs in Egypt. All colleges of education in Egypt

follow almost the same study plan with minor differences. Following are the main features and components of this program.

#### **Teacher of English preparation program in Egypt:**

Students at English department at colleges of education in Egypt have a combined study. That is to say, they are prepared academically and professionally simultaneously. The study in the program takes four complete years two semesters each. Academically their skills of English are developed through various courses in English literature and English linguistics together with courses for the development of their English language skills (reading, writing, conversation)

Professionally, they study a variety of courses. They study four courses for their direct preparation as teachers of English: TEFL 1, TEFL2, teaching practice 1 and teaching practice 2. Also, they study general courses for teacher preparation including courses of educational psychology, educational foundations and educational administration.

#### **TEFL1**

This course is in the third year of the program, the same academic year they start their teaching practice 1.

The course focuses on practical skills needed inside classrooms to help preservice teachers teach effectively when they go to schools. The main topics of the course are: general terms related to TEFL; lesson planning; vocabulary presentation; grammar presentation; skills development (listening, speaking, reading and writing); and approaches of TEFL. The only theoretical topic is the last one. The main emphasis of the course is on how to plan and apply lessons of English especially how to develop the four language skills.

The course is taught through a lecture given by a PhD member specialized in TEFL and accompanied with practical lessons for each topic given by a teaching assistant or an assistant lecturer specialized in TEFL.

#### **TEFL 2**

The course is in the fourth year of the program, the last year of teachers of English preparation program. Students at this year continue their teaching practice with teaching practice 2.

The course focuses more on current trends in TEFL. The main topics of the course are: approaches of foreign language syllabus design; communicative language teaching; task-based language instruction; using games in language classes; motivation in language learning; skills development revisited.

The course is taught through a lecture given by a PhD member specialized in TEFL and accompanied with practical lessons for each topic given by a teaching assistant or an assistant lecturer specialized in TEFL.

#### **Teaching practice 1 and Teaching practice 2**

Those two courses are not courses taught in campus. They are completely carried out at public schools.

These courses are nearly identical in the procedures they follow except for the level of the school preservice teachers go to. In teaching practice 1 student teachers go to middle schools whereas in teaching practice 2 they go to high schools.

The procedures followed in teaching practice courses are:

- Preservice teachers are divided in groups of 7 or so.
- Every group is assigned to a public school to spend one day a week for a complete academic year.
- Three members help students and evaluate them in these courses (the school principle who is responsible for the administrative aspects of preservice teachers; the educational supervisor, who is responsible for the technical aspects of preservice teachers' training; and the academic supervisor who is a PhD holder who visits preservice teachers occasionally and supervises their practice)
- Preservice teachers spend about three weeks observing in-service teachers and fill in observation sheets that are prepared for this purpose. After each observation, they meet with the professional supervisors and discuss the class they have observed. This observation and discussion are done in groups.
- Then preservice teachers start teaching one class every week. They prepare a lesson plan beforehand. While teaching two or more of their colleagues observe and fill observation sheets. The educational as well as the academic supervisors observe these classes according to a set schedule. After each class, the whole group meets for discussion.
- At the end of the academic year, preservice teachers spend a complete week at schools acting as full-time teachers. They have a full-time schedule in which they teach more than one class daily. They have visits from the educational and academic supervisors during this week as well as discussion sessions about their performance.

#### **Other courses:**

Students study other courses for their general preparation as teachers. These courses are taught to all students at the faculty of education and not exclusive to the students of English department. These courses include: curriculum; educational technology; methods of teaching for special education; general teaching skills; educational psychology; statistics; measurement; instructional psychology; fundamentals of education; comparative education; education and the problems of society; mental health and psychological counseling; using computers in teaching; and the teacher and the profession of teaching.

#### *B. Questions from Two to Four*

- 1. What are preservice English teachers' views about effective teaching?**
- 2. What are preservice English teachers' real teaching behaviors in classes?**

### 3. How much is the gap among what preservice English teachers learn in their preparation courses; what they view as effective teaching and what they really do in class?

These three questions of the study are dealt with collectively. That is to say, all data gathered from observation, interviews and the focus group are presented together related to each preservice teacher and discussed.

#### Preservice English teacher 1:

##### Vocab. presentation

- Teacher asks "What is the meaning of .....?" students provide Arabic meaning of the word and if they don't know teacher provides the Arabic translation
- No steps of teaching vocabulary are used.
- This contradicts teacher views about the best way of teaching vocab. As she explained that the best way of teaching vocabulary is to put the word in a sentence and let students guess the meaning.
- This is one of the techniques taught in their teacher preparation course which is called illustrative sentences.
- However, this is a verbal technique and it was emphasized in their training that ostensive techniques come first as they are easier and more effective especially with young learners like here students.
- Thus there is a contradiction among three things (what she was taught, what she thinks is effective and what she really applies in class)

##### Language skills development

- No learned steps are used when teaching any of the skills.
- Views about teaching language skills showed that she believes that:
  - the best way for teaching reading is to give them time to read then read with them
  - the best way for teaching listening is to read the text for them more than one time
  - the best way for teaching writing is that students write words on board and teacher corrects for them
  - the best way for teaching speaking is to make students speak English as much as possible
- These views have very tiny relevance to what preservice teachers have been trained on in their preparation courses.
  - In reading giving students time to read is one step but other steps are neglected.
  - In listening reading the text or playing the tape is one step but other steps are neglected.
  - In writing, the views of the preservice teacher stated have nothing to do with the steps and activities taught in the preparation courses.
  - The same for speaking she only gave a general statement about what they should do.
- Again there is a contradiction among three things (what the preservice teacher was taught, what she thinks is effective and what she really applies in class)

##### Use of Teaching aids

- Observation: none was used in teaching.
- Views: some are important but we cannot use all because students laugh at some aids and there is no class time for aids.
- Views are based on assumptions not experience and trail as the teacher has not tried using any aids at all.
- Training: aids save class time not waste it. Aids attract and motivate students not make them laugh at the teacher

##### Use of Arabic

- Observation : a lot of Arabic
- Views: use it sometimes because students do not understand English but not all the time
- Training: use Arabic when it is very necessary such as teaching abstract words and difficult situations. English should be the dominant language in class

##### Involvement of students

- Observation: low
- Views: important
- Training: the core (involve me I'll learn)

##### Other aspects observed:

- Lack of enthusiasm
- Classroom management problems

##### Why not apply what have been learnt:

The preservice teacher stated that she can't do all the things she has learned at college because students can't change the way they use with their previous teachers and they feel that new methods are strange. She added that class time is short.

Those two reasons were not mentioned in any previous study as reasons of the theory-practice gap. Thus, they need more investigation.

It seems that the teacher surrenders to students wishes. This could be because the teacher does not want any hard times with students. She chose the easy way. May be preservice teachers need training in how to change and face change resistance. As for the issue of insufficient class time, it may be due to the preservice teacher's lack of experience or misconception that new methods of teaching take more time. Teacher educators need to take care of those two issues when designing preparation programs.

**Preservice English teacher 2:**Vocab. Presentation

- Teacher asks "What is the meaning of .....?" students provide Arabic meaning of the word and if they don't know teacher provides the Arabic translation
- No steps of teaching vocabulary are used.
- This contradicts teacher views about the best of way of teaching vocab. As she explained that the best way of teaching vocabulary is to use ostensive techniques such as visual cards, pictures, board drawings
- This is one of the techniques taught in their teacher preparation course
- This agrees with what was taught as it was emphasized in their training that ostensive techniques come first as they are easier and more effective especially with young learners like here students.
- Here there is consensus between what is taught and the views but they are different form real teaching behaviors

Language skills development

- One or no steps are used when teaching the skills
- Views about teaching language skills showed that the preservice teacher believes that:
  - the best way to teaching reading is to make students read silently.
  - the best way to teaching listening is to use the cassette player.
  - the best way to teaching writing is that students write words on board and teacher corrects for them.
  - as for teaching speaking she had no clear views about it
- These views have very tiny relevance to what they have been trained on in their courses:
  - In reading, silent reading is one step but other steps are neglected and even when students began reading silently, the teacher complained that they are making noise. Making noise is normal as some students are used to loud reading; articulating sounds while reading.
  - In listening, playing the tape is one step but other steps are neglected
  - In writing, the preservice teacher's views have nothing to do with the steps and activities taught in the course.
  - Speaking was neglected complete by the teacher as she mentioned nothing about her views about it and she had no clue about how to teach it.
- Again there is a contradiction among three things (what she was taught, what she thinks is effective and what she really applies in class)

Use of Teaching aids

- Non used in teaching
- Views: very important to be used in class to make students understand
- Training : agrees with the views
- Training and views agree while they both contradict what was applied in class

Use of Arabic

- Observation : a lot of Arabic especially in classroom language.
- Views: Arabic is important to convey information as students can't understand English
- Training: use Arabic only when it is necessary such as teaching abstract words and difficult situations. English should be the dominant language in class.

Involvement of students

- Observation: low
- Views: important
- Training : the core (involve me I'll learn)

Other aspects observed:

- Lack of enthusiasm
- Classroom management problems.

Why not apply what have been learnt:

The preservice teacher stated that she cannot do all the things she learned in here preparation courses because the level of students is not suitable. She added that students want teachers to talk in Arabic all the time as they can't understand English. She added that, the time of class is short and not enough to apply new methods in teaching. She also mentioned that the school is not equipped well with things we learn at college.

Insufficient class time appeared again similar to the first preservice teacher. It recurrence indicates that preservice teachers needs more training in classroom management and time management. This could help provide them with more time and give them confidence in applying new methods of teaching. Two more reasons appeared here: students' low level and lack of equipments. Students' low level was not mentioned as one of the reasons of theory-practice gap in previous studies while lack of equipment was mentioned in some studies such as the study of Nunan (2003).

**Preservice English teacher 3:**Vocab. Presentation

- Arabic translation is the main technique used
- No steps of teaching vocabulary are used.

- This contradicts teacher views about the best of way of teaching vocab. As she explained that the best way of teaching vocabulary is to use pictures and illustrative sentences
- These are two techniques emphasized in the preparation course.
- This agrees with what was taught in the preparation courses.
- Here there is consensus between that is taught and the views but they are different form real teaching behaviors.

#### Language skills development

- No steps are used when teaching any of the skills
- Views about teaching language skills showed that the preservice teacher believes that:
  - The best way to teaching reading is that teacher reads loudly to students.
  - The best way to teaching listening is that students listen to teachers a lot.
  - The best way to teaching writing was completely neglected and no views were mentioned about it.
  - The best way to teaching speaking is to make students read and speak imitating teachers' pronunciation.
- These views have nothing to do with what they have been trained on in their preparation courses:
  - In reading students should read not the teacher.
  - In listening, listen to the teacher is not a technique of activity taught in the course and even if they listen, the teacher speaks Arabic most of the time so they are listening to Arabic not English.
  - Writing was neglected as if the teacher has no information about it.
  - Speaking was confused with reading and imitation was the only technique the teacher believed in.
- Again there is a contradiction among three things (what preservice teacher was taught, what she thinks is effective and what she really applies in class)

#### Use of Teaching aids

- Observation: None used in teaching
- Views: it is important to bring anything related to the lesson
- Training : agrees with the views
- Training and views agree while they both contradict what was applied in class

#### Use of Arabic

- Observation : too much Arabic
- Views: we should speak English as we are teachers of English but students make us use Arabic.
- Training: use Arabic only when it is necessary such as teaching abstract words and difficult situations. English should be the dominant language in class
- Views agree with what preservice teachers learned but teaching behaviors contradicts it.

#### Involvement of students

- Observation :average
- Views: important
- Training : the core (involve me I'll learn)

#### Other aspects observed:

- Problems in managing the class.
- Good reinforcement

#### Why not apply what have been learnt:

The preservice teacher stated that she loves teaching but in the traditional way. She admitted that she should change herself and added that the problem is in the teacher, students and college training. She concluded that the educational system should change in both schools and colleges.

The idea that the teacher herself prefers the traditional method of teaching, depending on translation, raises the issue of convincing preservice teachers with the avail of new methods of teaching not just introducing these methods to them. This means teacher educators need to exert more effort in explaining the rationale of each teaching method presented to preservice teachers in their preparation courses. The idea that preservice training is one of the causes of the theory-practice gap is similar to what Cheng et al (2010) has stated.

To sum up, preservice teachers presented a variety of causes of the theory-practice gap in teaching English as a foreign language. This means that teacher educators need to analyze these reasons and do significant development of English teachers' preparation courses in relation to these factors.

## VI. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study revealed that there is a big gap among what preservice English teachers learn in their preparation courses, what they view as effective teaching and their real teaching behaviors. This was very clear in nearly all aspects of teaching (vocabulary presentation, skills development, students' involvement, and use of native language in EFL classes). Sometimes there was agreement between what preservice teachers view as effective teaching and what they had learned in their preparation courses. This indicates that some of them were convinced theoretically with what they learn in their preparation courses. However, when it came to real teaching they forgot about that and surrendered to the traditional methods of teaching. Even in the few situations they applied what they had learned in preparation courses, they applied it partially not thoroughly. Preservice English teachers gave a lot of reasons why they did not apply what

they have learned theoretically in their real teaching. These reasons included insufficient preservice training, low level of students, students' unwillingness to change their learning behaviors and their pressure on teachers to conform to the traditional techniques of teaching, lack of sufficient time, lack of equipment and sometimes the teacher himself/herself preferred the easy way of teaching using the native language all the time not bothering about the methods and techniques of teaching.

Theoretically, this study filled a research gap. Most of the studies that dealt with theory-practice gap focused on finding out the reasons for the gap through surveys and questionnaires while the present study provides detailed insight in preservice English teachers' views about effective teaching of English and their real teaching behaviors in all major aspects of teaching. Moreover, the researcher could not find any study in Egypt related to the theory-practice gap in teaching English. Consequently, the study provides an insight to this issue in a new context.

Practically, this study provides educational authorities, teachers and teacher educators with detailed insight in preservice English teachers' views about effective teaching and their real teaching behaviors. The study recommends that early collaboration between teacher educators and schools together with incorporation of senior teachers in teacher preparation programs could help breach the theory-practice gap. The study also recommends that teacher educators should analyze the given causes of the theory-practice gap and develop the English teachers' preparation courses in accordance.

VII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- Investigating English teacher educators' perceptions of the theory-practice gap in teaching English.
- Investigating in-service teachers' perceptions of the theory-practice gap in teaching English.
- A longitudinal study of the theory-practice gap in relation to teacher development through the accumulating years of experience.
- Experimental studies for investigating possible solutions to the theory-practice gap in teaching English.

APPENDIX (1). OBSERVATION SHEET OF PRESERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS' TEACHING BEHAVIORS (PREPARED BY THE RESEARCHER)

<b>Preservice Teachers' Name:</b> ..... <b>Date:</b> ..... <b>Vocabulary Presentation Techniques:</b> ..... ..... <b>Language Skills Development Techniques:</b> <b>Listening:</b> ..... ..... <b>Speaking:</b> ..... ..... <b>Reading:</b> ..... ..... <b>Writing:</b> ..... ..... <b>Use of Teaching Aids:</b> ..... ..... <b>Use of Native Language:</b> ..... ..... <b>Students' Involvement Levels:</b> ..... <b>Other Aspects:</b> .....
--

APPENDIX (2). INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

The interviewees were asked the following questions:

- 1- What are the effective techniques for presenting vocabulary?
- 2- What are the effective techniques for developing students' listening skills?
- 3- What are the effective techniques for developing students' speaking skills?
- 4- What are the effective techniques for developing students' reading skills?
- 5- What are the effective techniques for developing students' writing skills?
- 6- What do you think of the use of the native language in EFL classes?
- 7- What do you think of the use of teaching aids in EFL classes?
- 8- What do you think of students' involvement during class time?
- 9- Would you like to add anything?

## REFERENCES

- [1] Buthelezi, T. (2004). The HIV/AIDS epidemic and teacher development: Defining positional perspectives. In R. Balfour, C. Mitchell, & T. Buthelezi (eds.), *Teacher development at the centre of change*. Durban, South Africa: SEMI, 93–105.
- [2] Carless, D. R. (1998). A case study of curriculum innovation in Hong Kong. *System*, 26, 353–368.
- [3] Carless, D. R. (2001). A case study of curriculum innovation in Hong Kong. In D. R. Hall, & A. Hewings (eds.), *Innovation in English language teaching*. London: Routledge, 263–274.
- [4] Carless, D. R. (2003). Factors in the implementation of taskbased teaching in primary schools. *System*, 31(4), 485–500.
- [5] Cheng, M.; Cheng, A.; & Tang, S. (2010). Closing the gap between the theory and practice of teaching: Implications for teacher education programmes in Hong Kong. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 36 (1), 91-104.
- [6] Cope, P. & Stephen, C. (2001). A role for practising teachers in initial teacher education, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 913–924.
- [7] Dooly, M. & Sadler, R. (2013). Filling in the gaps: Linking theory and practice through telecollaboration in teacher education, *The Journal of EUROCALL*, 25 (1), 4-29.
- [8] D'Souza, L. (2014). Bridging the gap for beginning teachers: Researcher as mentor. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*, 3 (2), 171-187.
- [9] Edge, J. & Mann, S. (2013). Innovations in pre-service education and training for English language teachers. British Council, London, UK.
- [10] Fayyaz, S. & Omar, H. (2014). A study of contextual situatedness of English language teachers' beliefs and practices about the form-focused instruction: A case study in Sandakan district, Sabah, *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 134, 201 – 212.
- [11] Hatasa, Y. (2013). The gap between theory and practice: Problems and possibilities. *Journal CAJLE*, 14, (1), 1-17.
- [12] Hu, G. (2002). Potential cultural resistance to pedagogical imports: The case of communicative language teaching in China. *Language Culture and Curriculum*, 15(2), 93–105.
- [13] Kareva, V. (2013). Improving quality in English language teacher education, *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 70,1482 – 1486
- [14] Kirkgoz, Y. (2006). Teaching English as a Foreign Language at the primary level in Turkey: An exploratory school-based case study. In M. McCloskey, M. Dolitsky, & J. Orr (eds.), *Teaching English as a foreign language in primary school*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL Publications, 85–99.
- [15] Kirkgoz, Y. (2007). Language planning and implementation in Turkish primary schools. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 8(2), 174–191.
- [16] Kirkgoz, Y. (2008). A case study of teachers' implementation of curriculum innovation in English language teaching in Turkish primary education, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24, 1859–1875.
- [17] Li, D. (1998). "It is always more difficult than you plan and imagine". Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 677–697.
- [18] Mukeredzi, T. & Mandrona, A. (2013). The journey to becoming professionals: Student teachers' experiences of teaching practice in a rural South African context, *International Journal of Educational Research*, 62, 141–151.
- [19] Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(4), 589–613.
- [20] Özdemir, S.; Ceylan, M. & Canoğlu, S. (2015). To What extent can pre-service teachers turn theoretical knowledge they have acquired into practice? *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 7 (2), 265 – 282.
- [21] Peercy, M. (2012). Problematizing the theory-practice gap: How ESL teachers make sense of their preservice education, *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education Eğitimde Kuram ve Uygulama*, 8 (1), 20-40.
- [22] Ping, W. (2015). An Evaluation of the preservice English teacher education in a university in China: Pros and cons from an insider's journey of learning. *JoP* 6 (1): 151 – 174.
- [23] Safari, P. & Rashidi, N. (2015). Teacher education beyond transmission: Challenges and opportunities for Iranian teachers of English, *Issues in Educational Research*, 25(2), 187-203.
- [24] Samuel, M. (1998). Changing lives in changing times: Pre-service teacher education in post-apartheid South Africa. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(3), 576-584.
- [25] Tudor, I. (2003). Learning to live with complexity: Towards an ecological perspective on language teaching, *System*, 31(1), 1-12.
- [26] Fayyaz, S. & Omar, H. (2014). A study of contextual situatedness of English language teachers' beliefs and practices about the form-focused instruction: A case study in Sandakan district, Sabah, *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 134, 201-212.

**Hosam ELDeen A. El-Sawy**, Master in TESOL, Alexandria University, Egypt, 2005. PhD in TESOL, Alexandria University, Egypt, 2010.

He worked as a Teaching Assistant, an Assistant Lecturer and a Lecturer at the Faculty of Education, Damnahour University, Egypt. He worked as an assistant professor at Jouf University, KSA. He has published work in using social network sites in teaching English, using picture storybooks in teaching EFL reading skills, authentic tasks for improving EFL speaking skills and flipping EFL university classes. Authenticity in language teaching and using technology in language teaching are his current research interests.

# A Study on the Spread of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand under the Strategy of Maritime Silk Road

Lei Miao

GDUFS School of Interpreting & Translation Studies, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China

Qiuping Wang

Faculty of Chinese Language and Culture, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China

**Abstract**—Chaozhou Opera, selected in the first batch of national intangible cultural heritage protection list, is an ancient Chinese opera. It has been spread overseas with Chaozhou people and has become one of the most influential local opera in China, also homesickness sustenance for many overseas Chinese people. In 2013, the General Secretary Xi Jinping proposed the strategy on the construction of the “21st Century Maritime Silk Road”, which has clearly pointed out to strengthen the cultural communication and cooperation in the “Maritime Silk Road” regions. Thailand is an important country on the Silk Road. Therefore, this article takes the development of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand as the research object, analyzes the present situation of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand, points out its bottleneck and puts forward the development strategy.

**Index Terms**—Maritime Silk Road, Chaozhou Opera, Thailand, spread

## I. INTRODUCTION

Chaozhou Opera is one of China's top ten operas and was selected in the first batch of national intangible cultural heritage protection list. Chaozhou Opera, a kind of ancient local opera singing in Chaozhou accent, is popular in the area of Guangdong, southern Fujian, Taiwan, Hong Kong and southeast Asia. Due to the rise of the Maritime Silk Road, the Chaozhou Opera has become one of the most influential local operas in China. But it only as a "foreign culture" in southeast Asia, its existence form by local social, political, economic, and mainstream culture rules guide and restriction of various factors, which assumes the trend curve. In order to actively respond to the strategy of “the 21st Century Maritime Silk Road” and inherit Chinese culture better on the Silk Road economic belt, this article takes the development of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand as the research object and explores the sustainable development of the spread of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand.

## II. THE ORIGIN OF THE CHAOZHOU OPERA ENTERING INTO THAILAND

As an important emotion of national sentiment, Chaozhou Opera has a special significance and value for overseas Chinese people. The spread of Chaozhou Opera focus on southeast Asia, especially in Thailand. Therefore, Thailand is also known as the second home of Chaozhou Opera. Chaozhou Opera is able to enter Thailand and spread widely with unique its advantage and this advantage can be reflected in the following three aspects:

First of all, China and Thailand are friendly neighbors since ancient times. According to historical records, the earliest communication between China and Thailand can be traced back to the Western Han Dynasty when China sent messengers to India, passing through the south of Thailand's Siam Bay. This was the earliest history of communication between China and Thailand which could date back more than two thousand years ago. During the Ming and Qing Dynasties, the exchanges between China and Thailand reached a peak. According to “The History in Ming Dynasty”, “The Records of the East and the West” and other ancient records, China and Thailand had exchanged emissaries more than 128 times in the Ming Dynasty, in which Thailand sent to the Chinese emissaries 102 times. In the Qing Dynasty, from Shunzhi to Thailand Ayu Wang Tuo period, Thailand sent emissaries to Chinese a total of 44 times. Accompanied by the official communication, the friendly exchanges among the people in the two countries had also reached a climax. In the late Qing Dynasty, China's national power began to decline and the war was successive. A large number of Chaoshan people located in the southeast coastal areas began to make a living overseas and Thailand was the destination for most of them. The descendants of these Chaoshan people gradually took root in Thailand and became a new generation of Thai people.

Secondly, Chaoshan has the advantages in natural geography. In the process of cultural communication, the geographical environment is also an important factor. Chaozhou Opera originated in the area of Chaoshan, Guangdong which is located in the southeast corner of the mainland China and at the junction of Guangdong and Fujian, only one thousand kilometers away from Thailand and sharing the same ocean with many Southeast Asian countries. Superior



geographical conditions provide the possibility for Chaoshanese ancestors to make a living overseas. At the same time, Thailand and the Chaoshan area are close to the climate, so many Chaoshan people choose to migrate in Thailand.

Finally, Chaoshan has the advantages in cultural background. The unique Chaoshan culture, with the characteristics of diversity and inclusiveness, is created by history, economy, geographical environment and many other factors. Not only Chaoshan words is influenced by Minnan dialect, Chu dialect, Malay and many other systems, but Chaoshan is also a multi-ethnic area, including the She ethnic group, Fu Lao people, Han nationality and so on. At the same time, Chaoshan area also has obvious marine culture characteristics. Chaoshan people pay attention to commercial civilization and are more willing to be engaged in business, which makes them have a close communication with people overseas. In addition, the hedonic Chaoshan culture also attracts many audiences. These cultural origins are also important reasons for the Chaozhou Opera to accompany Chaoshan people into Thailand.

### III. THE PRESENT SITUATION OF CHAOZHOU OPERA IN THAILAND

Hundreds of years ago Chaozhou Opera was spread to Thailand with the footprints of Chaoshan people, so it is a cultural tie connecting Chaoshan people both at home and abroad. It has a considerable influence on the Chinese ethnic groups in Thailand. The present situation of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand has the following characteristics:

#### A. *An Important Link in the Transmission of National Spirit*

As an important node of the Maritime Silk Road, Chaoshan area plays an important role in the connection from China to Africa, Southeast Asia and South Asia. Chaoshan people brought overseas not only China's property, but also Chaoshan culture, and Chaozhou Opera was one of them. In the moment, Chaozhou Opera, the national spiritual ties, plays an increasingly prominent role. In recent years, the Sino-Thai interaction has been significantly strengthened both in scale and in impact with Chaozhou Opera as the medium. From April 26, 2016 to May 6, the Chaozhou Opera troupe of Chaozhou City held a concert in Bangkok, Thailand. They brought there some classical repertoire such as "Lotus Lantern" and "Mo Chou Nv", as well as some recent created and award-winning new works, such as "The love Story of Cao Ying" and "Han Yu's Governance on Tide". The national level actor Zheng Shunying and the well-known Li Yulan and XuJiana, as well as a number of bright younger generation had acted in the troupe. In addition, Chaozhou municipal government is also actively promoting the inheritance and development of Chaoshan culture in Thailand. In May 2016, the Chaozhou municipal government carried out the "Chaozhou Festival" in Thailand, and organized the opera performance for a few days. Also some Chinese representatives in Thailand came to China to exchange the culture. In October 2016, Chairman Huang Guoguang of the Chaozhou Guildhall in Thailand led the delegation to Jieyang to hold a communication. Jieyang City Mayor received them and expressed the hope to promote economic prosperity and development between the two counties and achieve mutual benefit and win-win situation under the strategy of "One Belt and One Road Initiative". In this exchange, the delegation of Thailand not only appreciated Chaozhou Opera performances, but also donated 100,000 to the Jiedong tide company donated 100 thousand yuan to Chaozhou Opera troupe of Jiedong City. With the growth of overseas Chinese and the adjustment of national strategy, Chaozhou Opera, as the carrier of national spirit, plays a more obvious part in the process of communication in Thailand.

#### B. *The Lack of Successors of Chaozhou Opera*

The lack of excellent actors of Chaozhou Opera is a prominent problem for the spread of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand. There are two main reasons for the emergence of actor problems. On the one hand, it is influenced by the actor's source. With the departure of the previous generation of Chaozhou Opera, the problem of the source of the new generation is becoming more and more obvious. The loss of the Chinese actor of Chaozhou Opera is serious. The actors of Chaozhou Opera have a low income, and Chinese families in Thailand usually have a better economic condition, while young people are not willing to learn acting, so there is a lack of young Chinese actors who can speak Chaoshan dialect. In order to alleviate this problem, many troupes have to hire native persons of Thailand to perform, but these actors inevitably have language barriers. Although they are also hard-working to memorize the script through Thai phonetic way, the effect of opera performance can inevitably be discounted. On the other hand, there exists the actor's training problem. The development of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand depends on the excellent actors, but the training of the actors also plagued many Chaozhou Opera troupes in Thailand. Lack of professional training on the actors of formal Chaozhou Opera School, the role of Chaozhou Opera cannot be played fully. As many Chaozhou Opera actors in Thailand said, now they studied Chaozhou Opera mainly by themselves, unlike the previous time when the teacher would tell them how to do. In addition, in the past Chaozhou Opera attracted the audience by its superb singing and performing skills, but now troupes mainly depends on exaggerated makeup and colorful clothing to attract viewers. As a result, some actors no longer pay attention to the study of performance skills.

#### C. *The Weakness of the New Generation of Audience*

With the development of the times, the number of young Chinese in Thailand understanding Chaoshan dialect is becoming less and less. The young Chinese in Thailand is becoming more and more unfamiliar to the cultural traditions of Chaozhou Opera. The problems among the audience in Thailand are another challenge in the process of the spread of Chaozhou Opera. Chaozhou Opera was ever popular in Thailand. The old busy theater is now sluggish. Compared to

Chaozhou Opera, the younger generation of overseas Chinese prefers the tradition of Chaoshan Kung Fu tea, which is easier to accept, and more easily inherited. In an influential Chaozhou Opera troupe in Thailand named “Qingnang Yulouchun, its boss said that now there were less and less people who liked Chaozhou Opera and the troupe was absolutely no profit. Their insistence on the troupe is more out of love for their homes and Chaozhou Opera, while the troupes’ maintenance will need it to support to other businesses. The loss of Chinese viewers and the language barrier of the Thai audience have become another bottleneck in the development of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand.

#### IV. THE CAUSE OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHAOZHOU OPERA

The development of chaozhou opera in Thailand has been both effective and challenging. This is closely related to the external environmental factors and the internal causes of the drama itself, and the main causes are the following three aspects.

##### A. *Thailand's Moderate National Politics Has Boosted the Chinese Identity with Thailand*

Thailand has adopted a policy of identification with ethnic Chinese on the national policy. They encourage Chinese people to marry thais and create a harmonious and free business atmosphere. Chinese people in Thailand are treated equally with the Thai people. The Thai government, under the open policy of Chinese in Thailand's political and social life shall enjoy the equal rights, therefore, the Chinese in Thailand life more calm and confident, Thailand's tolerance and acceptance, makes the Chinese population will be easier to "home" as a "new home". This kind of "assimilation" plays down the support of the Chaozhou Opera in the current transmission of Thailand from national identity, especially among the young people.

##### B. *The Current Education Is Lacking in Chinese Education*

Although there are not obvious faults in Chinese education in Thailand, The current education is lacking in Chinese education. In the 1940s, the government had imposed strict restrictions on Chinese schools, and nearly a hundred schools in Thailand were closed. By 1951, only two hundred Thailand throughout the rest of the Chinese schools, however, the Thai government to these Chinese schools also conducted a variety of restrictions exist in name only, including teaching subjects and teaching time and so on are defined. This series of blows has caused the decline of the whole Thai language education, especially in the intergenerational transmission of Chinese language. Although some qualified Chinese families take the form of Chinese family class, it has little effect, and only some Chinese can afford such expenses. Bound for the spread of Chinese language, therefore, directly affect the spread of Chaozhou Opera.

##### C. *The Inevitable Shackles of the Chaozhou Opera in the Course of Development*

As a local opera, the audience of Chaozhou Opera not only of Chinese people but also of indigenous people. However, in the process of the spread of the drama, the language and the geographical scope of the audience have certain requirements for the audience. Traditional Chaozhou Opera, the content allusions are also related, these factors have become the inevitable shackles in the overseas communication process. How to solve these problems is a problem that the tide drama must face and solve abroad.

#### V. THE DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY OF CHAOZHOU OPERA IN THAILAND UNDER THE STRATEGY OF MARITIME SILK ROAD

Chaozhou Opera bears the important task of cultural heritage in Thailand, but the current spread situation in Thailand is not optimistic. With the increase in the number of new Chaoshan immigrants, the role of the future Chaozhou Opera, as a national spiritual tie, will be even more important in Thailand. How to promote the development of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand under the strategy of the 21st Century Maritime Silk Road and make this excellent national culture get better inheritance becomes urgent problems to be solved.

##### A. *Combining the Strategies of “Going out” and “Come in”*

The sustainable development of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand can not be separated from the support of the birthplace of drama. This “Going out” and “Coming in” model should continue to be improved both in quality and quantity in the future. Chaozhou Opera origins from Chaoshan area where the art of Chaozhou Opera is developed and all cities have their own art troupes and excellent actors of Chaozhou Opera. The artists of Chaozhou Opera both in China and Thailand should deepen exchanges, learn from each other and get more artistic wisdom. In China, Chaozhou Opera has gotten good development and protection. In 2006, Chaozhou Opera was selected in the first batch of national intangible cultural heritage protection list. From 2011, Shantou City has held five consecutive “International Festival of Chaozhou Opera”. The number of art troupes coming to China is increasing each country. Chaozhou Opera troupes in Thailand should take the active action to invite Chaozhou Opera troupes in China to have a visit and exchange in Thailand, thus bring high-quality performance to Thailand, enhancing the influence of Chaozhou Opera, and actively learning from the valuable experience. At the same time, actors of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand should go to China and other regions to study how to inherit the art of Chaozhou Opera better and how to develop the value of Chaozhou Opera better. In China, the development and protection of Chaozhou Opera is not just at the artistic level. In order to make Chaozhou Opera

create more value, Chaoshan area has done a lot of attempts. The theme park of overseas Chinese culture has been completed in Shantou Special Economic Zone, and it will gather Chaozhou Opera and other folk culture together to form a industrial chain model of a set of tourism, real estate and business exhibition so that under the market economy environment, Chaozhou Opera can still create high commercial value. In addition, the Shantou city government also integrated Chaozhou Opera and other cultural resources, and actively participated in the display of various platforms to get more attention for Chaozhou Opera and attract more investment. In 2015, Shantou city Government participated in the “China International Fair” and tried to build a Shantou Museum on the theme of “Reviving the Maritime Silk Road and Developing Shantou Special Economic Zone”. The museum attracted many domestic and foreign buyers and visitors and got more attention for the development of Chaozhou Opera. These Chinese experiences are very valuable for the artists of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand to have a visit and study by themselves. At the same time, Chaozhou Opera was also spread to Singapore, Indonesia and other places and the spread of Chaozhou Opera in these exotic spreads is also a valuable experience for the development and study of Chaozhou Opera troupes in Thailand.

#### *B. The Innovation of the Spread Form of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand*

With the development of the times, the vitality of the drama is easily to decline, but innovation can provide an inexhaustible motive force for the drama. For any kind of excellent culture, if it wants to be deeply rooted in the land of another nation, it must first adapt to the local national psychology, national character and habit. In addition it must also find an expression form suitable for the nation, because just in this way will it not dry up when leaves its own birthplace. These are the directions where Chinese Chaozhou Opera needs to innovate in the process of the spread in Thailand in the future.

A lot of far-sighted artists of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand are trying to make Chaozhou Opera more adaptable to this piece of soil through the way of innovation, and Zhuang Meilong, the artist of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand, is one among them. Zhuang Meilong believes that in order to continue to get promoted in Thailand, this excellent Chinese opera—Chaozhou Opera must try to attract not only the Chaoshan Chinese overseas but also the local audience in Thailand. For the local audience in Thailand, the language is the biggest problem. In order to overcome this difficulty, some troupes had used “simultaneous interpretation” to resolve it, but this approach made the effect of Chaozhou Opera greatly reduced in the artistic atmosphere. Zhuang Meilong conducted on another attempt in which based on Chinese Chaozhou Opera, he tried to absorb the essence of other Chinese opera and integrate the local culture and art in Thailand. He used Thai language to sing Chaozhou Opera and made a bold innovation. After a constant attempt and accumulation, the Chaozhou Opera in Thai language was finally born. This attempt has opened up a new space for the spread of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand and gotten the recognition from Thai Princess Sirindhorn.

The artists have done more than that for the innovation of the spread of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand. They adapted Chaozhou Opera into TV series and made Chaozhou Opera get more attention of the ordinary people in Thailand. In recent years, more and more TV series on the theme of Chaozhou Opera constantly appear on the screen, and these TV series have reached a certain height both in quality and lineup, among which “The Last Peony Flower” is one representative. “The Last Peony Flower” is based on Chaozhou Opera troupe and arranged according to the aesthetic taste of people in Thailand. It also invited Thai popular stars Aum Atichart and Aff Taksaorn. This opera won the Best Drama Award of the year, and the actor Aum Atichart won the title of best actor of the year.

To some extent these innovations has injected new vitality for the development of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand. However, if Chaozhou Opera wants to get sustainable development in Thailand, only by these innovations is not enough. Chaozhou Opera still need to constantly innovate the form, content and the way of acting in the future development to adapt to changing circumstances. At present, the spread of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand faces both challenges and opportunities. In this situation, Chaozhou Opera must actively adjust itself, otherwise it will be eliminated by the age.

#### *C. Seizing the Opportunity and Seeking Support*

In 2013 General Secretary Xi Jinping proposed the strategy of the 21st Century Maritime Silk Road which has pointed out clearly the need to strengthen the cultural exchange and cooperation along the road of Maritime Silk Road. This is an important opportunity for the development of Chaozhou Opera. Chaozhou Opera is a bright pearl in Chinese traditional art and culture, also the outstanding representative of Chaoshan culture. In hundreds of years ago, Chaozhou Opera encouraged the Chaoshan ancestors to build their homes and bravely explore the world. Chaozhou Opera is one of the earliest operas to go abroad, and has produced tremendous influence, becoming the spiritual wealth and cultural symbol shared by more than 20 million Chaoshan people at home and abroad. As early as the mid-17th century, Chaozhou Opera came to Thailand, took root in this land, and blended with Thai culture, which promoted the exchange and development of culture and art between China and Thailand, and made Chaozhou Opera become the link and bridge of urging the kinship. Now Chaozhou Opera in Thailand needs to seize the opportunity of the times and recasts its glory. In front of the opportunity, only by continuing to improve the quality influence can Chaozhou Opera obtain more support to alleviate the trouble in the process of the spread of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand. Just as the Zhuang Mellon had mentioned in an interview that in the cause of the spread of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand, he always wanted to set up a opera school to train the younger generation but he didn't have enough money. Now for many Chaozhou Operatroupes in Thailand, the economic source most relies on some Chaozhou Associations and other civil society

charitable contributions, as well as a small amount of income from performing. Therefore, if Chaozhou Opera wants to get sustainable development in Thailand, it must seize the opportunity to improve its influence and seek more support.

## VI. CONCLUSION

To sum up, Chaozhou Opera, with a long history, has a unique status for Chinese people in Thailand. It is the sustenance of nostalgia, also the link of national culture. However, with the development of the times, Chaozhou Opera will inevitably encounter problems in the process of the spread. But the strategy of the 21st Century Maritime Silk Road gives Chaozhou Opera another opportunity to take off. At present, with the complex changes in the world, the strategy of the 21st Century Maritime Silk Road is a powerful means for China to create a cooperative, peaceful and harmonious environment in which China can get a good opportunity and external environment to fully deepen the reform. In this process, culture should bear the role of a link to promote the communication and trust along the road. The spread of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand must actively overcome difficulties, strive to innovate, and adhere to the principle of "Going out" and "Coming in" to expand the influence and seek more support so that it can bear the mission of the times.

### Funding

This project was supported by Youth innovation talent project of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies Center of Foreign Literature and Culture, China (Program number: 16QNCX10).

This project was supported by scientific research project of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, China (Program number:17QN27).

## REFERENCES

- [1] Baker, Chris and Phongpaichit, Pasuk. (2005). *A History of Thailand*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [2] Banks, David J. (1976). *Changing identities in Modern Southeast Asia*. Paris: Mouon Publishers
- [3] Chou, Cynthia and Houben, Vincent. (2006). *Southeast Asian Studies: Debates and New Directions*. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- [4] Flood, Thadeus. (1978.). *The Dynastic Chronicles Bangkok Era: the First Reign: volume one*. Tokyo: The Center for East Asian Cultural Studies.
- [5] Gorter, Cees, Ni jkamp, Peter and Poot, Jacque. (1998). *Crossing Borders: Regional and Urban Perspectives on International Migration*. London: Ashgate Publishing LTD.

**Lei Miao** was born in He Nan, China, in 1981. He is currently a lecturer in the School of interpreting & translation Studies, Guangdong University of foreign studies, Guang Zhou, China. His research interests include Western Culture and Chinese literature.

**Qiuping Wang** was born in Si Chuan, China in 1985. She received her PH.D. degree in comparative culture from Guangdong University of foreign studies, China in 2017. She is currently a lecturer in the Faculty of Chinese Language and Culture, Guangdong University of foreign studies, Guang Zhou, China. Her research interests include Western Culture and Chinese literature.

# Evaluating a New Writing Material: Students' Perception towards the Use of a Teacher-made Coursebook

Mansur Akil

State University of Makassar, Indonesia

Arifuddin Hamra

State University of Makassar, Indonesia

Haryanto Atmowardoyo

State University of Makassar, Indonesia

Magdahalena Tjalla

State Islamic College of Parepare, Indonesia

**Abstract**—This study discusses an evaluation of a teacher-made coursebook for teaching essay writing course. Forty students were asked to give their perception of the use of the coursebook in terms of goal, contents, organization and design, and methodology. The analysis of the students' answers showed that their perception towards the coursebook was positive. The majority of the students said that the coursebook objective was relevant to their needs, the contents were complete, the topics were interesting and were relevant to their needs and interests as well as their sociocultural background, the explanation was easy to be understood, the tasks and activities were attracting and helped them expressed their knowledge, experiences, and interests in a variety of essay types. Similarly, the coursebook was well-arranged from unit to the subunit. Students also said that the methodology used by the coursebook helped them expressed their knowledge, experiences, and interests accurately and fluently.

**Index Terms**—materials evaluation, teacher-made coursebook, students' perceptions

## I. INTRODUCTION

Instructional materials played an essential role in EFL teaching and learning. Instructional materials are defined as anything which is used to help language learning. The common examples are coursebooks, workbooks, CDs, flashcards, and CD-ROMs (Tomlinson, 1998).

Coursebooks are the most familiar materials to teachers. Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) state four reasons for teachers using coursebooks, such as the use of the coursebooks as the source of language, as the learning support, as the medium to motivate students to learn, and the use of coursebooks for reference. Coursebooks are functioned as a source of language when English is taught as a foreign language. In this context, coursebooks play an important role as language exposure for students. To achieve the function, coursebooks for EFL students have to present real language and the full range that students need. As a learning support, coursebooks have to work, to be consistent, and to have some distinct patterns in thinking of and using language by stimulating students cognitive competence.

Coursebooks can be used by teachers to stimulate and motivate students if they are challenging, presenting ideas and information that are based on students' experience and knowledge, and encouraging fun and creativity in doing the tasks. Moreover, coursebooks may stimulate and motivate if the inputs and knowledge involve both familiar and new concept and knowledge. Similarly, coursebooks can stimulate and motivate if the exploitation fits to the use the language in a real situation and the learning objectives. To function effectively, coursebooks need to clearly state the purpose and the connection of the language to the students' reality. As a reference, students rely on coursebooks for self-study purpose. To be a reference, coursebooks have to be complete, have a good layout, and can be learned independently.

Grant (1991) divides coursebooks into two kinds: traditional coursebooks and communicative coursebooks. Traditional coursebooks present language to students as a system. The system is a guide for students so that they can use the language for their own purposes in the manners they think suit. We identify traditional coursebooks in the focus on form, the emphasis on reading and writing, the great use of the students' L1, the focus on accuracy, and the emphasis on syllabus and examination. The focus of language on form cause the inability of students to use the language to

communicate even though they have mastered the rules of the language. Communicative coursebooks, on the other hand, try to create opportunities for students to use the language in the classrooms before using it in real situation.

Communicative coursebooks are characterized by the emphasis on the communicative function of language, the contents are the reflection of students' needs and interests, the focus is on using language and not the form, the balance among the four language skills although sometimes may focus on speaking and listening, both contents and method show the authentic language for everyday use, activities are mostly designed for pair and group work, and the emphasis on both fluency and accuracy. Besides, we also know commercial coursebooks and teacher-made coursebooks. Commercial coursebooks are those produced to be used by all teachers and students in the world and are sold commercially in the market. As global coursebooks, they are intended for the diverse teachers and learners. Teacher-made coursebooks, on the other hand, are developed by teachers to be used locally in their own courses.

In many cases, teachers use commercial coursebooks which are available to them. Educational institutions often prepare their libraries with books to be used by their teachers. Sometimes teachers buy the coursebooks in a bookstore in their location. Teachers get benefits for using the available coursebooks since they will have enough time to prepare their teaching without thinking of what materials to be presented to their students. However, other teachers choose to develop their own coursebooks to be used in their own classes. Teachers devote their time to write their own coursebooks that meet the objectives of the course as well as the needs and interests of their students.

Despite some of the weaknesses of coursebooks developed by teachers, they have some strengths over the commercial coursebooks. Richard (2012) points out some advantages in using teacher-made coursebooks such as they are relevant to students' and institutional needs, so they can reflect local content, issues, and concerns. Moreover, doing the process of coursebooks development is helpful to develop expertise among staffs, and giving them a greater chance to understand the characteristics of effective coursebooks. In addition, teacher-made coursebooks show the teachers' institution committed to providing materials that meet the specific needs of the students, which may enhance the reputation of the teachers' institution. Finally, teacher-made coursebooks are revisable and adaptable, thus, giving more chance to meet the students' needs in longer period.

On the other hand, the use of commercial coursebooks in ESL/EFL context produces some critics Bell and Gower in Tomlinson (1998), for instance criticized the topics of commercial coursebooks which may not be based on the cultural context of learners, so learners think they are irrelevant for their lives. Likewise, Hutchinson & Waters (1987) report that some of the commercial coursebooks do not match the specific needs of particular students. The specific needs are required due to their different levels and different types of learning styles and learning strategies (Jafarigohar & Ghaderi, 2013). Moreover, the use of commercial coursebooks limits teachers' creativity. Likewise, organization and structure of commercial coursebooks may not be realistic and useful for all situations (Jafarigohar & Ghaderi, 2013).

This study was a part of a coursebook development project, in which the researcher developed a new essay writing coursebook. The coursebook was intended to be used to teach the fourth-semester students in English Education Department of Tarbiyah and Education Faculty at STAIN Parepare. The new coursebook was developed based on the results of a needs analysis conducted to students. Lecturers at the institution have used commercial coursebooks for years, but some critics on the inappropriateness of the coursebook in terms of the students' needs and sociocultural context appeared. The new course book was developed based on students' needs and interest by involving experiential learning as the basis for creating and developing the new coursebook. To address the sociocultural context, topics of the essay models are chosen based on the student's needs and interests. This is in line with Sheldon's opinion (1987) that argues that the interesting topics of materials will motivate students to understand and find their meaning. Students said that they are interested in the topics in which they have background knowledge.

This study aims to answer the following questions: a) What is the model of a teacher-made writing coursebook? b) What are the students' perception towards the use of the new writing coursebook?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Writing Skill

Many EFL students think writing as the most difficult skill to learn compared to the other skills. Many students find difficulty and lose interest when their teachers assign them to write. It might be the result of the complexity of writing in English which require learners to have sufficient knowledge of vocabulary, structure, grammar, and spelling to produce a piece of good writing. The 'rhetorical conventions' of English text which include the structure, style, and organization— which often have some differences compared to the conventions in other languages— might also be considered as the sources of the difficulty. These differences require effort on the part of the students to recognize and manage (Leki, 1991). Harmer (2004) claims that writing has to go through a process of conscious learning; conversely, spoken language is acquired naturally by exposure. Similarly, Richards and Renandya (2002) argue the difficulty is caused by the importance of appropriate choice of vocabulary, sentence, and paragraph organization in generating and organizing ideas in order to produce a readable text. Moreover, the complexity of learning to write is caused not only by a must to learn the language rules, conventions related to genre differences as well as textual dimensions, but also the cultural knowledge (Leki, 1996). Learning English writing for ESL students is a complex skill since it does not only require language skill but also the knowledge of thought pattern of English people. "In order to write well in English, it

is important to understand the way native speakers of English organize their thought". The knowledge of native English pattern of thought is important to produce good English writing (Blanchard and Root, 2004)

### B. Materials Evaluation

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) state that evaluation is "a matter of judging the fitness of something for a particular purpose". Tomlinson (2001) argue that textbook evaluation is an activity involving teachers, material developers, administrators, and supervisors to judge on the efficiency of the materials for the people using them in a particular context. The activity can also involve teachers and learners to explore their experiences and opinions about the textbooks as used in the classroom. Evaluation in this study adopts the definition stated by Richards (2014) as "the process by which a coursebook is reviewed and assessed according to a set of criteria". This research focuses on exploring students' experiences, opinions, and perceptions about the use of a teacher- made coursebook after it's use in the classrooms.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) offer four stages of materials evaluation: 1) define the criteria on which the evaluation will be based and choose the more important criteria among others, 2) analyze the nature and underlying principles of the program where the materials used, (subjective analysis), 3) analyze the nature and underlying principles of the materials and test the analysis in the classroom (objective analysis), and 4) compare the findings of subjective analysis and objective analysis. The evaluation must be based on some criteria used to judge materials. Therefore, it is important to decide the criteria used to evaluate. Some criteria might be more important than the others. The evaluation should decide the more important criteria to be used in judging materials. Some questions can be asked for the purpose of determining the criteria such as (2) what realization of the criteria do we want in our course? 3) how does the material realize the criteria? and 4) how far does the material match your need? The answers to the questions will guide us in deciding the best criteria used in judging materials to be used for a particular course.

## III. METHODOLOGY

This study was a qualitative research involving observation and documents analysis as the techniques for collecting research data. The documents were prototypes of the coursebook. The prototypes were the two units of the coursebook which discuss the topics of culture and religion. To find the students' perception, students were asked to answer some questions of a coursebook evaluation. The questions were adapted from the checklist of coursebook evaluation developed by Cunningsworth (1995) and Grants (1991). The questions were included three optional answers, *yes*, *partly*, and *no*. Each yes answer got 2 scores, no got 1 score, and partly got 0 (Grant, 1991.) Data on students' perception were analyzed to find the frequency, percentage, and score.

### A. Participants

There were forty students of the English Education Department at the State Islamic College of STAIN Parepare participated in the study. They were the students who took essay writing course.

### B. Research Procedures

In doing the research, the prototypes of the new coursebook was used to teach students. The prototypes were the two units about culture and religion. Students did some tasks and activities and the end of the meetings they wrote their own essays about topics interesting to them. At the end of the learning, students were asked to give their perception on the use of the prototypes in teaching. To collect data on students' perception, the researcher used a questionnaire of materials evaluation adapted from Grant (1995) and Cunningsworth (1995) which consisted of some questions of coursebook evaluation consisted three optional answers: *yes*, *partly*, and *no*. Students were also asked to give a reason for each of their answer. The questions deal with coursebook objective, contents, organization and design, and methodology used to develop the coursebook. The questions were adapted to fit the context of students as the users. Data on students' and teachers' perception were analyzed in terms of frequency, percentage, and score and were then interpreted qualitatively to find out how students think about the coursebook.

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### A Teacher-made Coursebook

A teacher-made writing coursebook was developed in the project of materials development. The project was initiated by a needs analysis to find students writing and learning needs. The development of the coursebook adopted the principles of experiential learning by focusing on learner experience and reflection as the source of skill, knowledge, attitude, and way of thinking (Lewis & William, 1995). Experiential learning views students as the active person in the learning process. To gain knowledge, they should be involved in the learning activities. Through the activities, they reflect their past experiences to gain knowledge which will be useful for them in the future. This study applied the theory in terms of the choices of topics which were based on students' experiences. As revealed in the needs analysis, students considered topics relevant to their lives as the interesting topics to be written. Therefore they chose topics namely culture, religion, education, language, technology, society, and health which they have known about them. The coursebook model is shown in the following figure:

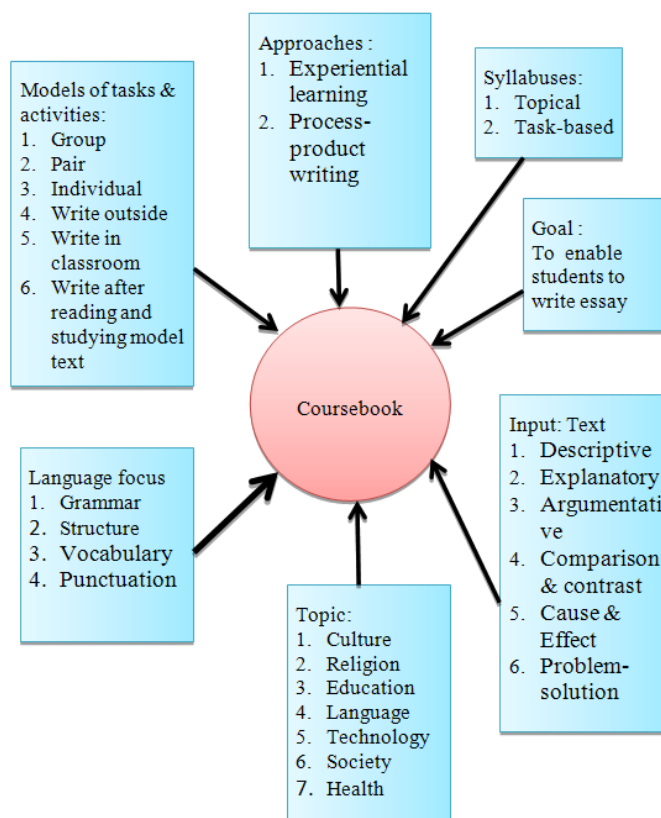


Figure 1. A Model of A Teacher-made Coursebook Developed based on Experiential Learning

As shown in the figure above the model shows that the writing coursebook consists of seven aspects: approaches, syllabuses, goal, input, topic, language focus, and models of activities. The aspects are explained as follows:

#### V. APPROACHES

As explained previously, the new coursebook adopted the principles of experiential learning in the contents. Experiential learning is a learning approach that focuses on learner experience and reflection as the source of skill, knowledge, attitude, and way of thinking (Lewis & William, 1995). To adopt the principles, the coursebook focuses on students to write their own interesting topics to express their ideas and opinions. Students chose their own topic to write which were categorized into seven topics: culture, religion, education, language, technology, social, and health. The coursebook also views students as a person who has background knowledge that is inseparable from their society and culture. For that reason, the coursebook reflected the social-cultural context of students. Topics of the essay models are then classified into three: local, national, and international.

Moreover, experiential learning was also adopted in presenting the course. Each unit of the coursebook was divided into four parts: activation, participation, reflection, and dissemination. In activation phase students do an activity for activating background schema. This is important to prepare students to be ready to accept new knowledge by relating it to their current knowledge. The next phase is participation phase, in which students learn new knowledge and skills related to essay types. Since it is essay writing course, students are exposed to essay models, learn the structure of each type of essay. Students also learn the language aspects, particularly of each different essay type. Reflection is one of the keys to successful learning, in each unit of the coursebook, students do reflection to ensure that they have progressed in their learning. The final phase of experiential learning is dissemination. Students are considered ready to apply their knowledge on writing essay type after doing the three previous phases: activation, participation, and reflection. In dissemination phase, students write their own essay by choosing their own interesting topic following the steps of the writing process.

The coursebook also combined process and product approaches to writing. As process product employs three steps in writing: prewriting, writing the draft, and revising and editing, product approach presented model texts as a guide for students to write. This mixture enables students to write accurately and fluently.

##### 1. Syllabuses

The new coursebook applied topical syllabus combined with the task-based syllabus. Since the units of coursebooks were divided based on a particular topic, the coursebook used topical syllabus in arranging the coursebook contents. There were seven units in the coursebook, each unit discussed a different topic. As previously explained, the topics were selected according to students' needs and interests. Task-based-syllabus also used in the development of the coursebook. The coursebook consisted of a variety of tasks which were arranged from the easy ones to the difficult ones.



For example, after studying essay structure in unit one, students were asked to rearrange the essay parts. This task was intended to familiarize students with each part of the essay and to enable them to distinguish each of the parts. Understanding to essay parts is important to prepare studentst to write the whole parts of the essay.

## 2. Goal

The goal of the coursebook is enabling students to write an essay of any types since essay writing is one of the skills that should mastered by EFL students. To achieve the goal, the book presented students with enough explanations and tasks to expose students to the types of essay. Each type of the essay discussed one particular topic. The book also involved structure, grammar, and punctuation to guide the students to accurate writing. Besides, the coursebook also included the vocabulary of a specific term in each unit to help students write fluently.

## 3. Topics

Since the coursebook was developed using a topical syllabus, the coursebook structure was divided into topics. Each unit discussed a different topic and was related to students' social-cultural background. Topics of materials are important to consider since they can motivate students to understand and find their meaning (Sheldon, 1991). Based on the needs analysis, it was found that there were several topics that students were interested in. They were about culture, religion, education, technology, language, society, and health. In addition, the topics were categorized into three: local or regional, national, and international contents. The local contents were the ones related to the social background of the students as people who live in South Sulawesi Province, Indonesia. Students had their own experiences as the result of their interaction with their society and culture that were different from those in other regions of Indonesia. The experiences that they chose to express through essay writing. The national contents were the ones that discuss common experiences faced by the people of Indonesia, such as topics about Indonesian heroes, Indonesian famous women, and other topics. Besides, they also chose to write about religious issues, i.e. issues related to the religion of all the students, Islam. The contents of the topics were also related to international contents such as English language, culture of the countries in the world, education, technology, and health.. The choices of various topics were intended to enable students to use language as a means of conveying information and feelings as Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argue that "language is not an end in itself, but a means of conveying information and feeling about something".

## 4. Input

Input in writing coursebook is text. In this coursebook, the input were essays of five types: descriptive, explanatory, argumentative, division and classification, cause and effect, and problem- solution. Each unit included several essay models to be learned before students write their own essay. Students preferred to study a model essay before writing their own essay as they stated in the needs analysis.

## 5. Language aspects

As writing is a complex skill, students needs to master a variety skill to be a good writer. The coursebook facilitated students with explanations on structure, grammar, vocabulary, punctuation. and exercises related to those aspects to make students ready to write their own essays.

## 6. Model of activities

Activities in the coursebook were designed and developed to enable students to use language as its function as a communication tool. In writing, language is exploited by the writers to send messages to the readers. To be able to write a readable text, students should be facilitated with interesting and fun writing activities. This coursebooks tried to present such activities to meet students learning needs such as they prered writing in group and pair to writing individually, doing writing activities outside the classroom to inside the classroom, and studying essay models before writing their own essays.

### A. Students 'Perception towards the use of the coursebook

Students' perception towards the new writing coursebook can be categorized into two: positive perception and negative perception. The student's perception towards each aspect of the coursebook was explained as follows:

#### 1. The Goal of Coursebook

The result of the research shows that all of the students said that the coursebook goal was relevant to their needs. As shown by data in the table, all of them chose to answer *yes* for the question " Is the goal of the coursebook relevant to your needs?" All of the students argued that they need to learn how to write an essay.

#### 2. The Contents of Coursebook

There were nine questions to be answered dealing with the contents of the coursebook. They were about the completeness of the book, the variety of essay types, the variety of essay topics, the attractiveness of the essay models, whether the topics of the essay models relevant to students' needs and interest, the clearness of the explanation, the attractiveness of the activities, and the ability of the activities to help students write essay of any types. As shown in the table, most of the students (65%) said that the coursebook was complete, since it covered all the writing components, while some others said it is almost complete but grammar and spelling were not included. In terms of the variety of the essay types, all of the students answered *yes*.In the other words, the coursebook presented a variety of essay types. Most of the students (90%) answered *yes* for the variety of subjects presented in the essay topics. Ttwo of them did not agree while one of the students said the subjects of the topics were not varied since he/she only read the topics of the prototypes. In terms of the attractiveness of the model essay topics, all of the students agree all of the topics were interesting and attracting them. They argued that the topics were about their daily lives and were about Indonesia, and

they liked to read such topics. The attractiveness of the topics was closely related to the interest of the students towards the topics. Most of them (97.5%) said that the topics of the coursebook were relevant to their needs and interests because they like to read topics that are related to their daily lives, current topics, and because such topics were meaningful to their lives and were easy to be understood. One of them (2%) said that the topics were relevant to his/her needs but there should be more subjects discussed in the topics. Moreover, all of the students said that the topics reflected their socio-cultural condition. This means that the textbook was contextual to the students.

Moreover, the majority of the students (90%) said that the coursebook explanations were easy to be understood for several reasons such as the language was simple and easy, the essay structure was explained one by one, there were enough examples and exercises, and the topics were familiar. One of them (2.5%) said they were quite easy to be understood, and three of the students (7.5%) said there were some words that were difficult to find the meaning and in some parts, they still need more explanations.

Dealing with the tasks and activities, the majority of the students (95%) agreed they were interesting since they could express their experiences, write essay systematically, and think creatively. In addition, they were easy to be done, motivating, and were related to the explanations. Two of them (5%) said the tasks and activities were repetitious and were not varied. Moreover, most of the students (95%) believed the tasks and activities were helpful since they could express their knowledge, experiences, and interests in writing using a variety of essay types. Two of them (5%) said that the tasks and activities were helpful but only for students who were interested in writing.

### 3. The organization and design of coursebook

Dealing with the organization of coursebook, the majority of the students (90%) said *yes*, the coursebook was well-organized from unit to subunit and was arranged from easy materials to the difficult ones. They said that it had a good and systematic structure since it was started by introducing the essay definition and structure and followed by the examples. It was also well-organized since the coursebook was organized with the materials explanations in the first part followed by tasks and activities and ended with evaluation. Two of the students (5%) were not clear with the structure, and two others (5%) said that sometimes he/she found some difficult materials presented before the difficult ones. Therefore they said the coursebook was not totally well organized.

In terms of the design of coursebook, there were twenty-seven students (67.5%) said the coursebook design and illustration were attracting. They argued the design was colorful and the picture of the cover was relevant to the topic. However, some of them (32.5%) said the coursebook was not attracting because it had few picture. The majority of the students (90%) said that the whole contents of coursebook were interesting because they were easy to be understood, motivating, and were relevant to the students' needs. There were four students (10%) said that some parts were not interesting and none of the students said the whole contents were totally uninteresting.

### 4. The Methodology of Coursebook

Most of the students (95%) said that the coursebook helped them in producing their essay by following the process of writing from prewriting to post writing (editing and revising). They argued the method was easy, systematic, and presented a variety of tasks and activities. Two of the students (5%) said that instructions were not clear except for doing the tasks and activities. Moreover, most of the students (92.5%) said that doing the process of writing helped them in expressing their ideas accurately and fluently, they were more careful about their grammar and punctuation and could have more ideas to be written. However, three of them (7.5%) said that the processes sometimes were not helpful if they only focused on one process and had no more time to do the other processes. None of them said the processes were not helpful for them. Finally, the majority of the students (95%) said that writing their own topics helped them in expressing their ideas fluently because they had been familiar with the topics, therefore they have already had the knowledge to be written. Moreover, they were free to share their knowledge, experiences, and interests. Two of the students (5%) said writing using their own topics was not motivating.

The results of the analysis indicate that the coursebook was viewed positively by the students. However, the scores of their perceptions were varied. The relevance of the coursebook to the students' needs and the attractiveness of the topics were scored 80 which was the highest score in the study followed by the relevance of the topics to the students' needs and interests which were scored 79. During the observation, the researcher noticed the high interest of the students to the topics of the coursebook. They read the coursebook from the first page to the end, and some of them said that they were interesting because they told about their daily lives. Moreover, the next high score (78) was given to the organization of the coursebook and the ability of the coursebook to help students write step-by-step. The attractiveness of the tasks and activities and the effectiveness of writing their own topics to express their ideas fluently were scored 76. Their interest in the tasks and activities was also seen in the observation. They did group tasks enthusiastically and they did not need a long time to complete them. The completeness of the coursebook was scored 66. It means that the coursebook should be improved by the inclusion of more grammar and spelling as needed by students. The lowest score was given to the pictures and illustrations, they were scored 57. The low score was might be because the coursebook had few pictures, and some of them were small, therefore they were not attracting.

TABLE 1.  
STUDENTS' PERCEPTION TOWARDS A TEACHER-MADE COURSEBOOK

Aspects to evaluate	Statement	Answers										
		Yes (2)		Partly (1)				No (0)				Total
		Fr	%	Sc	Fr	%	Sc	Fr	%	Sc		
A. Objective	1. Coursebook objective is relevant to my needs.	40	100	80	0	0	0	0	0	0	80	
B. Content	1. For me, coursebook is complete because it covers the components of writing (sentence structure, grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation)	26	65	52	14	35	14	0	0	0	66	
	2. Coursebook presents a variety of essay types.	40	100	80	0	0	0	0	0	0	80	
	3. Topics of model essay discuss a variety of subjects.	36	90	72	2	5	2	2	5	0	74	
	4. Topics of essay models are interesting.	40	100	80	0	0	0	0	0	0	80	
	5. The choice of topics are relevant to my needs and interests.	39	97,5	78	1	2,5	1	0	0	0	79	
	6. Topics of essay models are the reflection of culture and social condition of the society where I live.	40	100	80	0	0	0	0	0	0	80	
	7. Explanations are easy to be understood.	36	90	72	1	2,5	1	3	7,5	0	73	
	8. Tasks and activities are interesting.	38	95	76	0	0	0	2	5	0	76	
	9. Tasks and activities help me express my knowledge, experiences, and interests in writing using a variety of essay types.	38	95	76	2	5	2	0	0	0	79	
C. Organization and Design	1. Coursebook is well-arranged from unit to the subunit.	36	95	76	2	5	2	2	0	0	78	
	2. Coursebook is organized from the easy materials to the difficult ones.	38	95	76	2	5	2	0	0	0	78	
	3. Pictures and illustrations attract me.	27	67,5	54	0	0	0	13	32,5	0	57	
	4. The whole content of coursebook is interesting.	36	90	72	4	10	4	0	0	0	76	
D. Methodology	1. Coursebook helps me write step by step from planning, drafting, revising to editing.	38	95	76	2	5	2	0	0	0	78	
	2. The writing process help me express my ideas accurately and fluently.	37	92,5	74	3	7,5	3	0	0	0	77	
	3. Writing my own topics help me express ideas fluently.	38	95	76	0	0	0	2	5	0	76	

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Students' perception towards the teacher-made coursebook reflected what they need towards a good course book. A good course-book is the one that facilitates learning, and a teacher-made coursebook can best do it since teachers know best their students. A writing coursebook can be contextualized through the choices of topics that are relevant to students socio-cultural background. Through a checklist of perceptions, a teacher-made coursebook was perceived positively by students. The result of the analysis towards the students' answers showed that the coursebook was good in most of the aspects evaluated but it is needed to be improved in terms of the design.

This result can have significant implication for developing materials for EFL students in the future. First, materials development needs to consider learners as the users of a coursebook. Learners have different needs towards a coursebook which are affected not only by their language level but also by their sociocultural background. Second, a coursebook can be contextualized by the inclusion of topics related to students' sociocultural background. This affects students writing significantly as students said that using their own topics enable them to write fluently since they already had background knowledge on those topics.

## APPENDIX

TABLE 4.1  
CHECKLIST OF QUESTIONS ON STUDENTS' PERCEPTION TOWARDS TEACHER-MADE COURSEBOOK

Aspects to evaluate	Questions	Answers		
		Yes	Partly	No
Coursebook Goal	1. Is the coursebook goal relevant to your needs?			
1. Contents	1. Is the coursebook complete? (Does it cover the components of writing (sentence structure, grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation?) 2. Does coursebook present a variety of essay types? 3. Do the topics discuss a variety of subjects? 4. Do the choices of topics relevant to your needs and interests? 5. Do the topics reflect socio-cultural background? 6. Are the explanations easy to be understood? 7. Are the tasks and activities interesting? 8. Do the tasks and activities help you express your knowledge, experiences, and interests in writing using a variety of essay types.			
Organization and Design	1. Is the coursebook well-arranged in each unit? 2. Is the coursebook arranged from easy to difficult? 3. Do the pictures and illustrations attract you? 4. Does the whole content of coursebook interesting?			
Methodology	1. Do the coursebook help you write step by step from planning, drafting, revising to editing? 2. Does writing process help you express your ideas accurately and fluently? 3. Does writing your own topics help you express ideas fluently?			

## REFERENCES

- [1] Bell & Gower. (1998). Writing Course Materials for the World: A Great Compromise in Tomlinson, B. (Ed.), *Materials Development in Language Teaching*, pp. 116-129. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [2] Blanchard, K., & Root, C. (2004). Ready to Write 3. From Paragraphs to Essay. USA: Pearson.
- [3] Cunningsworth. (1995). Choosing Your Coursebook. Oxford: Heineman.
- [4] Evans-Dudley, Tony & Maggie Jo St John. (1998). Development in English for Specific Purposes. A multi-disciplinary approach. Cambridge: Cambridge Language Teaching Library
- [5] Grant, Naville. (1991). Making the most of your textbook. London, Longman.
- [6] Harmer, J. (2008). How to Teach Writing. England: Pearson Education Limited.
- [7] Harsono, Y.W. (2007). Developing Learning Materials for Specific Purposes. *TEFLIN Journal*, 18(2), p.169-179.
- [8] Hutchinson, T., and A. Waters. (1987). English for Specific Purposes. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [9] Jafarigohar, M. & Gadheri, E. (2013). Evaluation of Two Popular EFL Coursebooks. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, 2(6), p.194-201.
- [10] Leki. (1996). Material, Educational, and Ideological Challenges of Teaching ESL Writing at the Turn of the Century. University of Tennessee Department of English. P.1-25.
- [11] Lewis, L.H., & William, C.J. (1995). Experiential Learning: Past and Present. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, 62, p.5-16.
- [12] Sheldon, L.E. (1987). English Language Teaching Textbooks and Materials: Problems in Evaluation and Development. USA: McMillan Education.
- [13] Richards, J.C. and Renandya, W. A. (2002). Methodology in Language Teaching. Anthropology of Current Practice. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [14] Richard, J.C. (2012). Advantage and disadvantage in using instructional materials in teaching ESL <http://www.professorjackrichards.com/advantages-and-disadvantages-of-using-instructional-materials-in-teaching-esl/>(accessed 5/11/2017).
- [15] Richard, J.C. (2017). Evaluation, Use, and Adapation. <https://www.professorjackrichards.com/evaluation-use-and-adaptation> (accessed 5/11/2017).
- [16] Rondon, E.J.C., & Vera L.F.V. (2016). Understanding the Role of Teaching Materials in a Beginners' Level English as a Foreign Language Course: A case study. *PROFILE*, 18(2), 125-137.
- [17] Tomlinson, B. (1998). Materials Development. *Materials Development in Language Teaching*, pp. 116-129. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

**Mansur Akil** is a senior Professor in Applied Linguistics at State University of Makassar, Indonesia. His research interests are translation, reading, biliteracy and bilingualism, and language curriculum. His current research are "The effects of multicultural - based approach on students' speed in learning English Elements & skills" (November, 2017), 17) "Organizational culture in higher education: mapping the way to understanding cultural research" (Des, 201), and "Parental attitudes and approaches to biliteracy development and bilingualism" (Jan 2018).

**Arifuddin Hamra** is a professor in English Language Education at State University of Makassar, Indonesia. His research interests focuses on reading and materials development. Some of his research are “A Model of Reading Teaching for University EFL Students: Need Analysis and Model Design” (2012), “The Role of a Lecturer’s Performance in Facilitating Problem Solving for Students in Learning Translation” (2016), and “Communicative Task Analysis on Students’ English Books for Senior High School” (2017).

**Haryanto Atmowardoyo** is a professor in English Language Education at State University of Makassar, Indonesia. He focuses his research on research methodology. Some of his research are “Multilingual Instructional Model of Pesantren Schools in Indonesia” (Nov, 2017), “Perception of Senior High School EFL Teachers in Papua, Indonesia towards Their Own Competence” (Nov, 2017), and “Research Methods in TEFL Studies: Descriptive Research, Case Study, Error Analysis, and R & D” (Jan, 2018),

**Magdahalen Tjalla** is a Doctoral student at English Education Program at State University of Makassar, Indonesia. She is teaching at State Islamic College (STAIN) Parepare, Indonesia. Her research interests focus on writing and sociolinguistics. His current research are “The Analysis of English-Indonesian Code-switching Used by the Students of STAIN Parepare (2014), and “Prewriting Strategies Used to Develop Students’ Writing Competence (20017).

# Toward the Use of Conceptual Metaphors of “Teacher” Perceived by High-school Students

Fariba Mansouri Koohestani  
Payame Noor University, Rasht, Iran

Narjes Banou Sabouri  
Department of Linguistics, Payame Noor University, Tehran, Iran

Parisa Farrokh  
Islamic Azad University, Lahijan, Iran

Maryam Hessaby Dehbaneh  
Alzahra University, Tehran, Iran

**Abstract**—This study is an attempt to find out the use of conceptual metaphors of teachers by the high-school students based upon *Oxford et al. taxonomy (1988)*. In so doing, seventy participants were randomly selected among the high-school students of both genders aged 15 to 18 in Rezvanshahr – A city in Guilan province. The questionnaires were distributed required them to jot down their own conceptual metaphor about their teachers. The gathered information was analyzed through SPSS software after codifying. The results showed that most frequent class of metaphors used by them were “Learner-Centered Growth”. It is meant that Iranian students like their teachers to be the facilitators who pave the way for them. On the other hand, there exists no significant relationship between gender and the type of metaphors that students use about their teachers.

**Index Terms**—cognitive semantics, conceptual metaphor, sociology of language, teacher

## I. INTRODUCTION

In literature, metaphor is one of the most important literary terms and often causes complexity in literary texts and poetry. “Metaphor is everywhere in the language and there is no escape from it” (Goatly, 1997, p. 2). Language and in particular “speech is fundamentally metaphorical” (Murphy, 2001), Steuter & Wills (2008) believed that “Through metaphor we make meaning; it helps us to understand problems and conflicts in certain ways, offering us certain available responses, and negating or obscuring others” (p. 3). Kövecses (2002) added that “trying to understand metaphor, then, means attempting to understand a vital part of who we are and what kind of world we live in” (p. xi).

Contrary to the ancient conceptions, metaphor is not only seen in poetry and literary texts. Our everyday speech, which is often neglected, has many metaphors that shape our intellectual and cultural system.

Metaphors are ‘products of a cognitive activity’ (Muller, 2008) and ‘the mental processes it entails are basic to language and cognition’. Lakoff and his followers see metaphor as primarily a cognitive phenomenon. The support also is available by Santa Ana (2002) stated, “Metaphors provide the cognitive framework for worldview” (p. 21).

The systematicity of metaphor is another key point indicated by Steuter & Wills (2008) that “metaphor operates concept to concept; it may have an experiential basis” (p. 35). Further support is available by Lakoff (1993) claimed “mappings are not arbitrary, but grounded in the body and in everyday experience and knowledge” (p. 39). Lakoff (cited in Levin, 1993) “used some objects like thermometers and stock market graphs to demonstrate the structure of metaphor in real life in a way that represented as being up and decreases as being down” (p. 241). Levin utilized them to serve as an experiential basis. Wormeli (2009) further confirmed that “metaphors are most commonly processed through the mind’s eye; we can understand a topic because we can see it cognitively” (p. 4).

In the cognitive linguistic view, metaphors are sets of mappings between a more concrete source domain and a more abstract target domain. Kövecses (2002) noted that the source domains are typically more concrete or physical and more clearly delineated concepts than the targets. “Conceptual metaphors are *unidirectional*: they go from concrete to abstract domains” (Kövecses, 2010, p. 25).

Cognitive linguists (Gibbs, 1994; Johnson, 1987; Sweetser, 1990) believe that metaphor signifies the intellectual-cultural system and shows how human beings interact with the world around them. When we apply metaphor, we are actually linking two conceptual systems based on similarity in the substitution of the word. This method of speech embraces the most basic of everyday issues up to the highest and most complex human thoughts.

The present study seeks to examine the conceptual metaphors of the "teacher" used by high school students in the typology of Oxford et al. taxonomy (1998). Accordingly, four metaphorical perspectives toward teacher's classroom are Social Order, Cultural Transmission, Learner-Centered Growth and Social Reform.

The issue underlying the research is how the metaphorical notion of a teacher is in the mind of high school female and male students, and whether these metaphorical conceptions can be adapted to Oxford et al. taxonomy.

Oxford et al. (1998) investigated the use of metaphor for expressing different perspectives toward the teacher's concept. They used the metaphors produced by students and teachers about the teacher. They showed different and often conflicting metaphors about the teacher.

They emphasized in this paper that identifying and understanding these opposing views can enhance the teacher's insight, tolerance and understanding, and make the classroom warmer and more enjoyable for both the teacher and student.

A research carried out by Nikitana, & Furuoka (2008) on the metaphors used by students about the teacher. They used quantitative methods to study the dimensions of given metaphors.

In this research, they used a questionnaire asking students to write their conceptual metaphors about their teachers and then analyzed the dimensions of these metaphors. The findings of this study confirmed the taxonomy of Oxford et al. (1998).

Pishghadam (2011) in his paper explored the metaphors that students have about language teachers, they then studied the given conceptual metaphors based on Martinez typology. The results of this analysis showed that students generally attribute their failures in learning to classroom behavior, while students of non-profit schools bound their success to the cognitive-related learning.

## II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Conceptual metaphor theory indicates that the focus of metaphor is in concept, not in words; the source of metaphor is not based on similarity, but on the relations of the realm of simultaneous interconnections in the human experience and the understanding of the similarities of these domains.

Also, the major part of our conceptual system is metaphorical and includes deep and sustainable concepts such as time, events, causes, ethics, mind, and so on. These concepts are understood by multiple metaphors that have a rational concept (Gibbs & Steun, 1997).

It can be said that the most fundamental claim of conceptual metaphor theory is that the human mental system is essentially metaphorical in nature. This theory states the reason why metaphors are so abundant in language; and that is they reflect the underlying metaphorical thoughts (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

Our experiences of the outside world are of logical and natural basis for understanding the more abstract realm, and this is the reason why, in most cases, everyday metaphors of the source & target domains are not substitutable. In other words, the orientation of conceptual metaphor is one-way and this is the principle of unidirectionality that is the movement of metaphor is from the more objective domain to the more abstract one, rather than the opposite (Kovecses, 2010).

It is important to distinguish between the metaphors that appear in our language and those that are the result of our thinking process. In conceptual metaphor, when we talk about the metaphors that appear in our language, we thereby mean linguistic metaphors or metaphorical phrases. Linguistic metaphor has two components that are subject and vector. The vector is what moves from one place to say something else (Kovecses, 2010).

Conceptual theory states that conceptual metaphors play an important role in the process of human thinking and are largely unconscious.

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), since communication is based on the same mental system that we use in thinking and acting, language can be an important source for knowing how this system works. Therefore, by examining language or more specifically, a group of linguistic metaphors that depict the internal system with a subject and vector, we face findings that other language theories cannot explain it in the same best way as conceptual metaphor.

Lakoff & Johnson (1980) challenged the classic view of metaphor and claimed that metaphor is not only limited to language but it includes everyday lives of people in a way that the conceptual system of our day, on which we think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical. In so doing, metaphors not only shape our present life, but also determine our expectations of the future life (Lakoff & Johnson, p. 3-5).

As Yu (2009) pointed out, cognitive metaphor is a complicated theory that requires various interactive components. These components are source domain and target domain (p. 30). Generally from the perspective of cognitive semantics, metaphor is the understanding of a conceptual domain based on another conceptual domain. This can be defined as "the conceptual domain of A is the conceptual domain of B". Thus, each conceptual metaphor is composed of two conceptual areas.

The domain where metaphorical terms are drawn to understand another conceptual domain is the source domain while the area that is understood in this way is the target domain. Therefore, in the metaphor of "life is a journey", life is the target, and journey is the source domain (Kövecses, 2010, p. 4).

It must be noted that in conceptual metaphors, the more abstract notion is used as the target domain and the more objective concept as the target one that is precisely why contextual metaphors are often single-sided and elements are drawn from one domain to another.

### III. METHODOLOGY

The constructivist/nonconstructivist distinction provides two alternative approaches to metaphor: for the constructivist, metaphor as an essential characteristic of the creativity of language; while from nonconstructivist position, metaphors are treated as rather ‘unimportant, deviant, and parasitic on normal usage’ (Ortony, 1993). Following this evidence is available from ‘reductionist approach’ (Black, 1993) that sees metaphorical utterances problematic or mysterious in a way that one might say, “If the metaphor producer did not mean what he said, why he did not say something else?” (p. 22).

This research is conducted for high-school boys and girls of Rezvanshahr in 2015. The participants were 70 students (35 girls & 35 boys) aged 15 to 18 that were selected randomly. The researchers codified the data according to the taxonomy of Oxford et al. (1998). The frequency of metaphors was sought via descriptive statistics. SPSS software was used to study the relationship between the given metaphors and their genders.

Oxford et al. believed that metaphorical phrases used by the students about their “teacher” are classified into four typologies that are Social Order, Cultural Transmission, Learner-Centered Growth and Social Reform. From this perspective, those metaphors into the class of “Social order” consider “school” as a “production line” or a “factory system” where the “teacher” is a “technician” in the process of “social-engineering” and is responsible to educate students to combat social needs. In this regard, their conceptual metaphors are: producers, physician, mental and behavior controllers, etc.

Metaphors of Cultural Transmission type deals with the process of “enculturation or initiation into the historical practices and achievements of a given society”. The related metaphors here are book, heart, and wizard.

The conceptual metaphor of “learner-centered growth” carries a meaning like “classroom proceedings and the learning process are distributed between the teacher and students” and the teacher should provide the conditions to cultivate the natural talents.

“social reforms” aims at creating a better society for all. Thus, a teacher can change the social criteria of a community like a reformer. This outlook would highlight some elements out of these three classes about “school & teacher” and reach to the point that “the goal of a teachers is to mix and coordinate the needs of the community with the needs of individuals”. In this view, the whole process of education is taken a new concept which is “interacting with life”. In other words, the teacher and student should turn into a small “democratic miniature society” in which the teacher should help the development of society to be democratically, scientifically, and culturally advanced. Those conceptual metaphors of “teacher” placing in this category introduces them as “receiver” or “learning partner”. Similar to the “learner-centered growth”, teachers and learners in this category have control over the learning process.

### IV. INSTRUMENTATION

The main instrument of this study is a questionnaire composed of the incomplete sentence of “Teacher is a ..... Because he/she.....”. To familiarize the respondents, the conceptual metaphor was defined first and some more examples were set. Then, they were asked to write their mental perception about their teacher and explain it in some words. Here is the answer sheet of respondents after being codified.

TABLE 1.  
RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE  
TYPE 1: SOCIAL ORDER

The Teacher is.....	Because he/she.....
a mason	makes beautiful sculptures and works of art over time from the students who are like the clay
a chef	Combines his/her knowledge, which is like a cooking ingredient, with experience that is as favorable spices, and brings together the gourmet food of awareness that is delicious.
a blacksmith	creates a valuable and beautiful thing from a student who looks like a solid and trashy iron
a carpenter	casts, paints and prepares students who are like uncut and crumpled wood for the community.
everything	Teaches you whatever you are void of and will form your character

TYPE 2: CULTURAL TRANSMISSION

The Teacher is.....	Because he/she.....
a book	is approachable and you can learn a lot from him/her whenever you like
a white paper	can like a white paper promote students with regular lines in the same way as the lines of a paper regulate our writings on a white paper
a useful book	is full of scientific materials and notes, and if anyone wants, can get the benefit from and if not, he can take the advantage.
a rubber	Would erase the wrong paths and makes the right choice in case a student makes a mistake or misses the path
a bee	puts a lot of effort into transferring knowledge to students



**TYPE 3: LEARNER-CENTERED GROWTH**

The Teacher is.....	Because he/she.....
a sailor	leads the students toward their goal in the same way a sailor drives the passengers to the destination
a rain	Keeps people away from ignorance with the help of knowledge in the way that raindrops save humans from drought.
a sun	is so radiant to bring the students to the height of knowledge.
a mother	gives to students whatever a mother teaches to her child
a candle	burns to lighten the society
a gardener	works in the garden of community and cultivates the students who are like nice plants and flowers
a sweeper	sweeps ignorance from the mind
a sky	brings up students who are like plants & flowers in efficacy
a perfume	sprays all his/her knowledge over students
a hen	makes students follow him/her into the land of knowledge
a tree	grows like a tree and makes fruits that is the same as students
a light	lightens the way for students
a dock	shows the true way to the students
a shepherd	guides the students like a shepherd
a sea	is generous and gives students whatever he/she knows
a shelter	protects students under his/her shadows
a mosquito	sticks to the students to transfer knowledge
a lake	waters the flowers and plants that are the students
a lantern	shows the path to the student in darkness

**TYPE 4: SOCIAL REFORM**

The Teacher is.....	Because he/she.....
a hydrangea	turns blue when the soil is acidic that some people love this color; it becomes pink when the soil is alkaline and some other like this color
a plant flower	can make the blossom flourish if he/she trains well, if not, the blossoms will die
a book	can arouse our interest turning us into an active listener if we like them but we do not enjoy listening to them if we don't.
a flower	withers away is we annoys him/her
a tough math problem	is difficult to be understood but will make you pleased in communication
a cactus	is like a beautiful cactus if you do not tease him/her otherwise will hurt you with his/her blades
a sea anemone	would sting if you do not get along well with him/her; if we listen well, seems pretty and nice then
a flower	dies as he/she withers away, so he/she must be appreciated
glasses	shows the good & bad of life better
a mirror	expresses our strong & weak points

**V. FINDINGS**

As Limputtong & Ezzy (2005) stated, the first step in data analysis is the identification of the units of analysis i.e. units that enable the researcher to dismantle the data into digestible pieces. To find an appropriate answer for the research questions as well as confirming and rejecting the above hypothesis, the researchers descriptively analyzed the data based on student's pieces of respondents. Correlational Statistics and SPSS Software were then used for discovering the relationship between conceptual metaphor and gender.

**Testing Hypotheses**

**H1.** The most common conceptual metaphor used by the school girls about their teacher is “Cultural Transmission”.

The first hypothesis is rejected in this study as the following table demonstrated that “Learner-centered growth” is the most common one instead.

TABLE 1.  
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENT KINDS OF CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS IN SCHOOL GIRLS ABOUT “TEACHER”

Type of Conceptual Metaphor	Number	Percent
Learner-Centered Growth	18	51/4
Cultural Transmission	7	20
Social Reform	7	20
Social Order	3	8/6
Total	35	100

Analyzing the responses of school girls based on Oxford et al. taxonomy indicated that “Learner-centered Growth” with 51/4% is the most common kind of metaphor among the girls followed by “Cultural Transmission” and “Social Reform” with 20% each apiece. “Social Order” went as the final one with 8/6%.

Teacher in the mind of a school girl is the provider of the conditions for more growth, a kind of situation which they are interested in. In this regard, the focus is on the full development of their potential talent.

**H2.** The most common conceptual metaphor used by the school boys about their teachers is “Social order”.

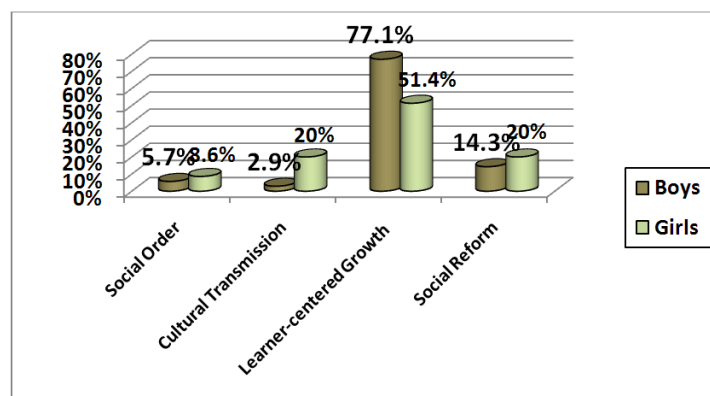
The second hypothesis is also rejected as Table 2 shows that the most common conceptual metaphor used by the school boys about their teacher is like the girls in the type of “Learner-centered growth” but with 77/1% higher than them followed by “social reform” with 14/3%.

“Social Order” with 5/7% and “Cultural Transmission” went as the final ones in this typology.

TABLE 2.  
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENT KINDS OF CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS IN SCHOOL BOYS ABOUT “TEACHER”

Type of Conceptual Metaphor	Number	Percent
Learner-Centered Growth	27	77/1
Social Reform	5	14/3
Social Order	2	5/7
Cultural Transmission	1	2/9
Total	35	100

**H3.** There is a significant relationship between gender and the kind of metaphors that students used for their teachers.



Graph 1. Relationship between Frequency Distribution of gender of students and the kind of metaphors used about the “teacher”

Fisher’s Exact Test showed that there is no significant relationship statistically between the gender of high-school students and their selection of kinds of metaphor about “teacher” with 95% confidence with the p-value of less than 5% ( $p=0/074$ ).

## VI. CONCLUSION

After completing the research and reviewing the findings, it was observed that among the four categories proposed by Oxford et al. (1998), the most effective conceptual metaphor produced by male and female students in this study was “Lerner-centered Growth” with 64.3%. This implies that metaphors used by students mean that they want to participate in the classroom and involve themselves in teacher-student kind of interaction. 17/1% of the metaphors used by the students are from “social Reforms”; 11/4% of it are from “Cultural Transmission” and finally 7/1% are from “Social Order”.

In previous studies particularly in the one done by Simsek (2014), most students produced their teacher-based metaphors. In the other words, 59% of the students used “social order” and “cultural transmission” types of metaphors in his study. It can be claimed that over half of the metaphors were teacher-based that is students accepted teacher as an all-round expert. According to Oxford et al. in “social order” kind of metaphor, the teacher builds the students to be efficient in society and school is like a factory where the teacher can make the frame of students in and form them. In “Cultural transmission”, the teacher is as a guardian who knows everything and the students are void of anything. Thus, both of them are teacher-based as the teacher controls the mind and behavior; someone who completely controls the classroom. On the other side, 41% of students selected “learner-centered growth” type of metaphor.

Nikitina & Furuoka (2008) in their research concluded that students have generally a positive perception toward their “language Teacher”. They found that over half of the students (66/7%) used “Learner-centered Growth” metaphors while 22% and 11% used respectively those metaphors related to “Cultural Transmission” and “Social Order”. They (ibid) came to the point that Malaysian students expect the teacher to pave the way for them as a guide.

It is noteworthy to note that there were no such metaphors in “Social Reforms” category in none of the researches conducted by Simsek (2014) as well as Nikitina & Furuoka (2008).

In fact, we can say that the results were influenced by the culture of society because previous learning experiences may not have prepared them for a democratic class interaction but rather for a hierarchical organization in which teachers are more respected and do not have an equal position as students.

This study signifies an important point that contrary to previous studies that in none of them “social reforms” type of metaphor was used about teacher, Iranian students used it and as the statistics shows, the most common one followed by the “learner-centered growth” was “social reforms”. The why of not producing such type of metaphor in those previous

studies (Nikitina & Furuoka, 2008) roots in the culture of society. In “Social reforms” type, the teacher is “receiver” or “learning partner” and acts as a motivator, catalyzer, and receiver of various ideas.

This result here is along with the study of Nikitina & Furuoka (2008) who confirms no significant relationship between gender and type of the produced metaphors.

#### REFERENCES

- [1] Gibbs, R.W. (1994). *The Poetics of Mind: Figurative, Thought, Language, and Understanding*. New York: Cambridge University press.
- [2] Gibbs, R.W. & Steun, G.J. (eds). (1997). *Metaphor in Cognitive Linguistics, selected papers from the fifth international cognitive linguistics conference*, Amsterdam: J. Benjamin's Co.
- [3] Goatly, A. (1997). *The Language of Metaphors*. London: Routledge.
- [4] Johnson, M. (1987). *The Body in the Mind: The Bodily Basis of Reason and Imagination*. Chicago: University of Chicago press.
- [5] Kovecses, Z. (2002). *Metaphor: A Practical Introduction*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- [6] Kovecses, Z. (2010). *Metaphor a Practical Introduction*. New York: Oxford university press.
- [7] Lakoff, G. (1993). *The Contemporary Theory of Metaphor*. In A. Ortony (ed.) *Metaphor and Thought* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.), Cambridge University Press.
- [8] Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors We Live by*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.
- [9] Levin, S. R. (1993). *Language, concepts, and worlds: domains of metaphor*. In A. Ortony (ed.) *Metaphor and Thought* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.), Cambridge University Press.
- [10] Liamputtong, P., & Ezzy, D. (2005). *Qualitative Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [11] Muller, C. (2008). *Metaphors Dead and Alive, Sleeping and Waking*. Chicago: university of Chicago press.
- [12] Murphy, P. F. (2001). *Studs, Tools, and the Family Jewels: Metaphors Men Live By*. USA: The University of Wisconsin Press.
- [13] Nikitana, F., & Furuoka, F. (2008). *Measuring Metaphors: A Factor Analysis of Students' Conceptions of Language Teachers*. *Journal of Foreign Language Teaching* [Electronic]. 5(2), pp.192-205.
- [14] Ortony, A. (1993). *Metaphor, language, and thought*. In A. Ortony (ed.) *Metaphor and Thought* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.), Cambridge University Press.
- [15] Oxford, R. L., Tomlinson, S., Barcelos, A., Harrington, C., Lavine, R. Z., Saleh, A., & Longhini, A. (1998). *Clashing Metaphor about Classroom Teachers: Toward a Systematic Typology for the Language Teaching Field*. *System*, 26(1), pp.3-50.
- [16] Pishghadam, R., Hosseini, F. R., Askarzadeh, R., & Navari, S. (2011). *Qualitative Metaphor Analysis and Language Learning Opportunities*. *Iranian Journal of Applied Linguistics*. Vol 14, No.1. pp. 77-108.
- [17] Santa Ana, O. (2002). *Brown Tide Rising: Metaphors of Latinos in Contemporary American Public Discourse*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- [18] Simsek, M. R. (2014). *A Metaphor Analysis of English Teacher Candidates Pre- and Post- Course Beliefs about Language and Teaching*. *Dicle Universitesi Ziya Gokalp EgitimFakultesi Dergisi*. 22 (4). pp. 230-247.
- [19] Steuter, E., & Wills, D. (2008). *At War with Metaphor*. UK: Lexington Books
- [20] Sweetser, E. (1990). *From Etymology to Pragmatics: The Mind-as-body Metaphor in Semantic Structure and Semantic Change*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [21] Wormeli, R. (2009). *Metaphors Analogies; Power Tools for Teaching Any Subject*. Maine: Stenhouse Publishers.
- [22] Yu, N. (2009). *The Chinese HEART in a Cognitive Perspective: Culture, Body, and Language (Applications of Cognitive Linguistics, vol. 12)*. Berlin and New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

**Mansouri Koohestani** was born in Iran in 1971. She is a high-school teacher in Iran. She received her BA in teaching English from Guilan university and her MA in General Linguistics from Payam-e Noor University in Rasht. Her areas of interests are Language Teaching, Language Education, Applied Linguistics and Sociolinguistics.

**Narjes Banou Sabouri** is the assistant professor of Linguistics. She is also a faculty member in Department of Linguistics at Payam-e Noor University of Rudсар, Guilan, Iran. She has taught English courses for over eight years. She has delivered many international articles in teaching and linguistics in credentialed journals.

**Parisa Farrokh** holds Ph.D. in linguistics and she is an assistant professor at English Translation Department of Lahijan Islamic Azad University. She is interested in Discourse, Phonetics and Phonology.

**Maryam Hessaby Dehbaneh** was born in 1985 in Rasht. She is an MA holder of TEFL from Alzahra University. When she was 19, she experienced publishing her first book ‘Let’s Write English’. She enjoyed learning and researching independently as an undergraduate in Translation. Her areas of interest are Critical Literacy in the Iranian context, ESP, Material Development, Discourse and CALL.

# Incorporating Intercultural Competences in Developing English Materials for Writing Classes

Haerazi

English Teaching Program, IKIP Mataram, Indonesia

Dedi Irwansyah

English Teaching Program, IAIN Metro Lampung, Indonesia

Juanda

Indonesian Teaching Program, Universitas Samawa, Indonesia

Yek Amin Azis

English Teaching Program, UIN Mataram, Indonesia

**Abstract**—Teaching English as a foreign language has been focused on cultural aspects. Teachers studied English from their cultures and then they compare those with the target cultures. This was aimed to facilitate English students to communicate orally and in written, linguistically accurate and culturally appropriate. Therefore, this research study was aimed at developing English materials based on intercultural language learning for writing classes. To reach the maximal materials, the researchers applied need analysis to identify cultural materials based learning model that feeds students' needs and expectation. Based on the result of research study, students like cultural topics for their level, such as wedding ceremonies, historical buildings, and traditional music. These topics showed that the set of intercultural-based instructional materials was appropriate to be utilized in the teaching of writing skills for English department students.

**Index Terms**—intercultural language learning, cultural materials, teaching writing

## I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years English teachers have been paying increasing attention to intercultural language learning to explore intercultural competences and to facilitate their students to write. The intercultural language learning gives opportunities for students to increase linguistic knowledge and cultural communication of English natives. Xue (2014) depicts that intercultural competences lead students to understand the language target (p.149). These competences are acquired by students through culture teaching because teaching cultures is to acquire communicative competences (Sun, 2013, p.371). Yue et al (2014) argue that language and culture are inseparable, hence when teachers teach a language they teach cultures (p.371). The linguistic knowledge and cultural aspects are acquired when teachers develop instructional materials containing cultural aspects. Liddicoat (2013) inserts also that cultural aspects are brought as learning materials into classrooms to reach intercultural competences (p.126) and then they are assessed as intercultural competences (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013, p.123). Therefore, intercultural language learning is able to bring students to get intercultural competence in ELT (Zhu, 2010, p.107).

This research has explored the intercultural language learning in writing classrooms. In EFL classrooms, writing is the most difficult language skill for Indonesian learners. The ability to write fluently and accurately presupposes not only good knowledge of language features, but also the ability to process and shape in mind based on English natives. Richard & Renandya (2002) state “whenever you teach a language, you teach a complex system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling, and acting” (p.303). That is why non-native English teachers have been increasingly aware that writing skills are learned hardly without addressing the cultural aspects reflected in English language in which it is spoken (Kanp & Watkin, 2005, p.19). The culture of the community determines how the language itself to be expressed to others.

In writing classrooms nowadays, the linguistic knowledge alone is not enough in guaranteeing for a successful writing (Atay et al, 2009). Linguistics features are necessary and cultural aspects are more crucial. Cultural mistakes are worse than linguistic ones because they tend to create misunderstanding between English natives and non-natives. Cultural aspects are necessary to be learned by students to avoid misjudgments or ill feeling. For this reason, English teachers should devote English instructional materials that containing cultural aspects for their students in writing classrooms although the writing anxiety is needed to be paid attention (Berk, 2017, p.237).

In Indonesia, English is regarded as a foreign language and is largely treated as an academic subject in the school and is not widely used outside of the classroom. In Indonesian curriculum, writing knowledge and skills are embedded in the course subject of English and Indonesia, each with two credit hours (Sinaga & Feranie, 2017, p.69). Therefore,

students face difficulties in performing English in writing. The students are required to master linguistic competences and even sociocultural competences (Murcia, 2007, p.41). Therefore, acts of writing need various processes for students to be a good writer. What Indonesian students face is similar to what students are faced in the countries where English taught as a foreign language.

Sharp (2016) in his research found that teachers of writing potentially lack an understanding for the various processes at work during the acts of writing among each student. This process would be that the writing instruction potentially was narrow, rigid, and inflexible. Non-native teachers and even native English teachers face difficulties in acts of writing because writing is a developmental and flexible process. Language learners from different cultures have their own cultural beliefs, values and social customs that strongly determine the communication way orally and in written (Zhang, 2010, p.224). In his research in china, he dwells on the four dimensional approach to develop students' intercultural competences, i.e. teaching students' basic knowledge of western cultures in class and providing more teaching practice chances for all kinds of activities in class.

Teaching of writing skills based on intercultural learning is proposed to stimulate and increase students' writing skills through developing intercultural competences. The development of intercultural competences helps students to increase their ideas and thoughts. To gain intercultural competences, teachers need to develop a particular instructional model oriented to intercultural language learning. Intercultural competences are assumed to be closely integrated with learning to know, learning to do, and learning to be (UNESCO, 2013).

Based on the consideration above, this research was aimed at developing intercultural competences by designing tasks to support the intercultural language learning model for teaching writing skills. The problems identified in private universities in west Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia. The learning materials and tasks for writing skills in English language department should be appropriate to the students' level and interest. The problem is how to develop appropriate materials so that the students are able to improve their writing skills. Thus, the learning materials for writing skills based on intercultural language learning have not been thoroughly developed to improve the students' writing proficiency. The learning tasks for writing skill based on intercultural language learning have not been thoroughly developed to improve the students' writing proficiency.

The problems of the research study was formulated into the following research questions; 1) what are the appropriate materials of interculture-based language learning (IBLL) model in the teaching of writing skills at the English department in higher education like?; 2) what are the appropriate learning tasks of interculture-based language learning (IBLL) model in the teaching of writing skills at the English department in higher education like?; 3) what is the quality of learning tasks of interculture-based language learning (IBLL) model for teaching writing skill at the English department students in higher education like?

The contributions of this article to literature are: 1) The intercultural language learning model can be utilized to teach English students in writing classrooms; 2) identifying needs refers to needs analysis result of gathering information on the students' necessities (what kinds of cultural topics they prefer), lacks (what kinds of problems they have in language skills), and wants (how they want to learn the intercultural competences and writing skills); 3) developing tasks for teaching materials can be arranged based on the learning needs and target needs for teaching writing skills.

## II. METHOD

The research study was a research and development (R & D) that is expected to produce a certain product of instructional materials designed within intercultural language learning. This research study used the stages of development that has been developed by Thiagrajan in Sugiyono (2011). There were carried out in four stages: (1) Defining, involving needs analysis to know the gabs between realities and wants in teaching writing, (2) Designing, involving designing the course grid and the first draft product, (3) Developing the product, involving developing the product through preliminary try-out and main try-out. (4) Disseminating the product, involving stakeholders and user of the product. There were two kinds of data in the research study, qualitative and quantitative data. The qualitative data provided information about students' needs (target needs and learning needs), the result of interview and the quality of instructional tasks. While the quantitative data indicated information about the score of questionnaires.

The subject of the research study was the English language educational students at some private universities in Indonesia. The try-out of the product was conducted at IKIP Mataram involving 32 students. The instruments were questionnaire and interview guidelines. The questionnaires comprise the needs analysis and evaluation questionnaire. The needs analysis questionnaire was carried out to gain the target needs and learning needs of students at writing classes, while the evaluation questionnaire was distributed to reach feedback from students. The interview guidelines have been used to reach the empirical evaluation data and it has been conducted after try-out. The results indicated the information about the appropriateness of instructional tasks for teaching writing classes at English language educational students.

The data of needs analysis and evaluation were analyzed quantitatively. The results were explanation about the students' needs (based on the target needs and learning needs) in learning writing skills and their responses toward the instructional tasks designed. The data of tasks evaluation questionnaire were analyzed by using central tendency (Creswell, 2012). The data were converted into the interval of mean score in scale 1 to 4 by using a range of factual score. The developed instructional tasks were said appropriate as mean score indicated 3.01 up to more than 3.51.

Meanwhile, the tasks were inappropriate as the mean score showed less than 3.00. The data from interview were analyzed qualitatively by conducting recording and then transcribing. The researchers carried out some stages qualitatively such as collecting, reducing, selecting, displaying and describing the data.

### III. FINDINGS

In general, the finding indicated that intercultural language learning in Indonesian context was not different from countries in expanded circles, where English is as the foreign language. Nevertheless, there were some appropriate materials and tasks presented to support the intercultural language learning in order to reach intercultural competences for English students for writing classes, as discussed further in this section.

#### A. Result of the Needs Analysis

The data from needs analysis in term the target needs comprise the students' necessities, wants and lacks. Based on the data of needs analysis, the students mostly needed materials that facilitate them to write. They needs appropriate topics to lead them to produce texts, linguistically accurate and culturally appropriate. The topics chosen to facilitate them to write were the topics reflecting the cultural identity such as wedding ceremonies, and engagement process (53.12%), students showed that they want the topics containing the religious ceremony as Happy *Idul Fitri*, Marry Christmas (75%) in the agree category. Then, students showed that they needed the cultural topics reflecting the family expression such as kissing, shaking hand, and embracing (68.75%) in agree category.

The results of data analysis dealing with aspects hoped to develop in writing class indicated that aspects of vocabulary and knowledge about text types (96.87%) and aspects of teaching materials (90.62%). Meanwhile, they wanted to improve the aspects of punctuation, spelling and grammar (87.5%) as well. Dealing with kinds of text, the data showed students needed the imaginary texts (87.5%), literary text (84.37) and factual texts (75%).

The data of students' lack indicated that they faced difficulties in expressing ideas into paper (65.62%), lacks of understanding about English structure (59.37%), difficulties in developing ideas into paragraphs (56.25%), and in selecting the words correctly (55%). The data of the target needs, such as necessary, want, and lack, were utilized to develop the instructional tasks for writing students. Meanwhile, the results of the learning needs were applied to set the classroom learning activities. The learning needs consist of the input, teacher's role, students' role and setting. Most of students needed various learning activities in writing class. As input, they needed cultural texts produced from native speakers or countries in inner circles, where using English is spoken as first language (62.5%), outer circles where English is used as a second language (53.12%), and also expanding circles where English is used as a foreign language (50%) as table 1.1 below.

TABLE I  
CULTURAL TEXTS FROM ENGLISH COUNTRIES

Rank	The cultural texts derived from English countries	Percentage			
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I	Expanding circle (Countries using English as foreign language) China, Sweden, Japan, etc.	31.25	62.5	6.25	0
II	Inner circle (Countries using English as L1) such as Australia, Britain, US	37.5	53.12	9.37	0
III	Outer circle (Countries using English as L2) such as Singapore, India, Malaysia, etc.	21.87	50	25	3.12

(Source: Bearne & Wolstencroft, 2007)

In learning activities, the students needed the teacher play a role as assessor for their drafting writing activities (68.75%), feedback giver and facilitator (65.62%). Meanwhile, the students wanted to play a role as reviser or reviewer for their classmate drafting each other (46.87%) and as corrector for grammatical items in their classmate writing (53.12%). In term of setting classroom, the mostly students preferred the effective way for writing class which was autonomous learning (59.37%) in making writing drafts. Meanwhile, students preferred in pair learning (56.25%).

#### B. Results of Development

Based on the result of needs analysis, the researchers developed the interculture-based instructional tasks in teaching writing skills for English department students in private universities in Indonesian context. The instructional tasks comprise four chapters and each chapter was made seven activities based on intercultural instructional model. Those were developed based on objectives of teaching of writing skills which have goals to improve student competences particularly as means of communication in written, linguistically accurate and culturally appropriate.

In designing the instructional tasks, the researchers referred to the task based language learning proposed by van Braden (2001). The tasks were divided into two parts; focus on reading and then writing activities. The designed materials consist of seven learning stages in activities which are; *warming up*, *noticing*, *comparing*, *reflecting*, *concluding tentatively*, *constructing* and *presenting*. Each stage provided cultural texts to be read by students. The text derived from Indonesian cultures (as local cultures) first and then from countries spoken English as a first language (L1),

L2 and foreign language. The proposed texts are altered to make it easy to be understood by students. At the end of the chapter, the researchers carried out evaluation to see the students' comprehension of the materials.

The components of each chapter were: (1) title; (2) learning goals; (3) warming-up; (4) noticing; (5) comparing; (6) reflecting; (7) concluding tentatively, constructing, and presenting. The first component was 'title' which was topics or themes will be studied. It was chosen based on the basic competence. Choosing a topic referred to what the students wanted to do to get the learning goals. The next component was 'warming up'. Before the teacher gives students a cultural topic, students were given some pictures or question lists to help them to build their background knowledge about the topic. This component led the students to notice the cultural or intercultural features. In the noticing process, the students are given a reading text. The text content was from their culture and foreign cultures. It presented to give them the prior knowledge to write.

After noticing section, the students moved to comparing component. This led them to compare their own and foreign culture. It provided to get the understanding about both their cultures and foreign cultures. Their comprehension was presented in written drafts. From this section, they did reflection and they will realize what and how their own cultures are and be able to respect to foreign cultures. After that, the component was 'concluding tentatively-constructing-presenting'. It provided to help students to understand and respect to people who have different culture with them. All the students' understanding about their own cultures and foreign cultures was shown in written paragraphs.

To help them easy to write, researchers provided the graphic organizers. Besides, researchers provided some difficult vocabularies with the phonetic transcription and their meanings or explanations dealing with the topic that they were learning. Before the first and final draft of the developed tasks was tried-out, it had been consulted to the experts. The experts involved were the expert of English language instruction, language teaching media and language evaluation. The final draft was revised mostly on language rather than on content.

### C. Results of Tryout Tasks and Revision

The field-testing of the product was held on May 2<sup>nd</sup> until June 6<sup>th</sup> 2016. It was carried out in 6 meetings in writing class. It was attended 32 students. The data collected by using questionnaire of Unit I were evaluated.

The mean value of each task ranged from 3.33 – 3.43 and the mean score of the whole tasks was 3.34. The results indicated that the Unit I was appropriate for the students. Nevertheless, there were some tasks needed to be revised. Some tasks should be designed in pairs, small group and individually. Besides, the cultural reading texts cited from Wikipedia sources should be modified to make it easy to comprehend. Students still faced difficulties in understanding the grammars and in predicting the meaning of some vocabularies. It was suggested to use another technique to solve the difficulties.

The data collected from evaluation of Unit II showed that the mean value of each task ranged from 3.32 – 3.44. The average of the whole task was 3.33. This indicated the Unit II was appropriate for students in writing class. Nevertheless, there were revisions in the setting of task design, such as set of cultural pictures and reading texts. Meanwhile, the data collected from materials evaluation of Unit III showed that the mean value of each task ranged from 3.33-3.44. The average of the whole task was 3.42. This presented the materials of Unit III was appropriate with some revisions, such as it should be added more explanations and examples about communicative grammar in writing process.

The last materials evaluation of Unit IV presented that there was 3.33-3.42 of the mean value of each task. The average of the whole tasks was 3.33. This indicated the materials were appropriate for students writing class. The revision was only in the setting of tasks and the students should carry out the task in pairs as well as individually.

## IV. DISCUSSION

The materials developed were based on the intercultural language learning model. Meanwhile, the task was designed based on task-based language learning. It was presented for students in writing class. The materials consist of four chapters and each chapter has some tasks. The numbers of tasks in each chapter were different. Each chapter was developed based on a certain cultural topic to facilitate students to write. Each part was sequenced dealt with task level of complexities. The sustainability or dependency among some tasks was considered. The designed tasks were in line with Nunan's (2004) and Nation & Macalister's (2010) principles of grading, sequencing and integrating tasks.

The proposed topics were cultural topics, such as wedding ceremony (in unit I), historical building (in unit II), Music (in unit III) and Myths (in unit IV). Students started studying their own culture first and then target culture related to the topic. For target culture, the topics were adapted and adopted from English countries found in website. Those were appropriate as materials to facilitate students to get knowledge or understanding about cross cultures among countries using English as L1, L2 and foreign language. It indicated that the students can import their knowledge based on the topics into well paragraphs.

The materials were developed based on the learning goals. The learning goals were to improve students' writing skills, linguistically accurate and culturally appropriate. To gain the goals, the researchers proposed the intercultural language model in the teaching of writing skills through cultural topics deriving from countries categorized as inner

circle, outer circle and expanding circle. To make it easy in practice, the researchers applied the learning stages which were; *noticing, comparing, reflecting, concluding tentatively, constructing and presenting stage*.

In the topic of wedding ceremony, the students were learning about wedding traditions both their own culture and target culture. Through intercultural knowledge, they were able to write a descriptive text as manifesting their understanding about both local culture and target culture. To know their knowledge of culture, the students then implemented it into paragraphs. To support them to write, the researcher gave them some explanation about how to write a descriptive text through good English structures. The students also were provided a graphic organizer to guide them to write.

For example in the topic of historical building, the students were presented texts with serial pictures about familiar historical building, such as historical temples (Prambanan and Borobudur temple), *lawang sewu*, *Sade House* and the like from Indonesia. Local cultures were presented first to build their prior knowledge. This process was conducted in noticing stage. They noticed their own culture. After that, they moved to compare with the target cultures. The target cultures proposed here were *Trully Houses* in Italy, *Taj Mahal* in India, cathedral heritage building in Britain and the like. The students read the texts relating with the topics and then they compare them with what they had. The process of comparison was focused on the content of texts. It was to get understanding between the local culture they had and target culture. In practice, they were provided with a graphic organizer.

After doing comparison, students did reflection about the topics. It meant that they thought how they understood the language, culture and relationship between those. Students involved in being aware of concepts, such as diversity, identity, experience and how one's own intercultural feeling. To keep it in mind, they made a writing draft as result of their reflection. They were also provided some learning tasks such as identifying English parts of speeches, phrases and clauses from the original text. This aimed to imitate how the target language operated in texts.

The comparing and reflecting process was not aimed to judge that this culture was right and another was not right. To avoid this stigma, the researcher proposed a process namely concluding tentatively. In this process, students took decision about their view of their culture and target culture and then they expressed it into written form. They analyzed how the language functioned in a text. The target cultures became their consideration to develop a conceptual category of cultural differences and similarities. To help students to do that, researcher provided some tasks with serial pictures. They were asked to write the scene activity from pictures. The form of instruction was such as 'in pairs, write the scene activity from each picture below based on your current knowledge'.

The results of students' conclusion were constructed in descriptive, recount, explanation and narrative text. This process was done in constructing stage. This stage involved students to construct their understanding based on what they compare and reflect in descriptive text for a topic. They were presented explanation how to write a descriptive text and an example of its structure. They did check and recheck among them about their draft. They did revision based on feedback among them. The end of the stage was a presenting stage. The students' final draft would be presented in front of class.

In Indonesian context, these activities could be considered as interesting activities. These were challenging and giving the students' opportunities to know the target culture and imitate the patterns of English language they used in a written expression. These could also develop their knowledge and skills dealt with their reading comprehension. The developed materials and tasks here were in line with the Grave (2000) in which the good materials should provide stimulus to learn and should motivate the students to use their existing knowledge and skills.

In term of task setting for example, it was found that both individual and pair or group works motivated students to learn. The appropriateness of tasks setting was determined by the types of tasks presented. The tasks related to grammar focus, such as identifying the main verbs, phrases and clauses through authentic texts, were provided with explanation. The students discussed it in pairs and group works. Therefore, it was easier for them to understand and imitate them in written expression. Meanwhile, the tasks concentrated highly were conducted individually. This, in term of task setting in pairs, allowed students to work and interact independently without guidance from teachers and in task setting individually, this improved the students' autonomy and allowed the teacher to respond differently based on the their rate of learning and their learning styles.

The teacher had important role during the task implementation. The appropriate teacher roles here were facilitator, feedback giver, assessor, and organizer. This indicated that it was in line with the opinion of Harmer (2001) who stated that the roles of teacher can be as a controller, organizer, assessor, prompter, participant, resource, tutor and observer. Meanwhile, the students' role was being active and creative participant. Dealing with teacher's and students' role, Richard & Rogers (in Nunan, 2004) argued that a task in the learning process reflected an assumption about the contribution of the students and teachers.

## V. CONCLUSION

The research study was administered to develop the tasks through the use of intercultural language learning in teaching writing for English department students in Higher education. It was found that the instructional model was beneficial for English department students in the writing classes. It was proven from the teaching stages applied in the writing class that were based on intercultural language learning. These teaching stages were noticing, comparing, reflecting, concluding tentatively, constructing and presenting. The use of intercultural-based language learning for



teaching writing skills was responded positively by students. Meanwhile, the developed tasks were appropriate. It was seen from the mean value of each item from the questionnaire of students' responses. The range was 3.14 to 3.64. It was in the good category.

The topics provided as materials were the topic of wedding ceremony, historical building, Music and Myths. Students started studying their own culture first and then target culture related to the topic. For target culture, the materials were adapted and adopted from English countries found in website. Those were appropriate as materials to facilitate students to get knowledge or understanding about cross cultures among countries using English as L1, L2 and foreign language. It indicated that the students can import their knowledge based on the topics into well paragraphs.

The organization of the learning materials was described as follows.

#### Title

The title of each chapter was going to introduce the goal of each chapter to the students. It was aimed to give information for students about the topics would be studied.

#### Warming up

The warming up was going to build students' prior knowledge about their own culture before they would be introduced the target culture. They started learning the local culture first. The knowledge of local culture became a basic thing to view the target culture.

#### Main activity

The tasks in main activity facilitated the language function, reading cultural text, grammar and vocabulary builder. In implementation the tasks in a writing class, the researchers applied intercultural language learning stages that were; noticing, comparing, reflecting, concluding tentatively, constructing and presenting. In each stage, there were the supported certain tasks.

#### Closing

This section was aimed at checking the students' improvement about what they have learnt. The students' improvement here indicated that the instructional process and materials were effective for them.

Finally, the appropriate tasks had the characteristics below.

#### Goal

The English learning materials was aimed at facilitating students to communicate in written form, linguistically accurate and culturally appropriate. It was also to enable them to read cultural texts and then they analyze and imitate the language patterns of the text. The written product of students comprises descriptive, recount, explanation and narrative text.

#### Want

Students were very interested in knowing their own cultures comprehensively and it was become as prior knowledge to compare the target cultures. Therefore, students were presented the intercultural language learning for teaching writing skills.

#### Input

As inputs, students were given the comprehensible materials about local and target cultural topics. The topics were wedding ceremony, historical building, music and myths. They were tasks comprising reading texts and pictures followed by questions, explanation, and examples of language function, true-false, and exercise of grammar and vocabulary list. To help students in writing process, it was provided the graphic organizer in each unit of the tasks.

#### Procedure

The procedure of writing activities was reading a text first and then answering the questions. Students then tick the name of country based on the cultural pictures, completing the sentences based on the reading text following by pictures, adding the supporting ideas based on the topic, determining and analyzing the language features from descriptive, recount, explanation and narrative text. Students also studied about the grammar in each unit. The learning activities were divided into warming up, noticing, comparing, reflecting, concluding tentatively, constructing and presenting. Those activities had certain tasks to support the learning stages.

#### Students' and teachers' role

The students' role was being active learner and the appropriate teacher roles were organizer, assessor and feedback giver about students' work.

#### Setting

The setting here was individual, pair and group work,

## VI. SUGGESTION

The English teachers should provide and develop their own language learning materials dealing with the students' needs referring to target needs and learning needs. It aimed to improve the quality of their language learning especially for English language department in private universities. Because writing skills were the productive skills, the English teachers should find a good instructional model to facilitate student to write. Besides, the Dean of Language Program in private universities should support and facilitate the lecturers to provide their own materials not only for writing classes but also for extracurricular classes.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was financially supported by Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education-Indonesia under PhD fund program, DIKTI Scholarship, and University of IKIP Mataram,, Indonesia through the program of lecturer professional development. Authors also thank the University of Auckland, New Zealand, that permits us as visiting student staying in 3 months to finish this article. We thank Dr. Jhon Hope (Dean of International Office, Auckland University) and editors for valuable comments on different parts of the manuscript.

## REFERENCES

- [1] Atay, D., Kurt, G., Camlibel, Z., Ersin, P., & Kaslioglu, O. (2009). The Role of Intercultural Competence in Foreign Language Teaching. *Inonu University Journal of the Faculty of Education*, 10(3), 123–135. <https://doi.org/10.11648/j.jjll.s.2014020601.12>.
- [2] Barg, W. R. & Gall, M. D. (2003). Educational research. New York: Longman.
- [3] Berk, R.R. (2017). Comparison of writing anxiety and writing disposition of sixth, seventh and eighth grade students, 10(1), 237-254. <https://doi.org/10.12973/iji.2017.10115a>.
- [4] Byram, M. (1997). Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence. UK: Clevedon Hall.
- [5] Byram, M., Gribkova, M., & Starkey, H. (2002). Developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching: a practical introduction for teachers. Retrieved from [http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/guide\\_dimintercult\\_en.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/source/guide_dimintercult_en.pdf) (accessed 20/10/2015).
- [6] Corbet, J. (2003). An intercultural approach to English language teaching. Britain: Cromwell Press.
- [7] Knap, P. & Watkins, M. (2005). Genre, text, grammar: Technologies for teaching and assessing writing. Sydney: UNSW Press book.
- [8] Liddicoat, A. J. (2013). Language Teaching and Learning as an Intercultural Endeavor. *Intercultural Language Teaching and Learning*, (section 7), 47–62. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118482070.ch4>.
- [9] Liddicoat, A. J., & Scarino, A. (2013). Assessing Intercultural Language Learning. *Intercultural Language Teaching and Learning*, (July), 123-142. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118482070.ch8>.
- [10] Murcia, M.C. (2007). Rethinking the role of communicative competence in language teaching. In E.A. Soler, M.P.S. Jorda (Eds.), *Intercultural Language Use and Language Learning*. Netherland, 41-57.
- [11] Nunan, D. (2004). Task-based language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [12] Sharp, L. A. (2016). Acts of Writing: A Compilation of Six Models that Define the Processes of Writing, 9(2). <https://doi.org/10.12973/iji.2016.926a>.
- [13] Sinaga, P., & Feranie, S. (2017). Enhancing Critical Thinking Skills and Writing Skills through the Variation in Non-Traditional Writing Task, 10(2), 69–84. <https://doi.org/10.12973/iji.2017.1025a>.
- [14] Sun, L. (2013). Culture Teaching in Foreign Language Teaching. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(2), 371–375. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.3.2.371-375>.
- [15] Sugiyono. (2011). Metode Penelitian Kuantitatif, dan R & D. Bandung: Alfabeta.
- [16] UNESCO. (2013). Intercultural competences: Conceptual and Operational Framework. Paris: UNESCO.
- [17] Xue, J. (2014). Cultivating Intercultural Communication Competence through Culture Teaching. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(7), 1492–1498. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.7.1492-1498>.
- [18] Yu, L., Mei, Z., & Qian, Y. (2014). Challenges in Intercultural Language Education in China. *Canadian Social Science*, 10(6), 38. <https://doi.org/10.3968/5426>.
- [19] Zhang, X. (2010). Developing Students ' Intercultural Communication Competences in Western Etiquette Teaching. *English Language Teaching*, 3(4), 224–227.
- [20] Zhu, H. (2010). College English Teaching Viewed from the Perspective of Intercultural Communication. *English Language Teaching*, 3(3), 107–110. Retrieved from <http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ1081801&site=ehost-live> (accessed 20/10/2015).



**Haerazi** was born in Lombok, May 6<sup>th</sup>, 1983. He earned his master degree in Applied Linguistics from Yogyakarta State University (YSU), Yogyakarta, Indonesia in 2010. He is now holding a PhD program in YSU for study program of Language Educational Science.

He is a teaching staff at the English education department, faculty of language and arts education, IKIP Mataram, West Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia, since 2010. He published the book of Language Learning Approaches in 2010, published by Samudra Biru Press, Yogyakarta, Indonesia. His research interests focus on TEFL and intercultural language learning, teaching of the four language skills, and applied linguistics.

Mr. Haerazi is an active researcher and has won many competitive grants in the area of language and arts education from Ministry of National Higher Education, Indonesia.



**Dedi Irwansyah** was born in Sumbawa Besar, December 23, 1979. Pursued his undergraduate degree from English Letters Department of Sanata Dharma University in 2002, and Masteral degree in Applied Linguistics from Yogyakarta State University (YSU) in 2005.

He has been teaching English at State Islamic Institute of Metro, Lampung, Indonesia, since 2006. He authored the book of English for Muslim Learners in 2015, published by Penerbit Kalarana Press, Yogyakarta. His current research interests include TEFL and multiculturalism, Teaching with literature, and TEFL in Islamic university.

Mr. Irwansyah is now attending a PhD program in YSU majoring Language Educational Science.



**Juanda** was born in Sumbawa, March 17<sup>th</sup>, 1984. He holds a bachelor degree from Alauddin Islamic State University, Makassar, South Celebes, in 2009 and earns master degree in Indonesian language education and literature from Muhammadiyah University of Makassar, in 2011. He is now attending a PhD program in language education science at Yogyakarta State University (YSU), Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

He is Head of Indonesian Language Education and Literature Department at Samawa University (2016-2021), West Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia.

He published both national and international journal and has won competitive grants. He has research interests on Indonesian language teaching and learning for foreigners, literatures, and linguistics.

Mr. Juanda is member of Indonesian Language Education Lecturer Association (Adobsi).



**Yek Amin Azis** was born in Mataram, August 26<sup>th</sup>, 1980. He earned his undergraduate degree from English language department of IKIP Mataram in 2004 and master degree in Applied Linguistics from Yogyakarta State University (YSU), Yogyakarta, Indonesia in 2012. He is now attending a PhD program in YSU for study program of Language Educational Science.

He is an English lecturer at the English education department of Faculty of Education Islamic State University, Mataram, West Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia, since 2007. His research interests include TEFL, ESP, teaching of the four language skills, and applied linguistics.

Mr. Yek Amin Azis is an active researcher and has been a trainer in the area of linguistics and English language teaching for Islamic schools in Indonesia.

# The Pragmatic Strategies Adopted by an Advanced Chinese EFL Learner in Realization of Request Speech Act—A Case Study

Yanfei Su

Sichuan University of Arts and Science, Dazhou, China

**Abstract**—Under the guidance of the analytical framework of speech act proposed by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), the utterances, produced by a Chinese advanced EFL learner under four different situations in which the speech act of request was realized, are analyzed so as to examine the advanced EFL learner's pragmatic awareness and corresponding features of pragmatic strategies adopted in realization of the request speech act. The findings of the study suggest that the Chinese advanced EFL learner does have certain pragmatic awareness and adopts different pragmatic strategies to realize the request speech act in different situations; however, her pragmatic strategies are comparatively limited to certain ones, showing no variety, which are likely to be impacted by various factors.

**Index Terms**—request, speech act, situations; pragmatic strategies, pragmatic awareness

## I. INTRODUCTION

As SLA research develops vigorously, researchers and teachers who previously focused on learners' linguistic competence now begin to attach great attention to learners' pragmatic competence. In terms of the pragmatic aspects of SLA, the performance and acquisition of speech acts "has received the greatest attention in SLA research" (Ellis, 2008, p. 160). Speech acts were classified by Searle (1975) into five classes according to different patterns of felicity conditions, that is, representatives, directives, commissives, expressive, and declarations (as cited in Ellis, 2008, p.160). This research aims to investigate one type of speech act belonging to the class of directives, namely, request. Ellis (2008) defined requests as "attempts on the part of a speaker to get the hearer to perform or to stop performing some kind of action in the interests of the speaker" (p. 172).

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are a large number of studies on the speech act of request (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain's, 1984; Taguchi, 2007; Al-Gahtani & Roever, 2012; Han, 2013; Langer, 2013; Ho, 2014). Moreover, their study focuses vary from various pragmatic strategies used to realize the request to different individual's specific strategy use. Some studies focused on contrasting similarities and differences of pragmatic strategies between different languages, for example, Han (2013) conducted a research on politeness of request speech act by contrasting request strategies adopted by native British English speakers and Mandarin speakers. A number of studies devoted themselves to studying a specific aspect of request speech act, for instance, Ho (2014) explored grounders in request, one type of external modification, by using Martin and White's Appraisal Theory to analyze and compare inter-cultural and intra-cultural request grounders produced in workplace emails by Chinese professionals and non-Chinese professions in business and education. There were studies investigating two or more speech acts in one research. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) examined two speech acts—requests and apologies—in one study by developing a theoretical and methodological framework for analyzing the realization patterns of request and apology and demonstrating the exact procedures for analyzing speech act. Taguchi (2007) examined the effects of task difficulty caused by different social situations (power, distance and degree of imposition) on L2 oral output via analyzing the produced utterances of Japanese EFL students and native English speakers in realization of request and refusal speech acts. The relationship between second language proficiency and realization of request speech act was explored by some studies such as Al-Gahtani and Roever (2012). They studied whether and how L2 learners' language proficiency would affect the sequential organization of request in a cross-sectional study. They collected data through role-play in which requests in different social situations had been performed by L2 learners at four language proficiency levels. And finally, there are research studying pedagogy of request speech act. Langer (2013) conducted a research on whether it is effective or not to explicitly teach requests to L2 learners of Spanish at three language levels, namely, beginning, intermediate and advanced levels.

Comparatively speaking, there are studies in China contributing to analyze request speech act performed by Chinese EFL learners, whose research perspectives are narrow. Under the framework of speech act theory, Liu Senlin (2003) explored pragmatic strategies adopted by the speaker. Learning from Blum-Kulka & Olshtain's (1984) theoretical and methodological framework for analyzing the realization patterns of request and apology, Xiao Yupin (2011) studied the

request strategies used by modern business professionals and Liu Huipin and Zhan Shaojie (2012) analyzed request strategies employed by Uyghur English learners, Uyghur Chinese learners, and Uyghur native speakers respectively. Li Chengtuan (2013) analyzed orders and requests strategies used by Chinese, Japanese and American speakers. Based on corpus, Liu Mantang (2008) and Liu Chenyan (2014) conducted studies in terms of speech act.

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) stated that “a number of studies have established empirically that second language speakers might fail to communicate effectively (commit pragmatic failures), even when they have an excellent grammatical and lexical command of the target language” (p.196). Whether do advanced Chinese EFL students share the feature stated by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984)? Studies in China in terms of this perspective are few. Therefore, as a preliminary step to research Chinese EFL students’ pragmatic competence development, this research aims to analyze the utterances produced by an advanced Chinese EFL participant in realization of the request speech act and identify her pragmatic strategies in realization of the quest. In order to guide this research, two research questions were proposed:

1. Did the advanced Chinese EFL participant demonstrate any pragmatic awareness in realizing the request speech act?
2. What kind of pragmatic strategies did the advanced Chinese EFL participant use in realization of request speech act in different situations?

### III. RESEARCH DESIGN

#### A. Participants

The participant was a female Chinese EFL learner who was also an EFL teacher at a tertiary school in China. She taught EFL student English who were non-English majors in her college. She was about 31 years old when she participated in this research. She was once studied abroad for her master degree of translation major in Australia for two years and seized an opportunity to further her study in English teaching in Singapore for a short period with about 10 months. Her English language proficiency could be regarded as reaching advanced level.

#### B. Data Collection

In order to identify what pragmatic strategies the participant adopted in realization of the request speech act, the researcher used the method of conducting role-play between the participant and the interlocutor to obtain the data. In the field of research on speech acts, there are several ways to collect data such as Discourse Completion Tests (DCTs), natural discourse, elicited discourse and role plays. It’s obvious that there is not a panacea way to collect relevant data because each way has its own advantages and disadvantages. Nonetheless, as Al-Gahtani and Roever (2012) pointed out, “On balance, role plays allow a decent degree of standardization while eliciting extended interactive data” (p. 44).

The role-play was conducted in different situations. Taking time and words limit into consideration, this research designed four situations according to different social variables first proposed by Brown and Levinson’s (1987) (the participant and the interlocutor’ power difference, social distance and degree of imposition). The detailed description of the four situations was attached in appendix B, which had been presented to the participant each time before the role play began. Situation 1 was adapted from Taguchi’s (2007) role-play situations for the pragmatic speaking task, that is, to ask your teacher to reschedule the exam (for detailed description, please see appendix B). In situation 1 (P-, D+, R+), the interlocutor is a teacher who has just given only 3 lessons to the student, who is the participant, so the power between them is not equal, with the participant having lower power, and the distance is far; the request is to ask the teacher to reschedule the exam, which exerts great face-threatening effect on the teacher, so the degree of imposition is high. Situation 2, 3, and 4 were adapted from Han (2013). In situation 2 (P=, D-, R+), ask a friend to lend money, the interlocutor and the participant are friends, so their power relationship is equal, and their distance is small; the request is to ask her friend to lend 300 dollars, which is a large amount for a student, so the degree of imposition is high. The situation 3 (P=, D+, R+) is to ask a new neighbor for help. In situation 3, the neighbor and the participant have the equal power, and because they are not familiar with each other, their distance is far; and asking a new neighbor to help with the gas valve would cause inconvenience to the neighbor, so the degree of imposition is high. Situation 4 (P+, D=, R+) is to ask an employee to help with making PPT. In situation 4, the employer/participant has more power than the employee; they are acquaintances, so the distance is neutral; and the request is to ask the employee who is busy with typing to help the boss prepare the PPT, which is the boss’ own business, so the degree of imposition is high.

The procedure for this data collection which was recorded from beginning to end is as follows. The recording was conducted at a quiet place on campus. Firstly, the researcher obtained the participant’s consent to participate in this research and asked her to sign the written consent form. Secondly, the researcher explained the guidelines for the role-play tasks to the participant, and then a pilot role-play was conducted in order to ensure that the recording equipment worked smoothly and the participant knew clearly the guidelines and procedure of the role-play. If the participant encountered something unclear, the researcher made detailed explanation. Thirdly, after the pilot role-play, the four situations of role-play were conducted one by one. The description of each situation was presented to the participant one after another, and for each description reading, there was enough time for the participant to make preparation mentally.

Then, the interlocutor asked whether the participant was ready and the role-play began. The last but not the least, the recording was transcribed.

### C. Analytical Framework

This research focused on speech act of request realized by one advanced Chinese EFL participant, aiming to identify what pragmatic strategies she adopted in performing the request in four situations. Only the participant/requester's utterances were analyzed. Therefore, the researcher thought Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's (1984) analysis framework in this regard was suitable and adopted their framework, namely, from perspectives of head act, internal modifications and external modifications. Internal modifications consist of request perspectives (hearer oriented, speaker oriented, speaker and hearer oriented, and impersonal), syntactic downgraders (interrogative, negation, past tense, and embedded 'if' clause), other downgraders (consultative devices, understaters, hedges, and downtoner), and upgraders (intensifiers and expletives). External modifications are composed of checking on availability, getting a precommitment, grounder, sweetener, disarmer, and cost minimizer.

### D. Data Analysis

In order to shape a clear outline of analysis of pragmatic strategies adopted by the participant in the four situations, this research analyzed the four situations one after another from perspectives of head act, internal modifications and external modifications. The transcription of the participant's utterances was numbered by lines (please see appendix A).

#### Situation 1:

##### 1) Head act

The participant didn't propose the head act of request until several rounds of conversation were finished. The head act was proposed in line 9 and 10, "so could you please (how to say) reschedule the time?" This is a conventionally indirect request, which the participant tried it to minimize the degree of imposition. After several rounds of negotiating, the participant once again projected the request (line 15, 20, 21), which could be treated as adjunct to head act because of its later sequence.

##### 2) Internal Modifications

A. Request perspectives: The participant in her head act of request adopted a hearer oriented point of view, "so could you..."

B. Syntactic downgraders: The participant used an interrogative sentence to present her request. The use of such strategy was likely to show the participant's pessimistic attitudes towards the outcome of the request.

C. Other downgraders: The understater, "how to say (line 9)", was used to lessen the impact of the participant's utterance. Although "how to say" was just a filler used by the participant in the whole conversation, she might also use it here to imply her hesitation to project her request.

##### 3) External Modifications

A. Checking on availability: Although the participant did not use an obvious expression to check the teacher's availability, the researcher thought she used a mild one, "so if you are busy... (line 14)". This sentence may be implied that if you are busy at that time, can we change it to another time when you are free. And another one is in line 15, "Is that OK for...?"

B. Grounder: Although the participant did not use sweetener, disarmer or cost minimizer, she did use several grounders to make explanation and implied to the teacher rescheduling the exam time was very important to her (line 5, 7 and 8).

#### Situation 2:

##### 1) Head act

In this situation, the participant also presented her request after several rounds of conversation so as to pave the way for projecting the request. The head act, "If I buy it, could you please lend me some money?" (line 11 and 12), was featured by the conventionally indirect request.

##### 2) Internal Modifications

A. Request perspectives: A hearer oriented perspective was adopted by the participant in her head act, "could you..."

B. Syntactic downgraders: The participant used interrogative to downgrade the request. At the same time, she used an embedded "if" clause to mitigate the request, "if I buy it" (line 11).

C. Other downgraders: The participant adopted an understater of "some" to minimize the request action of borrowing money, "lend me some money".

##### 3) External Modifications

A. Getting a precommitment: The participant first discussed style, color and price of the dress with the interlocutor before she proposed her head act of request (line 1, 3, 5, and 9). The researcher thought this strategy might be regarded as a getting a precommitment, or in other words, to pave the way for the request.

B. Grounder: The participant used grounder (line 11) to explain why she wanted to borrow money.

C. Cost minimizer: The participant offered a compensation plan, namely, to return the money to her friend next day, which could be regarded as a cost minimizer to show her consideration of the inconvenience to the hearer (line 21).

#### Situation 3:

##### 1) Head Act

The participant projected her head act of request in line 9 (“so, could you, how to say, help me? Because I can’t open the gas in our house.”), which means she did not directly present it until several rounds of conversation (greeting and self-introduction) were completed in order to lay a foundation of trust. And then later, after she made a detailed explanation of the problem she met, she once again projected the request (line 11 and 12), which could be regarded as the adjunct to head act. The head act is a conventionally indirect request.

#### 2) Internal modifications

A. Request perspectives: The participant adopted a hearer oriented perspective to project her head act of request.

B. Syntactic downgrader: The participant used an interrogative to lessen the influence of the request (line 9).

C. Other downgrader: The participant used the understater, “how to say” (line 9), to show her hesitation to make the request, or she made a tentative try.

#### 3) External Modifications

A. Checking on availability: The participant checked whether the interlocutor was available at that time, “You know, are you available now? (line 7)”.

B. Getting a precommitment: The participant’s “so, could you, how to say, help me?” in the head act might also be regarded as functioning as a precommitment.

C. Grounder: The participant used grounder in line 11.

D. Cost minimizer: The participant knew the interlocutor was taking care of his baby girl at the beginning of conversation, so she proposed a compensation plan for the interlocutor’s help to minimize his “cost”, “I will take care your baby.” (line 16)

#### Situation 4:

##### 1) Head Act

The participant proposed her head act of request in line 11, “I need someone to help me to do the PPT”. This head act is characterized by the most direct, explicit level of request. After several rounds of conversation, she presented the request again (line 16) which also could be seen as adjunct to head act, “so you will make the details, and produce the PPT”.

##### 2) Internal modifications

A. Request perspectives: The speaker oriented perspective was adopted to make a request, “I need...”

B. Other downgraders: The participant did not use any syntactic downgraders, but adopted a hedge to mitigate the imposition. However, this hedge was used to refer to the requestee.

##### 3) External modifications

A. Checking availability: The participant used an interrogative to check the interlocutor’s availability (line 3).

B. Getting a precommitment: The participant confirmed with the interlocutor that whether the interlocutor knew a meeting would be held next day (line 9).

## IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Through a detailed analysis of an advanced Chinese EFL learner’s utterances of realizing request speech act in four different situations, this research found that the participant had cultivated certain awareness of pragmatics, which could be exemplified in the following aspects. Firstly, the participant projected head act and adjunct to head act in situation 1, 3 and 4, except for 2. It is possibly that she noticed the short distance in situation 2 (they are friends). Secondly, she adopted conventionally indirect head act in situation 1, 2 and 3, not 4, which was the most direct, explicit request. It is very likely that she was aware of the different power between them (boss and employer). Thirdly, as for the request perspective, she adopted hearer-oriented perspective in situation 1, 2 and 3, while she used speaker-oriented perspective in situation 4. This would like to imply once again that she noticed the different power. Moreover, her use of speaker or hearer-oriented perspective might be influenced by her first language pragmatics because in Chinese, people usually use “you” to show their respect in certain situations, while using “I” often implies that the speaker excels the hearer in certain aspects, which is different from English. Last but not least, the use of “please” and interrogative in Chinese obviously shows the speaker is very polite, which might be different from English. She used “please” and interrogative in situation 1, 2 and 3, except 4.

The findings of this research imply that the participant adopted different pragmatic strategies to realize requests in different situations, which indicates her awareness of pragmatics. The reasons behind it might be very complicated because although she used different pragmatic strategies, some of her strategies shared certain characteristics with Chinese pragmatics. The overseas study experiences in Australia for two years and Singapore for 7 months might make contribution to the awareness of pragmatic strategy use. The advanced language proficiency is also likely to play a part. However, she was an adult when she went abroad for further study, so this might be the factor for her not to adopt native-like pragmatic strategy use. Moreover, the interlocutor conducting role-play with her might be another factor because the interlocutor is a native Chinese EFL learner whose non-native utterances possibly influenced the participant’s reaction to the role-play. This is also one of the limitations of this research. Another one is the way of data collection. Using role-play between two non-native speakers to collect data is lack of authenticity. This research only aimed to identify the pragmatic strategies adopted by the participant, but it did not compare the participant’s utterances with those of native speakers so that it cannot suggest whether the participant’s pragmatic strategy use is native-like or

not. Many studies showed that advanced L2 learners do not grasp a native speaker's way of requesting. Therefore, efforts could be made to further study on whether the advanced Chinese EFL learner in this research acquired a native speaker's way of requesting by comparing with native speakers' utterances. Even if the advanced Chinese EFL learners had some problems in pragmatic strategy use, it is reasonable for EFL teachers to teach pragmatics in SLA explicitly or implicitly.

#### APPENDIX A. DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF SITUATIONS

Situation 1: At the end of one class, your teacher, who has just gave you three lectures, suddenly informs you that an exam will be held on Wednesday, but that day is the eve of the Chinese Spring Festival. Chinese people attach great significance to the day and usually have a reunion dinner with family members, relatives or friends. Therefore, you want to beg her to reschedule the exam.

Situation 2: It is 10:00 AM on Saturday. You and your good friend are shopping in downtown shopping mall. You want to buy a beautiful dress, but find that you don't have enough money. You decide to ask your friend to lend you 300 dollars.

Situation 3: On the first day when you arrive at the new house in Singapore, you want to do cooking, but suddenly you find that there is no gas and you don't know where and how to open the gas valve, so you resort to your new neighbor who is playing with his baby daughter and ask him for help.

Situation 4: You are the boss of a company. You haven't prepared the PPT for tomorrow's meeting. Preparing the PPT is your own business. However, because of the urgency, you need someone to help you make the PPT. You resort to an employee who is busy with her typing work assigned by you for help.

Pilot situation: Pilot situation, asking your room-mate to clean up the messy kitchen, was adapted from Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's (1984), namely, "a student asks his room-mate to clean up the kitchen which the other left in a mess" (p. 211). The other day when you come home, you find that the kitchen is in a total mess and you know your room-mate cooked yesterday, so you want to ask her who is studying in her room to clean up the kitchen.

#### APPENDIX B. TRANSCRIPTIONS OF SITUATIONS

##### **Situation 1:**

1The interlocutor (hereinafter as I): Hi, guys, we are going to have an exam 2tomorrow.

3The participant (hereinafter as P): tomorrow!!! Oh, no!

4I: oh, what?

5P: because tomorrow is the eve of the Spring Festival.

6I: Yes, I know. But our exam will be held in the afternoon

7P: You know, we need to buy something. We will go shopping and prepare for the 8dinner of the eve, you know. The Chinese Spring Festival is so important for us, 9Chinese people. So we want to cook, so could you please (how to say) reschedule 10the time?

11I: but this is the plan and our course outline stated this point.

12P: en, hum

13I: It's very difficult to reschedule it.

14P: You know, so if you are busy, we can reschedule it after the Spring Festival. Is 15that Ok for...?

16I: After the Spring Festival, you still will take the exam.

17P: Ya

18I: and during the Spring Festival, you may still think of the exam, which would 19affect your enjoying it.

20P: No, I think it's Ok. I think we can accept. Maybe tomorrow morning? Can we 21just have the exam tomorrow morning?

22I: Ok, so tomorrow morning is good for you, right?

23P: yes,

24I: ok, I will check the room and exam time.

25P: um, hum

26P: we don't have any class tomorrow morning, so I think it's ok for us.

27I: ok, we change it to tomorrow morning.

28P: ok, thank you so much, thank you.

##### **Situation 2:**

1P: oh, Sophie. Look, do you think this dress is beautiful?

2I: en, you mean this color?

3P: yes, do you think it's suitable for me to wear.

4I: oh, en, I think maybe you can have a try.

5P: yeh, I have already tried it. I think it's good, but just look at the price.

6I: so how much?

7P: it's expensive. It's 500.



8I: oh, yes, it's really expensive.

9P: but, I really want to buy it.

10I: ok, so buy it.

11P: but, I didn't bring a lot of money. If I buy it, could you please lend me some 12money?

13I: so how much do you need?

14P: you know, I bring with me 200, so maybe you can lend me some, how to say,

15300. Is that ok?

16I: 300, that's too much. You see, I want to buy some dress, but I don't bring too 17much cash.

18P: en, hum. Maybe you can just use your credit card. So you bring your credit card, 19right?

20I: yes, yes, ok.

21P: so tomorrow, I will just give the money to you. Ok?

22I: ok, no problem.

23P: thank you.

### **Situation 3:**

1P: knock, knock!

2I: yes, who is it?

3P: um, hello! I am the new neighbor. I just arrive here.

4I: new neighbor? Oh, you mean that house?

5P: yeh, yeh. I come from China.

6I: oh, nice to meet you.

7P: nice to meet you, too. You know, are you available now?

8I: en, yes. I am just playing with my daughter.

9P: so, could you, how to say, help me? because I can't open the gas in our house.

10I: gas, oh, you mean the gas valve?

11P: ye, ye. Maybe there is something wrong with it, so I can't open it. So could you 12please come and help us?

13I: ok, but I am not sure whether it's the same as mine.

14P: uhum

15I: I just have a try. Ok?

16P: ok, ye, you just come and I will take care your baby.

17I: ok

18P: thank you.

### **Situation 4:**

1P: Sophie.

2I: Yeh.

3P: Could you just come to my office?

4I: I am busy with the typing work now.

5P: ok, just come here. I have something to talk with you.

6I: something important?

7P: yeh, yeh.

8I: ok.

9P: tomorrow, we will have a meeting. You know that?

10I: yes.

11P: um, hum. But I haven't done the PPT. I need someone to help me to do the PPT.

12I: so what's the topic of tomorrow's presentation?

13P: about our company's future development. We need to plan it and make some 14graphs.

15I: ok

16P: so you will make the details, and produce the PPT. Ok?

17I: but you told me to the typing work. Maybe I don't have enough time.

18P: um, hum. Really? Ok, I will ask someone to help with the typing work. After that, 19you two do the PPT together, is that ok?

20I: ok. I will try my best.

21P: ok, thank you.

### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported in part by a grant from 四川省 2016 年省级大学生创新创业训练计划项目 (201610644029).

### REFERENCES

- [1] Al-Gahtani, S. & Roever, C. (2012). Proficiency and sequential organization of L2 requests. *Applied Linguistics*, 33.1, 42-65.

- [2] Blum-Kulka, S. & Olshtain, E. (1984). Requests and apologies: A cross-cultural study of speech act realization patterns (CCSARP). *Applied Linguistics*, 5.3, 196-213.
- [3] Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition* (second edition). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [4] Han, X.P. (2013). A contrastive study of Chinese and British English request strategies based on open role-play. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 4.5, 1098-1105.
- [5] Ho, V. (2014). Evaluating while justifying intercultural requests. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 11.4, 575-602.
- [6] Langer, B.D. (2013). Teaching requests to L2 learners of Spanish. *Journal of language teaching and research*, 4.6, 1147-1159.
- [7] Li, Chentuan. (2013). A contrastive analysis of rapport management and identity construction in responses to the speech acts of orders and requests in Chinese, Japanese and American languages. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, 269.2, 51-55.
- [8] Liu, Chenyan. (2014). An analysis of learners' errors in speech act of request based on markedness-error hypothesis. *Journal of Xi'an International Studies University*, 22.4, 56-60.
- [9] Liu Huiyin & Zhan Shaojie. (2012). A contrastive study of the request strategies. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, 264.3, 24-28.
- [10] Liu Mantang. (2008). A corpus-based comparative analysis of formulas of thanking and requesting. *Journal of Xi'an International Studies University*, 16.2, 13-18.
- [11] Liu Senlin. (2003). A study of pragmatic strategies and their theoretical basis. *Foreign Language Education*, 24.3, 10-15.
- [12] Taguchi, N. (2007). Task difficulty in oral speech act production. *Applied Linguistics*, 28.1, 113-135.
- [13] Xiao Yupin. (2011). An investigation of the requesting strategies by modern business professionals in business emails. *Foreign Language Education*, 32.6, 33-37.

**Yanfei Su** was born in Meishan City, Sichuan Province, China in 1986. She received her Master's Degree in Foreign Language and Literature from Sichuan International Studies University, China in 2010.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Arts and Science, Sichuan, China. Her research interests include translation teaching and English language teaching.

# Learning Tasks Design in Improving Reading Comprehension Ability of Informational Text of 5th Grade in Indonesia: An Interactive-compensatory Model Use

Tri Indri Hardini  
Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Indonesia

Ryan Dwi Puspita  
STKIP Sebelas April, Indonesia

Rully Agung Yudhiantara  
UIN Sunan Gunung Djati, Indonesia

**Abstract**—In Indonesian context, based on the observation, 5th grade elementary school students in Bandung Regency had low reading comprehension ability for informational text. This can be seen from their low ability to express explicit meanings, define the main idea, search for keywords and retell the contents of the text with their own words. Given this circumstance, it is necessary to improve task design using particular learning models to improve students' reading comprehension ability. Therefore this study was aimed at investigating the effect of the use of task design based on Interactive-Compensatory model to improve reading comprehension of 5th grade. The study used quasi experimental method. It applied observation, pre-test, post-test and interview to collect data. There were 136 samples of 5th grade participating in this study. The findings showed that there was a significant influence since there was a difference in students' reading comprehension ability to read informational text before and after they were treated using task design based on the Interactive-Compensatory model.

**Index Terms**—Elementary School, Interactive-compensatory Model, reading comprehension, task design, 5th grade

## I. INTRODUCTION

This study has similar scope with the previous study conducted by the authors because the studies focus on an effort to improve 5th grade of elementary school reading comprehension ability. The previous study found that, especially in Bandung regency, the 5th graders had difficulty in reading comprehension ability for informational text (RCAIT). It found that students had low RCAIT because they had poor competence to understand explicit meanings, understand important information, apply information, analyze information, evaluate information that they had understood. They had a problem in observing, listening, seeing, reading and questioning based on critical curiosity about himself, God's creatures, activities and the objects they encountered in homes, schools, and playgrounds using clear, logical and systematic language (Puspita, et.al., 2017). On the other hand, national standard curriculum (NSC) for 5th grade elementary school of reading comprehension ability states that students must be able to (1) access and retrieve information from the text, (2) integrate and interpret what is read, (3) reflect and evaluate the text and relate it to the experience students (Curriculum, 2013).

To comply with NSC, students faced difficulties because they had low RCAIT. Their low RCAIT occurred because of many factors contributing to this. One of them is teacher poor competence in designing learning task that must be implemented when students perform reading comprehension. Teachers' poor competence is worrying in relation to students' low RCAIT and it should be overcome immediately to avoid bigger problem concerning student' low RCAIT.

There is a need on the part of the teachers to be able to perform appropriately learning tasks design (LTD) that are given by the teacher at the beginning, middle and the end of learning process. LTD in reading class circumstance will be more effective if it promotes active learning. This is in line with the explanation from Meyers & Jones (1993) that states "Active learning involves providing opportunities for students to meaningfully talk and listen, write, read, and reflect on the content, ideas, issues, and concern of an academic subject". This opinion implies that active learning offers paradigm shift in teaching and learning activities between teacher and students. This is to say that teacher is no longer the source of learning. On the other hand students play the centre role to engage and be active in their learning process. Applying LTD that refers to active learning and modeling by teachers, students do not play traditional roles as

passive receptors in which students are required to learn and practice how to capture knowledge and skills so as to be able to use them meaningfully.

Based on the above problem concerning students' low RCAIT, there is a need to seek possible solution to overcome the problem in learning activities. In an effort to overcome students' problem in RCAIT of the 5th grade of elementary school, this study applied the interactive compensatory model (ICM) for LTD that was considered relevant and effective to improve RCAIT of 5th grade elementary school in Bandung regency.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Yochum (1991), Fox (2009), Sahin (2013), Croce (2014), Walters (2014) in their research respectively found that some primary school children had difficulty in RCAIT. Their study found that there were many factors contributing to the problem. In line with their findings, similar difficulties were experienced by 5th grade elementary school student in Indonesia. This condition is supported by the data released by PISA. The report reveals the average score of Indonesian students' reading ability were still below the OECD country average. Their reading comprehension ability was weak because they were incompetence in: understanding paragraph ideas, reading graphs, understanding relationships between facts, understanding relations of linguistic logic, and finding main ideas (OECD, 2016). In the same vein, a report released by PIRLS (2015) revealed students' reading ability of fourth grade school children whose average age was 9.5. Their average score of reading achievement was 397 and placed Indonesia in the ninth position among the low achieving countries.

### Reading Comprehension

Reading comprehension is at the core of the reading activities. it has several stages namely background knowledge or schematics, literal understanding, higher level comprehension, and the ability to learn from the text. Its stages for sure are interrelated (Jennings, Caldwell & Lerner, 2006). It actively requires meaning acquisition performed by the reader in relating the initial knowledge and experience associated with the content of the reading. It takes into consideration three main points namely: previous knowledge and experience associated with the text, the connection between the previous knowledge possessed by the reader and the text to be read, and the process of meaning making in accordance with the views the readers possess. This is to say that reading comprehension relies heavily on readers' understanding on basic cognitive knowledge, prior knowledge, vocabulary commands, conceptual knowledge, and language knowledge (Hamra&Syatriana, 2012).

### Informational Text Features

Informational text refers to text conveying information and explaining ideas (Jennings, Caldwell & Lerner, 2006). For the purposes of this study, It is used with the content of science. It has various features as follows:

1) The order or time sequence is often used to present events such as the War of France and India (in history class). It can also be used to deliver cell division (in biology class). Keywords frequently used for sequence structure include first, second, third, then, then, finally.

2) A list of description is used to describe the features of an object or event.

3) Comparing and contrasting are used to describe similarities and differences between two objects. This feature can be used in a study of social texts and the science of texts. The keywords include the same, similar to, the same as, resembling, compared to, like, different from, yet, and yet.

4) Causal pattern is applied to describe the reason for a particular event. The keyword used are: if, so, so, because, as a result of, for, therefore, cause and effect.

5) Problem-solution organizational patterns is used to discuss problems and suggests possible solutions on the topic given (Jennings, Caldwell & Lerner, 2006).

### Why applying Interactive Compensatory Model (ICM)?

Some studies related to ICM were conducted by Stanovich (1980, 1984), Simpson (1983), Perfetti (2010), McNeil (2012), Amirousefi, Scrhraw & Brooks (2014), Ismail, Li (2015), Tracey (2017). Their findings revealed that in order to improve students' reading comprehension ability, one of the most effective strategies was the ICM. Based on their findings, it was found that during and after the learning process, most students in the experimental group had better achievement in reading comprehension, enthusiasm, active learning, and enjoyment when reading text using the ICM. Their reading comprehension achievement was better when viewed based on comparison between higher posttest scores and lower pretest scores. From their findings it can be concluded that there was a significant difference in the students' achievement of reading comprehension between students who learned by using ICM and students who did not.

### Learning Task Design (LTD)

Teachers should design learning task based on conceptual analysis. They should stimulate students with provoking questions that are appropriate to their thinking skills. They should provide an effective strategy to facilitate students in learning particularly for reading comprehension activity. It is expected that their effective strategy enables students to both realize what they have understood and apply their reading comprehension effectively. Students' achievement is undoubtedly inseparable from their metacognitive control. This is to say that the their involvement in the process of reading and writing process will be under the control of their metacognitive domain (Flavel, 1998; Puspita & Yudiantara, 2017).

LTD is developed by referring to the model of the Integrated Thematic Implementation Plan of the 2013 national curriculum for Indonesian elementary school. It should be noted from the beginning that determination of core competencies, basic competencies, indicators and learning objectives refer to the syllabus development (Puspita, 2017). In the learning steps, learning task refers to the steps of lesson plan of the Curriculum 2013. Its scientific steps are replaced by the learning steps offered by the ICM and these replacements do not change the scientific meaning of the learning process.

In observation step, learning task refers to the activities of the students including: listening to the teacher reading text on the story and observing story related images. Problem formulation step refers to students' activities include: filling out the student worksheet to write down both what they know and they do not concerning the text itself and activating their initial knowledge in relation to the text. Collection data step refers to students' activities consisting: reading text or performing direct activities. Data analysis step refers to students' activities in answering description questions about the text and writing discussion reports. Communication step has something to do with students' activities in presenting both their results of discussion and field activities.

### III. METHODOLOGY

The study applied quasi-experimental method by implementing Non-equivalent Groups Design (NEGD). It used Pretest-Posttest design with control group. There were 6 classes serving as experimental class (N = 68) and 3 classes acting as control class (N = 68). This research was conducted in elementary schools located in Bandung regency. Population in this study were 5th grade of elementary school with their average age from 10 to 11 years old. Samples were taken at a random basis with easy access to information was taken into consideration.

#### A. Participants

The samples of this study were eight classes of 5th grade taken from the following schools: Cingcin 01 State Elementary School (1), Cingcin 02 State Elementary School (2), Islamic elementary school of Nurriyadh (3). In a nutshell, 136 students and 8 teachers participated in this study.

#### B. Data Collection

This study collected and analyzed learning conditions of 5th grade reading comprehension achievement of primary school in Bandung regency by deploying interviews and observation. To achieve the objective of the study, It collected data on the effectiveness of the use of instructional design based on Interactive-Compensatory model developed through pretest and posttest analyzed through quantitative t-test formula.

#### C. Data Analysis

Data analysis was performed to determine the mean of standard deviation scores on pre-test and post-tests. Normality tests and homogeneity were applied to show that two or more groups of sample data were similar in their variance. In the regression analysis, the required analytical requirement is that the regression error for each group is based on the dependent variable having the same variance. Homogeneity test was done by comparing the largest variance and the smallest variance by using table. To see students' improvements in RCAIT before the experiment and after the experiment in the control class and the experimental class was calculated using a normalized gain with the level category if  $g > 0.7$ , then the significant level of gain is expressed in the high category, if  $0.03 \leq g \leq 0.7$  then the gain level is expressed in the medium category and if  $g < 0.3$  then the gain level is in the low category. In processing, instrument testing, proving the level of validity and reliability of a measuring instrument or data analysis is the normality and homogeneity test data, also test the difference of two average processed using SPSS version 16.

### IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This study was aimed at investigating the effectiveness of ICM using LTD applied in learning task to improve students' RCAIT. It gathered several findings which were organized and described in the following section. The result of students' RCAIT after learning using LTD based on ICM with t-test can be seen in the table below.

TABLE 1  
DIFFERENCE TEST ON RCAIT BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASSES

Data	<i>t<sub>hitung</sub></i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t<sub>tabel</sub></i>	Sig.
posttest_control 1	6,825	44	1,050	0,000
posttest_control 2	5,260	42	1	0,000
posttest_control3	5,641	44	1,050	0,000

Based on Table 1, it is shown that the mean difference test to the RCAIT of the experimental class and control class at the 0.05 significance level was obtained  $p$  (sig.2-tailed) = 0,000. This means that RCAIT between the experimental class students and the control class was different. Any difference in the average gain of RCAIT in the experimental class with the gain of thier counterpart will be explained in table 2 below.

TABLE 2  
AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS' RCAIT BEFORE AND AFTER THEY PERFORMED LTD BASED ON ICM

Item No	Indicator	Experiment class (%)			Control class (%)		
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
1	Understanding the meaning of words that are appropriate for use in the text	32,1	24	28,2	3	2,8	3
2	Recognizing the relationship between paragraphs in the text	26,2	22	11,7	2	6,7	4
3	Expressing main idea	27,4	22	19,1	7	5,7	5
4	Answering questions that required explicit answer from text	26,2	21	29,4	6	2,8	8
5	Mentioning keywords	32,1	27	20,5	4	4,8	7
6	Recalling the content of the text using their own words	26,2	18	11,7	5	5	4
7	Inferring from the text	29,8	21	14,7	5	5,7	5
8	Distinguishing fact from opinion	37,6	31	19,1	6	5,7	4
9	Mapping the content of the text	13,1	25	27,9	7	5,8	8
10	Understanding author message	37	26	19,1	6	4,8	7
11	Understanding text message	13,1	13	23,5	0	0	4

The table above illustrates that there is a considerable increase in the students' RCAIT of the experimental class when compared with the increase in RCAIT of the students in the control class with the highest average being 44. In the experimental class, 1, 2 and 3 the highest average increases is on the first indicator of the ability to understand the meaning of the word in accordance with the use in the text. The lowest average increase is in the second indicator of identifying the relationships between parts of the paragraph in the text. While in the control class the average of the highest increase in the third indicator is to reveal the main idea. The implementation of LTD for reading comprehension based on ICM to improve students' RCAIT was done with the following steps. In the initial activity the teacher greeted and invited all students to pray according to their religion and belief respectively. The teacher checked learning readiness by filling out student attendance sheet and checking the students' clothes, positions and seating prior to the learning activities.

The teachers began activity by communicating to the student the planed activities to be performed. They delivered introductory story on the "Human Body Organ Function" text to stimulate students to share their personal experiences with the text "Human Body Organ Function" by asking students brainstorming questions about parts of the human organs and their functions. In order for students to understand the texts they were about to read, they were invited to engage in a learning activity that could invite students to relate their experiences to the content in the text. This was done with the expectation that if students activated prior knowledge earlier in the reading activity then they would no longer depend on the vocabulary difficulties available in the text.

One strategy that aimed to activate students knowledge was through brainstorming activities. It refers to a learning activity that is used at the beginning of learning activities. It is a learning technique used to gather ideas and opinions to answer specific questions, by putting opinions or ideas as much as possible. In line with this, Wallace (1992) says that one of the most popular early reading techniques used was brainstorming. It has several advantages as one of the classroom learning techniques, first, it does not require much preparation; second, it allows students to freely expend their initial knowledge and ideas to integrate with the theme to be learned on that day and all three brainstorming activities involve all students in learning activities.

Besides brainstorming, other activity was semantic mapping which aimed to classify all information produced by students. Then It was followed by vocabulary analysis. This stage required students to gather the information in the analysis activities by classifying information. In the stage of vocabulary analysis, the teacher explained to the students about all aspects of language. These linguistic explanation covered student's idea like, verb type, time form and pronunciation.

The next step was to write down the experiences students expressed on the board. They rewrote their experiences related to the functioning of human organs by filling in the Student Worksheet for column 1 with teacher guidance. They observed images of human organs displayed in the class. This image was a stimulus for students to know every part of their body. After observing image, they wrote their observation questions on the Student Worksheet in column 2 with teacher guidance. The things that were expected from the initial activities were student interest in the topic of learning, meticulous and careful attitude in making observations, as well as skills in writing information from observations and personal experiences.

In the core activities, students were assigned to read the text "Function of Human Body Organs". They read the text at a glance to look and search for important information that was searching for keywords and main ideas contained in the reading text carefully and thoroughly. Furthermore the teachers assigned students to dig information by reading quickly in order to seek important information from each paragraph by distinguishing facts and opinions of each paragraph of the text "Function of the Human Body Organs" and separating the information from each paragraph. They recalled important information from the text "Function of the Human Body Organs" by filling in the Student Worksheet in column 3 with teacher guidance. They also wrote questions related to the text "Function of Human Body Organs" on the Student Worksheet in column 3 with teacher guidance (Puspita & Yudiantara, 2017). The expected outcomes of the core activities were the students' knowledge on the human organs and their functions, their ability to read

comprehension in searching for information, and their ability to read comprehension in digging information from the text. These expected outcomes indicated that they performed and play a role as independent readers.

In the final activity, the teachers concluded the learning outcomes by re-explaining the discussion results related to the text "Human Body Organ Function". They provided reinforcement to students on how to maintain students' organ health. They provided reinforcement to students to be diligent in reading and were not just satisfied with just reading one text of information. Furthermore, they gave the task to be done at home to students by way of making a report related to how to maintain a healthy body and how to maintain the health of the home environment. They closed learning activities by praying and greeting. The expected outcome of closing activities was that students were motivated to diligently read informational texts related to any topic so that they had extensive knowledge.

To implement LTD based on ICM successfully, the teachers should be able to facilitate the students to actively construct their knowledge. They must have special learning techniques that can make students become active and independent readers. They can achieve this by realizing an active, creative and fun learning process. The learning process will cause learners to think uniquely, analyze, solve problems when it comes to making decisions (Iskandarwassid & Sunendar, 2011)

The implementation of this learning illustrates in general that the process of reading comprehension learning was done by systematic steps in order to be able to achieve the learning objectives. The results obtained from the limited trials and extensive trials show that there was a difference in RCAIT of 5th grade students of primary school before and after the introduction of learning using LTDs based on ICM. This was evidenced by the t-test results on the gain gain p (sig. (2-tailed) = 0,000 This means there was a significant increase. The resulting improvement varies depending on some very important factors. First, the teacher's ability to stimulate and convey information in learning so that the information became meaningful for the students. Second, the ease of access to information which implied that there was the availability of textbooks and supporting books for students provided at school. Third, parental guidance in providing literacy artifacts at home (Mustafa, 2014). Fourth, the basic knowledge that students have concerning the content of the text they read.

### Implications

LTD based on ICM contributed to RCAIT improvement. It has implications on the convenience of teachers in achieving learning objectives with the support of interesting learning media, practical teaching materials, student worksheet and activities that can stimulate students to think critically. It can be applied to support literacy improvement, reorganization, inferential and evaluative level and it also promotes student to be able to apply their reading comprehension in their real life. It can be adapted to various environments either with easy access or difficult access to environment information. In addition it offers teachers ease to implement in the learning process and is flexible in any semester to improve students' RCAIT.

### REFERENCES

- [1] Amiryousefi, Mohammad. (2014). Interactive-Compensatory Model of ESP Reading Comprehension: Vocabulary Knowledge, Reading Comprehension and Reading Strategies in Focus. *The Iranian EFL Journal*, 10. 5, 1-10.
- [2] Croce, Anne Keri. (2014). Assessment of Burmese Refugee Students' Meaning Making of Scientific Informational Texts. *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, 14.3, 389-424.
- [3] Curriculum. (2013). Elementary School: Basic Competencies. Jakarta: Departement of Education and Culture.
- [4] Fox, Emily. (2009). The Role of Reader Characteristics in Processing and Learning From Informational Text. *Review of Educational Research Spring*, 79. 1, 197-261.
- [5] Flavell, J. H. (1987). Speculations about the Nature and Development of Metacognition. In F. E. Weinert & R. H. Kluwe (Eds.), *Metacognition, Motivation and Understanding*. Hillside, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 21-29.
- [6] Hamra, Arifuddin, Syatriana, Eny. (2012). A Model of Teaching for University EFL Reading Student: Analysis and Model Design. *English Language Teaching*, 5.10, 1-11.
- [7] Ismail, Li, Shaik Abdul Malik, Petras, et.all. (2015). Compenstory Reading among ESL Learners: A Reading Strategi Heuristic. *English Language Teaching*, 8. 8, 46-55.
- [8] Iskandarwassid&Sunendar, Dadang. (2011). Strategi Pembelajaran Bahasa. Bandung: Remaja Rosdakarya.
- [9] Jennings, Caldwell & Lerner. (2006). Reading Problems, Assesment and Teaching Strategies. Boston: Pearson.
- [10] McNeil, John D. (1992). Reading Comprehension. New York: Harpen Collins Publishers 3rd Edition.
- [11] Meyer, Chet&Jones, Thomas B., (1993). Promoting Active Learning: Strategies for Collage Classroom 1st Edition. Maxwell Macmillan International PublisHing Group: New York.
- [12] Musthafa, Bachrudin. (2014). Literasi Dini dan Literasi Remaja : Teori, Konsep dan Praktik. Bandung : CREST.
- [13] Perfetti, Charles A. (2010). Representations and Awareness in the Acquisition of Reading Competence Learning to Read: Basic Research and Its Implications. New York: Routledge.
- [14] PIRLS. (2015). Assessment Framework 2nd Edition. International Study Center.
- [15] OECD. (2016). PISA 2015 Assesment and Analytical Framework: Science, Reading, Mathematic, and Financial Literacy. Paris: PISA, OECD Publishing.
- [16] Puspita, Ryan Dwi. (2017). Pengembangan Perangkat Pembelajaran Tematik Terpadu Berbasis Model Interactive Compensatory untuk Meningkatkan Kemampuan Membaca Pemahaman Teks Informasi. Bandung: UPI.
- [17] Puspita, Ryan Dwi, Sunendar, Dadang, Musthafa, Bachrudin, Yudiantara, Rully Agung. (2017). The Use Of Interactive-Compensatory Model Based-Learning Material To Improve Informational Text Reading Comprehension Ability Of 5th Grader Elementary School In Bandung Regency,Indonesia. *Advance Science Letters*, 23. 11, 10952-10954.

- [18] Puspita, Ryan Dwi, Yudiantara, Rully Agung. (2017). KWL Worksheet-Based Integrated Thematic Learning To Improve Informational Text Reading Comprehension Of 5th Grade In Bandung Regency. *Golden Age*, 1. 1, 67-75.
- [19] Sahin, Ayfer. (2013). The Effect of Text Types on Reading Comprehension. *Mevlana International Journal of Education*, 3.2, 57-67.
- [20] Scraw, Gregory, Brooks, David. (2014). Using Interactive, Compensatory Model of Learning to Improv Chemistry Teaching. *Journal of Chemical Education*, 84.4, 637-640.
- [21] Simpson, Lorschach & WhiteHouse. (1983). Encoding nd Contextual Components of Word Recognition in Good and Poor Readers. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*. 35, 161-171.
- [22] Stanovich, Keith E. (1980). Toward and Interactive-Compensatory Model of Individual Differences in The Development of Reading Fluency. *Reading Reaserach Quartely*, 16.1, 32-71.
- [23] Stanovich, Keith E. (1984). The Interactive-Compensatory Model of Reading A Confluence of Developmental Psychology. *Remedial and Special Education*, 5.3, 11-19.
- [24] Tracey, Diane H., Morrow, Lesley Mandel. (2017). Lenses on Reading An Introduction to Theories and Models. (*Third Edition*). New York: The Guilford Press.
- [25] Wallace, Catherin. (1992). Reading. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [26] Walters, Braker, Barbara A. (2014). Informational Text and the Common Core: A Content Analysis of Three Basal Reading Programs. *SAGE Open*, 4.4, 1-8.
- [27] Yochum, Nina. (1991). Children's Learning From Informational Text: The Relationship between Prior Knowledge and Text Structure. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 23.1, 87-108.

**Tri Indri Hardini** is a permanent lecturer in Universitas pendidikan Indonesia. She belongs to french education department. She is currently seving as vice dean for academic affair in Faculty of Language. There are many activities concerning french language teaching that she has participated and one of them is seving as vice chairperson in an organization APFI PPSI. Her intellectual contribution is devoted mainly as a reviewer for curriculum development in french language teaching. She has published some scientific articles which was published on **FRANCISOLA: Revue indon ésienne de la langue et la litt ératre fran çaises** (e-ISSN: 2527-5100 | p-ISSN: 2527-5097) Vol 2, No 2 (2017) on *A Study Of Women's Language Varieties nn French Movie*. Other articles was published in Jurnal TAWARIKH Vol 8, No 2 (2017) on *27 countries, 23 languages: Communication Challenges in The European Union, a Comparison with ASEAN Economic Community*; etc.

**Ryan Dwi Puspita** is a Doctor in Elementary education majoring in Language teaching from Universitas Penderita Indonesia in 2017. She belongs to STKIP Sebelas April as full time lecturer in Elementary school Education department. Her research interest includes reading comprehension, initial writing, learning tool development, and language role in traditional game. She has published some scientific articles which was published on accredited international journals, Advanced Science Letters on *The Use Of Interactive-Compensatory Model Based-Learning Material To Improve Informational Text Reading Comprehension Ability Of 5th Grader Elementary School In Bandung Regency, Indonesia*. Other article was published in Jurnal Pendidikan dan Humaniora, entitled *Improving Students Reading Comprehension Ability Through Integrated Thematic Learning with School Literacy Movement Support*. In national journal of Golden Age, she published the article entitled *KWL Worksheet- Based Integrated Thematic Learning To Improve Informational Text Reading Comprehension Of 5th Grade In Bandung Regency*.

**Rully Agung Yudhiantara** was born in Bandung, Indonesia on November 22, 1979. He accomplished his Master in English Education program, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, Indonesia, in 2009. He is currently a permanent lecturer in UIN Sunan Gunung Djati Bandung, Faculty of Tarbiyah and Keguruan, English Education Program. He has published several articles: *The Use Of Interactive-Compensatory Model Based-Learning Material To Improve Informational Text Reading Comprehension Ability Of 5th Grader Elementary School In Bandung Regency, Indonesia*. Other article in national journal, Jurnal Pendidikan dan Humaniora, entitled *Improving Students Reading Comprehension Ability Through Integrated Thematic Learning with School Literacy Movement Support*. In other journal, Golden Age, he published article entitled *KWL Worksheet- Based Integrated Thematic Learning To Improve Informational Text Reading Comprehension Of 5th Grade In Bandung Regency*; etc.

His research interest including: Language Teaching, Reading Comprehension and Mobile Assisted Language learning



# The Effect of Visual Contextual Support and Glossary of Words on Guessing Meaning of New Vocabulary Items in English by Pre-university Male EFL Students

Kamal Nasrollahi

Department of English, Islamic Azad University, Urmia, Iran

Samran Daneshfar

Department of English Language and Literature, University of Zanjan, Zanjan, Iran

**Abstract**—The present study aims at investigating the impact of visual contextual support and Glossary of Words on EFL learners' vocabulary learning. For this purpose, a total number of 60 male pre-university students were randomly selected after administering the English proficiency test to assure the homogeneity of the participants. The learners were assigned to three homogeneous groups, 2 experimental groups, namely, visual contextual support and glossary of words and one control group to highlight the comparative purposes. During treatment, the first experimental group received a passage including new vocabulary items and visual contextual supports as treatment and the second experimental group received the same passage including new vocabulary items and the glossary of words as treatment. On the other hand, the control group received no treatment and they were just given the new vocabulary items of the same passages given to the experimental groups in order to guess the meaning of new words only by using their own vocabulary knowledge. To compare the probable differential impact of the study a pretest and posttest were applied to all three groups and the results of the tests were contrasted and analysed. For data analysis, the one-way ANOVA was administered for pretest and posttest. The results of the study demonstrated a significant improvement of vocabulary learning through utilizing visual contextual support in comparison to the glossary of words group and moreover than the control group.

**Index Terms**—glossary, visual contextual support, guessing meaning, vocabulary

## I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary knowledge is very important in learning a language and is a prominent element in any language. It is also the component block of building up any given language. Vocabulary knowledge plays a crucial part in learning a language, in addition, it is an effective issue in achieving higher levels of proficiency in the target language (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008), enhancing learners' communicative competence (McCrostie, 2007).

Considering vocabulary as an important part of a language, specific attention is paid to it in language teaching. From the more traditional grammar-translation method in which the focus was on memorizing a long list of vocabulary to the more recent methods in which the focus is on working actively on vocabulary, there has always been a number of strategies for vocabulary learning. Zhan-Xiang (2004) believes that words of a language are just like bricks of high buildings; despite being small pieces, they are necessary for the strength of the structure. Researchers now consider vocabulary as one of the most important components of language upon which effective communication relies (Oxford & Scarella, 1994).

However, vocabulary was not given attention before the mid-1980s (Coday, 1997; Meara, 1995). Rivers (1983) states that the best method for learning vocabulary is not mere teaching but should be introduced, defined, and included through forms of activities. Further, she claims that language teachers need to encourage learners' attention in words, and they must help their students by directing them toward vocabulary learning and the methods of learning vocabulary.

The aim of this study is to provide English language learners and teachers with a succinct, conceptual framework of the effects of visual contextual support and glossary of words on guessing the meaning of new English vocabulary items among Pre-University Male students.

## II. BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Vocabulary

It has been known for a long time that vocabulary is an essential element of any language and all language learners quite well comprehend that without enough vocabulary knowledge their communication will be incomplete.

Communication is not made when the interlocutors do not know and consequently cannot use the exact words and stops when people lack the needed vocabulary (Allen, 1983). Knowing a word is not an all or nothing phenomenon; it is a complex concept to define. According to Cronbach (1992, as cited in Mukoroli, 2011), learners should know both the general relationship between words and the different relationships including antonyms, synonyms, and collocations.

To individuals, knowing a word means having information about its meaning, connotations, spelling, derivations, collocations, frequency, pronunciation, syntactic constructions, the morphology and its semantic associates including synonyms, antonyms, etc. (Nagy & Scott, 2000). According to Hulstijn et.al. (1996) knowing a vocabulary item is the ability to translate the word into the first language, discovers the correct definition, and paraphrase it in the target language.

Knowing good body of vocabulary can lead to communicative competence (McCrostie, 2007). When learners have a salient knowledge of vocabulary, they would improve their communication, that means speaking, listening, reading and writing skills. Also to have a higher vocabulary development, language learners can understand unknown words in a text and infer their meanings from contexts. Learners cannot produce and comprehend language without some vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, vocabulary knowledge is one of the central requirements of language acquisition and can be achieved through teachers' vocabulary teaching strategies (Ghezelseflou & Seyedrezaei, 2015; Mukoroli, 2011). Since vocabulary knowledge paves the way to an adequate communication, it should be regarded a fundamental part of language learning (Wallace, 1982). Thus, teachers pay more attention to foreign language vocabulary acquisition (Zu, 2009).

However, some English L2 learners do not have this word knowledge, even for frequently occurring words and they face controversial issues throughout the L2 learning (Verhallen & Schoonen, 1993). Richards (2001) emphasizes that "vocabulary knowledge consists of various dimensions which define the meaning of words" (p. 357). There is a distinction between knowing a word and using it. Knowing a word will not lead to using it in a variety of contexts (McCarthy, 1984). Ellis (1994) suggests that the knowledge aspect includes explicit learning; however, the use aspect includes implicit learning. Vocabulary learning strategies should include strategies for using and knowing a word.

#### *B. Vocabulary Learning Importance*

Vocabulary acquisition was underestimated by researchers, theorists, teachers and others involved in second language learning for many years. Schmitt (2000) holds that systematic work on vocabulary did not begin until the late twentieth century. The neglect and absence of vocabulary in teaching have been frequently addressed in the literature (Judd, 1978; Nunan, 1991; Zimmerman, 1997). Fortunately, after a growing number of experimental studies, the interest in vocabulary teaching increased and during the last two decades, vocabulary teaching has come to the heart of English language teaching (Ozgul & Abdulkadir, 2012).

Second language acquisition researchers believe that in order to improve language skills which end up in an adequate communication, vocabulary is playing a fundamental role. (Ghezelseflou & Seyedrezaei, 2015). Shahpari and Shamshiri (2014) state that learning vocabulary is an integral process for EFL learners to acquire proficiency and competency in the target language and it is the vital mean of accelerating fluency and accuracy. Furthermore, it is particularly effective in achieving higher levels of proficiency in the target language (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008).

On the importance of vocabulary in language learning, Krashen (1989) states that "a large vocabulary is of course, essential for mastery of language" (p. 4). Moreover, Rubin and Thompson (1994) point out that one cannot speak, read, or write a foreign language without knowing an amount of enough words. Vocabulary is at the heart of mastering a foreign language. Nation (2001) believes that a vast amount of vocabulary could be acquired with the help of vocabulary strategies and that the strategies prove useful for students of different levels. However, a number of researchers argue that a dearth of research concerning the field of vocabulary learning is apparent in the literature (Hunt & Beglar, 2005) and that it is not yet clear which means of vocabulary learning is the most effective help to language learning (De Groot, 2006). Nowadays, it is taken for granted that vocabulary learning is one of the most important elements in the acquisition of both one's native language and a foreign language (Morra & Camba, 2009). Since vocabulary learning in a second/foreign language is challenging and there is a need to overcome them, instructing vocabulary is quite essential for language teachers (Nation, 2001).

#### *C. Teaching Vocabulary in EFL*

Teaching and Learning vocabulary has been under an increasing importance by SLA researchers in the last two decades; moreover, several studies have confirmed that vocabulary knowledge plays an essential role in the L2 acquisition, and vocabulary instruction should be an integral part of language instruction. Nunan (1999) claims that, recently, teaching vocabulary has assumed its rightful place as a fundamentally important aspect of language development. This is due to the influence of comprehensive-based approaches to language development, the research efforts of influential applied linguists and the exciting possibilities opened up by the development of computer-based language corpora. In the following section, three main methods of teaching vocabulary are defined briefly.

#### *D. Implicit vs. Explicit*

According to Hayati and Shahriari (2010), "methods of vocabulary learning are often debated in the literature: explicit methods (direct, often de-contextualized) and implicit methods (indirect, contextualized). Strong advocates on both sides of the debate are not hard to find" (p. 29).

Implicit learning refers to the lack of consciousness of the structure being learned. Rashidi and Ganbari (2006) define implicit learning by the "lack of consciousnesses in learning a specific structure to be learned" (p.115). Reber (1976), for example, defines implicit learning as "a primitive process of apprehending structures by attending to frequency cues" as opposed to "a more explicit process whereby various mnemonic, heuristic, and strategies are engaged to induce a representational system" (p. 93). Explicit learning means learning by direct communication of word meanings (Sonbul & Schmitt, 2010). Explicit instruction involves "identifying the words learners need to know, presenting the word for the first time, elaborating word knowledge and developing fluency with known words" (Hunt & Beglar, 2005).

#### *E. 2.3.2 Incidental vs. Intentional*

Huckin and Coady (1999) describe incidental learning as "a by-product, not the target of the main cognitive ability, reading" (p. 182). Yali (2010) declares intentional learning as "conscious vocabulary learning strategies and means of memorizing words" and incidental learning as learning through texts while doing activities unrelated to vocabulary. According to Ellis (1999), "intentional learning requires focal attention to be placed deliberately on the linguistic code (i.e., on form or form-meaning connections)," while "incidental learning requires attention to be placed on meaning (i.e., message content) but allows peripheral attention to be directed at form" (pp. 45-6).

#### *F. Teaching Vocabulary in Context*

Considering the prime attention to vocabulary learning and teaching strategies on various methods of vocabulary presentation and meaning guess (Gu & Johnson, 1996), it is disappointing that most of the learners favour mechanical strategies such as repetition over deeper, more complex ones (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997; Lawson & Hogben, 1996). According to Celce-Murcia and Rosensweig (1979), "there is a significant requirement for research over the vocabulary learning approaches applied by the language learners of different proficiency levels, with different levels of age, to guide the instructors toward more practical vocabulary teaching. Researchers (Palmberg, 1988) believe that new vocabulary should be taught in context.

The main reason for teaching vocabulary in context is authenticity. There are several strategies for teaching vocabulary including real objects, pictures, translation and etc. Using pictures to explain the meaning of new words is a method which is seen as one of the most valid ways of communicating the meaning of a word. Nation (2004) states that any ways of communicating meaning involve the changing of an idea into more observable form is likely to be misunderstood, and may not convey the exact concept of the word. Meanwhile, an advantage of using pictures is that learners see an example of the meaning and this may help them to remember the meaning of the word. If using pictures is combined with a verbal definition then there is the chance that dual encoding will occur (Paivio & Desrochers, 1981).

One of the most useful semi-contextualizing methods for vocabulary learning is visual imagery. It makes a connection between a picture and a word. The theory behind this technique is that most learners can associate new information with the stored information in memory through meaningful visual images, thus learning gets more efficient. Visual imagery helps learners store information more efficiently than they could if they just used word lists. White (1998) believes that visual/textual enhancement can help L2 learning by attracting learners' attention to certain L2 features, and help them improve their false analyses of L2. Thus, according to Zoghi and Mirzaei (2014), "visual/textual enhancement appears to affect learners' knowledge and performance in the second language, and it seems reasonable to expect language teachers and syllabus designers to make use of visual/ textual enhancement" (p. 34).

#### *G. Empirical Studies on Vocabulary*

In a study by Marcella Hu (2013), the effects of word exposures and contextual richness on the three aspects of vocabulary knowledge, orthography, form-meaning connection and grammatical functions were investigated. The results indicated that word frequency affected orthographical knowledge more than on the other two aspects, whereas contextual richness had a greater impact on form-meaning connections and grammatical functions. Moreover, Shoari and Farrokhi (2014) investigated the effect of graphic organizer strategy on improving Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning. A number of 50 students participated in two groups, an experimental that were taught new vocabulary items through graphic organizers in form of clusters and pictures, and the participants in the control group whose were taught the same items through traditional instruction. The results confirmed that graphic organizers were indeed conducive to L2 vocabulary learning by the learners.

An investigation of the impact of using two types of vocabulary contextualization; textual and visual, in teaching vocabulary was applied by Zoghi and Mirzaei (2014). Seventy students in pre-intermediate level aged from 14 to 30 participated in the study. Based on a Cambridge Placement Test of Vocabulary, learners were selected and divided into two groups of 35. The lexical items were taught to group 1 and group 2 through showing videos and written texts respectively. Results of the study illustrated the significant effect of visual contextualization teaching on learners' vocabulary acquisition more than those involved in reading written texts.

Accordingly, Zahedi and Abdi (2012) studied the effect of visual imagery on learners' vocabulary meaning guess. Pre-test and post-test were conducted to examine its effect. The findings indicated that the experimental group receiving

visual imagery outperformed the control group in terms of English vocabulary meaning guess. Following this line of investigation, this study analyzed the extent to which teaching vocabulary through visual contextual support and glossary of words could enhance learners' vocabulary meaning guess.

### III. METHOD

#### A. Participants

The participants were comprised of 60 pre-university L2 male students from a high school in Piran Shahr, Iran. Prior to the treatment, in order for group selection, the researcher selected 60 homogeneous participants from among 120 learners through an adapted version of the vocabulary-size test by Paul Nation. Then, the researcher assigned them into 2 experimental groups, namely, visual contextual support and glossary of words and one control group. Each class included 20 learners. The participants were within the age range of 16-18. All of the participants were Kurdish and able to speak Persian as their second language while studying English as their foreign language.

#### B. Instrumentation

To fulfil the purpose of this study the following instruments were used:

- An adapted version of vocabulary-size test by Paul Nation
- A Researcher-made pre-test of vocabulary
- A Researcher-made post-test of vocabulary

#### C. Adapted Version of Vocabulary-size Test by Paul Nation

An adapted version of the vocabulary-size test by Paul Nation including 60 words was administered to a sample similar to the main population at the beginning of the study to check the reliability of the test. The test was in multiple-choice format. Having collected the data, the researcher calculated the reliability of the test. Then, the same test was administered to the main participants for selecting homogeneous participants

#### D. Researcher-made Pre-test and Post-test of Vocabulary

A researcher-made test of vocabulary including 50 questions was administered to a sample similar to the main population check the reliability of the test. The test was in multiple-choice format. Having collected the data, the researcher calculated the reliability of the test. Then, the same test was administered to the main participants as the pre-test. At the end of the treatment, the same test as the post-test of vocabulary was administered to the participants as well.

#### E. Procedure

At the outset of the study, three pre-university classes were selected in a high school in Piranshahr. Then, for the purpose of selecting homogeneous participants, the researcher used an adapted vocabulary size test by Nation and Beglar (2007) including 60 multiple-choice questions. The words chosen for the test were among the less frequent vocabulary items occurring in formal contexts, the meanings of which were to be guessed by learners based on the contextual clues provided for them. This was to make sure the meanings of words were not already known to them. Thus, this study had an experimental design. Then, a researcher-made vocabulary pre-test was administered to the participants. During the treatment, the experimental groups went through two forms of intervention, that is, one group was administered visual contextual support and the other one received the glossary of words in comparison to the control group with no treatment. At the end of the procedure, all three groups were exposed to post-test to see the probable impact of treatment on the experimental groups.

Before the test application, the researcher piloted the test with a group of subjects similar to those of the target sample to calculate the internal consistency of this test via Cronbach Alpha. Having made sure that the test was reliable, the researcher administered it to 120 subjects from which 60 subjects whose scores fell within one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected for the research. Then, the participants were randomly assigned to three groups of 20 learners, that is, two as experimental and one as control groups. To guarantee the homogeneity of the participants in both control and experimental groups, the researcher calculated a series of one-way ANOVAs to get the assurance that there is no meaningful difference between them. After ensuring that the three groups were homogeneous regarding vocabulary knowledge and that there was no significant difference among them, the next step was to launch the instructional procedure.

During the treatment period, the first experimental group received a passage including new vocabulary items and visual contextual supports as treatment and the second experimental group received the same passage including new vocabulary items and a glossary of words as treatment. However, the third class as the control group received no treatment and they were just given the new vocabulary items in the same passages given to the two previous classes in order to guess the meaning of new words only by using their own vocabulary knowledge. At the end of the treatment which lasted a month, the same researcher-made vocabulary pre-test was administered to learners as post-test to evaluate the effects of different kinds of treatment on learners' vocabulary enhancement.

In order to analyse the data obtained from post-test results and gauge the effect of different types of treatment on learners' vocabulary guessing ability enhancement, the researcher used a one-way ANOVA to:

- 1) In the pre-test to establish homogeneity across the participants in three groups,
  - 2) At the end of the study, that is, the post-test to figure out the possible impact of various treatment patterns
- Additionally, post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test were conducted in the post-test stage to find out where exactly the difference among the vocabulary teaching techniques existed.

IV. RESULTS

As the researcher initiated data collection phase by giving the proficiency test of vocabulary to check for homogeneity of groups and single out the possible outliers, in what follows first the results of homogeneity analysis for the proficiency test results are presented.

In checking for the homogeneity of data distribution, first the researcher consulted the output of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests. Table I below indicates the descriptive statistics for proficiency test scores, and Table II illustrates the test of normality results. As is seen in Table II, the data do not enjoy normal distribution.

TABLE I.  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PROFICIENCY TEST SCORES

Descriptives		Statistic	Std. Error	
Proficiency	Mean	72.75	.85317	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	71.04	
		Upper Bound	74.45	
	5% Trimmed Mean	73.73		
	Median	74.00		
	Variance	47.31		
	Std. Deviation	6.87		
	Minimum	46.00		
	Maximum	80.00		
	Range	34.00		
	Interquartile Range	7.00		
	Skewness	-2.511	.297	
	Kurtosis	7.267	.586	

As revealed in Table I, the mean of proficiency test scores equals 74.45, and the variance and standard deviation of the scores are 47.31 and 6.87, respectively. Furthermore, the maximum score on the test is 80 and the minimum score is 46.

TABLE II.  
TEST OF NORMALITY FOR PROFICIENCY TEST SCORES

Tests of Normality	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Proficiency	.268	65	.000	.711	65	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As it is seen in Table II, the proficiency test scores are not normally distributed ( $p < .05$ ). Fig. 1, helps provide a better, more vivid illustration of the way the distribution of scores for proficiency test violates the conditions of normality.

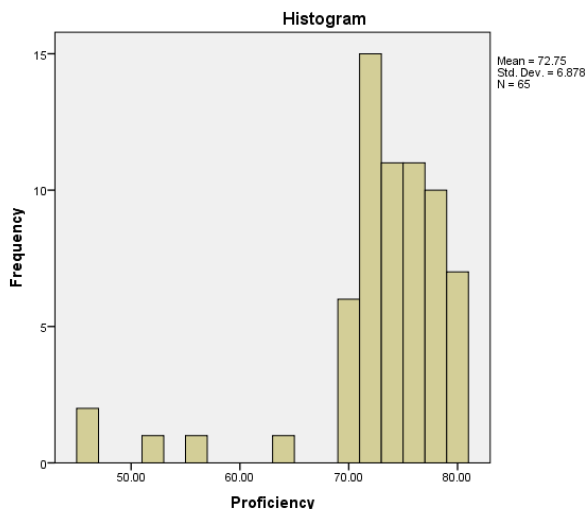


Figure1. The histogram for the distribution of proficiency test scores.

The Boxplot below Fig. 2, further corroborates this finding and singles out the outliers and extreme outliers in the group.



Figure 2. Boxplot showing the distribution of proficiency test scores.

#### A. Data Analysis for Pretest Scores

Running Kolmogorov-Smirnov test revealed that the pretest scores are normally distributed and hence parametric statistics were allowed to be used. Table III below shows the descriptive statistics for pretest scores, and Table IV illustrates the test of normality results. As is seen in Table IV, the data have normal distribution.

TABLE III.  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRETEST SCORES

Descriptives		Statistic	Std. Error	
Pretest Scores	Mean	69.44	.46637	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	68.51	
		Upper Bound	70.37	
	5% Trimmed Mean	69.63		
	Median	70.00		
	Variance	13.70		
	Std. Deviation	3.70		
	Minimum	52.00		
	Maximum	75.00		
	Range	23.00		
	Interquartile Range	4.00		
	Skewness	-1.630	.302	
	Kurtosis	6.551	.595	

As revealed in Table III, the mean of pretest scores is 69.44, and the variance and standard deviation of the scores are 13.70 and 3.70, respectively. Furthermore, the maximum and minimum scores on the test are 75 and 52, respectively.

TABLE IV.  
TEST OF NORMALITY FOR PRETEST SCORES

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Pretest Scores	.110	63	.056

As is seen in Table IV, the pretest scores are normally distributed ( $p > .05$ ); therefore, parametric statistics (one-way ANOVA) can be analyzed to compare the pretest means. Tables V through 4.7 list the descriptive statistics, Levene test results, and one-way ANOVA results, respectively.

TABLE V.  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRETEST SCORES

Descriptives								
Pretest Scores								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Cont.	21	69.80	2.67	.58	68.59	71.02	65.00	75.00
Exp. 1	22	69.09	4.95	1.05	66.89	71.28	52.00	75.00
Exp. 2	20	69.45	3.11	.69	67.98	70.91	65.00	75.00
Total	63	69.44	3.70	.46	68.51	70.37	52.00	75.00

According to Table V, the mean scores for control, experimental one and experimental two groups are 69.80, 69.09, and 69.45, respectively and the standard deviations for these three groups of individuals equal 2.67, 4.95 and 3.11, respectively.

TABLE VI.  
LEVENE TEST FOR PRETEST SCORES

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
Pretest Scores			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.685	2	60	.194

As Table VI reveals, the assumption of the homogeneity of variances is not violated ( $p > .05$ ).

TABLE VII.  
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR PRETEST SCORES

ANOVA					
Pretest Scores					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.549	2	2.775	.197	.822
Within Groups	844.006	60	14.067		
Total	849.556	62			

As is seen in Table VII, no significant difference is witnessed among the three groups ( $p > .05$ ) and hence the desired outcome for the researcher is obtained, because no significant difference among the three groups of learners exists prior to treatment.

*B. Data Analysis for Posttest Scores*

At the outset, to check for the normal distribution of posttest scores, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run the results of which are shown in Table IX. Table VIII below shows the descriptive statistics for posttest scores.

TABLE VIII.  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POSTTEST SCORES

Descriptives			
Posttest Scores	Mean	Statistic	Std. Error
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	77.41
	Upper Bound	81.91	
5% Trimmed Mean		79.72	
Median		80.00	
Variance		79.80	
Std. Deviation		8.93	
Minimum		64.00	
Maximum		95.00	
Range		31.00	
Interquartile Range		17.00	
Skewness		-.106	.302
Kurtosis		-1.170	.595

As revealed in Table VIII, the mean of pretest scores is 79.66, and the variance and standard deviation of the scores are 79.80 and 8.93, respectively. Furthermore, the maximum and minimum scores on the test are 95 and 64, respectively.

TABLE IX.  
EST OF NORMALITY FOR POSTTEST SCORES

Posttest Scores	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
	.106	63	.075

As Table IX illustrates, the posttest scores have not violated the conditions for normal distribution ( $p > .05$ ); thus, parametric statistics (one-way ANOVA) can be again utilized to compare the posttest means. Tables X through XII list the descriptive statistics, Levene test results, and one-way ANOVA results for posttest scores, respectively.

TABLE X.  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POSTTEST SCORES

Descriptives								
Posttest Scores								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Cont.	21	69.00	2.89	.63	67.68	70.31	64.00	74.00
Exp. 1	22	80.36	2.10	.44	79.43	81.29	77.00	85.00
Exp. 2	20	90.10	2.40	.53	88.97	91.22	86.00	95.00
Total	63	79.66	8.93	1.12	77.41	81.91	64.00	95.00

According to Table X, the mean posttest scores for control, experimental one and experimental two groups are 69.00, 80.36, and 90.10, respectively and the standard deviations for these three groups of individuals equal 2.89, 2.10 and 2.40, respectively.

TABLE XI.  
LEVENE TEST FOR POSTTEST SCORES

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
Posttest Scores			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.901	2	60	.412

As Table XI reveals, the assumption of the homogeneity of variances is not violated ( $p > .05$ ).

TABLE XII.  
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR POSTTEST SCORES

ANOVA					
Posttest Scores					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4577.109	2	2288.555	370.226	.000
Within Groups	370.891	60	6.182		
Total	4948.000	62			

According to Table XII, a significant amount of difference exists among the three groups ( $p < .05$ ) and hence the null hypothesis of the research can be rejected. Furthermore, as Tukey HSD results (Table XII) indicate, all three groups have performed significantly differently from one another.

TABLE XIII.  
TUKEY HSD RESULTS FOR POSTTEST SCORES

Multiple Comparisons						
Dependent Variable: Posttest Scores						
Tukey HSD						
(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Cont.	Exp. 1	-11.36364*	.75851	.000	-13.1865	-9.5408
	Exp. 2	-21.10000*	.77681	.000	-22.9668	-19.2332
Exp. 1	Cont.	11.36364*	.75851	.000	9.5408	13.1865
	Exp. 2	-9.73636*	.76815	.000	-11.5824	-7.8903
Exp. 2	Cont.	21.10000*	.77681	.000	19.2332	22.9668
	Exp. 1	9.73636*	.76815	.000	7.8903	11.5824

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Fig. 3, below displays the mean Plots for posttest scores.



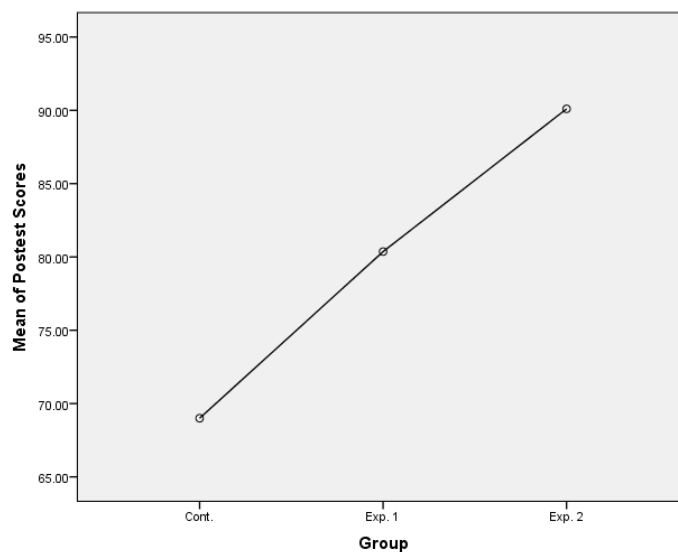


Figure 3. Mean plots for posttest scores.

## V. DISCUSSION

The results of the study revealed a significant difference between the vocabulary mean scores of the first experimental (visual contextual support) and the second experimental group (glossary of words) and the control group (i.e., the vocabulary mean score of the first experimental group was significantly more than the other two groups). Thus, the researcher concludes that using visual contextual support and glossary of words have significantly increased the vocabulary scores of the experimental groups.

Regarding the research question, that is, whether teaching vocabulary using visual contextual support and glossary of words enhances meaning guess of vocabulary, it was answered satisfactorily in the light of the quantitative data collected from researcher-made vocabulary test administered before and after the treatment sessions. It was explored that using visual contextual support had the most influential effect on EFL learners' ability to guess the meaning of vocabulary compared with the second experimental group and control one. Regarding the second experimental group, the findings indicated that glossary of words was more effective in enhancing EFL learners' guessing ability in comparison to the control groups. The analysis of the quantitative data revealed that the participants who received vocabulary instruction in visual contextual support and glossary of words retained more words than those who were not given treatment. It may support the claims of scholars (e.g., Ciftçi & Uster, 2009; Sadeghi & Farzizadeh, 2013;) who believe that visual contextual support serves as a memory aid. Results showed that learners who learned the vocabulary items through visual contextualization enhanced their vocabulary acquisition more than those involved in reading written texts.

The results of the present study indicate that the participants in the first experimental group (visual contextual support) outperformed the ones in the second experimental group and the control group. The underlying reason could be that the learners in the experimental group were taught how through visual contextual support whereas, the learners in the control group were taught the routine program authorized by the authorities of the institute. Thus, vocabulary teaching via visual contextual support technique assisted learners to keep the vocabulary items in their minds more efficiently.

A quick survey of the results would indicate that visual contextual support has improved and expanded vocabulary knowledge of the participants of this study to a great deal. Moreover, to corroborate what has hitherto been discussed, the results of the present study confirm that those learners who were required to use and learn vocabulary items via visual contextual support could both use and improve their vocabulary knowledge more efficiently. To put it briefly, this study has revealed that teaching vocabulary via visual contextual support is a useful technique which is definitely contributing to the EFL learners' expansion of vocabulary meaning guess.

## VI. CONCLUSION

Vocabulary is the core of any existing language, the issue of vocabulary acquisition, as well as meaning guess, is the interest of many researchers. Following this line of investigation, this study analysed the extent to which visual contextual support and glossary of words could enhance learners' vocabulary meaning guess.

The primary aim of the present research was to investigate whether visual contextual support and glossary of words had any effect on guessing the meaning of new vocabulary items of pre-university male EFL students. In other words, this study investigated to what extent visual contextual support and glossary of words could develop EFL learners' vocabulary guess when compared with teaching vocabulary with traditional techniques.

To conclude, this study revealed that using visual contextual support for teaching vocabulary develops students' vocabulary awareness. In other words, it showed that students, when taught vocabulary in visual contextual support, retain more words than they do when they are taught vocabulary as isolated items. Consequently, findings of the study indicated that visual contextual support was very effective in enhancing EFL learners' vocabulary meaning guess. In other words, learners in the group receiving visual contextual support outperformed their counterparts in both experimental and control groups in terms of developing their vocabulary meaning guess. This finding has supported the previous studies on the visual contextual support such as Ciftçi and Uster (2009), Sadeghi and Farzizadeh (2013) and Zahedi and Abdi (2012) whose results emphasize its positive effect on foreign language vocabulary learning.

#### VII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study has revealed that teaching vocabulary via visual contextual support is using techniques which are definitely contributing to the EFL learners' expansion of guessing vocabulary meaning. The findings of this study may be of benefit to EFL teachers and EFL teaching in general. Teachers can make use of teaching vocabulary through that visual contextual support as a teaching device in their classes. Teachers of English could be encouraged to spare some more classroom time for this type of training in their classes and to assign more importance to the application of certain learning strategies in vocabulary development in order to make vocabulary learning process more effective and more meaningful for the students.

As a teacher is also a researcher, the teachers can also benefit from this study to do their own research to find more effective ways of teaching and learning vocabulary. This study is just one step to this end and many other steps should be taken to make learning easier for language learners.

Using visual contextual support can be beneficial in teaching vocabulary because it can create new contexts for the students and learning would be more interesting. When students receive vocabulary instruction in visual contextual support, they can increase deeper knowledge of vocabulary which would help them to use the vocabulary in appropriate situations. Visual contextual support can create a more preparatory pretext to achieve a deeper knowledge of vocabulary. They can increase the amount of understanding and reduce the number of difficulties in understanding abstract vocabulary.

Based on the results, language teachers should keep in mind the fact that students have to be aware of what "knowing a word" means. They should know that just knowing the definition or mother tongue equivalent of a word does not mean that they know that word. For using a word in a context, students should be encouraged to develop a system of vocabulary learning which will lead them to be independent vocabulary learners.

What is more, the visual contextual support identified in this study can be used in teacher training courses, especially for novice teachers. Also, based on the findings of this study, syllabus and material developers can also make use of this technique to teach vocabulary.

#### VIII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The main focus of this study was to investigate the effect of visual contextual support and glossary of words on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary meaning guess over time. The researcher does not claim that this study is the ultimate proof of the efficacy of visual contextual support. Indeed, other studies could be conducted to reject or accept this hypothesis. With respect to the aforementioned limitations of the study, the following points deserve further exploration in the future.

This study focused on Iranian EFL pre-university learners. Other similar research could be done on other language proficiency levels, too. This study was limited to 16-18-year-old learners. Interested researchers can conduct a similar study on older or younger learners. One, even, can make use of a comparative study to compare the effect of visual contextual support on children and adult learners. In this study, the subjects were just males. However, other comparative studies on both male and female learners can be done. The subjects of this study were Iranian EFL learners. Other research can be done in the ESL setting. If possible, even a comparative study can be conducted to compare the effect of visual contextual support in EFL & ESL settings.

#### REFERENCES

- [1] Allen, V. F. (1983). *Techniques in teaching vocabulary*. England: Oxford University Press.
- [2] Boers, F., & Lindstromberg, S. (2008). How cognitive linguistics can foster effective vocabulary teaching. In F. Boers & S. Lindstromberg (Eds.), *Applications of cognitive linguistics: Cognitive linguistic Approaches to teaching vocabulary and phraseology* (pp.1-61). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- [3] Celce Murcia, M., & Rosensweigh, F. (1979). Teaching vocabulary in the ESL classroom. In M. Celce Murcia. & L. McIntosh (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (241-257). Massachusetts: Newbury House.
- [4] Ciftçi, H., & Uster, S. (2009). A comparative analysis of teaching vocabulary in context and by definition. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1(1), 1568-1572.
- [5] Coady, J. (1997). L2 vocabulary acquisition through extensive reading. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 225-237). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- [6] De Groot, A. M. B. (2006). Effects of stimulus characteristics and background music on foreign language vocabulary learning and forgetting. *Language Learning*, 56(3), 463–506.
- [7] Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [8] Ellis, R. (1999). *Learning a second language through interaction*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin's Publishing Company.
- [9] Ghezelseflou, M., & Seyedrezaei, S. H. (2015). An investigation on the impact of teaching vocabulary through collocations on the vocabulary retention of EFL learners. *International Journal of Basic Sciences & Applied Research*, 4(3), 162-170.
- [10] Gu, Y., & Johnson, R. K. (1996). Vocabulary learning strategies and language learning outcomes. *Language Learning*, 46(6), 643-679.
- [11] Hayati, M., & Shahriari, A. (2010). The impact of L1 equivalents versus context on vocabulary recall of pre-university EFL students. *The journal of Teaching Language Skills*, 2, 27-51.
- [12] Huckin, T., & Coady, J. (1999). Incidental vocabulary acquisition in a second language. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(2), 181-193.
- [13] Hulstijn, J; Hollander, M; & Greidanus, T. (1996). Incidental vocabulary learning by advanced foreign language students: The influence of marginal glosses, dictionary use, and reoccurrence of unknown words. *The Modern Language Journal*, 80(3), 327-339.
- [14] Hunt, A. & Beglar, D. (2005). A framework for developing EFL reading vocabulary. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 17, 23-59.
- [15] Judd, E. (1978). Vocabulary teaching and TESOL: A need for re-evaluation of existing assumptions. *TESOL Quarterly*, 12, 71-76.
- [16] Krashen, S. D. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *Modern language journal*, 73(4), 44-46.
- [17] Lawson, M. J., & Hogben, D. (1996). The vocabulary-learning strategies of foreign-language students. *Language Learning*, 46(1), 101–135.
- [18] Marcella Hu, H-Ch. (2013). The effects of word frequency and contextual types on vocabulary acquisition from extensive reading: A case study. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 4(3), 487-495.
- [19] McCarthy, M. (1984). *Vocabulary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [20] McCrostie, J. (2007). Examining learner vocabulary notebooks. *ELT Journal: English Language Teachers Journal*, 61(3), 246-255.
- [21] Meara, P. (1995). The classical research in L2 vocabulary acquisition. In G. Anderman & M. Rogers (Eds.), *Words, words, words: The translator and the language learner* (pp. 27-37), Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- [22] Morra, S., & Camba, R. (2009). Vocabulary learning in primary school children: Working memory and long-term memory components. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 104, 156-178.
- [23] Mukoroli, J. (2011). *Effective vocabulary teaching strategies for the English for academic purposes ESL classroom* (Unpublished MA thesis). Brattleboro, Vermont.
- [24] Nagy, W., & Scott, J. (2000). Vocabulary processes. In R. Barr, P. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, & M. Kamil (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 269-284). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- [25] Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [26] Nation, I. S. P. and Beglar, D. (2007). A Vocabulary Size Test. *The Language Teachers*, 31(7), 9-13.
- [27] Nunan, D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology*. London: Prentice Hall.
- [28] Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching and learning*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- [29] Oxford, R. L., & Scarella, R. C. (1994). Second language vocabulary learning among adults: State of the art in vocabulary instruction. *System*, 22, 231-243.
- [30] Ozgul, B., & Abdulkadir, C. (2012). Teaching vocabulary through collocations in EFL classes: The case of Turkey. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 1(1), 21-32.
- [31] Paivio, A., & Desrochers, A. (1981). Mnemonic techniques in second-language learning. In Nation, P. (Ed.), *Learning vocabulary in another language* (pp. 85). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [32] Palmberg, R. (1988). Computer games and foreign-language vocabulary learning. *ELT Journal*, 42(4), 247–252.
- [33] Rashidi, N & Ganbari Adivi, A. (2006). Incidental vocabulary learning through comprehension focused reading of short stories. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning*, 53(217), 111-129.
- [34] Reber, A. (1976). Implicit learning of synthetic: The role of instructional set. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Learning and Memory*, 2, 88-94.
- [35] Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [36] Rivers, W. (1983). *Communicating naturally in a second language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [37] Rubin, J. & Thompson, I. (1994). *How to be a more successful language learner*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- [38] Sadeghi, K., & Farzizadeh, B. (2013). The effect of visually-supported vocabulary instruction on beginner EFL learners' vocabulary gain. *MEXTESOL Journal*, 37(1), 1-12.
- [39] Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [40] Schmitt, N., & McCarthy, M. (1997). *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [41] Shahpari, N., & Shamshiri, H. R. (2014). Intentional vs. incidental vocabulary learning & Iranian EFL learners' retention. *Enjoy Teaching Journal*, 2(3), 1-11.
- [42] Shoari, E., & Farrokhi, F. (2014). The effect of graphic organizer strategy on improving Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning. *Iranian Journal of Research in ELT*, 1, 71-83.
- [43] Sonbul, S., & Schmitt, N. (2010). Direct teaching of vocabulary after reading: is it worth the effort? *ELT Journal*, 64(3), 253-260.

- [44] Verhallen, M., & Schoonen, R. (1993). Vocabulary knowledge of monolingual and bilingual children. *Applied Linguistics*, 14, 344-363.
- [45] Wallace, M. J. (1982). *Teaching vocabulary*. London: Heinemann Educational Books Limited.
- [46] White, J. (1998). Getting the learners' attention. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 85-113). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [47] Yali, G. (2010). L2 vocabulary acquisition through reading: Incidental learning and intentional learning. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 33(1), 74-93.
- [48] Zahedi, Y., & Abdi, M. (2012). The impact of imagery strategy on EFL learners' vocabulary learning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 69, 2264-2272.
- [49] Zhan-Xiang, M. (2004). The necessity of intensifying English vocabulary in the remote minority area college English teaching. *Asian EFL journals*, 6(2), 25-31.
- [50] Zimmerman, C. B. (1997). Historical trends in second language vocabulary acquisition. In J. Coady, & T. Huckin, *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 5-19). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [51] Zoghi, M., & Mirzaei M. (2014). A comparative study of textual and visual contextualization on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning. *International Journal of Basic and Applied Science*, 2(3), 31-40.
- [52] Zu, F. (2009). Using lexical approach to teach vocabulary. *US-China Foreign Language*, 7(8), 44-47.



**Kamal Nasrollahi** was born in Naghadeh, Iran, in 1978. He registered at the University of Urumia in 2000 and received his BA in English Language and Literature in 2004. Just after graduation, he started teaching English to language learners aged from 6 to 40 years old. In 2016 he got his MA in English Language Teaching from Azad University of Tehran (the branch of Urumia). Overall, he has been teaching English to various age groups since 2004 and at present, he is managing his own Language Institute in Piranshahr and is simultaneously teaching the language in question. His biggest interest is to study "English for Specific Purposes (ESP)" and "Psychology of English Language Learning/Teaching".



**Samran Daneshfar** was born in Piran Shahr, Iran. He received a B.A. in English Language and Literature from Urmia University-Iran (2009) and he is an MA graduate in English Language Teaching (TEFL) from the University of Zanjan-Iran (2014). He is currently an experienced EFL teacher in Ministry of Education in Piran Shahr. He is teaching at junior secondary school. His areas of interest are applied linguistics, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), the Sociocultural Theory and Dynamic Assessment in second language.

# A Comparison of Corrective Feedback Used in International and EFL Contexts

Julia Simhony

Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University, Nakhon Pathom, Thailand

Natthapong Chanyoo

Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University, Nakhon Pathom, Thailand

**Abstract**—The current study aims to investigate types of corrective feedback used in two classroom settings (i.e. EFL and international school classrooms) and to compare the frequency of corrective feedback types used in the two classrooms. The participants of this study were 31 students from two classrooms (6 international and 25 in EFL classrooms) and their respective teachers; one in each classroom. Data was collected through four classroom observations and one semi-structure interview conducted with the teacher from each classroom. The findings revealed that all six types of feedback were provided by the teachers in the two classrooms. A comparison of the frequency of the use of corrective feedback in two different classrooms revealed that recast was the most frequently used type of feedback in the EFL classroom while metalinguistic clues were used the most in the international school classroom. Data from the interviews suggested that teachers from both classrooms provided the feedback to students without awareness of how the feedback types should be used appropriately for different foci of the content. This study recommends the need for teacher training on corrective feedback so that the teachers will be able to analyze, select, and provide appropriate feedback types to learners.

**Index Terms**—corrective feedback, English language classroom, EFL, immersion program

## I. INTRODUCTION

Language learners normally receive comprehensible input and feedback through interaction, especially in the classroom setting (Gass, 1997; Long, 1981). Krashen (1994) claimed that that interaction is contrived to promote negotiation in meaning for learners, which is referred as *'internalization'*. According to Vygotsky, internalization is the process through which the learner creates a new schema (or knowledge) as a result of interaction between the children (or learners) and other people. Internalization is an 'outside-in' process. That is, when the learners are first approaching mastery, they start by relying on other-directedness through scaffolding of the input provided by others' guided explanations and corrections. The learners' knowledge is gradually accumulated when they are repeatedly exposed to the input. According to Vygotsky (1978), he claimed that learners then move from the 'other-directed' stage to the 'self-directed' stage in the schematic construction. The learners will finally create (or construct) their own knowledge without assistance from others. Once the learners are capable of constructing their own schema, they internalize the target aspect of the knowledge or the language, and are ready to produce the output of such target aspects of the language (Vygotsky, 1978).

Interaction leads to comprehensible input (Pica, 1994). Comprehensible input is defined as "*language that can be understood by the listener even though some structures and vocabulary may be unknown*" (Krashen, 1994). Thus, comprehensible input is a necessary condition for the completion of the second language acquisition process (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). However, Lyster and Ranta (1997) argued that comprehensible input is not the only indicator of effectiveness in language learning because a teacher needs to assess or assist learners' learning achievements, mainly through their observable behavior. Thus, comprehensible output is another factor of language learning success (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Teachers assess learners' language through language production—or output—and always rely on errors or mistakes produced by learners. This is to help the learners reproduce the target forms of the language with the support of corrective feedback (Gitsaki & Althobaiti, 2010). Corrective feedback is referred to as corrected information that is given to the learners by others who have higher proficiency in that aspect (Gitsaki & Althobaiti, 2010). It is evident that teachers often use corrective feedback to increase learners' uptake of the target aspects of the language. Often teachers employ corrective feedback to help learners acquire the target aspects of the language (Gitsaki & Althobaiti, 2010).

Studies have revealed different perceptions from English teachers about the effective types of feedback used with their students (Kennedy, 2010). The preferred feedback techniques vary across classroom settings. Elicitation and repetition are among the most frequently used feedback types the teachers provide to their learners (Kennedy, 2010). These two methods are preferred, according to the study, because the two techniques allow students to self-correct their errors. Additionally, teachers assess student's proficiency level before employing different types of feedback to suit

student's level of proficiency (Yoshida, 2008). For instance, learners can improve their language if teachers provide clear explanations and gave them enough time to process the language forms. From the learners' perspectives, they agreed with the use of these two techniques, which can best improve their language (DeKeyser, 1993; Lin & Hedgcock, 1996; Tsang, 2004; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Yoshida, 2008).

Choosing different types of corrective feedback depends on various factors. For example, de Gortari and Tedick (1998) suggested four factors are involved whenever teachers choose the type of corrective feedback for their students. One of the factors includes context consideration which may influence the provision of corrective feedback to learners. Differences in context consideration might influence the different corrective feedback types provided by the teachers (Sheen, 2004).

The nature of the context where English is taught is unique in terms of characteristics of the classroom and exposure experience. For example, international school classrooms in Thailand consist of students from different cultures, and the students are mostly taught by native speakers of English or competent foreign nationals. The international school classroom provides students opportunities to communicate with their peers and teachers in English. Students in the international school classroom are active and engage in English communication since students and teachers are from different L1s so that they adopt English as a means of communication. In addition, students in the international context possess an adequate level of English competence so they are somehow ready and able to communicate in English. On the contrary, in a typical EFL context, learners are passive, and they prefer to sit silently and listen to their teachers (Kennedy, 2010). The environment of the EFL context is that the native language of the learners is used as a language of communication in the school; whereas, the target language is only used in the subject hours of that target language. In Thai public schools, learners learn English as an EFL. Typical characteristics of good Thai students are ones who keep silent, sit still, and never interrupt while the teacher is speaking. For students, being passive learners was considered a preferable characteristic of the learners in Thailand (Kanoksilapatham, 2014). Moreover, Thai EFL students may have rather low levels of English competence and this thus impedes them from engaging in any conversations where English is used as a means of communication. Based on differences in the nature of the two different contexts, the researchers, therefore, are interested in exploring whether corrective feedback types are provided differently in the two contexts, and the objectives are clearly stated as (1) to investigate the types of corrective feedback given by the teacher and used orally in two different English classrooms, and (2) to identify the frequency of different types of corrective feedback from teachers (i.e., explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic clues, elicitation, repetition, and clarification request) in the two different classrooms. Corresponding research questions are also grounded as (1): Which types of the teachers' corrective feedback are used orally in the two different classrooms? And (2): What are the frequencies of the corrective feedback types orally used in the two different classrooms?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. *Corrective Feedback*

Corrective feedback has a great influence on the way teachers scaffold the learners or the method the learners learn a language. A series of studies conducted by Lyster and Ranta (1997) revealed that a number of previous studies exclusively focused on the nature of corrective feedback types used in the English language classrooms (for example, de Gortari & Tedick, 1998). The studies were mostly conducted to answer the questions as proposed by Hendrickson (1978) about corrections provided by the teachers or peers to help learners acquire the target linguistic features. Some studies also went further to investigate the specific types of errors or specific techniques that the teachers or peers scaffolded toward designated learners. Even though these questions have been studied over 20 years especially in L2 classrooms, the answers to these questions have been found to be complicated. Due to these complications, Lyster and Ranta have provided a framework of corrective feedback which consists of six types of corrective feedback, as presented in Table I.

TABLE I  
 FRAMEWORK OF SIX TYPES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK (LYSTER AND RANTA, 1997)

	Teacher corrective feedback	Definition	Example
1	Explicit correction	Clearly identifying that the student's utterance was incorrect, the teacher provides the correct utterance.	<i>Teacher: You mean I didn't practice this song</i>
2	Recast	Not identifying that the student's utterance was incorrect, the teacher provides the correct utterance.	<i>Teacher: He became a doctor.</i>
3	Metalinguistic clues	Without providing that the utterance has been wrong, the teacher provides questions or comments relate to the utterance.	<i>Teacher: Who stopped? Subject of sentence</i>
4	Elicitation	The teacher elicits the correct form from the student by asking or pausing to allow learners to correct their utterances.	<i>Teacher: Who's ready? Two people</i>
5	Repetition	The teacher repeats the learner's error and puts in an intonation to get the learner's attention.	<i>Teacher: It visit (with rising intonation)</i>
6	Clarification request	By using questions, the teacher allows learners to realize that their utterance has not been understood and that a correction needs to be made.	<i>Teacher: What? You are going to work with your friend?</i>

Table I illustrates the six types of Corrective feedback which was proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997). The table consists of the types together with definitions and examples of the types of corrective feedback.

*B. Previous Studies*

A number of studies have been done on corrective feedback in second language classrooms. For example, Lyster (1987) investigated learner's uptake or learners' responses to corrective feedback. The learners in the study were students from the immersion program. Their problems were that these learners did not attain native-like productive skills. Their data revealed six types of corrective feedback, including explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic clue, repetition, elicitation and clarification requests. The data revealed two types of uptake. The first category is uptake as utterances that still need some repair. The other is uptake as utterances that were produced as repairs of error and again were repaired by the teacher. Data took the form of a set of in-class audio-records. The findings revealed that about 62% of teachers' responses to students' errors were corrective feedback. Among these, recast and explicit correction were the most frequently used feedback types in the classroom. Interestingly, however, the researchers concluded these two most frequently used feedback types did not help students to generate repairs in the uptake process. One major explanation was that these two types of corrective feedback provided students with a direct form, which only helped students to repeat the correction provided by the teachers.

Even though most studies (e.g., Ammar and Spada, 2006; Ellis, Lowen & Erlam, 2006; Nassaji, 2007; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009) revealed that recast was found as the most frequently used corrective feedback type in the English classroom, these studies do not affirm that recast was the most effective technique in providing the learners the necessary feedback to achieve mastery in the specific target linguistic aspect. Lyster and Ranta concluded that it is difficult to point out only the most effective feedback types in the language classroom because the effectiveness depends upon (1) context, (2) teacher's awareness of current practices, (3) teacher's employment of diverse corrective feedback techniques, and (4) adequate time allowed for the learners to self-correct (1997).

Contextual difference is the focus of the current study. Previous studies conducted in outside Thailand showed that it is a major key for teachers or peers to select different corrective feedback types for learners. For example, Milla & Mayo (2013) focused their research on the different use of corrective feedback in two different contexts. These contexts included the EFL context and Content and Language Integrated learning approach (CLIL) context. The study was conducted in a secondary school, the classes which were observed were a business class (CLIL context) and English class (EFL context). The teachers who taught both classes were non-native English teachers, and had different perceptions about the use of corrective feedback. The teacher who taught in the business class was a male teacher who preferred to use implicit correction repetition, and recast). Whereas, the female teacher who taught the English class preferred to use explicit correction. The results showed a difference in the use of corrective feedback in different contexts. That is, implicit corrective feedback type was predominant in the CLIL classrooms while a wider range of corrective feedback types were provided in the EFL classrooms. It is thus interesting to explore whether different feedback types were to provide in the different classroom types in Thailand.

III. METHODOLOGY

The present study attempted to investigate the use of teacher's corrective feedback by two teachers from two different contexts. The international context was the classroom in an international school (or so called the immersion

classroom) located in Chiang Mai province. The English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context was the English classroom in a public school located in Chiang Rai province.

#### A. Participants

Participants of the study were broken up into two groups according to their respective context. The international context comprised one teacher and 6 eleven-graders in one classroom of an international school, while the EFL context comprised one teacher and 25 Matthayom 5 students (comparable to eleventh graders) in an EFL classroom in the Thai public school.

#### B. Research Instruments

Four instruments were employed in the study. Concerning research ethical issues, all instruments were approved by the institutional research board (IRB) prior to the pilot study and data collection stage. These four instruments included:

##### 1. Non-Participant Observation Form

The researcher used the non-participant observation form to collect data on the corrective feedback used by teachers in classes. Non-participant observation was chosen in this study as the researcher wanted to avoid making the teachers and students feel uncomfortable in the class. The observation form was used to help the researcher record data in the class, and it also helped the researcher to focus her attention to specific interaction (questions, responses, and corrective feedback) in class. Additionally, the observation helped the researcher record down observations. The form was created by the researcher, and it consisted of parts of the minutes (timings of the class), context of the class, and the frequency of corrective feedback found in the class. Suggestions for language used in the form had been done by a native-speaking teacher. The organization and ethical concerns were reviewed by the experts and the researcher's supervisor. Consent was granted from the teachers of both classrooms before the form was used in the real settings.

##### 2. Audio recording

The researcher used the audio-recording tool during all observations and interviews. Before conducting the interview, it was very important to ask permission from the teachers about recording in their classes and during the interview. The EFL teacher was informed about the recording when the researcher went to the school and asked whether the researcher could conduct the study. A consent form was provided to the teachers before the data was collected. The recordings were used to record all logs in the classrooms to ensure that the researcher did not miss any important input in the classroom. The recordings also helped in the accuracy of data recording and are used as evidence to prove the findings of the data.

##### 3. Semi-structured interview

The interview regarding the use of teachers' corrective feedback in the classroom was conducted with the teachers from both classrooms. The semi-structured interview was used as a guideline and a recording instrument. The interview was also to clarify the corrective feedback and verify and summarize what was observed in the observation. The questions were based on the knowledge of corrective feedback of the teacher and their perception about errors used in the classroom. The semi-structured interview was composed of three parts. These parts were broken up into background information, errors found in classrooms, and teacher's impression about the use of corrective feedback.

##### 4. Feedback categorization form

The feedback differentiation form was design by the researcher after transcribing the audio recording. The form included definitions of each type of corrective feedback. This form helped the researcher record teachers' corrective feedback according to the corrective feedback categories. The researcher used Lyster and Ranta's (1997) framework to indicate the types of corrective feedback.

#### C. Data Collection Procedure

Two main steps were adopted in the current study: non-participant observation and interviews with the teachers from both classrooms. Both steps are described in the following sections.

##### 1. Non-participant Observation

The researcher asked the teachers to sign all consent forms to allow the researcher to collect data. Before the data collection, the researcher trained two teachers about corrective feedback. The observation was held four times in both classrooms. However, the observations at both schools were not held during the same period. The international school classroom observation was held first during the four last weeks before the midterm presentation. In the meantime, the EFL classroom observation was held four weeks before the second semester ended. The duration of observation for each time was one hour. When the class observation started, the researcher sat at the back of the class so as not to disturb the class. After the observation of each class, the researcher transcribed the classroom observation by writing it down on pieces of paper. After each classroom observation was transcribed, the researcher categorized the types of corrective feedback found in each classroom.

##### 2. Interview

A series of semi-structured interviews were done with two teachers from the two different contexts. The researcher started by looking at previous studies about corrective feedback using semi-structured interviews. After that, the researcher created nine interview questions which were based on three factors. The qualifications of the teachers were that they were native English speakers who had over 5 years of teaching experience and had attained either their



bachelor degree or a certificate of education. After the tool was created, the researcher along with a consent form, asked both teachers for permission for an interview. When the teacher arrived, the researcher briefed the teacher about the information that was going to be asked during the interview. When the interview started, the researcher informed the teacher that if they felt uncomfortable, they should say stop, and the interview would stop immediately. During the interview, the researcher held a notebook to note down important points. After the interview, the researcher transcribed the interview record.

*D. Data Analysis*

Two methods of analysis were used to fulfill two research questions, including (1) content analysis of the transcriptions from classroom observations and interview sessions, and (2) descriptive analysis of the frequency of corrective feedback types used in the two different contexts. The first analytical methods were done with two data sets: classroom observations and interview sessions with the teacher from each respective classroom. Transcriptions from classroom observations were transcribed from the tape recordings that were done in every observation. During the process, the researchers categorized all utterances that were considered as the feedback the teacher provided to learners. After that, all feedback was categorized into the six feedback types in accordance to Lyster and Ryanta’s (1997) framework. The frequency was further conducted as in the second process to fulfill the second research questions. The second content analysis was done with interview transcriptions from the interview sessions with the teacher from the two classrooms. As described earlier, data from sessions were mainly about teachers’ backgrounds, and their perceptions of the corrective feedback they used in their classrooms.

IV. RESULTS

The findings in the study are presented following the research questions formulated earlier: (1) Which corrective feedback types were provided by the teachers in the two different classrooms?, and (2): What are the frequencies of each type of teacher’s corrective feedback used in the two different classrooms?

To answer research question number 1, data from transcription analyses revealed that both teachers from the two different contexts (i.e., international and EFL classrooms) used all six corrective feedback types (explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic clue, elicitation and repetition). Corrective feedback types and exemplary statements from the two classrooms are provided in Table II.

TABLE II  
EXAMPLES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK FOUND IN BOTH CLASSES

Type of Corrective Feedback	International School Classroom (Example Provided)	EFL Classroom (Example Provided)
Explicit Correction	<b>Student:</b> Women used and rejected by men is <u>almost</u> a theme in the novel. (wrong modifier) <b>Teacher:</b> Not almost, <u>it is</u> .	<b>Student:</b> David likes to <u>lides</u> horses. (phonological error) <b>Teacher:</b> Not lides it’s <u>rides</u> .
Recast	<b>Student:</b> ... develops the understanding <u>to have</u> an equal trade. <b>Teacher:</b> of having an equal trade	<b>Student:</b> I will wait you. (wrong tense) <b>Teacher:</b> I will wait <u>for</u> you.
Clarification Request	<b>Student:</b> She is able to preserve the link to the family’s forgotten past. <b>Teacher:</b> How?	<b>Student:</b> There are <u>exhaibition</u> (wrong pronunciation) <b>Teacher:</b> What?
Metalinguistic Clues	<b>Student:</b> Regarded with awe yet Hagar’s vanity <u>drive</u> her mad. <b>Teacher:</b> Tense? (The correct form is ‘drove’)	<b>Student:</b> Kingkong is a meter tall. <b>Teacher:</b> Preposition? (the correct form is ‘It is a meter tall.’)
Elicitation	<b>Student:</b> Morrison puts an emphasis on the physically <u>overwhelming</u> hunt. <b>Teacher:</b> puts an emphasis on the physically (teacher pauses and uses hand gesture) hunt? <b>Student:</b> <u>demanding</u> hunt.	<b>Student:</b> David from Toronto Canada. <b>Teacher:</b> David (teacher pauses) <u>verb?</u> (in Thai) from Toronto Canada.
Repetition	<b>Student:</b> The author is trying to send a message to the <u>audience</u> of the book. <b>Teacher:</b> audience?	<b>Student:</b> I will call you <u>next day</u> . <b>Teacher:</b> <u>Next day?</u>

Research question number 2 asked about the frequencies of the types of feedback provided by the teachers in the two different classrooms. Data revealed that the percentage of the feedback types provided by the teachers from two different classrooms were different, as presented in Table III and IV for the international school classroom and the EFL classroom, respectively.

TABLE III  
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK OCCURRENCE IN THE INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL CLASSROOM (N=236)

Types of Corrective Feedback	Frequency of Corrective Feedback Type	Percentage of Corrective Feedback occurrence in the international school classroom
Explicit Correction	29	12.29%
Recast	40	16.95%
Metalinguistic Clues	61	25.84%
Elicitation	53	22.46%
Repetition	23	9.75%
Clarification Request	30	12.71%

Table III illustrates the frequency of different types of corrective feedback found in the international school classroom. Data collected from four classroom observations revealed the total frequency of 236 instances of corrective feedback provided by the teacher in the classroom. Among these, the most frequent feedback type provided by the teacher was metalinguistic clues ( $N=61$ , or 25.84%), followed by elicitation ( $N=53$ , or 22.46%) and recasting ( $N=40$ , or 16.95%). Repetition and explicit correction were the least common feedback types provided by the teacher, accounting for 12.29% and 9.75% respectively.

Table IV illustrates the frequency of different types of corrective feedback found in the EFL classroom. Data collected from four classroom observations revealed the total frequency of 57 instances of corrective feedback provided by the teacher in the EFL classroom. Among all six feedback types provided by the teacher, recasting was the most frequently used feedback type in the EFL classroom ( $N=29$ , or 50.88%), followed by explicit correction ( $N=10$ , or 17.54%), and clarification request ( $N=9$ , or 15.79%). From the observations, recasting was provided when students provided incorrect answers during practices. It was provided immediately once the teacher noticed the mistake made by students. Metalinguistic clues and elicitation were among the least common types of feedback for the teacher, with a total number of 2 times (or 3.51%) for each type during the four observations.

TABLE IV  
PERCENTAGE OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK OCCURRENCE IN THE EFL CLASSROOM (N=57)

Types of Corrective Feedback	Frequency of Corrective Feedback Type	Percentage of Corrective Feedback occurrence in the EFL classroom
Explicit Correction	10	17.54%
Recast	29	50.88%
Clarification Request	9	15.79%
Metalinguistic Clues	2	3.51%
Elicitation	2	3.51%
Repetition	5	8.78%

After the first lessons of each classroom were observed the researcher conducted a semi-structured interview with the teachers. Eight questions were asked of both teachers. After the interview the researcher transcribed the recorded interview.

The first question that was asked of both teachers was about their background. The EFL teacher completed her bachelor degree in English from a higher education institution and completed her master's degree in Law in Thailand. The international teacher completed her bachelor degree in English literature in England and completed a General Course of Education (GCE) course in Education. The next question was about their working experience. The EFL teacher had taught English for 11 years whereas the international teacher has taught English and English literature for 18 years. Both teachers rated their teaching proficiency as 8 out of 10, indicating a high competence. When the teachers were asked about corrective feedback they were both not sure about the term. The EFL teacher reported that when she thought of corrective feedback she thought of giving feedback to her students about their grammatical skills. Whereas the international teacher thought of corrective feedback as being an interesting term, but she was only aware of feedback not corrective feedback.

## V. DISCUSSION

The discussion will now be provided following the research questions. Regarding the first research question of whether all six corrective feedback types were used in the two classrooms, the findings revealed that all six corrective

feedback types were provided by the teachers in both classrooms. To find that all six corrective feedback types were provided in both contexts was in line with the findings of corrective feedback types used in the language classroom in the previous studies. For example, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) investigation of 18 hours of classroom observation and recording reported six corrective feedback types the teacher provided to the students. Moreover, Milla and Mayo's study (2013), which examined corrective feedback used in different classrooms (i.e., CLIL classroom and EFL context classroom), revealed the six different types of corrective feedback used in both classrooms. These studies support the claim that teachers tend to employ a variety of corrective feedback types for their students that suit students' mistakes in their language lessons.

In contrast to the two previous studies, Sheen (2004) reported different findings from the current study. Sheen compared four different classroom contexts and revealed seven types of corrective feedback that were used frequently in all classrooms. The corrective feedback types included explicit correction, recasting, clarification, metalinguistic clues, elicitation, repetition, and translation. The translation type of corrective feedback was also referred to as multiple feedback (Sheen, 2004). Thus, according to Sheen, the translation corrective feedback type was employed when the teacher combined different feedback types to the learners.

In addition, the findings from the current study have also revealed that various types of corrective feedback are used by teachers in their English language, and English literature classrooms. It is evident that for effective corrective feedback it is essential for teachers to vary their use of types of corrective feedback in their classes, not only according to the preferences and learning styles of the students, but also the preferences and teaching styles of the teachers. The international teacher claimed that it was important to vary the types of corrective feedback in the classes because students would get bored easily if the teacher stayed with the same type of corrective feedback. The importance of varying types of corrective feedback was supported by de Gortari and Tedick (1998). One of their suggestions for teachers to choose how to use corrective feedback in classrooms is varying the type of corrective feedback because employing a variety of feedback types may suit learners' different preferences. Although the findings from Sheen's study are somewhat different from the current study, it still suggests that in language classrooms, teachers always provide their students with various corrective feedback types. The main objective in providing these different corrective feedback types was the teacher's evaluation of student's mistakes, and their needs for the feedback. Therefore, it can be concluded that offering corrective feedback is a typical action of teachers in language classrooms. Moreover, whether the teachers were aware of the different characteristics of different types of the corrective feedback or not, they still employed different sets of feedback to improve students' target linguistic aspects of the language.

To answer the second research question, the researcher counted the frequency of each feedback type from transcriptions recorded from classroom observations. The findings revealed that the teacher in the EFL classroom used corrective feedback altogether only 57 times. Recast was the most frequently used corrective feedback type in the EFL classroom, followed by explicit correction, clarification request, repetition and metalinguistic clues. The findings from the EFL classroom were in line with the study done by Sheen (2004). Sheen looked at four instructional settings where corrective feedback was employed. Three settings were data from other studies whereas one of the data sets was her own. All the four settings revealed different types of corrective feedback used. These corrective feedback types consisted of explicit correction, recasting, clarification requests, metalinguistic clues, repetition, and translation. However, according to Sheen, recasting was found as the most frequently used feedback type in the two settings: ESL classes (French immersion) and the ESL classroom in Korea.

In the present study recast was the most frequently used feedback type in the EFL classroom setting. The findings were in line with those of Sheen's study (2004). The reason that teachers preferred to use recast in class was due to limited class time (Yoshida, 2008). In a rather short period of time in the classroom, students were not required to correct the utterance, so the lesson could continue without interruption. Another reason that teachers preferred recasts was due to students' low proficiency. Kennedy (2010) claimed that students with lower proficiency levels did not have enough knowledge to correct their own errors. This was because recasts do not require students to correct their utterances. However, the other types of corrective feedback such as metalinguistic clues, elicitation, and clarification require sufficient knowledge of the language. Therefore, they suit students of a higher proficiency level. Yoshida (2008) has claimed that teachers preferred recasts because they were afraid that students with low proficiency will not be able to self-correct their utterance.

Regarding international school classroom context, a total number of 236 instances of corrective feedback from four classroom observations were found. The most frequently used feedback type was metalinguistic clues, whereas repetitions were used least. These findings differed from those of Milla and Mayo's (2013), which compared Content and Language Integrated learning approach (CLIL) and EFL classrooms. Their study revealed that explicit correction was the most frequently used feedback type in the CLIL. The findings differed from the present study in that the explicit correction was one of the least frequently used corrective feedback type in the international school classroom of the current study.

The findings from the international school classroom revealed that the most frequently used of corrective feedback types were metalinguistic clues and elicitation. These findings can be interpreted as teachers believing that students with higher English proficiency are able to repair their own errors. Whenever the teacher judged that the student may have sufficient linguistic resources and is capable of using clues provided by the teacher as a source for the repair, the teacher

tended to provide implicit corrective feedback types such as metalinguistic clues or clarification requests. The techniques could be done with help from the teachers providing prompts. This was supported from the interview of the international teacher who claimed that the students had high English proficiency levels; therefore, she did not focus on correcting their errors, or local mistakes, but mainly on providing clues, or asking the students to clarify what they want to talk about, so the students achieved the target communicative goal, with the repair of their linguistic mistakes.

#### VI. TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

The study does not only provide information about teachers' corrective feedback but also helps create awareness about the use of different types of corrective feedback. From the observation and interview it was seen that teachers used corrective feedback without being aware of the definition of corrective feedback. During the interview sessions, both teachers claimed not to know about the definition of corrective feedback. However, from the observation it was evident that the teachers always provided different types of corrective feedback to their students. Thus, it implies there is a need for teacher training on the use of corrective feedback in the classroom. It would be better if teachers provided corrective feedback types with an idea of what, when, and how. Regarding the what, teachers need to know that different corrective feedback types serve different purposes of mistake correction. For example, if the focus of correction is on grammatical mistakes, then explicit corrective feedback type such as explicit correction is the appropriate one. In contrast, if the teacher knows that the students are competent, to provide metalinguistic clues would be adequate for such learners. Awareness of when and how should be taken into consideration as well. When the teacher is fully aware of the objective of a particular lesson, whether on the grammatical mistakes, or the holistic communicative function, the teacher would provide the appropriate corrective feedback types at the appropriate time and in the appropriate manner that does not interrupt a student's flow of thought. During the teacher training process, therefore, sessions devoted to the provision of corrective feedback should be provided. To reiterate, the training should include the definition of corrective feedback, emphasis of the importance of corrective feedback, different types of corrective feedback, the purposes of the types of corrective feedback, and the benefits of using each type of corrective feedback in language classrooms.

#### VII. LIMITATIONS

Although the study achieved all of its objectives, there were two limitations of this study. The first limitation of the study was the number of classroom observations, and the time when the observations were held during the semester of the school. Four classroom observations were done in the EFL classroom during the four weeks before the semester end. For the international school classroom, the four observations were done before the midterm exam. Therefore, the readers must exercise caution in interpreting the findings of the frequency of corrective feedback provided by the teachers from the two classrooms. The higher frequency of corrective feedback provided by international school teachers may be related to the looming examination period so that all topics or contents were fully covered. The teacher might assume that students may, at times, review all linguistic aspects in the content. Therefore, implicit corrective feedback types were provided because the students were able to retrieve their memory about specific linguistic aspects of the language. In contrast, instruction and learning in the EFL classroom were not already completed. Thus, the teacher still needed to provide some target linguistic aspects to the students. With such objectives, it was almost impossible for the teacher not to provide explicit corrective feedback types to their students.

Another limitation of the study was that the study did not prolong its observation span to assess whether the students were able to repair their language after receiving the corrective feedback provided by their teachers. It is important to assess student self-correction after corrective feedback is given. If the students do self-correction successfully after the corrective feedback was given, it would imply that corrective feedback is an effective method for successful language learning.

#### VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS

Considering the limitations of the present study, three recommendations were proposed for future studies of corrective feedback in a language classroom. A long-term time span of observation, student's self-repairing after feedback sessions, and student's perceptions about all types of corrective feedback found in language classrooms are recommended for richer information on the corrective feedback in a second/foreign language classroom. These recommendations would lead future studies to promote the use of corrective feedback in language classrooms. These studies would also suggest language teachers to provide different types of corrective feedback effectively in language classrooms, so the learners would achieve their potential as an effective learner and user of the target language.

#### IX. CONCLUSION

The main objectives of the current study were to investigate and compare types of corrective feedback provided by teachers in two different classrooms (international school and EFL). Participants included two teachers (one from each classroom) and 31 eleventh graders (25 from the EFL classroom and 6 from the international school classroom). Data

was collected by classroom observations and tape-recording, and interview sessions with the teacher. Classroom, recordings, and interview records were content analyzed and categorized into six different corrective feedback types following Lyster and Ranta's framework. The findings revealed that all six corrective feedback types were used in both classrooms but in different numbers and proportions. That is to say, the teacher in the EFL classroom provided less corrective feedback ( $N=57$ ), as compared to that in the international school classroom ( $N=246$ ). In addition, recasting was the most frequently used feedback type in the EFL classroom, while metalinguistic clues ranked first in the data set of the international school classroom. Data from the interview sessions with teachers from the two classrooms revealed that teachers reflected their lack of awareness in the use of corrective feedback in the classrooms. They evaluated the mistake and anticipated their student's level of proficiency before providing corrective feedback. This leads to the recommendation of the study that a session of how to provide different types of corrective feedback should be provided in any teacher training sessions because corrective feedback is essential for teachers to scaffold students in the language learning process.

## REFERENCES

- [1] Ammar, A., & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all? Recasts, prompts, and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(4), 543-574.
- [2] Bruner, R. W. (1979). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 17(2), 89-100.
- [3] Cullen, R. (2002). Supportive teacher talk: The importance of the f-move. *ELT Journal*, 56(2), 117-127.
- [4] Davies, M. (2011). Increasing students' L2 usage: An analysis of teacher talk time and student talk time. (Unpublished Master thesis) University of Birmingham.
- [5] DeKeyser, R. (1993). The effect of error correction L2 grammar knowledge and oral proficiency. *Modern Language Journal*, 77, 501-514.
- [6] Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 339-368.
- [7] Gass, S. (1997). Input, interaction and the second language learner. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- [8] Gitsaki, C. & Althobaiti, N. (2010). EFL teachers' use of corrective feedback and its effect on learners' uptake. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 7(1), 197-219.
- [9] de Gortari, B. & Tedick, D. (1998). Research on error correction and implications for classroom teaching. London, UK: *The Bridge: From research to practice*.
- [10] Hattie, J. & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77, 81-112.
- [11] Hendrickson, J. M. (1978). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research, and practice. *Modern Language Journal*, 62, 387-398.
- [12] Kanoksilapatham, B. (2014). Thai elementary school teachers' English pronunciation and effects of teacher variables: Professional development. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language (TESL-EJ)*, 18, (1), 1-13.
- [13] Khaemane, T. (1999). The teaching and learning by using learner-centered CIPPA model. *Journal of education*, 3, 57-59.
- [14] Kennedy, S. (2010). Corrective feedback for learners of varied proficiency levels: A teacher's choices. *TESL CANADA Journal*, 27(2), 31-50.
- [15] Krashen, S. (1994) The input hypothesis and its rivals. In Ellis, N. (Ed.) *Implicit and Explicit Learning of Languages*, pp. 45-77. London: Academic Press.
- [16] Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J. M. (2005). The nativeness factor: An analysis of students' preferences. *ITL International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 148, 21-43.
- [17] Lightbown, P. & Spada, N. (2006). *How Languages Are Learned* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [18] Lin, Y., & Hedgcock, J. (1996). Negative feedback incorporation among high-proficiency and low-proficiency Chinese-speaking learners of Spanish. *Language Learning*, 46, 567-611.
- [19] Liu, F., & Maitlis, S. (2010). Nonparticipant observation encyclopedia of case study research. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- [20] Long, M. H. (1981). Questions in foreigner talk discourse. *Language Learning*, 31, (1), 135-57.
- [21] Lyster, R. (1987). Speaking immersion. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 43(4), 701-17.
- [22] Lyster, R., & Izquierdo, J. (2009). Prompts versus recasts in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning*, 59(2), 453-498.
- [23] Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66.
- [24] Mackey, A. (1999). Input, interaction and second language development: an empirical study of question formation in ESL. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(4), 557-587.
- [25] Milla, R. & Mayo, M. (2013). Corrective feedback episodes in oral interaction: A comparison of a CLIL and an EFL classroom. *International Journal of English Studies*, 14(1), 1-20.
- [26] Nassaji, H. (2007). Elicitation and reformulation and their relationship with learner repair in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning*, 57(4), 511-548.
- [27] National Institute of Educational Testing Service. (2017). Basic Education Achievement Report. <https://krunumchai.files.wordpress.com/2015/02/e0b89ce0b8a5onete0b8a1-3e0b89be0b8b52556.pdf> (accessed 12/10/2017).
- [28] National Institute of Educational Testing Service. (2017). Summary of Ordinary Test Result for Basic Education of Grade 12 Students, academic year 2016. <https://newonetestresult.niets.or.th> (accessed 12/10/2017).
- [29] Panova, I., & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, 573-595.
- [30] Piaget, J. (1964). *Biology and knowledge*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- [31] Pica, T. (1994). Research on negotiation: What does it reveal about second language learning conditions, processes and

outcomes? *Language Learning*, 44:493-527

- [32] Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (2002). Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics. Harlow: Longman.
- [33] Sheen, Y. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research*, 8, 263-300.
- [34] Sinclair, J. & Coulthard, R/M. (1975). Towards an analysis of discourse. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [35] Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. Cambridge, MA: Newbury House Publishers.
- [36] Tsang, W. (2004). Feedback and uptake in teacher-student interaction: An analysis of 18 English lessons in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *Regional Language Centre Journal*, 35, 187-209.
- [37] van Lier, L. (2004). The ecology and semiotics of language learning: A sociocultural perspective. Boston: Kluwer Academic.
- [38] Wengraf, T. (2001). Qualitative research interviewing: biographic narrative and semi-structured method. London: Sage Publications
- [39] Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- [40] Yoshida, R. (2008). Teachers' choice and learners' preference of corrective feedback types. *Language Awareness*, 17, 78-94.
- [41] Yang, Y. (2016). Feedback and uptake in Chinese EFL classrooms: In search of instructional variables. *The Journal of ASIA TEFL*, 6(4), 1-22.

**Julia Simhony** (first author) received her MA in Applied Linguistics from Mahidol University in Thailand. Her research interests include corrective feedback, teaching English in an international context, and promoting verbal fluency for foreign language learners.

**Natthapong Chanyoo** (corresponding author) is a lecturer of the graduate program in Applied Linguistics at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University. He received a PhD in instruction and learning, with concentrations on English Communications Education and Applied Linguistics from the University of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, USA. His research interests include applied linguistics, language and mind, TEFL, and systemic functional linguistics. He may be reached at natthapong[dot]cha[at]mahidol.edu.

# A Study of the Transitive Construction of Chinese Dream

Min Lian  
Shanxi Normal University, China

**Abstract**—The paper chooses General Secretary Xi's series of speech on Chinese dream as research material, and conducts a systematic analysis to the transitivity construction of the Chinese dream. The study shows that firstly the phrase *Chinese dream* can serve as a participant directly, and also constitute a participant or a circumstance in transitivity processes; Secondly, *Chinese dream* serves as a goal collocated with the verb *realize* in material processes; Thirdly, it mainly serves as a carrier or constitutes the identified in relational processes collocated with the verb *be*; Lastly, there is a systematic relationship between the construction of Chinese dream and the transitive process types. Based on material processes, Chinese dream is constructed as a process with characteristics of creativity, intentionality and abstraction. And based on relational processes, Chinese dream is constructed as an entity unifying the characteristics of collectivism, individualism, temporality and essentialism.

**Index Terms**—Chinese dream, transitivity system, transitive process, construction

## I. INTRODUCTION

Since the 18<sup>th</sup> national congress, the general secretary Xi has delivered a series of speeches on the idea of 'Chinese dream'. The Chinese dream has become the greatest dream of the Chinese nation since the modern time and a hot topic at home and abroad. Some central leaders like Liu Yunshan, Liu Qibao pointed out that the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences (CASS) should gather resource superiority and conduct in-depth study on the interpretation of Chinese dream. The Academia also pointed out that the studies on Chinese dream provided a broad space for scholars in the CASS, but they also require multidisciplinary and multi-perspective research (Zhu Zongyou, Ji Zhengju, 2014).

Many social science disciplines have conducted the research on Chinese dream, such as Marxism and political science with wide range of research, abundant achievements and a large number of research issues, which involving the background, scientific connotation, significance and implementation path of the Chinese dream (Cheng Meidong, Zhang Xuecheng, 2013; Shi Weilei, 2013). In the fields of journalism and communication, the researches focused on the transmission mechanism, strategy, path, development, identification and effect of Chinese dream (Ma Wenxia, 2015; Zhou Zhongyuan, Zhao Guanghuai, 2014 etc.). And some scholars of history, economics and other disciplines also had a discussion on the Chinese dream. Besides, the Chinese dream has also sparked discussion among scholars abroad (Wu Suxia, Zhang Yuanxin, 2015). But unfortunately, the above research rarely touched on the cornerstone based on which the Chinese dream can be constructed—the language.

Research on Chinese dream has also been the frontier and hot topic in the field of linguistics. Firstly, there are some discourse studies of Chinese dream based on the general secretary Xi's series of speeches. For example, Miao Xingwei (2016) analyzed the discourse construction of Chinese dream as well as its construction effect; Zhang Lei (2016) elucidated how the language related to Chinese dream constructed the national image of loving peace, focusing on development and serving the benefits of both peoples and the world; Hou Zhide (2014) interpreted the cultural connotation of Chinese dream construction from the perspective of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Secondly, there are discourse studies of Chinese dream based on news discourse. Which include the image study of Chinese dream based on the foreign news coverage (Shao Bing, Tian Zhiming, 2014; Liang Xi, 2015); the image study of Chinese dream based on domestic new media discourse (Qian Yufang, Huang Xiaoqin; Li Mao, 2015; Yu Yang, 2016) and the study on Chinese dream in international communication as well as its discourse power construction etc (Liu Lihua, Ma Junjie, 2016). Thirdly, The research on the Memetics interpretation of the wide spread of Chinese dream (Liu Yusong, Cai Chaohui, 2013). There are also discussions about the English translation of Chinese dream (Chen Guohua, Cheng Lixia, 2015; Yang Quanhong, 2013; Zhang Shunsheng, Ge Chenrong, 2015) as well as the semantic analysis of the Chinese dream (Chen Limei, 2014). The studies on the Chinese dream at home and abroad has transformed from a single political theory perspective originally into comprehensive multi-disciplinary researches, while the research on the Chinese dream discourse construction is still insufficient, existing research just revealed the tip of the iceberg of the Chinese dream (Miao Xingwei, 2016). Under the guidance of Discourse Constructivism, the paper takes the transitivity system in systematical functional linguistics (SFL) as analytical framework and explores the experience meaning construction of Chinese dream based on the general secretary Xi's series of speeches.

## II. THEORETICAL BASIS

Discourse constructivism holds that people always make sense of reality through language, which as a way of representing reality not only merely reflects the preexisting reality but also construes the reality (Jorgensen & Philips, 2002: 8-9). Miao Xingwei (2016) elaborated the three theoretical foundations of discourse constructivism. Firstly, it is in line with the social constructivism; Secondly, it shares a lot in common with the SFL that inherited the idea of constructivism; Thirdly, the CDA also concerns how discourse construes social reality. In short, language is not passively reflects or represents the world, but constructs the actively in the most general way and affects people's thinking and behavior (Fairclough, 2006), promotes the practice course (Tian Hailong, 2009). Therefore, the theoretical hypotheses made by discourse constructivism are suitable for guiding the research on how language constructs the Chinese dream, a conceived community and consciousness construction. And the transitivity system in SFL provides an ideal analytical framework for probing the experiential construe of the Chinese dream.

Language is the resource of creating meaning, but not a list of generated structure types (Halliday, 1994). Language has three main meanings or meta-functions, namely the conceptual meaning, interpersonal meaning and textual meaning. Among which the conceptual meaning can be subdivided into experiential meaning and logical meaning. And the experiential function as a way of representing patterns of experience, all these goings-on in experiential world are sorted out in the grammar of the clause. Thus as well as being a mode of action, the clause is also a mode of reflection, of imposing order on the endless variation and flow of events. (Halliday, 2000). Thus the transitivity system is a semantic system, which construes the world of experience by the three concepts of process, participant and circumstance which are also semantic categories. According to the transitivity system, people's experience can be divided into six kind of different processes, namely the material processes, mental processes, relational processes, behavioral processes, verbal processes and existential processes. Different process types involve different types of participant, while the circumstantial elements exist independent on the types of transitive processes, and extend to the processes in terms of span, location and ways (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

The relationship between different process types is complementary, which plays different roles in construing experience (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Therefore, different processes have different influence in the construction of the Chinese dream, among which the concepts of process, participant and circumstance are semantic categories that lies behind the grammatical distinction of word classes. In the typical usage, processes are mainly realized by verbal group, participants are realized by nominal group, and circumstances are realized by adverbial group or prepositional phrase. The nominal group "Chinese dream" can serve as the participant directly, also can constitute the participant or circumstance elements combined with other words. For example:

1. The *Chinese dream* is the nation's dream, but also the one for every Chinese people. (remark 2)
2. The *Chinese dream* will benefit not only the people of China, but also of other countries. (remark 5)
3. Put your youthful dreams into action in the course of realizing the rejuvenation of the Chinese nation. (remark 4)

In the above examples, the nominal group "Chinese dream" serves as the participant, constituted participant and constituted circumstance elements respectively. In example 2, the "Chinese dream" collocated with "realizing" together form a transitive clause, which as an actor with the form of embedded clause. In example 3, the embedded clause "realizing the Chinese dream" as premodifier of the nominal group "flying youthful dreams", while it collocated with preposition serve as the circumstance element in clause "lively practice". The three components provide clues for the transitivity construe of the Chinese dream. Notably, there are two clauses in example 1, the nominal group "Chinese dream" serve as participants in the first clause, while omitted brought forward for the first one in the second clause, and serve as explicit and implicit participant in the two clauses respectively.

Participant, circumstance and process itself these three categories are characterizes by extreme generality, which show different characteristics in different transitivity process types with specific names. Firstly, Halliday (2000) advocated that material processes are processes of 'doing'. They express the notion that some entity 'does something'—which may be done 'to' some other entity. These processes are generally realized by dynamic verbs, the one that does the deed is called actor, while the one that is extended to is called goal, both of them are generally realized by name phrases or pronouns. Secondly, mental processes are processes of sensing. They express the notion that someone senses, feels, thinks or perceives something. Therefore, within the overall category of mental process, these three—feeling, thinking and seeing—then constitute the principal sub-types; we will label them in more general terms as 1) perception, 2) affection and 3) cognition. (Halliday, 2000). There are two participants in these processes, namely senser and phenomenon. Thirdly, relational processes are processes of being. In the clauses, there are two parts of the 'being': something is being said to 'be' something else. (Halliday, 2000). The English system classified the relational processes into three main types: 1) intensive ( $x$  is  $a$ ); 2) circumstantial ( $a$  is at  $a$ ); 3) possessive ( $x$  has  $a$ ). And each of them comes in two distinct modes: (a) attributive ( $a$  is an attribute of  $x$ ) and (b) identifying ( $a$  is the identity of  $x$ ) (Halliday, 2000). One big difference between the two modes lies in that the identifying mode is reversible. Therefore, relational processes can be subdivided into six categories. The entities  $x$  and  $a$  are realized by nominal group. Notably, adjective group is considered as a subclass of the nominal group in Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

We take the intensive type as an example to explain the concepts of "attributive" and "identifying". In attributive mode, an entity has some quality ascribed or attributed to it. Structurally, Halliday (2000) labelled this quality the attribute, and the entity to which it is ascribed the carrier. In the identifying mode, something has an identity assigned to



it. What this means is that one entity is being used to identify another: ‘x is identified by a’, or ‘a serves to define the identify of x’. Structurally, Halliday (2000) labeled the x-element as the identified, and the a-element as the identifier. But the identifying clause is not a tautology, the difference is one of form and function, that is of token and value (Halliday, 2000).

Verbal processes are processes of saying. They accommodate three participant functions: sayer, receiver and verbiage. Behavioral processes are processes of (typically human) physiological and psychological behaviour, like breathing, coughing, smiling, dreaming and staring (Halliday, 2000). Existential processes represent that something exists or happens. Existential clauses typically have the verb *be*, and the object or event which is being said to exist is labeled, simply, existent (Halliday, 2000).

‘Circumstantiation’ as a general concept, occurs freely in all types of process. The notion of the ‘circumstance’ as a kind of additional minor process, subsidiary to the main one, but embodying some of the features of a relational or verbal process, and so introducing a further entity as an indirect participant in the clause (Halliday, 2000). There are nine types of circumstantial elements: extent, location, manner, cause, contingency, accompaniment, role, matter and angle (ibid.: 2000).

### III. RESEARCH METHOD

The research question is how the general secretary Xi constructed the ‘Chinese dream’ based on the transitivity system in his remarks. Which can be subdivided into the following more specific questions: (1) What functions does the phrase ‘Chinese dream’ take on in the clause grammar? (2) ‘Chinese dream’ can be found in which kind of transitive process clause as well as the functional role it takes on; the relevant transitivity processes can be represented by which kind of verbs and how about the frequency? (3) What kind of image is constructed in these transitivity processes? (4) Is there a systematic relation between the construction on ‘Chinese dream’ and the transitivity process types?

The research chooses the seven remarks of ‘Chinese dream’ included in "The governance of China" (2014) as research material, and makes description and interpretation to the transitivity construction of the ‘Chinese dream’. In order to improve the analytic efficiency and consistency, the research adopts Corpus Tool UAM 2.8.14 and makes full use of its three functions: establishing annotation framework, making manual annotation and conducting statistic analysis.

CHART 1  
XI’S SPEECH OF THE ‘CHINESE DREAM’

Topic of the remarks	Frequency of 'Chinese dream'
1. Achieving rejuvenation is the dream of the Chinese people (November 11, 2012) (Xi Jinping, 2012)	1
2. Address to the first session of the 12th National People's Congress (March 17, 2013) (Xi Jinping, 2013)	8
3. Hard work makes dreams come true (April 28, 2013) (Xi Jinping, 2013)	6
4. Realizing youthful dreams (May 4, 2013) (Xi Jinping, 2013)	19
5. The Chinese dream will benefit not only the people of China, but also of other countries. (May, 2013) (Xi Jinping, 2013)	8
6. Right time to innovate and make dreams come true (October 21, 2013) (Xi Jinping, 2013)	3
7. The rejuvenation of the Chinese nation is a dream shared by all Chinese (June 6, 2014) (Xi Jinping, 2014)	6

The basic procedures are perusal, annotation, statistics and interpretation. Firstly, perusing and analyzing the transitivity clauses in which the ‘Chinese dream’ appeared, especially focusing on the transitivity process types of the clauses as well as the functional role of the ‘Chinese dream’. Secondly, establishing the annotation framework of transitivity system in UAM and annotating the ‘Chinese dream’. As is shown in the following diagram 1, in the annotation framework, the explicit and implicit types refer to the occurrence or omission of the ‘Chinese dream’ in certain clauses. Thirdly, conducting in-depth analysis to the clause examples based on annotated corpus. Finally, taking context factors into consideration, discussing and explaining what kind of ‘Chinese dream’ is constructed by transitivity, and exploring the relation between the ‘Chinese dream’ construction and transitivity system.

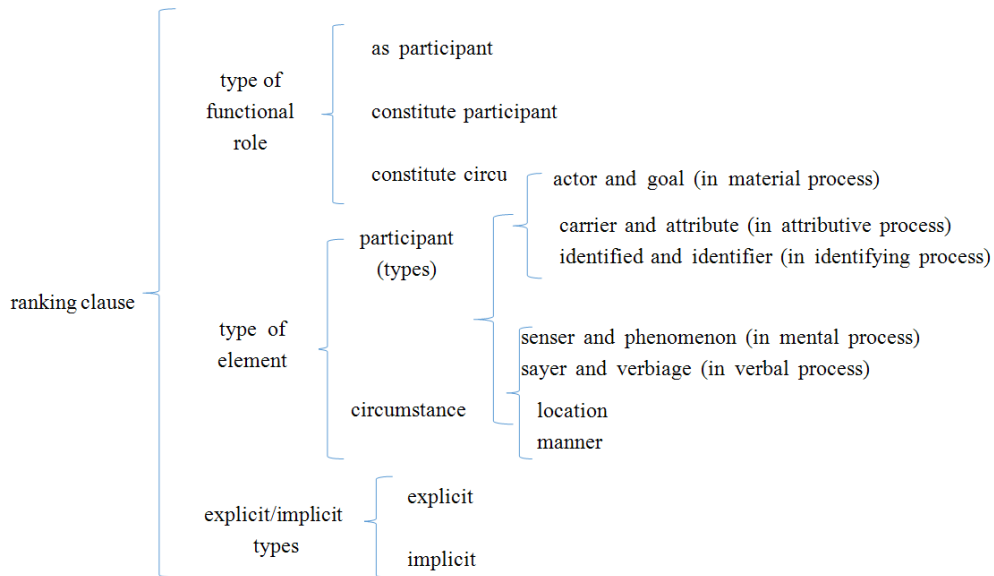


Fig. 1 The annotation framework of transitivity analysis

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

As is shown in the following chart 2, the main element type of the 'Chinese dream' is participant, which as participant or constitutes participant in 65 clauses that account for 91.55 percent. While constitutes circumstance in the rest 6 clauses, which occur in explicit way and account for 71.83 percent.

feature	amount	Percent (%)
type of functional role (N=71)	as participant 41	57.75
	constitute participant 23	32.39
	constitute circumstance 7	9.86
type of element (N=71)	Participant 63	88.73
	Circumstance 8	11.27
explicit/implicit type (N=71)	explicit 50	70.42
	Implicit 21	29.58

Fig. 2 statistical result of the role type of 'Chinese dream'

It can be seen clearly from the diagram 3 that there is significant difference between the two different role types of the 'Chinese dream' which as participant and constitutes participant in material processes, mental processes and relational processes. While the two have no significant difference in explicit or implicit dimension. One noticeable feature is that the relational processes have the largest number of quantity which contradicts the former conclusions. For example, Thompson (2004) put forward that the material processes are the most in quantity and form. This feature reflects that the focus of series of speeches is on explaining the connotation of the 'Chinese dream'. Then, the paper will further analyzes the features of different transitivity processes, and discusses the characteristics of the 'Chinese dream' constructed by the transitivity system.

feature		As participant		Constitute participant		Significance of difference	
		amount	percent(%)	amount	Percent (%)	Chi-square	significance
Type of Parti-cipant	In material process	19	47.5	8	32	4.31	++
	In relational process	16	40	15	60	3.23	+
	In mental process	0	0	4	32	3.0	+
	In verbal process	5	12.5	0	0	1.31	
Explicit/im-plicit type	explicit	26	65	14	56	0.14	
	implicit	14	35	11	44	0.14	

Fig. 3 'Chinese dream' serve as participant and constitutes participant

A. Material Processes

Material processes are processes of 'doing'. They express the notion that some entity 'does something'—which may be done 'to' some other entity (Halliday, 2000). In these processes, the 'Chinese dream' can not only serve as the

participant directly, but also constitutes participant. Which serve as the goal or actor directly in 19 material process clauses mainly in an explicit way at 18 times. It can be easily understood that the ‘Chinese dream’ as goal in 18 clauses, because the goals we struggling for in empirical world are always construed as the goals of processes in grammar. In the 18 clauses, the verb which collocated with the goal is “realize” that collocated with the ‘Chinese dream’ to represent the goal and give a direction indirectly. For example, in case 4, the ‘Chinese dream’ with a premodifier serve as the participant directly, but in most situations, “realizing the Chinese dream” as a purpose clause in clause complex to help to represent the conditions realizing this dream needed (just as in case 5), or to issue a mobilization order—call on the people to work hard, that is do things with words (case 6). In example 7, the ‘Chinese dream’ serve as the actor directly, which constitutes the “actor+ process” pattern with ‘benefit’, while ‘to the people’ is circumstance, extend the process of ‘benefit’ to the behalf (Halliday Matthiessen, 2004).

We have set the goals of completing ..... and building China into a modern socialist country that is prosperous, strong, democratic, culturally advanced, and harmonious ..... so as to realize the Chinese dream of the rejuvenation of the Chinese dream (Xi Jinping, 2013).

4. To realize the Chinese dream, we must take our own path... To realize the Chinese dream, we must foster the Chinese spirit ... To realize the Chinese dream, we must pool China’s strength.

5. Empty talk harms the country, while hard work makes it flourish. We are convinced that as long as students and scholars studying abroad remember this and choose and choose to stand and work with the people, they will surely write a brilliant page in the book of the Chinese dream, a page that is worthy of our times, of our people and of history.

6. The Chinese dream is, in the final analysis, the dream of the people; so we must rely firmly on them to realize it, and we must steadily deliver benefits to them.

The Chinese dream can also constitutes participant, participates in the processes indirectly. In case 8, the embedded clause ‘realizing the Chinese dream’ as the premodifier and the whole nominal group serve as the goal of material process. In case 9, ‘realizing the Chinese dream’ serve as the actor in clause.

7. Only if everyone strives for a better tomorrow can our efforts be aggregated into a powerful force to realize the Chinese dream.

8. The Chinese dream will benefit not only the people of China, but also of other countries

The ‘Chinese dream’ collocated with the verb ‘realize’ in 21 material process clauses at the rate of 84.64%, which represent the image of ‘Chinese dream’ clearly constructed by material processes. Firstly, realizing the ‘Chinese dream’ is a process of ‘doing to’ but not of happening; Secondly, realizing the ‘Chinese dream’ is creative type of material process but not dispositive type; Thirdly, realizing the ‘Chinese dream’ is willing process but not unwilling process; Lastly, realizing the ‘Chinese dream’ is abstract process but not specific process. The ‘Chinese dream’ itself is abstract, and it cannot be realized in a short time, but can only be realized for a long time with people’s struggle.

**B. Relational Processes**

It can be seen from the figure 4 that there is significant difference when the ‘Chinese dream’ serve as the participant directly and constitutes participant in terms of the four dimensions of attributive type, identifying type, carrier and attribute. To be more specific, the ‘Chinese dream’ serve as the carrier in attributive process mostly, while intend to constitute the identified in identifying process.

feature		As participant		Constitute participant		Significance of difference	
		amount	Percent (%)	amount	Percent (%)	Chi-square	significance
Type of participant in relational process	In attributive process	13	72.22	6	35.29	6.32	+++
	In identifying process	5	27.78	11	64.71	6.32	+++
Type of participant in attributive process	carrier	14	93.33	4	57.14	4.13	++
	attribute	1	6.67	3	42.86	4.13	++
Type of participant In identifying process	the identified	3	100	7	70	0.69	
	identifier	0	0	3	30	0.69	
explicit/implicit type	explicit	9	50	11	64.71	0.24	
	implicit	9	50	6	35.29	0.24	

Fig. 4 ‘Chinese dream’ as participant of relational process

In attributive process, the ‘Chinese dream’ can serve as the participant directly, can also constitute participant. The ‘Chinese dream’ as carrier in 14 clauses which are typically realized by ‘is’ that represents the attribute of the ‘Chinese dream’. The relational processes from example 10 to 15 reflex the different attributes of the ‘Chinese dream’. At the same time, which respond to the question ‘Chinese dream is whose dream’. Based on clear semantic categories, these processes represent the master of the ‘Chinese dream’ which strengthen people’s sense of identity to the dream, and work together to accomplish the aim of create a better future.

10. The Chinese dream is the dream of the nation, but also of every ordinary Chinese.

The Chinese dream is the dream of the country and the nation, but also of every ordinary Chinese (Xi Jinping, 2013).

12. The Chinese dream is a dream of the country, the nation as well as all Chinese individuals (Xi Jinping, 2013).

13. The Chinese dream is the common ideal of the people of all ethnic groups, and a lofty ideal that young people should harbor.

14. The Chinese dream is ours, but also yours, the younger generation.

15. The Chinese dream is, in the final analysis, the dream of the people; so we must rely firmly on them to realize it, and we must steadily deliver benefits to them.

Attributive processes can also reflex some other attributes of the 'Chinese dream'. The second clause in example 16 indicates the connection between the 'Chinese dream' and the common pursuit of the whole world, and the relational process is realized by zero verb (Peng Xuanwei, 2000). Example 17 construes the attribute of the 'Chinese dream' in time dimension, and also imposes order.

16. The Chinese dream is a desire for happiness, similar to the dreams of the people of other countries (Xi Jinping, 2013).

17. The Chinese dream pertains to the past and the present, but also the future (Xi Jinping, 2013).

The 'Chinese dream' constituted participant in 6 clauses and collocated with the verb 'realize' in 4 clauses serve as carrier in the form of embedded clause, just like the case 18. The 'Chinese dream' constitute attribute in the other two examples. In example 19, the embedded clause 'realizing the Chinese dream' as the premodifier and the whole nominal group represent attribute in relational process.

18. Realizing the Chinese dream of the rejuvenation of the Chinese nation has been a long-cherished wish of the Chinese people since the advent of modern times (Xi Jinping, 2013).

19. Overseas Chinese will play an essential role in the process of realizing the Chinese dream.

In identifying clause, relational processes are used to describe the characteristics of the 'Chinese dream', identify the identity and expound the connotation, i.e. respond to 'what is Chinese dream'. Firstly, the 'Chinese dream' serve as the identified directly in 3 clauses. In example 20, as the identified, it is imposed meaning and value again and again in grammar.

20. It is the crystallization of ..... embraces the yearnings of all the sons and daughters of the Chinese nation, and reveal ..... , when our country will be prosperous and strong, the nation will be rejuvenated, and the people will enjoy a happy life (Xi Jinping, 2013).

Then, the 'Chinese dream' constitute the identified in 7 clauses and constitute identifier in the other 3 clauses. In example 21, the embedded clause 'realizing the Chinese dream of the great rejuvenation of the Chinese nation' as part of the identified, which respond to 'what is the realization of the Chinese dream'.

21. Realizing the goals of .....and the *Chinese dream* of the rejuvenation of the Chinese nation means that we will make China prosperous and strong, rejuvenate the nation, and bring happiness to the Chinese people. They both embody the ideals of the Chinese people today and represent our forefathers' glorious tradition of untiring pursuit of progress (Xi Jinping, 2013).

22. In this new historical period, the essence of the Chinese dream is to make our country prosperous and strong, revitalize the nation and make the people live better lives (Xi Jinping, 2013).

23. The realization of the Chinese dream will bring the world peace, not turmoil, opportunities, not threats.

In examples 24 and 25, as the outset of the clauses, 'socialism with Chinese characteristics' is identified as the 'correct path' of realizing the Chinese dream, and the embedded clause 'realize the Chinese dream' constitutes the identifier.

24. We must rely firmly on the working class to..... realize the Chinese dream and create a bright future for China's working class. (Xi Jinping, 2013).

25. Socialism with Chinese characteristics is the correct path for leading the people in realizing the Chinese dream that the Party articulated after untold hardships, and all young people should firmly adopt it as a guideline for your life.

In relational processes, the 'Chinese dream' always be seen as the starting point and center of elaboration. Attributive processes elaborate the attribute, identifying processes expound the connotation. Relational processes respond to questions like 'What kind of dream is the Chinese dream', 'The Chinese dream is whose dream' and 'What is the Chinese dream' etc, which construct the 'Chinese dream' into an entity with collectivism, individualism and timeliness.

### C. Other Processes

In series of speeches, the frequency of verbal processes and mental processes is very low. Firstly, verbal processes only appear in 2 clauses—example 26 and 27, in which the 'Chinese dream' serve as verbiage. And the expression 'everybody' and 'was' prove the extensive mass foundation of the 'Chinese dream'.

26. We are now all talking about the Chinese dream. In my opinion, achieving ..... since the advent of modern times (Xi Jinping, 2013).

27. At present, all are discussing the Chinese dream and thinking about how it relates to them and what they need to do to realize it.

Secondly, mental processes only occur in 2 clauses. In example 27, 'how it relates to them' serve as the phenomenon of the mental process realized by 'thinking about'. And in example 28, 'Chinese dream' as the premodifier of 'realizing', while the whole nominal group serve as the phenomenon of 'witness'.

28. I firmly believe that if the people of all ethnic groups unite under the Party's leadership, stand on solid ground and gorge ahead with a pioneering spirit, we can certainly build a prosperous, strong, democratic, culturally advanced, and harmonious modern socialist country by the middle of this century. And all our young people will surely witness and share in the realization of the Chinese dream along with the people of all ethnic groups (Xi Jinping, 2014).

#### D. Circumstance

It can be known from the figure 3 that the 'Chinese dream' constitute circumstance in 6 clauses which are realized by prepositional phrase, and three of the circumstance are of manner. In example 29, the 'Chinese dream' collocated with preposition 'by' to extend the material processes in terms of manner, which expound the function of the 'Chinese dream'.

29. The League should lay a solid intellectual basis for all young Chinese with the Chinese dream, and educate and help them to establish a correct world view, outlook on life and sense of values, always love our country, our people and our nation, and firmly follow the Party along the Chinese path. The League should inspire young people's sense of historical responsibility through the Chinese dream, carry forward the fine tradition of "the League taking action upon the Party's call", combine its work with Party and government work, and organize and mobilize young people to support reform, promote development and maintain stability.

The 'Chinese dream' constitute the circumstance of location in three clauses. In example 30, 'people realizing the Chinese dream' as the premodifier in the form of embedded clause. In example 31 and 32, 'realizing the Chinese dream' also as the premodifier in the form of embedded clause, and the process is described as 'lively practice'.

30. The Chinese students and scholars studying abroad are called upon to integrate your patriotic love, your aspiration to make the country strong and your actions to serve it, and link your dreams with the stupendous efforts of your fellow countrymen to turn the Chinese dream into reality, and by doing so have your names recorded in the annals of China's great renewal.

31. Put your youthful dreams into action in the course of realizing the rejuvenation of the Chinese nation.

32. Young people need to boldly assume the heavy responsibilities that the times impose on you, aim high, be practical and realistic, and put your youthful dreams into action in the course of realizing the rejuvenation of the Chinese nation.

#### E. The Transitivity System and Construction of the 'Chinese Dream'

The above analysis shows that there is a systematic relationship between the transitivity process types and the construction of the 'Chinese dream' (See fig. 2). Expressions with respect to the Chinese dream in relevant series of speech mainly involve the two processes—relational processes and material processes. Relational processes mean to respond to questions about the theoretical construction of Chinese dream like 'What is the Chinese dream', 'Chinese dream is what kind of dream' and 'Chinese dream is whose dream' etc. To be more specific, in attributive processes, 'Chinese dream' always serves as carrier and is reinvested with attribute and possessor; whereas in identifying processes, it always is seen as the identified to expound the connotation and identify the identity. These two kinds of processes complement one another and reveal the collectivism, individualism, temporality and essentialism of the 'Chinese dream'. The theoretical construction serving the reality construction. The latter means reforming the Chinese dream into reality or realizing the Chinese dream which can be represented by material process in grammar. And Chinese dream always serves as a goal in collocation with the verb *realize* in this kind of process clause which constitutes clauses 'realizing Chinese dream' and realizing the Chinese dream of the great rejuvenation of the Chinese nation' that state the goal or conditions, or mobilize people to struggle for this goal.

## V. CONCLUSION

In relevant series of speech on Chinese dream, Chinese dream can function as a participant directly, and can also constitute a participant or a circumstance in collocation with other constituents in transitivity process clauses. Based on material processes, Secretary General Xi constructs the Chinese dream as a process with characteristics of creativity, intentionality and abstraction. At the same time, do things with words, call on people to struggle for realizing the Chinese dream. And based on relational processes, Xi constructs the Chinese dream as an entity unifying the characteristics of collectivism, individualism, temporality and essentialism.

## REFERENCES

- [1] Chen Guohua, Cheng Lixia. (2015). Is 'Zhong Guo Meng' Chinese dream or China dream?. *Foreign Language Teaching and Study*, 6, 909-992, 961.
- [2] Fairclough, N. (2006). *Language and Globalization*. London: Routledge.
- [3] Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold Publishers.
- [4] Halliday, M. A. K. & C. M. I. M. Matthiessen. (2004). In *Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold Publishers.
- [5] Jorgensen, M. & L. Phillips. (2002). *Discourse analysis as Theory and Method*. London: Sage Publications.
- [6] Martin, J. & P. White. (2005). *The Language of Evaluation: Appraisal in English*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- [7] Matthiessen, C. M. I. M., K. Teruya & M. Lam. (2009). *Key Terms in Systemic Functional Linguistics*. London: Continuum.

- [8] Miao Xingwei. (2016). Discourse Construction of Chinese Dream. *Journal of Tianjin Foreign Studies University*, 1, 24-28.
- [9] Peng Xuanwei. (2000). A Comprehensive comparison between English and Chinese texts. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [10] Tian Hailong. (2009). Discourse Study: Category, Angle, Method. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
- [11] Xi Jinping. (2014). The Governance of China. Beijing: Foreign Language Press.
- [12] Zhang Lei. (2016). Functional Study on National Identity Construction of Chinese Dream. *Journal of Tianjin Foreign Language University*, 1, 35-39.

**Min Lian** was born in Lianfen, China in 1992. She received her Bachelor's degree in English from Luliang University, China in 2016.

She is currently a postgraduate in Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, China. Her research interests include English and American literature.

# Developing Authentic-based Instructional Materials for Writing Skill

Andi Kamariah

Universitas Negeri Makassar, Sulawesi Selatan, Indonesia

Djamiah Husain

Universitas Negeri Makassar, Sulawesi Selatan, Indonesia

Haryanto Atmowardoyo

Universitas Negeri Makassar, Sulawesi Selatan, Indonesia

Kisman Salija

Universitas Negeri Makassar, Sulawesi Selatan, Indonesia

**Abstract**—The overall aim of this study is to develop an authentic-based instructional material for writing skill. Therefore, the research applied Research and Development design and used ADDIE model which consists of five stages namely Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation. A Questionnaire was given to the third-semester students in Education Department of UIN Alauddin Makassar as the instrument to find out the students' need analysis. After designing the product, the material was validated by two experts and then implemented to the students. The implementation process of the authentic-based instructional materials was done twice in a small number of students consisted 10 students as the first try out and in a large number of students consisted of 30 students as the second try out. Then, evaluation of the materials was given by the experts, the lecturers, and the students. Data were analyzed using percentages and charts. In addition, the analysis of the data shows that most students, lecturers, and the experts gave positive responses towards the developed materials. The material was revised three times by considering the comments and suggestions by the experts, lecturers, and the students. The model of the developed materials consisted of some aspects namely goal, topic, activities, approach, media, genres, content, and testing strategy. Moreover, the learning process consisted of four parts namely discussion, pre-writing, writing, and post-writing.

**Index Terms**—writing, authentic material, instructional material, research and development, ADDIE model

## I. INTRODUCTION

As a foreign language, English has an important role for students in facing the global challenges. When the students have a good skill in English, they can use the language to communicate with other all over the world, since English also play the role as an international language or we can say it as Lingua Franca. As Anburaj and Christopher (2015) stated that English is one of the obligatory subjects in professional colleges, because it's considered as a language which is accepted globally and mastering English effectively is vital to surviving in today's competitive world. Moreover, they stated that English is a language which is necessary and compulsory for most people.

Talking about English, there are actually four skills should be mastered and one of them is writing skill. Writing skill can be major criteria towards the better academic position and greater educational success. In discussing the importance of writing to learning, Writing skills are the important things for communicating knowledge, especially in educational settings. The ability to communicate specifically may prove to be an achievement in life chances. On the other hand, the ability to represent oneself well on paper will help him secure a job or higher educational chances after graduation, as one will be more attentive to the significance of the quality of the presentation of his written work (Hosseini, et al, 2013). In relation to the argument, Suleiman (2000) also said that:

“Writing is a main element of language, the multidimensional nature of writing must be considered in any reading and language arts program in instructional practices, assessment procedures, and language development.” (p. 155)

In addition, the ability to write well can have a good impact on the learners' lives. Writing can be an art since the artist create the masterpiece. Without the competency and practice of basic writing skills, neither proficient works of written art can be fictional nor can any lives be influenced (Currier, 2008).

However, many learners find independent writing difficult because they have to think about so many things at once. One of the main problems among students is the fact that many of them cannot develop their writing skills, mostly the ones who are making compositions in a foreign language. (Aragon, 2013)

Moreover, there are many students find difficulty when writing because they do not know how to start writing the topic that they should choose. As Arag ́n (2013) concluded that students generally come to write English composition without any idea about organizing their ideas, even in their mother tongue.

To solve the problem, teachers need to be creative in involving all learners, providing appropriate feedback and support so that learners can engage with the whole writing process and be motivated to write. As Arag ́n, et. al. (2013) stated that teachers must take into account other strategies if they want their students to develop effective writing skills.

Teachers should create more interactive ways to teach the subject. There should be a variety of open sessions where students can express their opinions on different topics. In literature, the beauty of novels and poems should be used rather than asking students to deal with questions and answers. This way, teaching and learning of English language can be developed and be more enjoyable (Anburaj and Christopher, 2015).

Many teachers try to make their class interesting by using various methods, techniques, and materials to stimulate learning of language skills effectively. The use of authentic materials in an EFL classroom is something that many teachers have discussed in foreign language teaching in recent years.

Authentic material means the material which is actually not designed for language teaching process, but it is used in the classroom such as real newspaper reports, magazine articles, advertisements, cooking recipes, songs, and also videos. Kilickaya (2004) realized that most of the teachers in the world agree that authentic texts or materials have many advantages if it is used for the language learning process.

Teaching writing by using authentic material seems really suitable to be applied to the students of English as a foreign language as a material in writing, and also is very helpful for the students in generating and organizing their ideas in writing. It is supported by Mishan (2005) who stated that authentic texts provide the best source of rich and varied comprehensible input for language learners. Moreover, it has effects on affective factors essential to learning, such as motivation, empathy and emotional involvement and stimulate 'whole brain processing' which can result in more durable learning. By considering the condition above, the researcher thinks it is needed to develop Authentic-Based Instructional Materials for Writing Skill. Therefore, the researcher formulates the objectives of the research is to find out the model of authentic-based instructional materials for writing skill.

To avoid the research broadening, it is very important to make the limitation of some issues in which by discipline, under discipline applied linguistics which focuses on designing instructional materials for students' writing skill by the using authentic material. By content, this research deals with the English writing skill and it is specified on the Instructional materials for the writing skill improvement of English Education Students in UIN Alauddin Makassar. The researcher used authentic materials which were taken from song lyrics and comic strips from various sources. By activity, the researcher developed instructional material for students writing skill. This research combines two approaches of the research namely: qualitative and quantitative data collection to explore the situation before conducting Research and Development (R&D) where the students were treated instructional materials developed then the researcher conducted the first try out to see the students' perception and make some revisions if needed, then the researcher made revision and conduct the second try out in UIN Alauddin Makassar and large test to see the students' improvement and the effectiveness of the material in writing English by using authentic material. By location, this research was conducted in English Education Department, UIN Alauddin Makassar, South Selatan.

## II. PREVIOUS RELATED STUDIES

Many researchers support the use of authentic material and agree that it exposures to real language and real life, in other words, the students get advantage from being exposed to the language in authentic materials. Moreover, the authentic materials should consider the students' level of knowledge and the students should be helped by their teachers to overcome the difficulties they encounter (Tamo, 2009).

The analysis and evaluation activities of authentic material that can be useful learning and teaching tools can go on to be effective functional text writers (Maroko:2010).

The students must look for more information in magazines, books or the internet if the explanation about a specific topic was not clear enough; there is a lot of teaching material and websites related to writing that will be very helpful for them (Arag ́n, et. Al: 2013).

Masood (2013) also found that authentic materials are very interesting, absorbing and motivating. Change and variety is something very important for human development and upbringing. Authentic materials can serve this purpose very well. Authentic materials can, even more, be useful to those learners who intend to go to a foreign country for higher education.

Aswini and Srinivasan (2016) found that authentic materials are significant since they increase students' motivation for learning the second language. When authentic materials are used in the classroom students are exposed to real discourse. Moreover, authentic materials help learners to acquire a language better than with the use of conventional methods.

Based on the previous studies, the researcher indicates that authentic material in learning and teaching English particularly for writing skill namely writing can give effect to the students' achievement and students' interest. The studies above become the basic theories for the researcher to design material by using authentic material for students' writing skill in English as a foreign language.



### III. LITERATURE REVIEW

#### A. *The Concept of Writing*

Birnie (2015) said that writing is sometimes a gathering skill, when it helps us discover what we know or “collect our thoughts,” it is primarily a sharing skill which involves an active process to organize and formulate the ideas on the paper so that the reader can follow the writer’s message as well as in oral form.

As one of the language skills, writing is used to express ideas. Ghaith (2002) said that writing is a complex process where the writers are allowed to explore thoughts and ideas and make them visible and concrete. Writing also encourages thinking and learning for it motivates communication and makes thought available for reflection. The ideas can be examined, reconsidered, added to, rearranged, and changed when thought is written down. In writing, a writer will be involved in the process of building the large units of ideas from smaller one. They will be linked to form sentences. The sentences will also be linked to form a piece of composition.

Teaching writing is a kind of challenge for most English teachers as Maxom (2009, page 157) stated that the students should have had a chance to listen, speak and read the language to some degree when the teacher starting to get into writing. They are writing in their own words while they have also copied the information down. Students who make no effort to write anything down at beginner level may need special attention because it could be embarrassing for students to admit that they are having difficulties starting out, so the teachers need to be vigilant.

Jacob, et. al. (in Hughes, 2008) point out that in analytic scale, it has five components in writing. They are content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Related on the scope of study, the writer will take all of components of writing namely: (1) content which should be clear to the readers, so that the readers can understand the message that is conveyed and gained from the content of the information itself, (2) organization which includes coherence, order of important, general to specific (specific to general), chronological order, and spatial pattern, (3) vocabulary, (4) Language use which involves correct usage endpoints of grammar such as verbs, nouns and agreement. Specific nouns and strong verbs give a reader a mental image of description, and (5) mechanics which is due to punctuation, capitalization, and spelling appropriately. This aspect is also needed to be considered since it leads readers to understand or recognize immediately what the writer definitely means to express.

#### B. *The Concept of Authentic Material*

The definitions of authentic materials are quite different in literature. What is common in these definitions is exposure to real language and its use in its own community. Widowson (1990) defines an authentic material as the material which is designed for native speakers of English and used in the classroom in a way similar to the one it was designed for. For example, a radio news report brought into the classroom so students can discuss the report on traffic in the city where learners live.

Gebhard (1996) gave more examples of authentic materials that EFL/ESL teachers have used. Some of his examples, which may serve as source material for lesson planning: (1) authentic listening such as radio ads, and songs, (2) authentic visual materials such as photographs, and stamps.(3) authentic printed materials such as newspaper articles, and bus schedules, and (4) realia (real-world objects) such as coins and currency, folded paper, wall clocks, and phones.

There are some benefits in using authentic materials are: (1) giving a positive impact on learner’s motivation, (2) providing authentic cultural information, (3) providing exposure to the real language, (4) relating more closely to learners ' needs, and (5) supporting a more creative approach to teaching (Kilickaya, 2004).

### IV. METHODOLOGY

#### A. *Research Design*

In this research, the researcher applied Research and Development design in order to develop instructional materials for students’ writing skill by the using authentic material as stated by Gay (2006) that Research and Development is the process of researching consumer or the students’ needs and then developing products specifically designed to fulfill those needs. On the other hand, Gall, et al. (2003) stated that Research and Development still plays a minor role in education. Less than one percent of education expenditures are for this purpose. This is probably one of the main reasons why progress in education has lagged far behind progress in other fields.

Then the procedure that was used in this research is based on ADDIE model which consists of: (1) analysis which was very useful in this research as the starting point to know the prior situations in order to design the product, (2) design where the researcher started to make the model based on the analysis, (3) development which consists of some points namely develop assessment instruments, develop instructional strategy, develop and select instructional materials (4) implementation which reflects the continuous modification or revision of the program to make sure maximum efficiency and positive results are obtained, and (5) evaluation which consists of two namely formative and summative. In formative evaluation, the products are typically assessed during the development or early implementation to provide information about how best to revise and modify for improvement. The formative evaluation is also helpful for pilot projects and new programs but can be used for progress monitoring of ongoing programs. Formative evaluation in this research will be held while the development of the product to make a revision of the product. The model is shown in the following diagram:

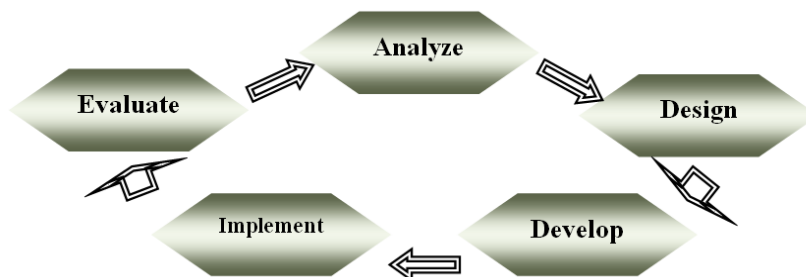


Figure 1 ADDIE Model

### B. Research Subjects

The sample of the research was the third year students for academic year 2017/2018. The first try out consisted of 10 students and the second try out consisted of 30 students.

There were also involved two experts as the validators who read, evaluated, and scored the prototype. Besides, two lecturers of English Education Department, UIN Alauddin Makassar, also participated to give perception about the materials.

### C. Instrument of the Research

There are some kinds of instruments that were used in this research namely: (1) interview where the researcher used semi-structured interview model in which the topics were selected in advance and the researcher determines sequence and wording during interview, and (2) questionnaire in which the respondents had to answer honestly what they feel about the questions or statements was used to know the respondents' perception about the instructional material developed. The questionnaire used Likert Scale that consisted of five options namely strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree.

## V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### A. Need Analysis

The questionnaire of needs analysis tried to find out some important information related to students which might reflect their background and their perception of the existing *Writing* materials.

As explained previously that the sample was the third-semester students at the age of about 18-21 years old. They consisted of 30 students of which there are 22 females and 8 males. All the students were from some regions in Indonesia and mostly from South Sulawesi. Therefore, their native languages and ethnics were based on their regions.

The level of students writing competence could be seen from their writing activities. Based on the answers on the questionnaire, there were some writing activities did by the students such as writing message like SMS, conventional letter, and electronic mail, writing a diary, writing on social media, and writing a poem. Moreover, most of students thought that they were fair in writing the idea/topic clearly, writing the idea/topic by giving examples, writing the idea/topic by providing facts, writing the idea/topic by giving reason, writing the idea/topic chronologically, and writing the idea/topic by using appropriate vocabularies. While most of them thought that they were fair and even bad in writing the idea/topic by using a good grammar. However, most of the students thought that they were good in writing the idea/topic by using appropriate capital letter and punctuation.

Related to the students' needs and interests, most of the students thought that the use media such as video, audio, picture, newspaper, and poem were useful for them. While related to the topic, Education and Holiday were the most interesting topics. Then, continued by the topics about Religion, Food, Art, Language Learning, Media, Society, Travel, and Environment. Later, the topics were used in developing the instructional material.

From the need analysis, it can be inferred Letter is the genre of writing that the students need most when the result of the students answer on the questionnaire shows that 27 students chose agree and strongly agree. The second position of the genre of writing that the students need is Description in which there were 26 students agree and strongly agree. Then, it was continued by Fiction, Non-fiction, Poem, Dialogue, News, and Essay. Moreover, there were some students giving additional genre of writing namely Argumentative and Self-experience text.

After that, the questions were continued by asking the students their preferred writing strategy. Based on the students answer on the questionnaire, most of the students chose writing in a small group was their preferred writing strategy in which there were 27 students or about 90% of them chose strongly agree and agree. Then, it was continued by writing individually in which there 25 students or about 83% of them chose to agree and strongly agree. Writing in a pair is in the third position, and then continued by writing after reading, and writing in a large group.

The questionnaire then continued by asking a question about the students preferred writing activities in which finishing a story is the students' preferred writing activities. There were 28 students or about 94% chose to finish a story as their preferred writing activities. Then, there were 27 students or about 90% of them chose to describe something and there were 26 students or about 87% of them chose to summarize and to review as their preferred writing activities.

There were 25 students or about 83% of them agreed that writing together, telling picture, developing a title, and reviewing book are their preferred writing activities. Then, there were more than 50% of the students agreed that re-arrange jumble sentences/paragraph, writing a letter, writing dialogue, and writing advertisement/poster/banner are their preferred writing activities.

At the end of the questionnaire, the researcher added some questions related to the students' learning style. The researcher considered that knowing the learning style is needed for arranging the strategies which will be used in the classroom. As Husain (2011) stated that:

“Considering of learning styles component as decisive input might help teachers overcome many pedagogical drawback, especially those not paying attention to diversity, eventually, and creativity.”

From the students' answers on the categories of learning style, it can be concluded that most students' learning style was auditory, in which there 43% out of 100% of students' chose the categories of auditory learning style. Then, there were 30% of them chose visual and 27% of them chose kinesthetic learning style.

*B. Design and Development Phase*

Based on the need analysis and the theory of teaching Writing, the researcher offers the following model as the model of Authentic-Based Instructional Materials for Writing Skill. The new materials employed topical-based syllabus as well as the task-based syllabus. The topics are selected according to the importance of the topics to the students' lives. The materials also used task-based syllabus since each unit of the course book is design for students to do different writing tasks.

The figure below shows the model of authentic-based instructional materials for writing skill which is developed through this study. The authentic materials were selected by using some criteria namely: (1) Present real-life English, (2) Present accurate information, (3) Consist of topics of general interest such as friendship, nature, etc, (4) Present the require genres of writing such as: descriptive, procedure, etc, (5) Consists of materials which were considered to be polite in term of context, and (6) Meet the purpose of the audience (students of English Education, UIN Alauddin Makassar). Moreover, the materials were selected by considering the result of the students' need analysis which was taken before developing the model.



Figure 2 Model of Authentic-Based Instructional Materials for Writing Skill

As can be seen in figure 2, there are some aspects that support the instructional materials namely: goal, topic, activities, approach, media, genres, content, and testing strategy. The materials are intended to make students have competency in English writing skill especially in writing for general communication. Therefore, to achieve the goal, the instructional material consists of some units and each unit has a topic that is based on the students' interest and the type of text which is being discussed. The topics are about education, holiday, food, art, language learning, media, society, travel, and environment which are based on the students choice in the questionnaire of need analysis.

In each unit, there are some activities which are based on the stages of writing as Birnie (2015) stated namely pre-writing, writing, editing, and revising. The stages of writing are done by the students individually, in pair-work, or group discussion. The materials also present some types of text in each unit namely: procedure, descriptive, recount, narration, and announcement. Each unit uses some kinds of media such as audio, visual, and audio-visual. Since the material is based on the authentic materials, the media is taken from some resources which are actually not designed for teaching but they are brought into the classroom and used in the material to teach writing. The media could be a picture, video, song, etc. Another aspect which can support the effectiveness of the instructional materials is the approach used. Therefore, this instructional material uses process approach and product approach.

Related to the focus of the research which uses authentic materials, the use of media also has an important role in this instructional material. The media used in this instructional material are audio, visual, and audio-visual such as a song, picture, and video. Moreover, the genre of writing used in this instructional is based on the students' need analysis. As explained before that there are some genres of writing that the students need such as a letter, description, fiction (narrative), non-fiction (explanation), etc.

Overall, the content of the materials is based on the students' needs and interest which are shown in the needs analysis. Besides, the cultural background of the students is also considered as well as the use of authentic materials in the instructional materials.

Lastly, to measure this model is effective or not, we can use writing test to measure the students' skill in writing English text. The indicator of the students writing is based on the five components by Jacob namely: (1) content which refers to the idea written by the writers; (2) organization which coherence, order of important, general to specific (specific to general), chronological order, and spatial pattern; (3) language use which involves correct usage endpoints of grammar; (4) mechanics which due to capitalization, punctuation, and spelling appropriately, and (5) vocabulary.

Each unit of the instructional materials was designed to meet course objective namely the students are expected to be able to develop their writing skill in a good simple paragraph of any types using a variety of sentence types and proper vocabulary and language structure following the steps in writing process.

After designing the model of the instructional materials, then the researcher design the model of the learning process of the authentic-based instructional material for writing skill. The learning process of the *Writing I* subject consists of four main components namely: Discussion, Pre-writing, Writing, and Post-writing. Before doing the writing process, there is a discussion part in the instructional material to give the students chance to get prior knowledge about the text that will be related to the writing process in each chapter. The discussion also consists of the language focus that is related to the topic. In the discussion part, the students are given a chance to do some activities such as reading, discussing, and doing some activities related to the discussion.

After discussion part, the instructional material gives chance to the students to do a pre-writing activity in which can be done by some activities namely brainstorming, outlining, or generating idea based on the topic.

Then, in the writing process, the students will have a chance to write individually or in a group. Lastly, the post-writing part in the instructional material consists of some activities such as self-editing or peer-editing and revising in which the students will revise their writing based on the editing of their writing.

### C. The Expert's Validation of the Prototype

After designing the prototype of the instructional material, the researcher asked an expert to validate the prototype before it was used in the implementation phase. The validation used a questionnaire as the instrument to see whether the prototype was applicable or not. Then the questionnaire was scored by using Likert's scale. The result of the evaluation is shown in the following figure:

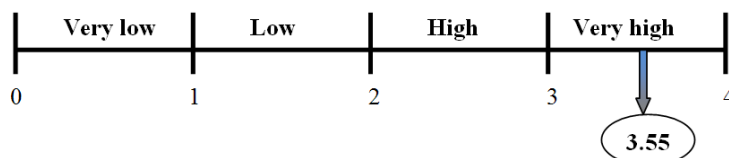


Figure 3 The level of validity of the new writing instructional materials

### D. Implementation Phase

In this phase, the prototype of the materials was tried out to the English Education Department of IAIN Alauddin Makassar. The try out was held twice in which the first try out was held in a small number of students and the second try out was held in a large number of students.

#### a) First Try Out

The prototype was firstly tried out towards the small-group of students. There were ten students participated in the tryout, and at the end of the tryout, they evaluated the materials using a questionnaire of evaluation.

#### b) Second Try Out

After being revised, the prototype of the new writing instructional materials then tried out in a large classroom. There were thirteen students of the third-semester students of English Education Department of UIN Alauddin Makassar who joined *Writing I* course became the subjects of the tryout. Students were taught using the new writing instructional materials and also did some writing activities. After that, they were given a questionnaire to evaluate the new materials.

### E. Evaluation Phase

Answering the critics and suggestions from the experts, lecturers, and students in the testing, the materials were then improved in some parts. The revisions of the product or the authentic-based instructional materials in this research were conducted in three times. Firstly, the revision was done after the expert validated the first draft. Secondly, the revision was done after the first try out in a small group. Thirdly, the revision was done after the second try out in a large group.

TABLE 1  
THE REVISIONS OF THE PROTOTYPE

NO.	Categories	Comments and Suggestions	Draft
1.	Title of the topic	“ My Best Friend” to “Describing People”	Draft 1
2.	Layout	Should be colorful, not in black and white only	Draft 1
3.	Content	The words “Learning Objectives” change to “Learning Goals”	Draft 1
4.	Content	Correct some grammatical	Draft 1 Draft 2 Draft 3
5.	Content	Some pictures are not familiar	Draft 3
6.	Worksheet	Add some exercise about the language structure and vocabulary	Draft 3
7.	Worksheet	In the column of peer editing, add a checklist to guide the students in making the editing	Draft 3
8.	Learning method	The activities should be more simple since the material is Writing 1	Draft 2

Related to the students’ and lecturers’ perceptions which were taken by using a questionnaire that consists of some items namely the layout, learning goals, content, organization and design, students’ worksheet, learning atmosphere, and the learning method, it was found that most students and lecturers gave positive perception towards the instructional materials.

Moreover, there are some comments given by the experts namely: (1) the lessons in each topic is sequenced in good order because it is organized from explanation of the topic and provide exercises or tasks from easy to difficult or simple to complex, (2) the materials will be very helpful to develop students writing skills due to process-product method, and (3) the activities are attractive.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the research discussions, the researcher concluded that after analyzing the existing materials and students’ needs it is found some information which is crucial for the new materials development namely: (a) writing instructional materials should consider the students’ competence in writing, (b) writing instructional materials should consider the use of media which is appropriate with the students’ level and interest, (c) the instructional materials should present some topics in which the topic should be based on the students’ need and interest. The topic is important in the writing process because the topic is a determiner factor when the writer wants to develop the idea. Therefore the topic should also be based on the students’ experience, (d) the instructional material should present various genres of writing such as procedure, narration, description, etc. Each type of writing also should provide the students’ some activities to build their knowledge in grammar and vocabulary, (e) the instructional materials should contain writing components, (f) writing instructional materials should consider the writing strategy which is used based on the topic, (g) the instructional materials should provide some activities that can improve the skills which are needed in writing, (h) he instructional materials should present writing activities in process to make students learning writing step-by-step or from easy to difficult, (i) writing activities should be interesting to students. For that reason, instructional design should arrange tasks and activities in the ways that make students motivate to learning, such as writing together, re-arrange jumbled sentence, finishing story, etc, (j) the instructional materials should be arranged from simple to complex, (k) writing instructional materials should consider the students learning style.

Furthermore, the research also revealed the students’ writing needs as they considered the following five skills as important: write the ideas of writing clearly, write the ideas chronologically or in a good order, write text using correct vocabulary, write using correct grammar and structure, and write using correct spelling and punctuation.

The model of the authentic-based instructional materials consists of some elements which are related each other namely: goal, topic, activities, approach, media, genres, content, and testing strategy. Moreover, the materials also based on the learning process model consisted of four parts of activity namely discussion, pre-writing, writing, and post-writing.

Then the researcher suggests that in developing materials, the students’ needs and interests should be taken into account as the starting point. The needs analysis will be helpful for lecturers to decide the contents of the materials and the ways to present the materials. The contents of the materials should be relevant to students’ daily life and the approach and methodology used should help them learn and experience the new language. Moreover, developing materials followed the phases of ADDIE will help teachers to produce effective materials that fit the students’ needs and interests.

REFERENCES

[1] Anburaj & Christopher. (2015). Barriers in Teaching English. *IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)* Volume 20, Issue 9, Ver. VI (Sep. 2015) PP 67-70

[2] Aragón, Jiménez, et. al. (2017). An Analysis of the Writing Skill Difficulties of the English Composition I Students at the Foreign Language Department of the University of El Salvador. Thesis. El Salvador: School of Arts and Sciences Foreign Language Department University of El Salvador.

[3] Aswini, P., & Srinivasan, R. (2016). The Importance of Using Authentic Materials in Language Learning. *International Journal of English Language Literature and Humanities (IJELLH)*; Vol. 4, Issue X, October pp.392-399



- [4] Birnie, B. F. (2015). *A Teacher's Guide To Organizational Strategies For Thinking And Writing*. Maryland: The Rowman & Littlefield Publishing Group, Inc.
- [5] Currier D. (2008). Essay on the importance of writing – need feedback please. *Asian ESL Journal*. Retrieved from Gloria, Essay Writing Feedback/EssayForum.com on 8/17/2010 Journal 80 pp. 183-199.
- [6] Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., Gall, J. P. (2003). *Educational Research: an Introduction 7<sup>th</sup> Edition*. New York: Longman.
- [7] Gay, L. R., et al. (2006). *Educational Research Competencies for Analysis and Applications: Eight Edition*. Columbus Ohio. Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.
- [8] Gebhard, J.G. (1996). *Teaching English as a Foreign Language: A Teacher Self-Development and Methodology Guide*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- [9] Ghaith, Ghazi. (2002). Writing. Retrieved December 2nd, 2013, from <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/writing>.
- [10] Hosseini, Monirosadat; Taghizadeh, Mohamad Ehsan; Abedin, Mohamad Jafre Zainol; Naseri, Elham. (2013). In the Importance of EFL Learners' writing Skill: Is there any Relation between Writing Skill and Content Score of English Essay Test?. *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences*. 6 (2013) pp. 1-12
- [11] Hughes, Arthur. (2008). *Testing for Language Learners*. UK: Cambridge University.
- [12] Kilickaya, Ferit. (2004). Authentic Materials and Cultural Content in EFL Classrooms. *The Internet TESL Journal*. Retrieved on December 2nd, 2013, from <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Kilickaya-AuthenticMaterial.html>.
- [13] Maroko, Geoffrey M. (2010). The authentic materials approach in the teaching of functional writing in the classroom. Kenya: Kenyatta University Department of English and Linguistics
- [14] Masood, Asif. (2013). Exploiting Authentic Materials for Developing Writing Skills at Secondary Level. *Journal of Literature, Languages and Linguistics: An Open Access International Journal* Vol.1 2013 pp15-25
- [15] Maxom, Michelle. (2009). *Teaching English as a Foreign Language for Dummies*. England: A John Wiley and Sons, Ltd, Publications.
- [16] Mishan, Freda. (2005). *Designing Authenticity into Language Learning Materials*. UK: Intellect Books.
- [17] Pasand, P. G. & Haghi, E. B. (2013). Process-Product Approach to Writing: the Effect of Model Essays on EFL Learners' Writing Accuracy. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, Vol. 2 (1) PP75-79
- [18] Suleiman M. F. (2000). The process and product of writing: Implications for elementary school teachers. ERIC Digest, ERIC Identifier ED 442299.
- [19] Tamo, D. (2009). The Use of Authentic Materials in Classrooms. *Albania: Linguistic and Communicative Performance Journal*. Volume 2, PP74-78.
- [20] Widdowson, H. (1990). *Aspects of Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Retrieved December 2nd, 2013, from [http://members.shaw.ca/elliottsite/pdfs/Authentic%20Materials\\_%20An%20Overview.pdf](http://members.shaw.ca/elliottsite/pdfs/Authentic%20Materials_%20An%20Overview.pdf).



**Andi Kamariah** was born in Ujung Pandang, South Sulawesi, Indonesia on August 15, 1985. She is a doctoral candidate of English Education Department at the State University of Makassar. He completed his bachelor's and master's degree in English Education Department with a focus on writing skill. She is a senior teacher at Senior High School in Gowa, Sulawesi Selatan.



**Djamiah Husain** was born in Sengkang on May 5, 1948. She is a professor of English Education at English Department of State University of Makassar, Indonesia. She graduated her graduate program of English Language and Literature at IKIP Ujung Pandang, Indonesia 1976. She got her Diploma of Teaching English as a Foreign Language at English Language institute, Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand 1993. She got her Master of English Language Studies at University of Hasanuddin, Indonesia 1999, and she completed her Doctor of English Language Studies at University of Hasanuddin, Indonesia 2003. She had been a presenter in many national and international Conferences and also she had published many articles and books. The last three books published: (1) *Fostering Autonomous Learning Inside and Outside the Classroom in Language Learning*, in 2011. (2) *Stop Plagiarism with Mendeley*, in 2016. (3) *Introduction to Pragmatics*, in 2017.



**Haryanto Atmowardoyo** was born in Purbalingga, Central Java, Indonesia on October 29, 1959. He is a professor of English Education at English Department of State University of Makassar, Indonesia. He obtained his doctoral degree in English Education at IKIP Jakarta in 1999. He has presented some papers in international conferences: *Research Methods in TEFL*; *Grammatical Error in Indonesian EFL Learners' Writing* (May 2007, Jakarta, Annual Linguistic Conferences of Atmajay University); *A Lesson for International Journal* (Hanoi, Vietnam, August 2010, the 8<sup>th</sup> Asia TEFL Conference), *Qualitative research in TEFL Studies* (Makassar, 2nd ICOLE Conference, December 2010) and *Learners' Perception on the Personal and Professional Competences of Effective and Ineffective EFL Teachers* (21st Century Academic Forum Conference, Harvard, University, Boston US in 2016)



**Kisman Saliya** was born in Enrekang, South Sulawesi, Indonesia on June 22, 1953. He is a senior lecturer in English Department of State University of Makassar, Indonesia. He obtained his doctoral degree in English Language Education at State University of Malang in 2004. He is now teaching Academic and Creative Writing Courses at undergraduate and graduate level at English Department UNM, Indonesia. His research interests are in the Teaching of Academic and Creative Writing by Indonesian young Learners English, and Language Testing.

# Dynamic Assessment in Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory: Origins and Main Concepts

Samran Daneshfar

Department of English Language and Literature, University of Zanjan, Iran

Mehdi Moharami

Faculty of Education, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia

**Abstract**—Language assessment is the significant component of foreign language learning/ teaching. An aim of language assessment is to find about how much the process of education improves learners' knowledge of the target language. One alternative to standardized testing, Dynamic Assessment derived from Vygotsky's sociocultural theory offers a new insight into the field of assessment through integrating instruction and assessment. Dynamic assessment is a method of conducting a language testing to investigate and highlight the individual learner's possessed skills and potential development. The present study is going to display an overview of the importance of dynamic assessment in L2 learning, emphasizing the origins and principal concepts involved in the process. The study highlights the derivation of dynamic assessment from Vygotsky's prominent sociocultural theory. Then it brings about an introduction to zone of proximal development the concept of which learner's cognitive development results through the application of dynamic assessment. Later the study discusses dynamic assessment in detail and introduces its differences with the traditional testing formats as well as introducing forms of dynamic assessment.

**Index Terms**—dynamic assessment, sociocultural theory, zone of proximal development

## I. INTRODUCTION

No EFL program can deny the significance of testing in evaluating the learner's success in learning the target language. The assessment procedure has been currently taken as a sole issue which is applied for different purposes such as prior to learning, for placement reasons or within or after educating like tests in order to get certificates or achievement purposes (Shohamy et.al., 2008). Macrine and Sabbatino (2008) state that new methods to testing like performance, standardized as well as classroom-based ones isolate the test takers over the period of assessment. Poehner (2008) states that one of the difficulties in assessment is that students echo their frustration about the assessment when they are supposed to take systematic methods of testing to confirm their knowledge of the courses or their competency to lead to the following level of education.

Developments in language teaching methodology in the course of time have brought about parallel developments in the field of language assessment. Alderson (2005) emphasizes the importance of assessment in language teaching and learning and argues that while diagnostic tests involve feedback and development recommendations, they are the kind of assessment adequate education purposes. Lantolf and Poehner (2008) believe that although a close connection is a vital requirement for matching education and evaluation, these two procedures are merged well in a new assessment approach originated from L.S. Vygotsky works termed as Dynamic Assessment (DA). The aim of present study is to bring a review of DA in L2 learning as a significant change throughout the process of assessment derived from Vygotsky's (Cultural-historical) Sociocultural Theory (SCT hereafter).

## II. SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

According to Murphy (2008), the pioneering founder of DA is the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky, and it is based on his unique concept of zone of proximal development (ZPD hereafter) within SCT (Cultural-historical theory). Children are immersed in a social environment where it represents them with all social, cultural and interpersonal experiences. The engagement in cultural connections proves the influential impact of social environment as a key source of development. No human, for instance, born a culturally proficient member; it is necessary to be taught the appropriate cultural practices within the interactions in a society (Rogoff, 2003). Veresov (2017) illustrates that every function in cultural development appears twice: first among people, at the inter-psychological level and later in within the child as an intra-psychological category. The other fundamental concept of the theory according to Veresov is that social relations, social reality is the source of development, and development is the process of how the social becomes an individual.

Poehner (2008) mentions that based on the political and historical conditions, there was a delay of several decades for Vygotsky's outstanding works to be accessible for western psychologists, and has got the attention since the last two decades. The learning in this theory is defined as a social process formed by human intelligence in the culture or society



the learner lives. The prime concept of Vygotsky's notion highlights the fundamental role of social interaction in the process of cognition development. (Poehner, 2008). According to SCT, teaching is the process of helping learners' developing mental functions. In addition, in SCT, teaching is the process of collaborating with students in the execution of incipient mental functions (Roebuck, 2001).

In DA assessment and instruction are brought together and integration occurs while intervention is inserted within the method of assessment aiming at interpreting the individuals' abilities and leading them to higher levels of functioning (Lidz & Gindis, 2003). Luria (1979, as cited in Poehner, 2008) states that such integration is based on Vygotsky's developmental perception where progress in the "higher forms of consciousness" like "voluntary control of memory, perception, and attention," happens within a method called "internalization" by which human interactions are representing these functions in early stages and later are converted to higher cognition capabilities which lead to the incorporation of social existence to psychological nature (p. 5).

According to SCT, individuals' responsiveness to support, or mediation, which is sensitive to their present level of ability, discloses cognitive functions that have not yet fully developed. Furthermore, proper mediation allows individuals to surpass their independent performance, and this, in return, stimulates further development (Poehner, 2007). Therefore, DA aims at what individuals are able to do in cooperation with others rather than what they can do alone (Poehner, 2007). The primary concern of DA based on Vygotsky should be the process rather than the final product; furthermore, based on Lantolf and Thorne (2006), the process of investigating the method instead of the outcome would be the sole adequate approach for understanding and signifying the human mental functioning. They continue that this is the distinguishing feature of DA, which the developmental process is the mean of learner's future performance prediction.

### III. ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT

Lier (2008) claims that ZPD is the key feature of Vygotsky's cultural-historical theory. Perhaps this notion is the most outstanding and internationally realised scientific heritage of Vygotsky. It is devised to complement the need for a theory about the relationship between specific subject-matter instruction and its consequences for psychological development in child learning (Veresov, 2004). The zone in this concept is mentioned to focus attention on the relationship between instruction and development (Chaiklin, 2003).

To bridge this need, Vygotsky proposes a different approach. He claims that "the child development is not a linear process": in addition, "there are various developmental levels". Based on Vygotsky's notion, in a child's mental functioning coexist two levels of development. First, "the actual level of development" in which the child can do independently and second, the potential level of development that can be detectable by the tasks the child can accomplish in cooperation the teacher or with a more competent peer. He continues that from these two levels there should be distance between the levels (Veresov, 2004). Brėdikytė (2011) argues that Vygotsky adopted ZPD from others, but gave it a new life in his theoretical framework and used it in two contexts – school learning and play.

The commonest meaning of ZPD is the Vygotsky's words which states it as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). ZPD in cultural-historical theory emphasises "levels of development" in child or learner at beginning levels of learning. In addition, development results from the interaction of the child with a teacher or a more capable peer. Therefore, the fundamental role of education throughout the transition from different levels of development, i.e. the actual to the potential level is unquestionable. Vygotsky's ZPD in applied contexts is defined by the difference between what a child can accomplish unaided and what she can achieve in collaboration with others, both in assessment and in classroom learning situations (Kozulin et al., 2003). The general conception of ZPD, as Chaiklin (2003) mentions, is an interaction between a more competent person and a less competent one on a task, so that the interaction will result in the development of the less competent one.

Lantolf et al. (2015) indicate that ZPD does not represent a sole type of the procedure of improvement, rather it is an educational medium applied by the educators in order for a better understanding of the learners' upcoming capabilities. The differences in levels of development or what the individual can do independently or what he or she can do with cooperation are understandable through mediation over time. In other words, it is the concept of mediation in a learning context which defines the transition of the learner from actual levels to the potential ones, where the mediation is given by the teacher or the more "intelligent peer". It can be concluded in this words that in CHT any function in a child's development appears twice: first on the social plane as an inter-psychological function and then within the child as an intra-psychological function. The transition from inter-to intra-psychological functioning takes place in ZPD. (Frawley & Lantolf, 1985)

### IV. DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT

The concept of mediation (defined in section V) in the zone of proximal development leads educators to consider the notion of pedagogical applications in the classroom contexts. DA is a sub-category of ZPD emerged from Vygotsky's Cultural-historical theory (SCT) which education and evaluation are allied as the elements of that instructional process

(Lantolf & Becket, 2009). The term DA originated in a relevant study for the purpose of identifying child's behavioural abnormality which was applied mostly in fields like language impairment as well as learning difficulties up to now. However, other practitioners have started to widen the use of DA practices to second language assessment and pedagogy (e.g., Lantolf & Poehner 2004 a & b, Poehner 2005, 2007, 2008, Poehner & Lantolf 2005).

Bekka (2010) claims that the interaction between the educators and the students in DA creates their ZPD in which the learners' learning potential appears. In other words, to assess a learner's learning potential means to create his or her ZPD through this kind of interaction. DA is concerned with students' learning through making integration between assessment and instruction. The integration here happens when the evaluation process is accompanied by intervention as a way for determining a learner's capabilities and consequently manage the student to higher levels of functioning. In a better explanation, Poehner (2008) argues that the approach highlights to define a child's ZPD and the ability to benefit in cooperation with a more capable person. The higher the amount of benefit attained by mediation (the fundamental concept in DA), the greater ZPD is. This theoretical perspective posits a mediated rather than a direct relationship between humans and the world. As mentioned earlier, based on CHT, just as physical tools mediate our concrete activities that a culture represents, psychological tools mediate mental activities which these tools are internalized interactions resulting from cooperation with others and the application of symbolic artifacts (Poehner, 2008).

Tzuril (2001) states that DA points to an evaluation of "thinking, perception, learning and problem solving" (concepts highlighted in ZPD) through a teaching procedure aimed at changing cognitive functioning. DA is considered as an overall assessment method which gives the ability to perceive individual's subconscious, emotional and behavioural levels and the interconnections of them. Moreover, the differential aspect of DA to other methods is the focus this method puts on the individual and potential strengths in order to profit from instruction (Smit, 2010).

The procedure of DA has three stages, pre-test, mediated period and post-test. The pretest is followed by the instruction phase, which the child is assisted through instruction in the specified areas which he/she needs help as defined in the pretest. The instruction time or mediated learning experience (derived from Feuerstein's MLE, 1979) provides the learner with related tasks and help him to think about principles and ideas involved in the tests. This era is an adequate opportunity to change the learner's performance within the child's ZPD. At the end, the same pretest is applied as a posttest to mark the final session of the whole assessment process (Mardani & Tavakoli, 2011).

## V. MEDIATION

The nature of human underlies interactions with the surrounding in cultural social contexts toward the process of socialization. These interactions require the person engaging in close relation with others and objects to build the theoretical understanding of every communicative process. No doubt the significant means of endowing communication in the society is through language. The mere importance of conceptualizing the language requires the child or the learner to attend in close interaction with the environment and the people.

In a significant differentiation between German, American and Japanese classrooms, Stienler and Hiebert (1999, cited in Kozulin, et.al 2003, p 1) underscore the importance of a teacher as a mediator between the students and the knowledge in Japanese classroom in a successful educational context. Mediation serves as a keyword in a considerable number of recent studies, some of them inspired by Vygotsky's SCT and some developed independently like Feuerstein (Kozulin 2003). Moreover, Vygotsky in his outstanding concept of SCT argues that the human mental functioning is a mediated process i.e. shaped by cultural artifacts, activities and concepts (Lantolf et. al., 2015) moreover "mediation is the creation and use of artificial auxiliary means of acting—physically, socially, and mentally" (Lantolf, 2011, p.25).

Like ZPD, mediation is essential in DA. Though ZPD is about the individual's potential growth, mediation offers an opportunity for such a growth. There are two distinct notions for the understanding of mediation, mediation through applying tools like computers (Wertsch, 2007), and mediation as the notion of interactions with another human being (Kozulin, 2003). Tools and signs are created by humans and society to achieve a specific need. In particular, psychological tools, also known as semiotic tools, such as language are considered crucial for higher order mental functioning (Kozulin, 2003). Individuals' cognitive development relies on their mastery of these tools. However, these semiotic tools may not work effectively without a human mediator. Therefore, in a learning context, students may not learn by just being exposed to learning materials if the material is not adjusted by a tutor (human mediator).

Kozulin (2003), states that human mediation is the most effective kind of mediation for pedagogical purposes. Vygotsky (1978) defines getting assistance from a more capable person as what the mediation is and therefore mediated activities are explained as the mediums in order to point one's awareness toward the object of consideration applying cooperation. The interactions based on Vygotsky are the prominent aspect of the child's cognition progress, he continues that education and progress or particularly the improvement of higher mental functions happen as the consequences of cooperation in earlier stages between people. Signs and tools materialize the interactions to accomplish a special requirement or to resolve a specific problem. They, however, would involve oral formulations or demands as a sign addressed to the assistance given for solving the task. (Vygotsky, 1978).

Lantolf and Poehner (2004a) highlighted that in DA a specific kind of mediated assistance is provided for the learners; therefore, what makes a kind of assessment dynamic or static (defined in section VI) is not the instrument itself but whether or not mediation is added to the course of the assessment. They explain that multiple-choice, fill-in-

the-blank, open-ended essay or even oral proficiency tests are in themselves (in nature) neither dynamic nor static instruments. As stated in Poehner and Lantolf (2005) the significant aspect of Feuerstein's 'mediated learning experience' is that environmental stimuli do not directly affect a child but are filtered through some other person, usually a peer above the child's level, who selects and causes the improvement to the child.

Grigorenko (2009) claims that in the concept of ZPD the interactions which occur between the learners and more capable peers predicts the learners' true and closest level of development. The interactions happen as a way to accomplish the students' lack of understanding. The interactors could possibly be both humans as well as other mediums such as textbooks or computers. Shrestha and Coffin (2012) refer to mediation as the intentional cooperation between the teacher or the texts and the students; therefore, mediation could bring a close interaction between the teacher and the learner which consequently leads to the students' improvement under this cooperation.

## VI. DYNAMIC AND STATIC ASSESSMENT

DA is regarded as opposed to the traditional methods of testing, or the term that is devised by the specialists in the paradigm of DA as static assessment, in order to distinguish their theoretical perspective from the old types of assessment. While static assessment provides significant information about the student's mental performance, the design of this kind of testing is not directed to present that type of information achieved applying DA approaches. This traditional tests lack aspects such as students' learning potential, mediation procedures, the learning process and special cognitive roles (Tzuriel, 2001). In addition, the major drawback of SA is due to the lack of capability in the way to reveal students' cognitive abilities (Smit, 2010). According to Poehner (2008), assessment and instruction currently exist in a dichotomous relationship. Another significant aspect of DA practice is its integrative facet. The unification of assessment and instruction is grounded in Vygotsky's understandings of development. Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002, as cited in Poehner, 2008) argue that DA offers a theoretically motivated approach to integrating assessment and instruction, something of great importance to learners. With this in mind, DA procedures are crucial to teachers and students and this importance is because of providing a deep insight into the learner capabilities by which are representations of their weak performances and a specific method for support.

Another important aspect in which DA becomes beneficial is that it looks for the future performance of the students through collaboration. Feuerstein et al., (1979) argue that the traditional concepts of the examiner and examinee roles in the course of assessment should be replaced with the teacher-student relationship and intervention which result in the success of the student. Vygotsky (1978) insisted that the assessment of child's ability through a collaborative activity was a better prediction of future cognitive functioning than a measure of independent performance through traditional tests of intelligence. The collaboration as Vygotsky describes is within the concept of ZPD; therefore, DA should be able to describe the child's ever-changing ability to learn with help or guidance. By collaboration or assisted performance we ask the child to solve the matters beyond his/her mental age with some kind of cooperation and to see how far this cooperation will help the child and as an indicator of the learner's maturing (growing) psychological functions. Brown et al. (2006) differentiate DA from traditional assessment in which DA emphasizes on children as learners. They focus not only on what the children learn but on how learning occurs. They claim that at the time of the assessment, the assessor intends to observe learning features which could assist in identifying the learner's capabilities and accomplishment to the collaboration.

## VII. TYPES OF DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT

As mentioned above, this is the mediation which makes an assessment dynamic or static; accordingly, the way the examiner mediates is of crucial importance. Mediation can be applied in different styles and Interventionist and Interactionist types are the two main identified methods of DA according to Lantolf and Poehner (2004, a) which usually involve three stages: pretest, mediation phase, and at the end post-test. The distinction between these two procedures varies on the method the mediation is applied throughout the course of the assessment.

### A. Interactionist DA

Interactionist DA as Poehner (2008) states is rooted in Vygotsky's ZPD. The assistance/ mediation in the interactionist procedure of DA derives from the interaction of the learner and the teacher, furthermore sensitive to ZPD of the learner. It aims at the development of the individual or group learner, despite the effort required and with no attention for a predetermined endpoint (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004, a). No restriction is on the way the mediation, and the mediator applies what he considers most efficient to lead the learners beyond their present level of development. There is no pre-planning for leading questions, hints or help; however, the mediation is derived from the collaborative interaction in the form of dialogues (mediated) in which the teacher responds to the examinee's needs while changing the mediation continually to achieve the proper procedure. (Lantolf & Poehner, 2011)

In other words, interactionist DA is interpretative and abandons the examinee-examiner relationship in favour of a tutor-student relationship in assessment. In fact, it is in line with Vygotsky's preference for cooperative dialoguing in assessment (Poehner, 2005). Rather than employing a set of predetermined assistance as in interventionist DA, the assistance in interactionist DA develops from a dialogic communication between the student and the teacher as a

reaction to learners' ZPD. Both sides of the interaction cooperate to achieve the ultimate aim of prosperity (Shrestha & Coffin, 2012).

### *B. Interventionist DA*

As opposed to interactionist, in the interventionist method, the tasks and hints are developed to attempt predicting the learners' difficulties which they probably encounter during the course of the assessment. In this approach, mediation is arranged in the form of implicit to explicit types such as hints, prompts, and leading questions. The mediator follows the process precisely and leads the learner from hint to hint (clues) and supports the learner to choose the correct answer which he/she thinks (Lantolf & Poehner, 2011). It remains closer to certain forms of static assessment and retains the psychometric properties (standardization and scores) of traditional tests. The endpoint for the learner to reach is pre-specified and the support is offered and assessed on the basis of the learner's speed to reach the end point (Poehner, 2008).

As stated earlier, there are two kinds of mediation, standardized which all the applicants receive the similar helping hints and non-standardized, which the hints are defined based on the learner's requirements. In the later, it is most likely that the learners do not receive the same assistance regarding the quality and quantity (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004, b).

It is important to note that within DA the examiner-examinee relationship is based on the idea of teaching and helping, for example, learners are allowed to pose questions and receive immediate feedback. DA, on the other hand, seeks to promote development, therefore, can neither limit nor pre-specify the types of mediation required and must allow the appropriate assistance to emerging in the dialogue between examiner and examinee as they jointly engage in concrete tasks (Lidz & Gindis, 2003).

### *C. Interventionist Sandwich Format*

The sandwich format involves three stages called pretest, mediation (instruction) and posttest. Firstly, the pretest is administered to the applicants; then, the mediation phase is applied as instruction activities (that is pre-planned based on the learner requirements according to the answers to the pretest); and at the end, the same pretest is applied to derive the information as the posttest. As the mediation here occurs between the two pretest and posttest phases, it is termed as sandwiched/ instruction. Mediation in the sandwich structure can be either individualized or group-centred. In the group format, the application of instruction is equal to all the attendees and there is no personalization, therefore, the kind of help to the group style is more implicit in contrast to a more explicitly applied instruction to sole individuals (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 2002).

Poehner (2008) mentions that Budoff and his colleagues were among the first researchers to experiment with the sandwich format, also called the "pretest-intervention/training-post-test" format. Such an approach to mediation resembles the treatment phase in that the examiner follows a standardized procedure to help the learners in problem-solving strategies. The post-test phase is applied to firstly, compare the learners' performance considering the fact that whether or not experienced help throughout the process, and secondly in order to investigate that in what ways the learners have seen the progression (Grigorenko, 2009).

In a specific study of sandwich form, Kozulin and Garb (2001) applied a DA procedure for developing L2 English reading comprehension ability among academically at-risk high school students. The design included three stages in the pretest stage students were given a standard L2 English test used in pre-academic centres at colleges and universities in Israel. The test used by Kozulin and Garb (2001) contained six sections that stimulated examinees to use cognitive strategies in order to successfully complete reading comprehension tasks. The results obtained from the pretest stage were analyzed in order to develop precise guidelines allowing teachers to mediate each of the six test sections interactively and to ensure that mediation was consistent from one assessor to the other. The guidelines developed were used in the course of the mediation stage. The goal of the mediation process stage was to provide students with appropriate mediation in order to promote their L2 reading development rather than to improve their performance on the pretest stage.

### *D. Interventionist Cake Format*

In this format, learners are presented with a series of items, then they face the next question if they give a proper answer to the previous one. Through the process, graded support is presented immediately when difficulties are met, like layers of icing on a cake. The kind of information attained in this part is a good help for the teacher's understanding of the type of suggestion that would be required to assist the educators' needs in accomplishing the tasks (Sternberg, 2005).

According to Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002), a series of pre-decided standard hints are designed to help the learner during the approach till he/she achieves the higher levels in completing the tasks. In an interventionist method, the assistance given to the learners is graded from a range of more implicit to more explicit ones (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). A score is given to measure the hints required for the learners in order to accomplish the correct answers and this score could be a representation of the learner's achievement. In other words, this potential development is evaluated through investigating the amount of instruction provided to the learner as a way to master designed tasks and by predicting how the knowledge could be assigned to completely new settings (Grigorenko, 2009).

Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) implemented cake format throughout a ten-day DA program. They stated that during the process, the teacher supplied the learners with prompt assistance whenever students made an incorrect wh-question. This DA format helped the teacher to be free for immediate error indication, and the assistance continued till the learner was able to express the question accurately, in this case, the student was faced with the next task. An example of a well-developed interventionist approach to DA that follows a ‘cake’ format is the Leipzig Learning Test (LLT) developed by Guthke and his colleagues which uses a set of five standardized prompts from implicit to explicit for all learners. The learner’s performance is reported in terms of scores (number of prompts and amount of time needed) and profiles (i.e., analysis of error types and responsiveness to prompts). This example shows that interventionist DA retains the psychometric properties (standardization and scores) of traditional tests. In this respect, such assessment may not be sensitive enough to an individual’s ZPD. However, the advantage of interventionist DA is its relatively easy application to a large number of learners and thus it can be cost-effective. Furthermore, due to its focus on standardization, interventionist DA has high reliability as it is the case with traditional forms of assessment (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004a).

## VIII. CONCLUSION

Zone of proximal development is the prime concept of Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory, where the child’s different levels of development are emphasized and are investigated. Scholars utilized this concept and brought it to the area of the classroom to make it applicable to its end of development of the learners. A very significant method to meet the goal of development within ZPD is dynamic assessment based on Vygotsky’s model of cognitive development. To put it in other words, DA is grounded in the concept of ZPD and prescribes mediated teacher-learner dialogue during the assessment procedure.

The purpose of DA as discussed in this study is to establish those levels of actual development (what children or learners can do independently) defined in ZPD. In addition, DA attempts to diagnose and assess potential levels of development which are attained by cooperation, or the concept called mediation, between the learner with the teacher or a more intelligent peer. It determines how much learning can take place in ZPD during the process of mediation. DA, suggests that instruction and assessment should be treated two facets of the same as an entity. It implies that when the teachers are determined to understand the students’ method of development, the assessment process must not be devoted and centred on the learners’ performance through solitary achievement tests. In contrast, the prime attention should be paid to the level of student achievement as a result of collaboration with the teacher or a more capable peer within the period of DA and this type of achievement is representing the learner’s potential progress in the future without assistance. The teacher’s task is to evaluate learners’ exact development following a period of instruction and deciding on the learners’ potential development through considering the outcomes. (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006)

## REFERENCES

- [1] Alderson, J.C. (2005). *Diagnosing foreign language proficiency: The interface between learning and assessment*. London: Continuum.
- [2] Bekka, K.G. (2010). Dynamic assessment for learning potential: A shift in the focus and practice of evaluating Japanese oral proficiency. *Japanese Journal of Education*, 10, 53-66.
- [3] Brëdikytë, M (2011). *The zones of proximal development in children’s play*. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Oulu.
- [4] Chaiklin, S. (2003). The zone of proximal development in Vygotsky’s analysis of learning and instruction. In A. Kozulin, B. Gindis, V. S. Ageyev, & S. M. Miller, (Eds.), *Vygotsky’s educational theory in cultural context* (pp. 39-64). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- [5] Feuerstein, R., Rand, Y. and Hoffman, M.B. (1979). *The dynamic assessment of retarded performers: the learning potential assessment device, 262 Dynamic assessment in the classroom theory, instruments, and techniques*. Baltimore, MD: University Park Press.
- [6] Frawley, W. & J. P. Lantolf. (1985). Second language discourse: A Vygotskian perspective. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 19–44.
- [7] Grigorenko, E. L. (2009). Dynamic assessment and response to intervention: two sides of one coin. *Journal of Learning Disabilities [Online]*. 42 (2), 111-132.
- [8] Haywood, H. C., & Lidz, C. S. (2007). *Dynamic assessment in practice: Clinical and educational applications*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- [9] Kozulin, A. (2003). Psychological tools and mediated learning. In A. Kozulin, B. Gindis, V. S. Ageyev, & S. M. Miller (Eds.), *Vygotsky’s educational theory in cultural context* (pp. 15-38). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- [10] Kozulin, A., & Garb. E. (2001). Dynamic assessment of EFL text comprehension of at-risk students. Paper presented at the ninth Conference of the European Association for Research on Learning and Instruction, August, 2001. Fribourg, Switzerland.
- [11] Kozulin, A., Gindis, B., Ageyev, V.S., & Miller, S. M. (2003). *Vygotsky’s educational theory in cultural context*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- [12] Lantolf, J. (2011). The sociocultural approach to second language acquisition: Sociocultural theory, second language acquisition, and artificial L2 development. In D. Atkinson (ed.), *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition*. London: Routledge, 24–47.
- [13] Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, M. E. (2004, a). Dynamic assessment of L2 development: Bringing the past into the future. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1 (1), 49-72.

- [14] Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, M. E. (2004, b). Dynamic assessment in the language classroom. Retrieved from CALPER website: <http://calper.la.psu.edu/publications.php>. (accessed 2014/2/1).
- [15] Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, M. E. (2008). Language testing and assessment. In E. Shohamy, & N. H. Hornberger, (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 273–284). Berlin: Springer.
- [16] Lantolf, J. P., & Poehner, M. E. (2011). Dynamic assessment in the classroom: Vygotskian praxis for second language development. *Language Teaching Research*, 15 (1), 11-33
- [17] Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2006). Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [18] Lantolf, J., & Beckett, T. (2009). Sociocultural theory and second language acquisition. *Language Teaching*, 42(4), 459-475.
- [19] Lantolf, J., Thorne, S. L., & Poehner, M. (2015). Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Development. In B. van Patten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 207-226). New York: Routledge.
- [20] Lidz, C.S., & B. Gindis. (2003). Dynamic assessment of the evolving cognitive functions in children. In A. Kozulin, B. Gindis, V. S. Ageyev, & S. M. Miller (Eds.), *Vygotsky's educational theory in cultural context* (pp. 99-116). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- [21] Lier, L.V. (2008). The ecology of language learning and sociocultural theory. In A. Creese, P Martin, & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education*, (pp. 53–65). Berlin: Springer.
- [22] Luria, A.R. (1979). *The making of mind: A personal account of soviet psychology*. Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press.
- [23] Macrine, S. L., & Sabbatino, E. D. (2008). Dynamic assessment and remediation approach: Using the DARA approach to assist struggling readers. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 24(1), 52-76.
- [24] Mardani, M., & Tavakoli, M. (2011). Beyond Reading Comprehension: The Effect of Adding a Dynamic Assessment Component on EFL Reading Comprehension. *Journal of Language Teaching & Research*, 2(3).
- [25] Minson, V., Hammer, M., & Veresov, N. N. (2016). Rethinking assessments: creating a new tool using the zone of proximal development within a cultural-historical framework. *Cultural-Historical Psychology*, 12(3), 331-345.
- [26] Moore-Brown, B., Huerta, M., Hernandez, Y.U., & Pena, E.D. (2006). Using dynamic assessment to evaluate children with suspected learning disabilities. *Intervention in School and Clinic*. 41(4), 209-217.
- [27] Murphy, R. (2008). Dynamic assessment precursors: Soviet ideology and Vygotsky. *The Irish Journal of Psychology*, 29(3-4), 193-233.
- [28] Poehner, M. E., & Lantolf, J. P. (2005). Dynamic assessment in the language classroom. *Language Teaching Research* 9 (3), 233–265.
- [29] Poehner, M. E. (2005). Dynamic assessment of oral proficiency among advanced L2 learners of French. Ph.D. dissertation, Pennsylvania State University.
- [30] Poehner, M. E. (2007). Beyond the test: 12 dynamic assessment and the transcendence of mediated learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91(3)323–340.
- [31] Poehner, M. E. (2008). Dynamic assessment: A Vygotskian approach to understanding and promoting l2 development. Berlin: Springer.
- [32] Roebuck, R.F. (2001). Teaching composition in the college level foreign language class: Insights and activities from socio-cultural theory. *Foreign Language Annals*, 34(3), 206-215.
- [33] Rogoff, B. (2003). *The cultural nature of human development*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- [34] Shohamy, E., Inbar-Lourie, O., & Poehner, M. (2008) Investigating Assessment Perceptions and Practices in the Advanced Foreign Language Classroom (Report No 1108). University Park, PA: Center for Advanced Language Proficiency Education and Research (CALPER).
- [35] Shrestha, P., & Coffin, C. (2012). Dynamic assessment, tutor mediation and academic writing development. *Assessing writing*, 17(1), 55-70.
- [36] Smit, M. (2010). Educational psychologists' view of the relevance of dynamic assessment for their practice. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Stellenbosch.
- [37] Sternberg, R.J. & Grigorenko, E.L. (2002). Dynamic testing: The nature and measurement of learning potential. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [38] Sternberg, R.J. (2005). Intelligence, competence, and expertise. In A.J. Elliott, and C.S. Dweck, (Eds.), *Handbook of competence and motivation*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- [39] Stiegler, J., & Hiebert, J. (1999). *The teaching gap*. New York: Free Press.
- [40] Thoušny, S. (2011). Modeling second language learners' interlanguage and its variability. Ph.D. dissertation, Dublin City University.
- [41] Tzuriel, D. (2001). *Dynamic assessment of young children*. New York: Plenum Publishers.
- [42] Veresov, N. (2004). Zone of proximal development (ZPD): the hidden dimension? Anna Lena Ostern & Ria Heila Ylikallio (eds.). *Language as culture tensions in time and space*. Vol. 1, p. 13-30.
- [43] Veresov, N. N. (2017). ZBR and ZPD: Is there a difference? *Cultural-Historical Psychology*, 13(1), 23-36.
- [44] Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- [45] Wertsch, J. V. (2007). Mediation. In H. Daniels, M. Cole & J. V. Wertsch (Eds.), *The Cambridge Companion to Vygotsky* (pp. 178-92). Cambridge: CUP.



**Samran Daneshfar** was born in Piran Shahr, Iran. He received a B.A. in English Language and Literature from Urmia University-Iran (2009) and he is an MA graduate in English Language Teaching (TEFL) from the University of Zanjan-Iran (2014). He is currently an experienced EFL teacher in Ministry of Education in Piran Shahr. He is teaching at junior secondary school. His areas of interest are applied linguistics, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), the Sociocultural Theory and Dynamic Assessment in second language. E-mail: [s.daneshfar82@gmail.com](mailto:s.daneshfar82@gmail.com)



**Mehdi Moharami** is a Ph.D. candidate in the faculty of education - Monash University. He received his Master Degree in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) from Zanjan University –Iran. He is doing his studies on the influence of English language teaching on cultural change of Iranian language learners and society. His areas of interest are Language Education, Identity Formation, Culture, and Sociology. E-mail: [Mehdi.moharami@monash.edu](mailto:Mehdi.moharami@monash.edu)

# Teachers' Beliefs of Authentic Materials for Teaching Reading in Indonesian EFL Classrooms

Desy Rusmawaty

State University of Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia

Haryanto Atmowardoyo

State University of Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia

Arifuddin Hamra

State University of Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia

Nurdin Noni

State University of Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia

**Abstract**—It is believed that authentic reading materials can link students to contextual use of English, as they can improve students' communicative and cultural competences. Related to point, this is very important to highlight the investigation on teachers' beliefs about authentic reading materials as it is reflected through the teachers' expectation and how they manifest them in classroom practices. This is a case study of four teachers who teach English at public senior high school in Samarinda, East Kalimantan. The study explores the beliefs of these teachers about authentic reading materials in their classroom practices. The data were taken from a semi structured interview, classroom observation, and teachers' written documents. The study revealed that there were three themes of teachers' beliefs emerged, (1) types of authentic reading materials, (2) skills to be improved after reading, and (3) teachers' challenges of using authentic reading materials for the classroom-bases. It is noted that teachers did self-adjustment when manifesting their beliefs in classroom activities. In addition, Teachers needs self-management when utilizing authentic materials.

**Index Terms**—beliefs, English teachers, authentic materials, case study

## I. INTRODUCTION

Many studies believed that students should have abundance exposures to use of English in real context (Beresova, 2015; Ersanli, 2016, Ahmed, 2017). These exposures are used to fill the need for being able to communicate confidently in English. In fact, Hymes (cited in Beresova, 2015) argued that communicative competence does not merely involve understanding of the language but the necessitate for contextualized communicated and soon it leads to the influences of linguistic and social norm in discourse and speech acts which later on it will act in relation to social structure, values, and social cultural order and the rules of a community. Teachers must provide as many as possible materials with relevant contexts for their students. This is done to provide the choice of words in constructing of meaning. One of materials used is authentic materials.

In fact, selecting authentic materials for language learning, especially for teaching reading in EFL context becomes an issue in language teaching. Teachers are put their concerns on this. They are aware that the use of authentic reading materials can support students to learn and read language in a natural way. From the researcher' observation, it is quite often teachers struggle to search, select, and modify authentic reading materials in their teaching practices. It is necessary for teachers to consider authentic reading materials consist of extensive vocabularies and appropriate sentence structure for their students' level. Learning to read a language in a natural way is conducted by bringing the world outside into a classroom language. This becomes the focus of the functional use of authentic reading materials.

It is often, if not many, when teaching reading text teachers integrated authentic materials in their teaching practices. They are aware that familiarizing reading texts in the real usage contexts provide students with real exposures of English. Students are able to link the knowledge of world outside with the their classroom knowledge (Abdulhussein, 2014; Harmer, 2001; Wong, Kwok, & Choi, 1995). In addition, authentic reading materials support students to acquire their communicative competence in using English (Guariento & Morley, 2001).

It is believed that authentic materials are able to stimulate students' motivation to learn. They can support students' opportunities to intermingle with real uses of language rather than artificial materials which are made for learning purposes only. By using authentic materials for teaching, it is expected that students can learn language naturally. Furthermore, "every text that learners encounter should be authentic and that most tasks should be authentic too—otherwise the learners are not being prepared for the reality of language use" (Tomlinson, 2012).



Nevertheless, authentic reading materials are often found to be culturally biased. Teachers admitted that they have to adjust the semantic structure of authentic materials with their students' level (Kilickaya, 2004). This means teachers have to paraphrase certain words found in authentic materials which beyond the students' knowledge with the words that their students familiar with. Certainly, it takes time. Teachers need some effort to take authentic materials as their teaching material. For that reason, this study aims to explore the beliefs held by Indonesian teachers about the use of authentic materials for teaching reading in EFL context.

Borg (in Paltridge & Phakiti, 2015) argued that beliefs held by teachers is part of teacher cognition that defined as social mental image of experiences which were reflected in teachers' decision of language instruction in their teaching practices. On the other hand, beliefs are considered as a set of proportions which are obtained from one's previous experience as a learner (Thomas, 2013).

In teaching a language, beliefs are the bridge between knowledge and action; between what have been known with what will be presented. Beliefs can present what knowledge which worth and should be presented in action (Larenas, et al., 2015). In fact, Kumaravadivelu (2012) discerned beliefs into two types, core and peripheral. Core beliefs is assumed to be more influential in shaping teachers' language instruction, while peripheral can cause incompatibility between what teachers assert they do and what they actually practice in the classroom. This becomes the indication as teachers' reflection of their beliefs. It is assumed that the compatibility between what beliefs held by teachers and how they practice their beliefs in classroom bases can help people understand of what teachers have understood and how they put the knowledge into action in teaching and learning process (Farrell, 2013).

Related to authentic reading materials use for teaching reading, beliefs held by teachers becomes the issue in EFL context. Teachers are expected to use authentic reading to stimulate their students' interest to read English text since the students will be assessed in the end of their learning stage. Therefore, in this study, the research question is addressed to explore the manifestation of teachers' beliefs about authentic reading materials:

RQ1. What are beliefs held by teachers about authentic reading materials?

## II. METHOD

The research subjects for this study were four English teachers who teach English at senior high schools in Samarind. The researcher set the criteria for the sake of this study. All research subjects who were willing to take part in this study have more than 10 years teaching experience. They should be certified and followed more than one trainings or seminars in teacher's professional development. Before the interview and classroom observation were conducted, the teachers had submitted their consent form. They may in any time withdraw from this study as well, if they did feel comfortable.

Classroom observation, teaching documents prepared by the teachers, pre and post interview were used to obtain the data. The researcher made an audio recording and field note of the teaching reading practice and also transcribe the pre-interview and post-interview in order to make the observation accurate. Before the researcher examined the classroom practices, pre interview to each teacher was conducted. This was done to administer the teachers' conceptions of authentic materials for reading used in the classroom practices. After that, the researcher observed the teachers' classroom practices to see the manifestation of teachers' beliefs about authentic materials for reading. Post interview was conducted to verify teachers' classroom activities with the data taken from the pre-interview and to clarify activities that do not compatible with the teachers' beliefs. The researcher classified and grouped the data based on themes emerged in this study.

## III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Related to teachers' beliefs in using authentic materials for reading, three themes emerged, (1) types of authentic materials, (2) skills to be improved after reading, and (3) teachers' challenges of using authentic materials for teaching reading.

### (1) Types of authentic materials

There are two types of authentic reading materials used by teachers in teaching literacy, print (in a form of flyer, flight schedule, menus) and auditory (songs) materials. It is assumed that authentic reading materials are not created specifically to be used in the classroom, but they are believed to become excellent learning tools for students to have an exposure to the real uses of language.

It is revealed from the interview, teachers believed that they quite often rely on their teaching materials from the textbook. It is a well prepared material for teaching. They admitted that they also used authentic materials to support their teaching practices, especially when they want to introduce their students how English words are used as a mean of communication.

They believed such printed authentic materials such as newspaper, flyers, magazines, maps, brochures, and invitation will assist students to be familiar with the real uses of English. The students will also learn new vocabularies from such text. They believed that by providing authentic materials students will be able to understand the text by looking at the medium used (Laurillard, 2013). This can be seen in the excerpt below.

....familiar with the real uses of English can help students to understand when and how to use words of English. (it is) easy for them understand the text when they see the real form...you know..for example when I teach the topic about "Giving information", it is easy when I bring like ..an invitation..and ask my student to give the information about the invitation...it's like catching their mind to speak about the topic...

In fact, based on classroom observation, it is noted that teachers mostly used song as authentic materials in the classroom. After the students listened to the song for several times, the teachers asked students to complete the missing words from the lyrics. Then two or three students were asked to read it aloud. In one of several meetings, the teachers highlighted some unfamiliar words to their students, or sometimes the teachers addressed to their students to identify unfamiliar words to be discussed classically. Based on the information from the lyrics, the teachers constructed questions. They did this to assess their students understanding of the song (Carter, et al, 2016).

...A song is a good medium to teach English. Everybody loves singing. This always success bring the mood of my class..

...it's pretty easy to find a song for teaching English words, the students learn how to pronounce, the vocabularies, the tenses...yes...I used some of sentences taken in a song to teach grammar....it always catch my students' attention....in fact, I have to be careful in choosing the song...

Only one teacher initiated to bring a travel magazine in her classroom. She admitted that she got the magazine when she travelled with a certain flight. She took it from the plane. She did that because she thought that she could make a use of the travel magazine in her class.

...I had this when I travelled by plain... I think this magazine can be used in my class...it is colorful, full of pictures and information about places in the world...I want students to be familiar with English by bringing the world to them...

Despite the use of newspaper written in English can be one of sources of authentic materials, teachers found difficulties to find one in Samarinda.

....For teaching reading, I knew I should use newspaper written in English because it has lots of texts which I could use to teach the comprehension of the text...however, it is difficult to find news agency selling that kind of newspaper...

In classroom practices, the teacher made a copy of texts taken from a magazine. She cut the texts into sentences. She asked students to arrange the sentences to be a good paragraph. She provided pictures to give cues.

Other teachers used songs to boost their students' interest to learn. Then, they use the lyrics of a song as a reading text. After listened to the song, they may ask students to read the lyrics loudly. They believed that this activity can help their students practicing their pronunciation.

(2). Skills to be improved after reading.

There are some skills improved after reading authentic materials, vocabulary knowledge, Scanning-skimming reading strategy, and critical thinking.

### 2.1 Vocabulary Knowledge

All teachers believed that authentic materials for teaching reading can increase their students' vocabulary knowledge (Kennedy, 2014). They offer wide range of vocabularies. Students can expand their knowledge of how to use the words in appropriate contexts. Teachers noted that authentic texts motivate students to acquire new words. It is often found that authentic texts use a different variety of text structures.

.....authentic materials covers a lot of vocabularies compare to textbooks, students may experience themselves with a wide range of words which they can learn when and what to use the words in ( which) context...

This is one of good exposure for teaching students about latest information from the newspaper. Since textbooks need a long time before having revisions, magazines or newspaper are believed to have the most current information (Sham, 2016). Authentic reading materials can empower students with abundance of words that will enhance their use in the target language. Guo (2012) investigated that authentic materials can improve vocabulary knowledge, reading speed and reading habits. It is concluded that an increase of vocabulary affect students reading comprehension.

### 2.2 Scanning-skimming strategy

Students are believed to be able to practice scanning and skimming strategy when they read authentic reading materials. As a way to look at a text rapidly to get a general idea of the texts, skimming is needed for students. Teachers believed that students can improve their skimming strategy ability after they have massive exposure to authentic materials because it needs a greater degree of reading and word recognition skills (Urquhart & Weir, 1998).

...Although skimming is always introduced every time....my students must have as many as possible exposure of real texts because I want them familiar with the real uses of English....you know I believed it can help them since the students will find information that interest them...

Authentic materials provide interesting information for students about many things in daily bases. Therefore, they can practice skimming important information from authentic texts that interest them. Students can practice how to look only for general or main ideas, gather the information to get the summary about the text.

....It is a good practice for students in which they can practice for their real life...they don't have to read for everything...just find the gist from the news...

Teachers believed that students can manage the time efficiently when they students how to skim the information. They are aware that this strategy can help students when they have to read a text in a specific time, such as in a reading test (Liaw, 2017). Along with skimming, scanning is another beneficial strategy that can be utilized. To comprehend the

text, sometimes students have to be aware with specific information provided. Through scanning, students can practice how to get specific piece of information about the text.

### (3). Critical thinking

Comprehending complex, content-rich text critically is an important necessity for students' academic performance and their life-long skill. However, they often fight very hard to comprehend these texts. As a matter of fact, this skill is required to complete such reading tasks, for example identifying information, analyze arguments, deriving inferences, or acknowledging the sources (Li, et al, 2016). The complexity in vocabulary and structures of authentic materials train students to understand the text. Consequently it leads students to think critically about the text.

*.....Yes it (authentic reading materials) consists of complex vocabulary and structure, but this is a good a way for my students to practice their critical thinking over the text....you know sometimes they have a good imagination about the text...this happens when they are interested with the text or when they have known about the text...I mean they have previous knowledge about information provided in the text..*

It is believed that authentic materials provide greater opportunities for real uses of English as a means of communication (Sánchez, Pèrex, & Gómes, 2010). In addition, through authentic materials students are able to develop their understanding of cultures which it can derive their motivation to learn the language.

Teachers argued that critical thinking is very important when teaching a language in nowadays classroom. As the illustration, students were used to learn listen-repeat patter to acquire basic vocabularies when they were in a very basic level. It does not require critical thinking at all. However, as the students begin to progress their language understanding skill, they enter more complicated tasks which contains elements such as personalization, investigation and problem solving then they must have critical thinking to overcome them. To this point, authentic reading materials provide authentic communication which brings students' creativity to analyze and respond.

### (4). Teachers' challenges of using authentic materials for teaching reading.

Authentic materials can be used as a medium for teaching a language since it can bring the content of life. This makes the language learning more meaningful. However, this is not easy to utilize authentic materials in classroom bases. This study identified challenges faced by teachers when utilizing authentic materials, they are (1) students' unfamiliarity to the topic, (2) cultural awareness introduction to students, and (3) lack of time in searching, selecting and modifying the materials.

#### 4.1 Students' unfamiliarity to the topics

Students need their previous knowledge to help them understand the text. However, authentic materials often provide less familiar topic for students. Therefore, it is a teacher's responsibility to modify the topic of authentic materials to be suited to the students' background knowledge.

*....the topics (of authentic materials) sometimes beyond students understanding, so, before I used it for my students I always modify it first....*

Students often experience difficulty to understand the information provided in the text when they are unfamiliar with the topic (AlAzri, 2014). Reading a text needs an extensive background knowledge. This helps students to understand the topic of a text.

#### 4.2 Cultural awareness introduction to students

Authentic materials often expose culture of English with less proportional to students' understanding. Therefore, teachers need to introduce the cultural awareness to students. The cultural background information is needed to understand the content of a text.

*....explaining the cultural is a must, you know sometimes it is the text discussed about the topic that my students never have experienced before...like "Halloween", so I have to describe the culture before asking them reading the text..*

Knowing the culture of target language can make students understood the adequately (Godwin-Jones, 2015). It is noted culture is part of language. Teachers should integrate culture when they teach a language. This is done so that students can build their linguistic and cultural competence of English.

#### 4.3 Lack of time in searching, selecting, and modifying the authentic materials

Teachers need effort to search, select, and modifying the authentic materials. They admitted that they were able to do it in their spare time during teaching hour. In fact, the time is very limited because they found abundance of authentic materials that they can use (Asmari, 2015). However, they cannot use them all. They have to be selected and modified carefully to be suited to students' level.

*....I have to be smart managing my time to find authentic materials for my teaching....yes they are many...but still I can use them directly...I still need a modification so my students can learn from it...*

Most of teachers seemed to use the authentic materials with a few modifications, in terms of level of vocabulary used for their students. They admitted that they cannot always modify the text. They often used as it is. This was because they needed time to accomplish the work. The lack of technological pedagogical knowledge competence also became one of their reasons. They expected to have training of integrating technology for modifying the text.

## IV. CONCLUSION

As an observable element, beliefs do determine teachers' decision in their teaching practices. It is assumed that beliefs aligned with the real practices. In fact, there are some conditions that make beliefs have to be adjusted to be implemented in classroom practices. This study revealed that teachers performed self-adjustment toward their own beliefs about the use of authentic materials for teaching reading. They limited their beliefs on students' capability to digest information and technical challenges when searching, selecting and modifying the authentic materials. Although, they agreed that authentic materials bring sufficient exposure of 'real world' to students, they cannot avoid using textbook as the main material for teaching. They admitted that authentic materials become the supplementary materials.

This study revealed that teachers should have a good self-determination in utilizing authentic materials since there are many aspects needed to be considered such as the vocabulary level, topic familiarity, cultural awareness, sufficient time, and technological pedagogical knowledge. For the latter, it is needed when teachers wanted to integrate authentic materials in a form of technology for their students. Students' level of vocabulary knowledge has to be the main consideration when searching, selecting, and modifying authentic materials. The vocabulary level should be suited to students' level. It becomes very challenging for students to read the text that beyond their knowledge. In fact, many authentic materials do not support this condition. Teachers should be able to make authentic materials adjustable to their students' level by simplifying or modifying the text to be accessible for students. Nevertheless, this becomes a challenge for because this activity takes time and energy to do. Instead of simplifying and modifying the text, teachers may simplify the reading process.

#### APPENDIX. THE INTERVIEW PROTOCOLS

<b>A. Teacher's Personal Information</b>	
1.	Tell me about yourself?
a.	English learning experience
b.	Reasons to be English teachers
c.	Things remembered mostly about learning English
d.	Learning materials that affect the motivation to learn English
e.	Teachers' teaching strategy
f.	Learners' strategy to learn English
2.	Teachers' concept of using authentic materials for teaching reading
a.	Types of authentic materials
b.	Way of searching, selecting and modifying
c.	Importance of using authentic materials
d.	Challenges of using authentic material
e.	Competences needed
3.	Teaching reading
a.	Reading activity stages
b.	Reading strategies

#### REFERENCES

- [1] Abdulhusein, R. Y. (2014). Investigating EFL College Teachers' and Learners' Attitude Toward Using Authentic Reading Materials in Misan. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*. Vol. 136. 330-343
- [2] Ahmed, S. (2017). Authentic ELT Materials in the Language Classroom: An Overview. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Research*. Vol 4. No. 2, 181-202
- [3] Asmari, A. (2015). Communicative Language Teaching in EFL University Context: Challenges for Teacher. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*. Vol. 6 No.5, 976-984.
- [4] Azri, R. H. (2014). The Effect of Using Authentic Materials in Teaching. *International Journal of Scientific & Technology Research*. Vol. 3. No. 10, 249-254.
- [5] Beresova, J. (2015). Authentic Materials-Enhancing Language Acquisition and Cultural Awareness. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*. Vol 192. 192-204
- [6] Carter, H; Crawley, K; Townsend, D. R; Barone, D. (2016). Secondary Teachers' Reflection from a Year of Professional Learning Related to Academic Language. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*. Vol. 60. 325-334.
- [7] Ersanli, C. Y. (2016). Improving Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPACK) of Pre-service English Language Teachers. *International Education Studies*. Vol 9. No. 5, 18-27
- [8] Farrell, T. (2013). Reflective Teaching. Virginia: Tesol International Association.
- [9] Guariento, W. & Morley, J. (2001). Text and task authenticity in EFL classroom, *ELT Journal*, Vol. 55, No. 4, 347-353
- [10] Harmer, J. (2001). The Practice of English Language Teaching. 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition. London. Longman
- [11] Jones, R.G. (2015). Contributing, Creating, Curating: Digital Literacies for Language Learners. *Language Learning & Technology*. Vol 19. No. 3, 8-20
- [12] Kennedy, V. (2014). Critical Cultural and Multimodal Approches to Using Song as Literature in Language Learning. *Libri & Liberi Journal*. Vol. 3. No. 2, 295-310.
- [13] Kilickaya, F. (2004). Authentic materials and cultural content in EFL Classrooms. *The Internet TESL Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 7. 1-6
- [14] Kumaravadivelu, B. (2012). Language Teacher Education for a Global Society. New York: Routledge.

- [15] Larenas, C. D., Hernandez, P. A., & Navarrete, M, O. (2015). A Case Study on EFL Teachers' Beliefs About the Teaching and Learning of English in Public Education. *Porta Linguarum*. Vol. 23, 171-286
- [16] Laurillard, D. (2013). *Rethinking University Teaching: A Conversational Framework for the Effective Use of Learning Technologies*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition. Routledge. London and New York.
- [17] Liaw, M. L. (2017). Reading Strategy Awareness Training to Empower Online Reading. *The English Teacher Journal*. Vol 38, 133-150.
- [18] Paltridge, B., & Phakiti, A. (2015). *Research methods in applied Linguistics*. A Practical Resources. Bloomsbury Academic. Sydney.
- [19] Thomas, M. (2013). Teachers' Beliefs about Classroom Teaching-Teachers' Knowledge and Teaching Approaches. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*. Vol 89, 31-39.
- [20] Tomlinson, B. (2012). Materials development for language learning and teaching. *Language Teaching*, 45(2), 143-179.
- [21] Wong, V., Kwok, P., & Choi, N. (1995). The use of authentic materials at tertiary level. *ELT Journal*, 49 (4). 318-322.



**Desy Rusmawaty** is a lecturer at the English Education Department of Mulawarman University, Indonesia. She accomplished her master's degree in Linguistics from Radboud University of Nijmegen, Netherland. Currently, she is pursuing her doctorate program in English Language Education at the State University of Makassar. Her research interest is in Teaching Reading in EFL Context and Teachers' Professional Development.



**Haryanto Atmowardoyo** is a professor and head of the English Language Education Post Graduate Program at the State University of Makassar. He completed his master's degree in English Language Education from the State University of Malang. He obtained his doctorate degree of English Language Education from the State University of Jakarta, Indonesia. Currently, he is the Chief Editor of English Language Teaching ELT Worldwide.



**Arifuddin Hamra** is a professor at the State University of Makassar. He completed doctorate degrees in the field of Reading in EFL Context at the Hasanuddin University, Makassar. He has been teaching English more than 35 years at teacher training college.



**Nurdin Noni** is a professor and a lecturer of English Education Program at State University of Makassar, South Sulawesi. He is interested in Curriculum Design and Development of ELT.

# From Differentiation of the Expressive Effects to Conscious Use of Rhetorical Language

Yulan Gu

School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Arts and Science, Dazhou, Sichuan, China

**Abstract**—The double predicate structures in English are examples of rhetorical use of language. The differentiation between the distinctive double predicate structure “verb + adjective” and the normal predicate structure “verb + adverb” and the subsequent choice in specific contexts is thus not only a matter of grammar rules on the surface, but, more substantively, a matter of conscious use of rhetorical language. The survey conducted among college English teachers in China into their differentiation between “verb + adjective” and “verb + adverb” showed that most respondents didn’t distinguish very well the differing expressive effects caused by the choice of the adjectives or the adjectives’ derivative adverbs in these two types of structures, and that the majority of the respondents had difficulty in making proper choices between them for specific contexts. Since the identification of a language structure is the prerequisite for its appropriate use, due attention in English teaching and learning should be paid to the delicate differences among similar language items and to their differing expressive effects to cultivate awareness and competence of conscious use of rhetorical language, enhancing overall language performance.

**Index Terms**—double predicate structures, expressive effects, conscious use of rhetorical language

## I. INTRODUCTION

In English, a simple sentence usually expresses a state or an action, with the state indicated by the predicate structure of “linking verb + complement” and the action by that of “notional verb (+adverbial/object)”. According to the conventional grammatical rules, the predicate structure indicating an action is not constructed by notional verbs in their active mood form followed only by adjectives or adjective phrases, with nothing else. The fact, however, is that in English there are sentences, like “The children sat stunned and silent”, whose predicate structure is made up of the notional verb *sat* followed by an adjective phrase consisted of two adjectives *stunned* and *silent*, nothing else at all.

Such predicate structures obviously violate the accepted grammatical rule that the predicate structure is not formed by notional verbs followed by nothing but adjectives or adjective phrases, and thus have been attracting the attention of English grammarians. Henry Sweet (1891) thought the notional verbs in such structures are semi-linking verbs, and the adjectives part of the predicate structures as well as a modifier of the notional verbs (Ren Shaozeng, 1979, P. 2). In other words, the adjectives, along with the notional verbs preceding them, make the predicates of the sentences which they are in, and simultaneously, modify, like adverbials, the preceding verbs. Both George Curme (1953) and Otto Jespersen (1954) hesitated about the function of the adjectives in such structures, with Curme being not determined between the complement of the verbs and their appositive while Jespersen not so sure among complements, quasi-complements and adverbials (Ren Shaozeng, 1979, pp. 2-3). Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik (1982), when discussing about the differences between adjectives and adverbs, didn’t think the adjectives in such structures function as adverbials, but claimed that they are complements of subjects or objects. Randolph Quirk (1985, p. 1172) categorized such structures as verbless clauses, thinking of the adjectives in such structures as the complement and the verbs something like linking verbs with severe restrictions on the adjectives occurring in the complement. In China, many researchers also noticed and studied such structures. Ren Shaozeng (1978) initiated the study of such structures, borrowing Ganshina and Vasilevskaya’s term “double predicate” (1964) to refer to them, and pursued comprehensive, intensive and systematic research about them in more than thirty years (Ren Shaozeng 1979; Ren Shaozeng 1988; Ren Shaozeng 2001; Ren Shaozeng 2010; Ren Shaozeng 2011). Lu Jinlin (1986) thought such structures are simply ambiguous and divergent grammatical phenomena, not necessary to be grammatically categorized. Ren Xiaojin (1986) argued that adjectives in such structures are more likely to be quasi-adverbials. According to the available documented literature, however, many other Chinese researchers (Xu Juntao 1995; Li Chongyue 2001; Hu Lanying, Du Xuemei, and Lv Shaoquan 2002; Tang Lu, Yu Jialou 2002; Zou Qiong 2005; Hu Yiqin 2007; Lin Lu, Han Bingbing 2015) agreed with Ren Shaozeng, accepted and adopted the borrowed term in their various studies of such structures. Whatever the English grammarians and most Chinese researchers thought of such structures, they simply studied such structures from the grammatical or the linguistic perspective, like the features, the discourse meaning, the cognitive mechanism of such structures or the functions of the adjectives in them, with the exception of Hu Lanying, Du Xuemei, and Lv Shaoquan (2002) and Zou Qiong (2005), who have slightly touched on their actual use. Such descriptive and explanatory studies are indeed helpful with English learners’ understanding such structures grammatically and cognitively. They do not contribute a lot to English learners’ appropriate use of such structures in production, which is in fact even more

significant than theoretical understanding of their grammatical functions and cognitive mechanism. True understanding of their pragmatic issues and expressive effects of such structures determines whether or not language learners make appropriate, clever and rhetorical use of them in speaking and writing.

## II. THE RHETORICAL NATURE OF DOUBLE PREDICATE STRUCTURES

Adjectives are not grammatically allowed to follow notional verbs to make predicate structures, whereas (their derivative) adverbs often follow notional verbs functioning as the verbs' adverbials to make frequently-used predicate structures of "verb + adverb". So the double predicate structures are easily mistaken for the wrong forms of "verb + adverb" resulting from confusing the adjectives with their derivative adverbs. The actual existence of the double predicate structures of "verb + adjective" shows differentiating the double predicate structure "verb + adjective"<sup>1</sup> from the structure "verb + adverb" and choosing them for specific contexts is more than a matter of grammar rules. Actually, the double predicate structure "verb + adjective" is a good example of rhetorical use of language. The double predicate structure's rhetorical nature can be well illustrated from four perspectives.

First of all, the rhetorical nature of the double predicate structures "verb + adjective" is determined by the communication nature of language itself. According to the western modern rhetoric, all communication activities are about rhetorical use of language. The double predicate structures are products of communication, either oral or written, where their users evaluate the need of specific contexts, differentiate the expressive effect of "verb + adjective" (like *sat silent*) and that of "verb + adverb" (like *sat silently*), and choose "verb + adjective" instead of "verb + adverb". In one word, choosing the double predicate structures is an episode of communication activities. The double predicate structures themselves are therefore examples of rhetorical use of language indicating the practice of an advanced language skill.

Secondly, their rhetorical nature is indicated by its creative violation of the grammatical rules through the cognitive means of metaphor and metonymy. Having explored the verbs which can be used in the double predicate structures from the perspective of the prototype theory and the conceptual metaphor, Ren Shaozeng (2010) concluded that such verbs transform their meanings through metaphor and metonymy, fall into the category of the linking verb *be* or *become*, and thus can be followed only by adjectives, functioning as predicates of the sentences where they are located. Even so, they differ from linking verbs in that they retain their conceptual meanings of notional verbs. In actual communication, however, their conceptual meanings are weakened, or exactly, not so important, since they are there as old information or one which can easily be inferred. That is, such verbs followed only by adjectives function as predicates, indicating both actions and the states, traits, or identities of those who carry out such actions, with the states, traits, or identities, not the actions, emphasized and focused on. By seeming to violate the grammar rules, the double predicate structures gains extra attention of their audience to outstand such states, traits, or identities as is conveyed by the adjectives, and present rhetorical effects by creatively stressing the chief expressing points.

Thirdly, their rhetorical nature lies in their conciseness and informativeness. According to Ren Shaozeng (1988), the double predicate structure is the linear presentation of the combination of one nominal predicate and one verbal predicate. In other words, a compound sentence, usually made up of one simple sentence with a verbal predicate and one with a nominal one, underlies a simple sentence with one double predicate. For example, the sentence *The children sat stunned and silent* is in fact the combined and condensed version of the sentences *The children sat* and *The children were stunned and silent*. These two sentences can have other combined and condensed versions (such as: *The children sat and they were stunned and silent.* / *When the children sat, they were stunned and silent.* / *Sitting, the children were stunned and silent.*). Similar to the simplified sentence with the double predicate structure *sat stunned and silent*, all these condensed versions follow the information processing rule that the new information precedes the old, and they seem to convey similar message. The truth, however, is that different sentence patterns transformed from the same underlying structure do not convey pragmatically identical meaning, and are usually appropriate for different specific situations (He Ziran 2011, p. 1). Consequently, differentiating among such confusing language forms and choosing one for a specific context is a matter of rhetorical use of language (Li Hong 2000, p. 32). What's more, compared with other combined and condensed versions, the double predicate structure is concise but informative, expressing much with as few words as possible. And that is the expected effects of using language rhetorically from time to time, going beyond literal use of language.

Last but probably most importantly, the double predicate structure is the written presentation of the foreground interest composition in photography, showing its users' intention of aesthetic and hierarchical presentation of the described. According to Qiu Wensheng (2015, p.123), the practice of using language rhetorically is a cognitive style of appreciating things and the cognitive subject's (e.g. the language user's in this context) aesthetic appeal and need in specific contexts. The double predicate structure is the written aesthetic presentation of things, a presenting practice illuminated from the foreground interest composition in photography. When photographing, people tend to place the focus in the foreground of the picture frame, which is called the foreground interest composition. Sometimes, however,

<sup>1</sup> Ren Shaozeng (1978) thought the verbs in the double predicate structures are mainly intransitive verbs (Transitive verbs, linking verbs, and even the double predicate structures themselves can be used too, though). In this paper, the verbs in the structure of "verb + adjective" specifically refer to intransitive verbs.

the photographing focus is not positioned in the foreground, but is located far away in the background. Then the photographer will adjust the focus to the distant target by blurring the foreground, but not neglecting it all together, for the foreground is essential for the total effect of the picture — it functions for the viewers as a stepping stone into the focus and heightens the picture's sense of depth. Without the foreground, the focus may appear abrupt since the viewers would feel separated from the focus, and the picture would lose the sense of depth. The double predicate structure is the product of adopting such photographing technique in writing. The verbs in the double predicate structures, like the foreground in the photo, is not the intended message, but bridges the gap between the old information and the new or the intended information (conveyed by the adjectives), making the writing move on forward smoothly. In other words, the adjectives in the double predicate structures are what the structures are intended to emphasize, and the verbs are the essential transitions. Like what the foreground interest composition presents, the double predicate structure offers the context fluency and the audience the *Déjà vu*, expressing much more than the seemingly similar expression of “verb + adverb”.

So, differentiating the two similar structures — “verb + adjective” and “verb + adverb” — and their expressive effects is more a practice of using language rhetorically. Whether English learners are able to make a proper choice for specific contexts between the two structures to some extent illustrates their awareness of using language rhetorically. This paper, therefore, is intended to conduct a survey about Chinese-context college English teachers'<sup>2</sup> identification and differentiation of the two structures, meaning to gain an insight into their awareness and competence of conscious use of rhetorical language.

### III. A SURVEY ABOUT THE DIFFERENTIATING COMPETENCE OF EXPRESSIVE EFFECTS

#### A. *The Design of the Survey*

As is mentioned above, this survey was conducted among college English teachers in China, intended to give some reference to the following two questions: (1) How do Chinese-context college English teachers perform when it comes to differentiating the expressive effects of the structures “verb + adjective” and “verb + adverb” and making choices between them for specific contexts? (2) Is there any correlation between the identification of “verb + adjective” and “verb + adverb”?

Writing is a good means to showcase learners' overall language competence and performance. But when specific structures are concerned, writing may not make the best policy. To use a language item, language learners, first of all, usually need to identify and truly understand it. If one cannot identify a language item, he or she is not likely to use it in their production. So, this paper is meant to investigate Chinese-context college English teachers' awareness and competence of rhetorical use of language by surveying their performance in identifying and differentiating the two similar structures and their expressive effects through a controllable exercise—gap-filling in a questionnaire.

The questionnaire was consisted of 24 gap-filling questions. Fifteen questions include double predicate structures “verb + adjective” and the other nine questions don't, which instead have the structure of “verb + adverb”. The questions were created by replacing with blanks the adjectives or the adverbs in the original sentences which come from the Corpus of the Contemporary American English, which were for the respondents to fill out by choosing from the two offered alternatives or possibilities—A was the adjectives and B was their derivative adverbs. The verbs in the nine questions which don't have the “verb + adjective” structure were those appearing in the 15 questions. And the 25<sup>th</sup> question was an open-ended one, inviting the respondents to write down their tips of answering questions. Each question was made up of several sentences, including one with the double predicate structure and its many adjacent sentences, offering respondents sufficient context to help them comprehend the intended information.

The respondents were asked to choose at least one answer for each question. The adjectives or adverbs in the original sentences were of course the expected right answers to these questions. But if the respondents chose both the adjectives and the adverbs for the 24 questions, they were thought to make correct choice, for if adverbs were put in the 15 blanks which were originally adjectives, they would be acceptable and make some sense. And it was the same case with the other nine blanks if adjectives were chosen.

The questionnaire was issued on the Chinese website, <https://wjx.cn/>, designed to conduct various surveys, reviews and voting. And the researcher posted the address in a QQ group of English teaching and research, initiated by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press and mainly made up of college English teachers all over China, in the Wechat group of School of Foreign Languages where the researcher works, and in her Wechat moments, to invite college English teachers there to do the questionnaire.

#### B. *The Result and Analysis*

The survey lasted from July 23<sup>rd</sup>, 2017 to October 8<sup>th</sup>, and 62 questionnaires were valid. The 62 respondents (Chart 1) came from 17 different provinces or places all over China, with two foreign IP addresses, which must be two Chinese teachers in the QQ group who happened to be on visit to universities abroad. And 23 respondents were shown to be

<sup>2</sup> As is discussed, the double predicate structures are examples of advanced language use, and Chinese college English teachers can be considered advanced English learners in China. The survey about their identification and differentiation of the double predicate structures can provide some insight into the awareness of using language rhetorically of common English learners in China.



from Sichuan, with 8 from Dazhou, 12 from Chengdu, and 3 from other 3 different places). Given the fact that Sichuan is a big province with many universities and that the survey was carried out during the summer holiday when teachers may travel all over China on business, sightseeing, or visits back to their hometown, the respondents can be accepted as samples of Chinese-context college English teachers to certain extent, and the results of the questionnaires are not so likely to be homogenized so as to be able to shed some light on the Chinese-context college English teachers' awareness and competence of differentiating similar language items as well as that of using language rhetorically.

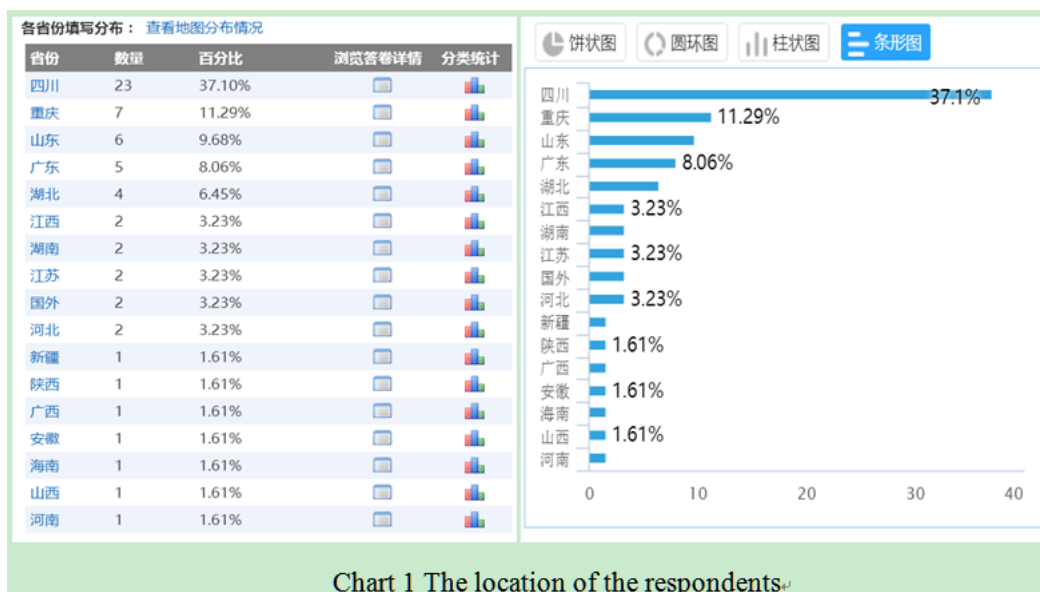


Chart 1 The location of the respondents.

1. Identification and Differentiation of the Structures “verb + adjective” and “verb + adverb”

As is shown in Table 1, the respondents' average scoring rate of the 24 questions is 51.9%, with 79.2% as the highest rate and 29.2% the lowest. Only 13 respondents score 60% or more, accounting for 20.1% of the total respondents, and none of them score 80% or more. When it comes to the 15 questions with the double predicate structure “verb + adjective”, their average scoring rate is still lower, only 37.1%, with 80% as the highest. And some respondents even didn't identify a single double predicate structure. There are 13 respondents scoring 60% or more, with two of them scoring 80%. When the 9 questions with the structure “verb + adverb” are concerned, the average scoring rate is much better, reaching 76.5%, with 100% as the highest and 11.1% the lowest. There are 53 respondents scoring 60% or more, with 14 of them scoring between 80% and 90% and 10 scoring 100%.

Table 1 The performance of respondents in the questionnaire.

	24 questions	15 questions with “verb + adjective”	9 questions with “verb + adverb”
average scoring rate	51.88%	37.10%	76.52%
the highest scoring rate	79.17%	80.00%	100.00%
the lowest scoring rate	29.17%	0	11.11%
scoring rate < 60%	79%	79.03%	14.52%
60% ≤ scoring rate < 70%	12.9%	12.90%	17.74%
70% ≤ scoring rate < 80%	8.1%	4.84%	29.03%
80% ≤ scoring rate < 90%	0	3.22%	22.58%
90% ≤ scoring rate < 100%	0	0	0
scoring rate = 100%	0	0	16.13%

These figures illustrate that most respondents (up to 85.5%) performed well enough in identifying the structure “verb + adverb”, with 38.7% of them doing it very well, and 16.1% of them excellently. Most respondents, however, did not perform well enough in differentiating the two confusing structures, with only 20.1% of them made 60% or more of the correct choices for specific contexts. It indicates that most of them can not differentiate the expressive effects of these two structures. And some respondents performed really bad in identifying the structure “verb + adjective”, with only 20.9% of the total made 60% of the proper choices for specific contexts, but two of them did very well, identifying 80% of the 15 double predicate structures. It exemplifies that the difference in the expressive effects of the two similar structures has been noticed and that some English learners have the awareness of differentiating similar language items and their expressive effects.

In one word, the survey seemed to imply that most Chinese-context college English teachers do not tend to do very well in differentiating the expressive effects of similar language structures, not showing strong enough awareness of such rhetorical use of language.

## 2. The Correlation between the Identification of “verb + adjective” and “verb + adverb”

Closely study individual performance of the respondents in the questionnaire discloses that those respondents who did well in the 15 questions with the double predicate structures didn't necessarily perform similarly well in the 9 questions without the double predicate structures, they were expected so, though. The underlying assumption is that those who identified the “verb + adjective” structures understand the true meaning of such structures and can distinguish them from the “verb + adverb” structure, while those who didn't identify the “verb + adverb” structures are not likely to identify the “verb + adjective” structures, for it's believed that it's hard for those who don't really understand the basics of language use to master something more advanced and complicated. But the survey shows that most of those who scored very high in the 15 questions turned out to score very low in the 9 questions.

For a better and a more precise insight into the respondents' performance, the researcher analyzed the correlation between the average scoring rate of the 15 questions with the structure “verb + adjective” and that of the 9 questions with the structure “verb + adverb”. The Spearman correlation was as shown in Tab. 2. The figures show that there existed significantly negative correlation between them. That is, the better the respondents performed in the 15 questions, the worse they did in the 9 questions. To put it another way, if the respondents scored well in the 15 questions, they would usually score quite low in the 9 questions, or if they had very good scores in the 9 questions, they would usually score very bad in the 15 questions. The Spearman correlation analysis result is consistent with the then result of the questionnaire, but contrary to the assumption that advanced language skills are usually based on the basic ones, and that those who can properly use the advanced language skills can perform well in the less advanced ones.

The possible reason is likely to be that most respondents did not really have an insight into the delicate difference between the two structures and their expressive effects. They either chose adverbs for most or even all the questions by following the general grammar rules, or chose adjectives for most or even all questions because they had speculated the intention of the survey and answered the questions against the usual rules. This possibility may be verified and confirmed by the fact that no respondents offered their tips of answering the questionnaire, though not necessarily.

Table 2 The correlation between the average scoring rates of questions with “verb + adjective” and of those with “verb + adverb”.

相关系数					
		对含动形结构题目的表现	对含动副结构题目的表现		
Spearman 的 rho	对含动形结构题目的表现	相关系数	1.000	-0.578**	
		Sig. (双侧)	.	.000	
		N	62	62	
	对含动副结构题目的表现	相关系数	-0.578**	1.000	
		Sig. (双侧)	.000	.	
		N	62	62	

\*\* 在置信度 (双侧) 为 0.01 时, 相关性是显著的。

## IV. CONCLUSION

The double predicate structures present picturelike effects of the foreground interest composition in photography due to the smooth transition offered by the verbs in them, and the properly emphasized states, traits, or identities indicated by the adjectives. The use of the double predicate structures is not a simple activity of language use, but more an advanced practice of language use, e.g. rhetorical use of language. Use of such double predicate structures shows in some way Chinese-context college English teachers' awareness of rhetorical use of language. The survey seemed to indicate that most Chinese-context college English teachers have trouble in differentiating the expressive effects of the two similar structures — “verb + adjective” and “verb + adverb”. Therefore, they are not likely to make fluent use of such structures in their production since understanding and identifying a language item is the prerequisite of its proper use.

Grammar rules contribute to the correctness of language use, but not the appropriateness, let alone a special expressive effect. The pragmatic and rhetorical knowledge of language and language use helps with what is more than correctness. On that account, in language learning and teaching, due attention should be paid to the delicate differences among similar words, structures and sentence patterns, and to their different expressive and aesthetic effects to cultivate awareness and competence of rhetorical use of language, enhancing the general language performance.

This paper is intended to explore Chinese-context college English teachers' awareness and competence of differentiating similar language items and using rhetorical language by surveying their identification and differentiation

of the specific structures “verb + adjective” and “verb + adverb”. There exists some imperfection about the questionnaire. First, there were only 62 valid questionnaires, and the samples were not large enough, which may not be various and comprehensive enough. Second, the number of questions with the structure “verb + adverb” was not the same as that of questions with the structure “verb + adjective”. If the questions with the “verb + adverb” structure were as many as those with the other structure, the correlation between the average scoring rates of the two types of questions would be more explanatory and convincing. With all this imperfection, this study can serve as an initiating attempt for more valuable research about the actual use of the double predicate structures.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was part of the research achievements of the Project “Corpus-driven Studies of the Cultivation of Rhetorical Language Competence in English Writing” (16SA0107), supported by Scientific Research Fund of SiChuan Provincial Education Department.

#### REFERENCES

- [1] Curme, G. (1953). *English Grammar*. New York: Barnes & Noble Inc.
- [2] Ganshina, A. N. Vasilevskaya. (1964). *English Grammar* (9<sup>th</sup> ed.). Moscow: Foreign Languages Publishing House.
- [3] Geoffrey, L., Jan Svartvik. (1982). *A Communicative Grammar of the English*. London: Longman House.
- [4] He Ziran. (2011). Some Thoughts on my Cognition of Pragmatics. *Studies of the Modern Foreign Languages*, 7, 1-4.
- [5] Hu Lanying, Du Xuemei, Lv Shaoquan. (2002). On Simplification of English Language’s Expression. *Journal of Social Science of Jiamusi University* 20. 3, 52-54.
- [6] Hu Yiqin. (2007). *The Cognitive Investigation of Double Predicate*. Doctoral Dissertation. Nanjing: Nanjing Normal University.
- [7] Jespersen, O. (1954). *A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles*. London: Einar Munksgaard, GEORGE ALLEN & UNWIN LTD.
- [8] Li Chongyue. (2001). A Study of English Double Predicate and Its Relevant Characters. *Jiangsu University of Science and Technology (Social Science)* 1, 106-109.
- [9] Li Hong. (2000). Grammar, Rhetoric and Grammatical Rhetoric. *Shandong Foreign Language Teaching Journal*, 4, 29-32.
- [10] Lin Lu, Han Bingbing. (2015). A Constructional Grammar Study of English Double Predicate Construction. *Language Education* 3. 2, 60-66.
- [11] Lu Jinlin. (1986). A Second Study of the English Double Predicates. *Foreign Language Research* 3, 40-44.
- [12] Qiu Wensheng. (2015). Cognitive Study of Rhetoric. *Journal of Chongqing University of Technology (Social Science)* 29. 12, 122-126.
- [13] Quirk, R. (1985). *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. Sidney: Greenbaum.
- [14] Ren Shaozeng. (1978). Verbs in the English Double Predicates. *Journal of Foreign Languages* 1, 11-18.
- [15] Ren Shaozeng. (1979). The English Double Predicates. *Studies of the Modern English* 2, 11-19.
- [16] Ren Shaozeng. (1988). A Third Study of the English Double Predicates. *Journal of Foreign Languages* 1, 21-27.
- [17] Ren Shaozeng. (2001). A Discoursal Approach to Syntactic Structure. *Journal of Foreign Languages* 6, 1-12.
- [18] Ren Shaozeng. (2010). Why is it Possible that a Material Process can also be a Relational Process?—A Study of the verbs in the double predicate clause from a cognitive-functional perspective. *Journal of Foreign Languages* 33. 2, 2-11.
- [19] Ren Shaozeng. (2011). How do Notional Verbs Merge into the Relative Clause—A Study of the Double Predicate Clause from a Cognitive-Functional Perspective. *Journal of Foreign Languages* 34. 4, 21-31.
- [20] Ren Xiaojin. (1986). Identification of the English Double Predicates. *Foreign Language Research* 2, 15-22、 14.
- [21] Sweet, H. (1891) *A New English Grammar: logical and Historical*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [22] Tang Lu, Yu Jialou. (2002). On the discourse meaning of dual predicate. *Journal of Hefei University of Technology (Social Sciences)* 16. 4, 122-124.
- [23] Xu Juntao. (1995). Features of Verbs in the English Double Predicates. *Journal of Fuzhou University (Social Science)* 9. 4, 57-59、 64.
- [24] Zou Qiong. (2005). *New Language Theories and Their Teaching Implications*. *Human Social Science*, 11, 137-139.



**Yulan Gu** was born in Guang’an, China, in 1976. She received her master’s degree in English Language and Literature from Sichuan University, China, in 2007.

In the first three years of her teaching career, she taught primary students and middle school students English. Since 2002, she has been teaching English reading and writing at Sichuan University of Arts and Science. Now she is an associate professor there, mainly teaching English writing. She has published more than ten articles about English teaching, many of which are about the teaching of English reading and writing. Her writing course book, *Basic English Writing: From Writing Purposes to Essays*, was published by Southwestern University of Finance & Economics Press last year. Now her research chiefly involves the teaching of English writing and that of writing-oriented reading.

Ms. Gu is a member of Sichuan Association for Applied Linguistics. She won third place in the teaching contest at Sichuan University of Arts and Science in 2003, and was awarded the title of Excellent Young Teacher by her university in 2012. In 2013, 2015, and 2016, she was the winner of the Second, the Third, and the First Coach Award in the Sichuan Provincial Final of 2013, 2015, and 2016 “FLTRP Cup” English Writing Contest.

# Bilingual-based Instruction in Teaching English for Academic Purposes at Islamic University

Sitti Nurpahmi

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

Muhammad Asfah Rahman

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

Kisman Salija

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

**Abstract**—This paper investigates the implementation of bilingual based instruction in teaching English for Academic purposes at Islamic University. It was investigated by using case study with single case study at Indonesian Islamic University. The findings showed that the lecturer used English and Indonesian as a language interaction. The functions of Indonesian used by the lecturer were to translate, clarify, explain, lexical gap, address specification, and address affection. The lecturer sometimes alternated her language unconsciously. Lecturer's language functions not only as language instruction but also as language source. This bilingual based instruction facilitated more exposure to the students; therefore the students can imitate lecturer's language, then they can practice the language, finally, they can acquire the language.

**Index Terms**—Bilingual-based Instruction, English for academic purposes, Islamic University

## I. INTRODUCTION

Bilingual-based instruction is not a new phenomenon in Indonesia. This instruction had been implemented by Indonesian teachers since the Indonesian government allowed the use of target language as language instruction besides Indonesian to support the mastery of target language. The functions of teachers' language and students' language are not only as language medium but also as language sources. The students can imitate the teachers' utterances. Finally, the students can acquire the language through the exposure around him.

Scholars have conducted research on this case to find out the effect of bilingual education toward students language proficiency and role of teachers' language towards student language in bilingual settings. Bilingual model gave positive contribution toward students' English proficiency (Forman 2008, Galvan-Luis, 2010, p.76, Sanders 2010, p.106) Among four model of bilingual settings, the best improvement in English language proficiency belongs to dual language 90:10 instructional program, followed by transitional bilingual, dual language 50:50, and English instructional programs (Galvan-Luis, 2010, p.76). Furthermore, bilingual model can also give contribution toward students' motivation in learning English. Ma (2010, p.108) found that firstly, the Dual Language program students intend to master both languages-- English and Spanish well while the Transitional Bilingual Education students prefer to speak English than Spanish and it indicated that they forget their native language. Second, the Dual Language students have more self-efficacy with grammar than the students in the Transitional Bilingual Education. Lastly, Dual Language students thought that learning English will benefit them in the future while the Transitional Bilingual students thought that learning English is more as a survival tool.

On the other hand, according to Roqriquez (2011, p.107) bilingual settings affect negatively toward students' academic performance. Roqriquez (2011, p.107) who investigates about why some bilingual students have low academic performance found that the main reason why students have low academic after transition is related to low proficiency in the area of English as a second language, lack of formal English as second language instruction, especially in the areas of vocabulary and comprehension, inadequate implementation of the bilingual program.

Noor and Harun (2015) found that the study of bilingual teaching classroom of Malaysian community colleges was designed for developing a brand new environment of teaching in a bilingual classroom. The result indicates that the needs of the language for each classroom are highly depend on the teachers' competencies of the language used instead of the learners' needs. In a nutshell, the bilingual teaching classroom of community colleges can be evaded by practicing better approaches and methods in teaching.

Students who are in bilingual classroom also have negative perception. Chai, et.al, (2016) found that nursing students' satisfaction with the textbooks, teachers, teaching methods and overall teaching result is not high in nursing bilingual teaching in China. Furthermore, Chai, et.al, (2016) recommends that bilingual teaching in China need to be improved include establishing suitable bilingual teaching material, training teaching faculty members and adopting proper teaching methods.

The phenomenon of EFL learners to learn their target language is by using their mother language. The learners put to their mother tongue the target language that they learn. In addition, they also think in their first language. When they are in discussion class, they first think in their first language then they try to translate into the target language. Even though the process of translating is sometimes fast because they have had some prior knowledge about the concept (observation in the classroom during 2013). Furthermore, Yan, Zhang, Xu, Chen, & Wang (2016) states that it is predicted that bilinguals rely on their first language (L1) to process the second language (L2).

Based on the previous findings, the writer would like to investigate how is the implementation of bilingual-based instruction in teaching English for Specific purposes at Islamic university.

## II. REVIEW LITERATURE

The statute Law number 24, year 2009 article 29 paragraph 2 allows the use of target language besides native language as language instruction. The using of target language as language instruction aims to support the mastery of target language. Indonesian government allows teacher/lecturer to use English language as language instruction in teaching English besides Indonesian.

Krashen argues that learning only takes place by means of a learner's access to comprehensible input. Humans acquire language in only one way -- by understanding messages or by receiving comprehensible input. Learning will occur when unknown items are only just beyond the learner's level. The Input Theory also has two corollaries: Corollary 1: Speaking is a result of acquisition, not its cause; it emerges as result of building competence via comprehensible input. Corollary 2: If input is understood and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided. The language teacher need not attempt deliberately to teach the next structure along the natural order -- it will be provided in just the right quantities and automatically reviews if the student receives a sufficient amount of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985, p.2).

Krashen describes two ways: the linguistic resources are insufficient for immediate decoding. Simplified input can be made available to the learner through one-way or two way interaction, with the former including listening to a lecture, watching television and reading, and the latter occurring in conversations. Krashen stresses that two-way interaction is a particularly good way of providing comprehensible input because it enables the learner to obtain additional contextual information and optimally adjusted input when meaning has to be negotiated because of communication problems (Krashen, 1985, p.2)

In Krashen's view, acquisition takes place by means of a learner's access to comprehensible input. He comments that the input, which is totally incomprehensible to learners, is not likely to cause learning to take place. Teacher talk, actually serves as main sources of input of language exposure in classroom learning, is more important for foreign language learning, so teachers should make their input comprehensible and in right quantities (Xiao-Yan, 2006).

August & Shanahan (2008) affirm that conceptual and linguistic elements may be transferred from one language to the other if the learner has sufficient exposure to the other language and motivation to learn it. Even learners of linguistically distant languages may have the capacity to transfer conceptual, cognitive, and academic elements, as well as metacognitive and metalinguistic strategies, across two languages. Yih-Lin et.al. (2014) suggest that alternation of first language and second language in bilingual instruction may exploit students' bilingual enhancement and exploit students' learning efficacy. Furthermore, Myojin (2007) found that the more English in teacher talk in English Foreign Language classrooms used, the more English listening comprehension skills improved. It indicated that the more the lecturer used English, the more exposure the student got. The more exposure to the students, the more English can be acquired by the students.

Kang(2008) found that the teacher whose EFL proficiency level was high relied significantly more on the target language (TL) than on the first language (L1), while the low proficiency level teacher depended significantly more on L1 than on TL. The differences were found to be caused in complex ways by a number of factors. Furthermore, Meng and Wang (2011) states that teachers' language has a great effect on the students' language acquisition. The proper use of Indonesian (mother language) and English (foreign Language) in appropriate contexts was recommended in teaching English as foreign language because it was postulated that the use of two languages --Indonesia and English as language instruction has positive contribution in teaching English in EFL classroom (Zulfah, Rasyid, Rahman, & Rahman, 2015)

## III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### A. Design of Research

This research is categorized a qualitative study. According to Gilham (2000) qualitative study stresses on the level of evidence found (what people tell you, what they do) that can facilitate reader to recognize the meaning of what is happening. The great strength is that they can highlight issues and get in accessible explanations.

Case studies are strategy used to investigate "how" or "why" something are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context. Such "explanatory" case studies also can be complemented by two other types-"exploratory" and "descriptive" case studies. Even a single-case study can often be used to pursue an explanatory, and not merely exploratory (or descriptive),

purpose. The analyst's objective should be to pose competing explanations for the same set of events and to indicate how such explanations may apply to other situation (Yin, 2013). Therefore, this study is explanatory case study because this study investigates a single-case.

In addition, the case study at Islamic university was chosen to reflect the language instruction that implemented in Islamic university. I chose Islamic university to portray deeply about the instruction applied by the lecturer in teaching English for specific purposes.

Furthermore, descriptive case explorations require that the investigator present a descriptive theory, which establishes the overall framework for the investigator to follow throughout the study (Berg, 2004, p.230). A case study is chosen because it is believed that understanding the case will lead to better understanding, perhaps better theorizing about the case (Stake, 2005, p.437). The strength of the case study is that it can provide a rich description of the cases being studied.

#### *B. Data and Data Sources*

This research applied the classroom interaction between one lecturer and 36 students as a primer data. The data covered lecturer' language and students' language during teaching English for specific purposes at Physics Education department.

#### *C. Research Site and Participants*

The research was conducted at Physics Education Department of Alauddin State Islamic University of Makassar. The lecturer in teaching English for academic purposes implements a bilingual based instruction during classroom interaction. The university is located in Samata Gowa regency of South Sulawesi Province in Indonesia. The lecturer has been implementing the bilingual based instruction since the government allowed target language as a medium of instruction to support the mastery of the target language.

The participants of the research was one English lecturer and and her 36 students in the class B Physics Education department. The lecturer was chosen due to her qualification in Bilingual based instruction. She is one of English lecturers used two languages during the class interaction. She was quite competent in English because she had gotten her graduate degree and had attended several English training, for improving her skill in using English as a medium of instruction.

The total number of students in the class is thirty six. They come from different parent's job background, In the context of place, all students had been studying English for six years during their junior high school and senior high school.

#### *D. The Context of English in the Islamic University*

English is a compulsory subject which has to be learned by all students in physics Education Department. English was given to the students to prepare them to interact with references written in English and competed in international higher education competitiveness. The students also had joined PIBA (foreign language intensive program) for two semesters.

#### *E. Instruments of Data Collection*

The instruments of the research were researcher, observation guide and interview guide to conduct observation and interview, diary to make field notes and interview transcripts, the recorder (galaxy Note 3) to record interview and the video camera (Galaxy note) to take video and picture or photograph.

#### *F. Data Analysis Techniques*

Data analysis techniques used in this research was Thematic Analysis. The stages of thematic analysis are: Firstly, the data were organized and coded by identifying the themes or topics. Secondly, the data were interpreted and related to the previous findings and review of literature. The data were revisited after the initial coding, until it was clear that no new themes were emerging. After the coding was completed, coded files were printed and stored in files labelled with each code name.

### IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Bilingual-based instruction is instruction in which the teacher/lecturer and students use two languages in classroom interaction. The context of two languages used depends on language function. The result of the observation at the classroom interaction showed that lecturer and students used Indonesian and English in classroom interaction. Lecturer used English more than Indonesian, while students used Indonesian more than English. Lecturer used English not only as a language medium but also as language sources. Teachers' talk could be a source of language as language input or exposure to the students. Students' talk also could be exposures to the other students.

Based on the data from observation and recording, it showed that lecturers' talk produced by the lecturer and the language used by the lecturer in each context can be seen in the following table:



TABLE 1.

CONTEXT PRODUCED BY LECTURER DURING CLASSROOM INTERACTION		
1.	Greeting	Islamic greeting and English
2.	Introducing material/topics	English
3.	Giving Explanation	Indonesian and English
4.	Giving direction/instruction	English and Indonesian
3.	Encouraging students/motivating students	English and Indonesian
6.	Giving clarification	English
7.	Giving reinforcement	English
8.	Giving thanks	English
9.	Asking question	English and Indonesian
10.	Answering question	English and Indonesian
11.	Closing activity	English and Indonesian

As shown in above table, the lecturer used English in greetings, introducing material/topic, giving clarification, giving reinforcement, and giving thanks. The lecturer used both languages –English and Indonesian-- in giving explanation, giving direction/instruction, encouraging/motivating students, asking questions, answering questions, and in closing activity. This study is in line with the finding of Nurpahmi, S.(2017) who found that there are some types of teachers' talk performed by the lecturer during classroom interaction, they are greeting student, reviewing the previous material, introducing the new material, giving direction and instruction, encouraging and motivating, giving advice and closing the class.

The procedures of teaching applied using bilingual-based instruction can be seen as follows:

### 1. Opening class

In opening class, the lecturer greeted and introduced material to the students. In greetings, the lecturer used Islamic greeting, then followed by English greetings as can be seen in the following extract:

Extract 1

Lecturer: *Assalamu Alaikum Warahmatullahi Wabarakatuh*  
*Good Morning ( Source: OM.1, Extract 1)*

Based on above extract, it showed that lecturer used Islamic greeting then repeated greeting in English. The lecturer did not translate or repeat the Indonesian greeting 'selamat pagi', because of the utterance is common utterance and the students had been familiar with the utterances.

In introducing material, the lecturer used English as can be seen in the following extract:

Extract 2

Lecturer: *Well, I'am going to continue my... aaa miss ah shopia for this class for seven meetings, and then well, the material is ee about of basics of English. Have you been alright? (Source. OM.1. Extarct 2)*

As shown in above extract, the teacher did not translate or repeat the utterances because she assumed that the utterances are common and students have been familiar with those utterances.

### 2. Core activity

In this activity, the lecturer gave instruction, explanation, asking, answering. Firstly, the lecturer gave instruction in English and code switched with Indonesian to clarify meaning as can be seen as follows:

Extract 3

Giving instruction / direction

Lecturer: *So, I think, I have, we have to divide into group, we sa about vocabularies today we study about vocabularies. So I aaa need you to five groups. Five groups.*

S: *You understand* (students asked to her friends)

Lecturer: *You start, you got, you take one to five, one two, three, or you better one, two, three, four five, yeah you better aah get together and then you get together, you get together and also first line you get together and also you get together, ahh, come on, Ahh, I mean this line you get together for one group, and second line you get together for one group, aahh, and this line, yes, you can get together. Aah Face to face, **Kamu saling berhadapanlah, supaya nanti bisa kerjasama, tetap kita lanjutkan untuk vocabulary saja hari ini. You can discuss the material today.***

[firstly students look confuse with the lecturer' instruction, but later students follows the lecturer' direction by making a group of five or six students, students are arranging chairs]

*Okay, you look at the word, what can you understand, what is in Indonesia for this word.*

In this extract, it showed that the lecturer code switched 'face to face' by translating '**kamu saling berhadapanlah**' and continued with '**supaya nanti bisa kerjasama**' used to clarify or gave explanation, then continued '**tetap kita lanjutkan untuk vocabulary saja hari ini**, used to reiterate or repeat the material for the meeting, because the material had been introduced in advance.

Secondly, the lecturer did asking and answering activity to explain material as can be seen as follows:

Extract 4

Asking and Answering

Lecturer: *do You understand about the word , what is word, what is word in Indonesian?*

Students: *kata*

Lecturer: *friend*

Students: *teman*

Lecturer: *Plan*

Students: *Perencanaan*

Lecturer: *Tv*

Students: *telivisi*

Lecturer: *mother*

Students: *ibu*

Lecturer: *room*

Students: *kamar*

Lecturer: *broken thing*

Students: *barang yang rusak*

Lecturer: *children*

Students: *anak-anak*

Lecturer: *Commitment, I mean commitment*

Students: *Sepakat, kayak kesepakatan, commitment, sepakat*

Lecturer: *okay*

Students: *mobil terus...*

In this extract, the lecturer asked students about the meaning of each word. To know the meaning of each word the students used translation strategy. They just translated each word that the lecturer mentioned. This activity was done until all of the words had been translated. The lecturer used English, while students used Indonesian. The students used English to reiterate the word like in '*Sepakat, kayak kesepakatan, commitment, sepakat*'.

Thirdly, the lecturer gave direction about the task, what the task is and how to do the task. In this activity, the lecturer used English. The lecturer code mixed the language to repeat important word and when the lecturer forgot the English word that will be used in that time. This can be seen in the following extract:

Extract 5

Giving Direction

Lecturer: *No touch before start. Better touch if you start to touch, No touch, do not touch. well If you understand the word and then you find eeee you get all, all group This is phrasal verb, eee phrasal verb, prase, kata kerja prase, and then you make this word, to find ee what what ya, apa yang ada didalamnya, kalimat apa/ then you make, get over Get ovet eee match for what word, do you see, okay this word is verb. This is all noun, this is called noun. Noun sebagai object, this is phrasal verb, you make phrasal verb with the noun, with the object. You see. Everybody understand?*

Students: *Yes mam*

Lecturer: *So you do together, let's start. One, two, three go! I give you chance for ten to finish [Students were doing task: matching task. If you don't understand you can look at the dictionary. Boleh cari di kamus artinya, kenapa ditutupi, bagaimana cara membacanya, susun disini, dan kata kerjanya disini, kamu kerjasamalah! Okay two minutes left. Finish? You finish? [pointing the group] Finish? Okay, one, two, three, jangan dibaca Okay one, two, three, four, you better Five. Six, seven, eighth, nine, ten, okay finish every body, do not touch, hello, do not touch no touching, no touching anymore, thank you, thank you. You Finish all, you finish all, thank you.*

In this extract, the lecturer used English to give direction, but when the lecturer saw the students were confused with the direction, the lecturer code mixed by using repetition. But sometimes the lecturer code mixed the language, if the lecturer forgot what to say like in '*what what ya? Apa yang ada didalamnya? kalimat apa?*' and in '*Noun sebagai object*'. When it was clarified with the lecturer the reason why she used Indonesian, she answered that she was blank or forgot what to say in English.

This utterance '*Boleh cari di kamus artinya! kenapa ditutupi? bagaimana cara membacanya? susun disini! dan kata kerjanya disini, kamu kerjasamalah!*' showed that the lecturer gave explanation about how to do the task. It is caused by the students looked confused what to do. This code switching strategy used to address affection to the students. This also was used to give clarification or to give explanation about what to do.

Fourthly, checking the students' answering. In this activity the lecturer used asking and answering strategy. In this activity, the lecturer used English more than Indonesian did. The lecturer used Indonesian to explain about the meaning of the word.

Extract 6

Presenting the students task

Lecturer: *Okay let see! Number one Word, word*

Students: [panicking]

Lecturer *okay you answer, do not touch! (while pointing the group), do not check! do not touch! do not check! do not touch! Word? Word*

Students: *figure out*

Lecturer: *you*

Students: *xxx*

Lecturer: *you*



Students: *get over*

Lecturer: *You, you don.t do it*

Students: *I am not answer*

Lecturer: *thank you, you*

Students: *get into*

Lecturer: *No touching! Something, word, you looking up something, Not touching! sorry, okay saya jelaskan dulu, the answer is look up, you look something in the dictionary, look up mencari kata, atau you look up something in the room mencari-cari satu barang hilang. Yes looking for, look up sesuatu yang tidak muncul kita mau lihat. Satu salah not touch!* (Source, OM. 1 Extract 6 line)

In above extract '*no touching! sorry, okay saya jelaskan dulu*' used by the lecturer to get the students' attention. In '*look up mencari kata, atau*' used to explain the meaning of the word by translating, but in '*atau*' used by the lecturer because of the lexical gap. In '*you look up something in the room mencari-cari satu barang hilang Yes looking for, look up sesuatu yang tidak muncul kita mau lihat*' used by the lecturer to explain the meaning of the phrasal verb of look up.

The use of Indonesian to explain about the meaning of the phrasal verb also done by the lecturer in the following extract:

Extract 6

Lecturer: *the true is call up, it is impossible you look up you friend. Ada dibawah you call up, ada di ruangan kamu memanggil, you call friend. Okay, the true answer is you.* (Source, OM. 1 Extract 6)

Lecturer: *figure out. Figure out mean merencanakan, membuat rencana, membuat ee sesuatu rencana, next TV* (Source, OM. 1 Extract 6)

Lecturer: *You are true. Look like artinya mirip. Look after, could you look after your mother, the true is your mother look after you.* (Source, OM. 1 Extract 6)

Lecturer: *Get out of, something you want to, And then Pick up merapikan, boleh, memungut, pick up room, merapikan membersihkan, ada yang benar?* (Source, OM. 1 Extract 6)

Lecturer: *Look after means, look after artinya menjaga* (Source, OM. 1 Extract 6)

Lecturer: *Begini, anda sama sama punya prinsip, dengan prinsip itu, bias ingkat jajnji, bisa tidak mau sama-sama lagi dengannya, apa yang bisa masuk disana, kata-kata apa yang kamu dapatkan yang bisa berarti keluar.*

Lecturer: *Get over commitment, terdengar enak tidak?*

Students: *tidak*

Lecture: *Kata-kata apa lagi?, komitmen kita bersama, prinsip kita* (Source: OM. 1 Extract 6)

Lecturer: *get into the car, masuk kedalam mobil.* (Source, OM. 1 Extract 6)

Lecturer: *apa artinya over?*

Students: *berlebih*

Students: *habis, pinish, selesai*

Lecturer: *get over, artinya sudah sembuh.* (Source, OM. 1 Extract 6)

The reason why she used Indonesian was to explain the meaning of the word, the lecturer answered that they did it to avoid misunderstanding. Explaining in native language is clearer than explaining in target language. If the students had understood about the word then they could use in their daily conversation/communication.

Fifthly, pronouncing the word. In this activity the lecturer asked students to pronounce the word by using Indonesia '*sama-sama*'. This can be seen in the following extract:

Extract 7

Lecturer: **Sama-sama** (*doing together*)

Lecturer: *Look up word, look up word*

*Call up friend*

*Figure out plan*

*Turn on Tv*

*Look like mother*

*Pick up room*

*Throw out Broken thing*

*Look after children*

*Get out commitment*

*Get into car*

*Get over illness*

*Do over homework* (Source: OM.1 Extract 7)

The above extract showed that, even though the lecturer tried to use Indonesian to ask students to pronounce the words together, the students did not follow the lecturer. So the lecturer tried to ask students again to practice the words together, but the strategy was combining language, the lecturer mentioned the Indonesian word and then the students mentioned the English word of the phrasal verb.

### 3. Closing class.

In closing the class, the lecturer encouraged students to learn more about the vocabulary by adding and developing to construct their own sentences. In encouraging student, the lecturer used Indonesian and alternated with English. But the lecturer thanked for the student for joining the class using English. The last, the lecturer closed the class by using Islamic greeting. Students also answered lecturer' greeting by using Islamic greeting. This can be seen as follows:

#### Extract 10

##### Closing class

Lecturer: *Time is up, thank you very much, I hope you enjoy the class, itu kata, kata itu anda boleh tambahkan yang penting sudah tahu artinya, call up apa? figure out apa, yang penting pasangannya, pick up apa? yang penting, pick up, I wanto pick up my car, it is okay, maksudnya merapikan aa ruang aa yang ada di mobil, aah it's okay, aa yang penting ayo kita bxx, something yang biasa dirapikan. You can say get over bisa, get over, yang penting sudah tahu artinya, kamu bisa kembangkan ke kalimat yang lain.*

*Thank you very much, I hope you can enjoy class next, Assalamu Alaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh*

Students: *Walaikummusalam warahmatullahi wabarakatuh*

This extract showed that in encouraging students, the lecturer used Indonesian. In thanking the lecturer used English. This utterance 'time is up, thank you very much, I hope you enjoy the class' and 'Thank you very much, I hope you can enjoy class next' have been familiar to the students, so the lecturer used without explanation and translation.

Bilingual-based instruction implemented by the lecturer in teaching English for Academic purposes are hoped to serve students to master English. The uses of English as language instruction besides Indonesian in classroom are considered to facilitate students to master English. The students were not only thought the theory of language but also thought how to practice the language. The reason why the lecturer used English more than Indonesian in classroom is to give more language exposure to the students. The lecturer's language serves as source of language input. This is in line with the comprehensible input theory from Krashen. The students in classroom are hoped to acquire language by understanding or by receiving comprehensible input. Simplified input can be made available to the learner through lecturer-students interaction or students-students interaction. By listening the lecturer' language, the students can imitate lecturer utterances, even acquire the language unconsciously.

This study supported theory of Xiao-Yan (2006) that explained lecturers' language serves as main sources of input of language exposure in classroom learning. exposure is more important for foreign language learning, so teachers should make their input comprehensible and in right quantities (Xiao-Yan, 2006).

This study also in line with the previous findings from some scholars (Forman 2008, Galvan-Luis, 2010, p.76, Sanders 2010, p.106) that the bilingual model –use two language native and target language as language instruction— have positive contribution toward students' academic performance. Bilingual model also can exploit students' motivation in learning English.

Some new point that the researcher found during the implication of the bilingual-based instruction as a consideration in implementing bilingual based instruction as follows:

1. The lecturer still used her native language unconsciously.
2. The frequency of native language and target language used during classroom interaction different between each context. The lecturer also could not determine the frequency of native language and target language that she will use before meeting. The frequency of target and native language used by the lecturer depend on the level of new terms used in one meeting and the level of difficulty of material explained.
3. The lecturer should have good competencies in target language, so the lecturer is aware when she should speak native language and when she should speak target language.
4. The lecturer should pay attention to the students during the classroom interaction in order the lecturer could facilitate students to understand lecturer' talk.
5. The material used by the teacher should be in bilingual-based material to support the bilingual-based instruction and students could learn without the availability of the lecturer.

## V. CONCLUSION

Based on the previous discussion, the writer draws conclusion as follows:

1. The implementation of Bilingual-based instruction in teaching English for academic purposes facilitated students with the language lecturer that can be not only as language instruction but also as language source of material.
2. Lecturer' language during the classroom interaction is a language source that can be imitated by the students. It also can be input of language exposure.
3. The more English used by the lecturer, the more language that can be acquire by the students.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors thank the lecturer and all students for their participation in this research. We also thank the dean of Education and teacher training faculty for his permission in conducting this research in his campus. Special thanks go to our family for their love and supports in finishing this research.

## REFERENCES

- [1] August, D. and Shanahan. (2006). *Developing Literacy in Second-Language Learners: Report of the National Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth*.
- [2] Berg, B. L. (2004). *Methods for the social sciences*. Pearson Education Inc, United States of America.
- [3] Cai, C., Zhang, C., Wang, Y., Xiong, L., Jin, Y., & Jin, C. (2016). Nursing students' satisfaction with bilingual teaching in nursing courses in China: A meta-analysis. *Nurse Education Today*, 44, p.51–58.
- [4] Forman, R. (2008). Using notions of scaffolding and intertextuality to understand the bilingual teaching of English in Thailand. *Linguistics and Education*, 19(4), p.319–332.
- [5] Galvan-Luis, S. (2010). The impact of bilingual education on academic achievement and language development of third grade English language learners in Texas. Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi.
- [6] Gillham, B. (2000). *Case study research methods*. Bloomsbury Publishing, London.
- [7] Kang, D.-M. (2008). The classroom language use of a Korean elementary school EFL teacher: Another look at TETE. *System*, 36(2), p.214–226.
- [8] Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. Addison-Wesley Longman Ltd. London.
- [9] Ma, E. C. (2010). A Comparative Study of Motivational Orientation of Elementary School English Learners in a Dual Language Immersion Program and a Transitional Bilingual Education Program. ERIC.
- [10] Meng, X., & Wang, X. (2011). Action study of teacher's language on EFL classroom interaction. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1(1), p.98–104.
- [11] Myojin, C. (2007). The Effect Of Teacher Talk In Efl Classrooms: The Nonuse Or Use Of Learners'11 By An Instructor. *K@ Ta Lama*, 9(1), p.1–18.
- [12] Noor, F. M., & Harun, H. (2015). Phenomenological Study: Bilingual Teaching Classroom of Malaysian Community Colleges. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 204, p.114–118.
- [13] Nurpahmi, S. (2017). Teacher Talk In Classroom Interaction. *ETERNAL (English, Teaching, Learning, and Research Journal)*, 3(1). 34-43.
- [14] Rodriguez, A. (2011). Exploring why some bilingual students have low academic performance while others succeed after transitioning into all-English instructional settings at an inner city elementary school. Doctoral Dissertation. University of Houston.
- [15] Sanders, A. N. (2010). The effectiveness of Two-Way Bilingual Immersion programs in closing the achievement gap for minority students. Texas Southern University. Texas.
- [16] Stake, R. E. (2005). Qualitative case studies. in Denzin, Norman K, and Yvonna S. Lincoln. *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, 2005. Print. (p443-466).
- [17] Xiao-Yan, M. A. (2006). Teacher talk and EFL in university classrooms. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Chongqing Normal University & Yangtze Normal University, China, p.5–13.
- [18] Yan, H., Zhang, Y. M., Xu, M., Chen, H. Y., & Wang, Y. H. (2016). What to do if we have nothing to rely on: Late bilinguals process L2 grammatical features like L1 natives. *Journal of Neurolinguistics*, 40, p.1–14.
- [19] Yin, R. K. (2013). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Sage publications. London.
- [20] Zulfah, Z., Rasyid, M. A., Rahman, M. A., & Rahman, A. Q. (2015). Teachers' Instructional and Management Talk in English Foreign Language Classroom. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 6(6), p.1280–1288.



**Sitti Nurpahmi** was born on March 8<sup>th</sup> 1974 in Boarengnge, Bone Regency, South Sulawesi. She is second daughter from four sisters and two brothers, her Father is Drs. Marzuki and her mother is Sitti Aminah. She started teaching at Faculty teachers and education of UIN Alauddin Makassar 2009. The writer has written paper, article published in journal. She also has joined international seminar as a speaker. They are The contribution of self concept toward writing ability (Proceedings of International Seminar diterbitkan oleh Universitas Negeri Makassar ISBN: 978-602-9072-37-3), Teaching English to young learners (journal of Inspiratif Pendidikan, 2013), and Difficulties encountered by the students in producing English sound (journal of Lentera pendidikan, 2013)



**Muhammad Asfah Rahman** was born in Selayar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia in 1952. He received his PH.D degree in Instructional Design and Technology from the University of Pittsburgh, PA, USA in 1990. He is currently an associate professor in the faculty of literature and language, State University of Makassar, Makassar, Indonesia. His research interests include early reading program for learners of English as a foreign language. Prof. Rahman is currently a member of Indonesian Linguistics Society (MLI), Indonesian Education Scholars Association (ISPI), and TEFLIN (Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia).



**Kisman Salija**, is a senior lecturer at the English Department. He has been teaching English at UNM since 1980. He is now teaching Academic and Creative Writing Courses at undergraduate and graduate level at English Department UNM., Indonesia. His research interests are on the Teaching of Academic and Creative Writing by Indonesian young Learners English, and Language Testing.

# The Effect of Using Fun Activities on Learning Vocabulary at the Elementary Level

Farideh Bavi

Department of English Language Teaching, Ahvaz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ahvaz, Iran

**Abstract**—The current study investigated the effect of using fun activity on learning vocabulary at the Elementary level in Ahvaz. The participants were 40 female students who were selected among 80 learners. They were studying English at an English institute. Their age was ranging from 8 to 15. In order to have homogeneous groups, the learners were given an Oxford Quick Placement Test to determine their proficiency level. The teacher made test based on Hill's book given to them as the pre-test. Then they were divided into two equal groups of experimental and control groups. The experimental group received instruction and the control group was taught in the traditional way of teaching vocabulary including the uses of both groups 12 sessions of treatment, each 45 minutes with the same materials; and then they took a post-test at the end of the course. Data were analyzed through Independent and Paired samples test. Results showed that the experimental group outperformed the control one ( $p < 0$ ). Implications of the study suggest learners using fun activity on learning vocabulary to provide them with effective learning.

**Index Terms**—charades, letter scramble, chalk board acronym

## I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary knowledge occupies a crucial position in the process of second language learning. Myriads of attempts have been made to assist learners to solve the challenges facing to vocabulary learning. However, doubts remain over their effectiveness in enhancing learners' vocabulary comprehension and production (Song, 2011).

Using games and fun activity as an instructive device isn't something new and had a long history in dialect educating. Diversions were utilized for more redundancy in Audio lingual; they were presented in Desuggestopedia as pretend exercises or different exercises planning to lessen dialect obstructions; most exercises in TPR were amusement like ones to embed fun in classroom condition; and they observed to be convenient in Cooperative dialect educating, so as to boost the student association. This long story may demonstrate the viability of amusements (Thanh Huyen, & Thu Nga, 2003).

During the language learning process, young learners are quick to learn vocabulary, slower to learn structures. Having exposure and using words in the contexts such as fun activities (Brainstorm, charades, modified catch phrase, the dictionary game, what am I thinking of?, letter scramble, 20 object) can be a beneficial in order to fix them in their mind. Fun activities can help establishing the relationship between the words to other lexical items so that a vocabulary network is built up (Ashraf, Ghaneimotlagh & Salami, 2014).

The use of games and fun activities for vocabulary teaching and its wash-back effect well documented in various Studies that help many students to shed their embarrassment and be able to participate more actively in the meaning making process (Honarmand & Rostampour 2014). According to Derakhshan and DavoodiKhatir (2015), various methods such as using games can be used to teach and learn vocabulary. Games can assist the teachers to create social contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful. To successfully advance learning, amusements must incorporate routes for understudies to think about and clarify what is going on. Learning may not happen without time for reflection.

Instructors ought to propel understudies to exploit diversions in their learning procedure. They additionally need to screen their understudies' utilization of these vocabulary amusements to ensure that the structure and guidelines of the diversion don't take higher rank over learning. Learning vocabulary through diversions is one of the compelling and fascinating ways that can be connected in classrooms (Emirmustafaolu & Gökmen, 2015).

For instance, Donmus (2010) trusts that the estimation of instructive diversions has been expanding in dialect training since they help to make dialect instruction engaging. Likewise, these days learning vocabulary through recreations and fun exercises has increased much consideration. Whenever diversions and training are consolidated, it can be educative and instruction conditions can be engaging. The students who learned through amusements, increase inspirational dispositions and can be more persuaded while learning.

Arikan (2009) contends albeit all vocabulary instructing is relevant at varying degrees, it is normal that the educator can contextualize the lesson through various techniques including utilizing sound or visual materials, getting realia and props, narrating, critical thinking, giving cases, indicating sentence structure use, playing amusements, and instructing certainly and unequivocally.

Diversions and fun exercises have dependably been a prevalent instrument in an English class keeping in mind the end goal to premium and wake up uninterested understudies additionally is a successful intends to advance youngsters' educational and mental potential in English learning has been under dialog for quite a while (Kuo, 2008). Deng (2006) expressed that "a diversion is a focused action including abilities, possibility, or continuance with respect to at least two people who play as indicated by an arrangement of guidelines, as a rule for their own particular beguilement or for spectators."(p. 3).

Taheri (2014) social association in diversion like exercises accommodates understudies different chances to help and support, let them partake in true correspondence, collaborate with each other, increment their confidence, demonstrate a more noteworthy readiness to cooperate with their companions. Truth be told, they are subliminally roused towards coordinating and counseling (talking each other and utilizing vocabulary and expressions. The understudies are occupied with the movement on the grounds that there is no should fear evaluations and instructor just screens understudies and reports the champs and failures. Understudies' endeavors in finding the right answer in a vocabulary amusement draw in them in a social collaboration. Interfacing in vocabulary amusement like exercises, understudies are expelled from anxious weights of being watched so their capacity to learn and review vocabulary things will be expanded. Toward the finish of action, understudies of the gatherings endeavor to find the obscure vocabulary things by arranging each other which consequently expands understudies' participation. Moreover, the recent findings are highly valued by constructivist theorists, who believe that social interaction is critical to learning.

Scarfo and Littleford (2008) assert that by setting up a play and fun environment, children are given the opportunity to manipulate, explore and experience with a variety of new material which enhances learning. Through play, children learn independence, knowledge and application of new vocabulary. Taking the advantages of learning vocabulary through different methods into account motivated the researcher to apply various activities, especially fun activities (i.e., Brainstorm, Charades, Modified catch phrase, the dictionary game, what am I thinking of? letter scramble, 20 object) in a new context to investigate their role applying in improving vocabulary enhancement. This study tries to illuminate the impact of applying fun activities on improving elementary students' vocabulary knowledge.

## II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In Iran, educational contexts, have strict class management and lack of fun activities that has made the classes boring and out of enjoyment because teachers don't use game, pictures, role playing, songs, in their teaching to attract students, this way of teaching is meaningless for children and so they'll lose their motivation for learning second language. This effects students' learning also in this way of teaching students don't exposed to the vocabulary for learning because of lack of time for those words to be acquired, or learn vocabulary in long lists or in isolation from a text, or by the use of traditional way such as giving synonym, definition, and opposite and giving example and use of translation and repetition, they are more learning difficulties when it comes to acquiring vocabulary. Learning vocabulary in this way makes difficulties and will lead to anxiety for some students. Through games and fun activity students interact with each other and also make students to learn by themselves and from other students in the processes of playing that reduce the fear of making mistake. Learning in this way gives the students an opportunity to challenge and exposure out of stress and anxiety for learning.

This current study tries to provide a fun atmosphere and use fun activities to teach various words to the elementary learners and attempts to investigate the role of applying fun activities in vocabulary learning.

## III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The first purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of using fun activities on vocabulary learning. Another purpose of this study is to reflect the efficacy and effectiveness of fun activities in performing the main responsibility of educational systems for learners which is paving the new ways to one's future and ongoing development and guiding the individuals to higher stages of vocabulary learning development based on the learners needs and potential talents and in a unique way for each group of learners.

## IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND NULL HYPOTHESIS

This study aimed to answer the following question:

**RQ.** Does the use of fun activities (i.e., Chalk board Acronym, Letter scramble, charades...) affect learning vocabulary among EFL learners at the elementary level?

Based on the above question, the following null hypothesis was formed:

**H0:** The use of fun activities (i.e. Chalk board Acronym, Letter scramble, charades...) does not affect learning vocabulary among EFL learners at the elementary level.

## V. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The results of this study may have crucial effects on learners through improving their learning gradually and investigating the role of applying fun activities in future researches. Also, pertinent answers to this research questions

would not only contribute to the language learning process at lexical learning domain but also may eventually contribute to improving foreign language learning and teaching in our educational system and possibly worldwide.

## VI. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### A. Theoretical Background

The meaning of diversion is a movement that you do to have a ton of fun. World recreations can make the understudies more concentration in dialect learning, since they don't feel that they are compelled to learn. Recreations can bring down uneasiness, in this way making the obtaining of information more probable (Richard-Amato, 1988). As indicated by Hansen (1994), fun exercises as one the world recreations branches are profoundly inspiring and engaging, and they can give modest understudies greater chance to express their supposition and sentiments. They additionally empower students to secure new encounters inside an outside dialect which are not generally conceivable amid an average lesson. Diversions can be media that will give numerous favorable circumstances for instructor and the understudies either.

Diversion is a normal for human instinct, thus one might say that the historical backdrop of amusement come back to the essential years of individual (Demirbilek, Yilmaz, and Tamer, 2010). In spite of the fact that there has been no certain meaning of amusement, numerous theoreticians have said that diversion is a characteristic piece of kids' life and give distinctive meanings of amusement. In addition, because of the distinctive impacts of diversions on people's improvement, specialists have given distinctive meanings of amusement (Donmus, 2010).

Wittgenstein (1953) likely was the main scholarly logician to address the meaning of the word diversion. Wittgenstein demonstrated that the components of recreations, for example, play, tenets, and rivalry, all neglect to enough characterize what amusements are. Wittgenstein stated that individuals utilize the word diversion to a scope of unique human exercises that bear to each other just what one may call family similarities. Alcorn (2003) states that diversions are a sort of game or stimulation that require cooperation, rivalry keeping in mind the end goal to accomplish certain objectives and have unique principles, it requires to have rules and certain objectives to be taken after. Piaget (1967) characterized amusement as osmosis of jolts from outside world and adjust it into the framework. Piaget remarked that recreations just have impact on youngsters' improvement. Notwithstanding, these days instructive framework have transformed, one might say that diversions might be successful on each age gather by making them fittingly amid formative period (Donmus, 2010).

Instructive diversions are exercises that give understudies the chance to control the past learning by rehashing it in a more agreeable place. Furthermore, help understudies to take in the lesson subjects and to take care of their concern by utilizing their want and excitement to play (Donmus, 2010). Csikszentmihalyi states that people, who play amusements, lose themselves amid diversion exercises and pull in the subjects of approaching occasions (Demirbilek, Yilmaz, and Tamer, 2010).

Moreover, the full of feeling channel speculation of the common approach which specified by Krashen (1980) contends that 'students with high inspiration for the most part improve the situation, and students with fearlessness and a decent mental self view have a tendency to be more fruitful' (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 183). This idea is identified with utilizing recreations in showing English expanding youngsters' inspiration and certainty which give larger amounts of advancement of English learning. Jiang (2008), considered an organized survey, classroom perceptions and the flow instructor understudy connections, 360 respondents, demeanors toward utilizing amusements in learning English at a grade school were examined. Utilizing diversions as showing helps favored by sixty-eight percent of understudies.

In addition, all understudies had negative thoughts when amusements were not utilized as a part of class. At the end of the day, understudies want to lose themselves in a diversion showing condition which is very successful in raising their inspiration and enthusiasm for English dialect learning. A similar conclusion was likewise specified by Kuo's (2008) investigate. Kuo looked at two methodologies in educating, showing routinely and showing amusement, isolated understudies into the two gathering of trial (giving diversion instructing) and control gatherings (giving general educating). Results demonstrated that the test gather outflanked the control aggregate both in understudies, English oral capacity and in certainty. Along these lines, amusements not just convey enjoyable to the class, additionally convey high inspiration and certainty to the understudies (Chan and Lin, 2000; Robinson, 1960; Zheng, 2008).

They additionally include that agreeable rivalry generally engaged with amusement, and keep students intrigued, these give the inspiration to students of English to get included and took an interest in dynamic learning. "Recreations likewise enable students to recall the material in a charming and engaging way" (Uberman, 1998, p. 20). "For some kids in the vicinity of four and twelve years of age, dialect learning won't be the key motivational factor unless, amusements give this boost" (Lewis, 1999, p. 101). "Utilizing recreations encourages the understudies to unwind; and recollect things speedier and better. Also, amusements make the securing of info more probable by bringing down nervousness" (Richard-Amato, 1988, p. 147).

Recreations and fun exercises draw in the understudy thoughtfulness regarding learn English since it is fun and influence understudies to need to have analyze, find and cooperate with their condition (Lewis and Bedson, 1999).

Vocabularies recreations are proposed to take care of the students' concern additionally bring unwinding and a good time for understudies, and they will learn and hold new words in agreeable way. Recreations give inspiration to students

of English as a result of the opposition between understudies. Furthermore, carry true setting into the classroom that upgrades understudies' utilization of English in an adaptable, open manner (Huyen and Nga, 2003). In synopsis, diversions and fun exercises are helpful and successful instrument that ought to be connected in vocabulary classes. The utilization of amusement in vocabulary learning is an approach to make the lessons all the more fascinating, agreeable and powerful.

Learning through recreations is valuable, important, and commendable and powerful that brings inspiration, unwinding and amusing to students in the class. The students can learn dialects on a very basic level and effectively through amusements (Alemi, 2010, Anyuegbu, 2012, Huyen and Nga, 2003, Jitmuad, 2005, Kumar and Lightner, 2007, Obee, 2002, Piaget, 1967, Simpson, 2011). Additionally, learning can be enhanced better by positive criticisms from educators or students' taking an interest in the gathering or class. These rouse them to the succeeded objective (Alemi, 2010; Kumar and Lightner, 2007). What's more, word diversions can mirror the students themselves in their classroom and educators through word amusements can evaluate their showing procedure also (Alemi, 2010).

Notwithstanding encouraging kids' inspiration and certainty, students can get vocabulary all the more rapidly and effectively by doing activities amid diversion playing (Angelova and Lekova, 1995; Atake, 2003; Deng, 2006). As indicated by Dewey's (1916) "learning by doing" by doing and by acting on the planet youngsters can learn best (Pound, 2005). At the point when youngsters touch something, they discover what the question is and how it feels; when they do some activity, they become more acquainted with its significance. By utilizing an amusement which recommends youngsters loads of chances to do, to act, and to move, kids can take in a more noteworthy amount of important vocabulary.

Shuang and Jin-xia (2015) pointed out that creating a suitable atmosphere for English teaching and learning is indispensable for children to learn English vocabulary. People have realized the significance of atmosphere and also paying more attention to use games in learning vocabulary for elementary learners, there are many aspects that have been ignored which affect the characteristics of body and mind of the children. Whether we should teach English to children has always been a hot topic and affected a lot of children, parents, and some teachers. However, there are some not suitable teaching methods that have a bad effect on the children's physical and mental health. For example, some teachers think highly of the ability of speaking English and ignore the importance of vocabulary. Actually, we should put them in the same position, not only improving the ability of communication but also their cognitive competence. Also, teachers often think highly of how to keep words in mind rather than teach children how to learn through games in the relaxed and interesting environment. Besides, when teaching vocabulary, teachers get used to teach children how to read words and make children read again and again. However, this phenomenon is so common that affects the quality of children and their interests.

The game teaching is of great significance for children. Chen (2010), holds that games not only make children lively and arouse children's learning interest, but also can provide help for teachers as an effective teaching method. When playing a group game, children have the chance to cooperate with others and they can have the chance to show their talent to develop communication skills and language skills in the game. The game teaching as a very crucial method plays a very momentous role in English vocabulary for children, it is the best way to stimulate their motivation and inspire their greater enthusiasm for English learning. In the process of the activity, children can improve their self-confidence through hard-working which lays a solid foundation in their language learning. Therefore, as a teacher, when using games to teach English vocabulary in kindergartens, they should take the Therefore, as a teacher, when using games to teach English vocabulary in kindergartens, they should take the characteristics of children's mind and body into consideration and make full use of games combining with the learning vocabulary to improve children's abilities of imagination and the interests to learn (Shuang & Jin-xia 2015).

Webb and Chang (2013) declare that the educator's way to deal with instructing, and the classroom exercises, are essential factors that influence L2 vocabulary adapting, thus, it is critical to think about methods for upgrading instructor coordinated vocabulary adapting, for example, utilizing amusements in the classroom, and to examine convictions identified with such systems. Along these lines, for most students, class time turns out to be vital for fruitful procurement of L2 vocabulary adapting, particularly when students don't have the open door for dialect use outside of the classroom (Salaheldin, 2015)

There has been numerous current exact examination in the territory of vocabulary advancement quite a bit of it including the exploration of Nation and his partners, (Nation and Chung, 2009, Nation, 2008, Nation, 2009, Nation, 2001). In light of their examination, Nation et al (2009) express that an all-around arranged vocabulary lesson in any dialect showing class ought to have the accompanying highlights:

1. It centers on the fitting level of vocabulary.
2. It gives an adjusted scope of chances for learning.
3. It screens and surveys the students' vocabulary information in valuable ways.

Wright, Betteridge and Buckby (1984) expressed that "learning through amusements could advance the capacity of certain mental and scholarly factors which can make correspondence less demanding by elevating self-assurance, inspiration and fortifying getting the hang of, enhancing inflection" (p.451). Instructors can utilize amusements to build up their dialect learning inspiration. Uberman (1998) certifies the accommodating part of diversions in vocabulary educating in the wake of citing and breaking down various conclusions of specialists. She watched the joy of her



understudies on learning through amusements in her classes. She thinks about recreations as an approach to help understudies not just appreciate and engage with the dialect they learn, yet additionally rehearse it by chance. Amusements can influence understudies to center around the diversion and take in the dialect unknowingly. With the utilization of recreations, the instructor can make diverse settings in which understudies should utilize the dialect to impart, trade data and say their own particular conclusion (Wright, 1984).

According to Sorayaieazar (2012), most Iranian students learn vocabulary passively due to several factors, although students realize the importance of vocabulary when learning language. To start with, they think about the educator's clarification for significance or definition, elocution, spelling and syntactic capacities exhausting. For this situation, dialect students have nothing to do in a vocabulary learning area yet to tune in to their instructors. Second, understudies just consider vocabulary learning as knowing the essential importance of new words. Along these lines, they disregard every single other capacity of the words. Third, understudies typically get new vocabulary through new words in their course readings or when given by instructors amid classroom lessons. Forward, numerous Iranian students would prefer not to go out on a limb in applying what they have learnt. Understudies may perceive a word in a composed or talked frame however they will be unable to utilize that word legitimately in various settings or articulate it accurately.

Then again, conventional exercises make understudies to be engaged with an exhausting procedure of remembrance of not insignificant rundown of vocabulary, inferences, reiteration of words, interpretation, fill-in-the-clear activities, and so forth. Scrivener (2009, p. 241), states that "the not insignificant rundown of words and their interpretation appears to excite memory and notwithstanding when we can recollect the word we need, it doesn't appear to fit easily into our sentences". He trusts that the activity of taking note of down a rundown of lexical things makes no assurance that recalling will happen. In this way, from an educational perspective, there is a prerequisite for look into that help to distinguish the best possible exercises which give appropriate chances to L2 learning.

According to Schmitt (2010) a large vocabulary is needed for someone who wants to use language in a correct way. As it was mentioned, people use language for communicating, conveying, thought, and exchanging beliefs. Vocabulary learning happens when students are active in discovering ways in which words are related to experiences and to one another.

### *B. Experimental Background*

Alem (2010) researched the part of utilizing word diversions in growing the student's vocabulary. In this manner, she utilized five word recreations (i.e., Twenty Questions, Charades, Definition Games, Passwords, and Crossword Puzzles). She chose the members haphazardly from a male/female gathering of third grade middle school understudies and furthermore arbitrarily partitioned them into two gatherings: exploratory and control. Control aggregate were shown words utilizing customary techniques; in any case, the test bunch got word diversions as a treatment toward the finish of every session. At long last, a vocabulary test was directed to the two gatherings to decide the contrasts between them. The score affirming the constructive outcome of word amusements on growing students' vocabulary.

Irاندolati and Mikaili (2011) inspected the impacts of instructional diversions on encouraging of understudies' vocabulary learning. The objective of their investigation was to accomplish data about the part of the recreations in the level of vocabulary learning among understudies. The members of their investigation were 70 female understudies in the age of 12-13 years of age which were chosen from one of the Iranian elementary schools in Iran. To do this examination they utilize pre-test and post-test. by examining the pre-test and post-test they understood that utilizing recreations has the critical part in instructing vocabularies to the dialect students, they likewise found that amusement has its potential as an instructive instrument for artistic preparing and can persuade and include students particularly the peaceful and aloof ones in the entire learning process.

Efendi (2013) directed an examination on the utilization of recreations to enhance vocabulary dominance. The point of his examination was to depicting the using the diversions in enhancing vocabulary authority of the seventh grade understudies. His exploration was a sort of classroom activity look into in which the specialist goes about as the educator who drives instructing action. Keeping in mind the end goal to gather information he utilize perception agenda, field note and a test .The members of his examination were 29 understudies of seventh grade understudies. His investigation comprises of four noteworthy advances: arranging, actualizing, watching, and reflecting. The discoveries of the examination demonstrated that applying amusements with the themes vocabulary of day by day English correspondence, individuals' occupation, and individual care and appearance can enhance understudies' vocabulary dominance accomplishment. Students learn words through exposure, but are slow to learn before the age of 10 (Robbins & Ehri, 1994) and the learning of most words by young children is due to direct explanation (Biemiller, 2003).

Shahriarpour and Kafi (2014) studied the application of digital games to develop learning English vocabularies especially through video games such as L.A.Noire. This digital game is very popular among teenagers;. This paper collected data by the use of two tools, interview and observation. There are interviews with teachers and students about their observations and reactions toward playing the digital game. Finally, it is believed that digital games do increase motivation in learners toward learning, consequently, changing the direction from rote learning to meaningful learning. Using digital games is one of the factors which make the learners interested and motivated.

Honarmand and Rostampour (2015) also have studied the effect of games on vocabulary learning. They used games such as: Tic Tac toe and Flash Cards. They selected fifty zero beginners from among learners in Children Department at the Iran Language Institute as the participants of the study. They were divided into two groups, control and

experimental. For the control group textbook was taught vocabulary through the traditional method while the experimental group was taught by Tic Tac Toe game and flash cards. After analyzing the test results showed that using games has an important role in teaching vocabulary to zero beginners.

## VII. METHODOLOGY

### A. Participants

This study was conducted on 40 female students who were selected via non-random sampling (i.e., convenience sampling) through Oxford Quick Placement Test (2001) at the elementary level (i.e., 18-29 scores) from among 60 students in Oxford English Institute Ahvaz city, Iran. The participants' age range was between 8 to 15 years. The participants were assigned to two experimental and control groups non-randomly, each group consisting of 20 students. The researcher tries to select as homogeneous participants as possible through using the OPT. To further make sure that they were at the homogenous level of language knowledge and skills, they took a pre-test of vocabulary at the elementary level.

### B. Instrumentation

1) Oxford Quick Placement Test (2001) will be used to homogenize the participants regarding their English proficiency. At last 20 elementary level students based on this test will be chosen to participate in this study. To assess vocabulary improvement, according to Hill' book steps to understanding (2010), a researcher-made vocabulary pre-test including 60 items is designed. It consists of 30 multiple-choice items and 30 true/false items was applied. The face validity and content validity of test will be proved by several teachers who have taught the given book for several semesters. The reliability coefficient of the pilot test in this research was estimated by Cronbach Alpha Formula as ( $\alpha=.609$ ). The post-test will be designed based on the modified pre-test.

2) To assess vocabulary improvement, a researcher made vocabulary test including 60 items as pretest and posttest consisting of 30 multiple-choice items and 30 true/false items was applied. The face validity and content validity of test will be proved by several teachers who have taught that given book for several semesters. It is to demonstrate the lexical improvement of participants in pre-test and post-test phases and to determine to what extent using fun activities in teaching will be effective.

Additionally, the aforementioned pre and post-test researcher-made test consisting of 60 vocabulary items including 30 multiple-choice and 30 true/false based on the follow up activities of Hill (2010) will be piloted on 10 other elementary students to make sure of its reliability. The reliability coefficient of the pilot test in this research will be estimated by Cronbach Alpha Formula as ( $\alpha=.892$ )

### C. Procedure

To collect the quantitative data, first the researcher will use an Oxford Quick Placement Test 2001 (OPT) to homogenize the participants and assigning them into two groups. Second, the researcher will use a pretest which consists of 60 items of 30 multiple-choice items and 30 true/false items. The face validity and content validity of test will be proved by several teachers who have taught that given book for several semesters. It is to demonstrate the lexical improvement of participants in pre-test and post-test phases and to determine to what extent using fun activities in teaching will have positive effect on vocabulary improvement. The treatment phase during 4 weeks (12 sessions) will be presented to experimental group and the vocabularies will be taught through fun activities including different fun activities such as (a) Chalk board Acronym, (b) Letter scramble, (c) charades. Control group will be taught through conventional vocabulary teaching methods. Finally, a post-test will be conducted to evaluate the difference between the learners' performance from pre-test to post-test and illustrate the effect of using fun activities on vocabulary learning process. Students were instructed through Chalk board Acronym, Letter scramble and charades games. Chalk board Acronym is an ideal pedagogical tool for teaching young learners' vocabulary in this game teacher write respective words vertically, on the board and then have students come up at a time, to write a word starting with each letter of the vertical word. As far as this game is designed basically for young learners, they learn this game very quickly and so do vocabulary.

Letter scramble as another game is widely used as a learning tool. In this process of teaching vocabulary through Letter scramble, teacher took a list of words that students have recently learned and then to write a scramble version of each word on the board and then allowing students to unscramble the words on the paper the first one to finish deciphering all the words wins. Charades is another game that is used in the teaching vocabulary class. In this process, the teacher Write vocabulary words on individual index card and break the class into two teams and have one individual from each team act out the same word. The team to correctly guess the word first scores a point. After 4 weeks interval a post-test was run to check the word achievement. The aim of the post-test was further to investigate whether there was any difference in vocabulary achievement or not. Finally, the scores in the two groups were meticulously investigated to see if there was any significant relationship between their level of incidental vocabulary learning and the way they trained during sessions.

### D. Data Analysis

In order to determine whether the use of fun activity have any effect on learning vocabulary this study is conducted and the collected data were analyzed using different statistical procedure. In order to collecting the data and analyzing the results quantitatively, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics will be used. Through using SPSS, version 17, Paired Samples and Independent Samples t-tests are used for comparing the performance of the experimental and control groups at the pre-test and post-test.

VIII. RESULTS

The results of descriptive statistics (pre-tests) are presented in Table 1

Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Groups
.64031	2.86356	12.1000	20	Experimental
.71919	3.21632	11.1500	20	Control

As it can be seen in Table 1, the number of the participants in each of the groups is 20. Initially, each participant's pre-test score obtained. Then, descriptive statistical of mean and standard deviation of each group were calculated. Results indicated that the average means for every two groups was near and the difference between the two groups was not significant. Regarding the standard deviation (SD), it was found that the SD of the experimental group was 2.86356 lower than control group. In order to find out whether the difference between the performances of the two groups was statistically significant, an Independent sample t-test was applied, and the results of the pre-test were interpreted.

TABLE 2:  
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST (PRE-TEST)

t-test for Equality of Means							Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference										
Upper	Lower	Std. Error Difference	Mean Difference	Sig. (2-tailed)	Df	t	Sig.	F	Experimental vs. Control	
2.89935	-9.9935	.96293	.95000	.330	38	.987	.871	.027	Equal variances assumed	
2.90021	-1.00021	.96293	.95000	.330	37.498	.987			Equal variances not assumed	

Table 2 indicates the statistical analysis of Independent Sample t-test on the two groups' pre-test scores. These results showed that the difference between the means was not significant at ( $p < 0.05$ ) since the observed t. (.987) is less than the critical t (2.000) with  $df = 38$ , this result suggested that the groups were homogeneous before the research period at the pre-test level.

TABLE 3:  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (POST-TESTS)

Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	N	Groups
.61942	2.77014	14.1000	20	Experimental
.71626	3.20321	11.9500	20	Control

Table 3 shows that the means in the two groups are different to some extent. The mean for experimental was 14.1000 and control groups were 11.9500 respectively. To describe the statistical significance of the two groups, an Independent Sample t-test was applied. The results of the statistical operations are analyzed in Table 4.

TABLE 4:  
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST (POST-TEST)

t-test for Equality of Means							Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference										
Upper	Lower	Std. Error Difference	Mean Difference	Sig. (2-tailed)	df	t	Sig.	F	Experimental vs. Control	
4.06700	.23300	.94695	2.15000	.029	38	2.270	.895	.018	Equal variances assumed	
4.06831	.23169	.94695	2.15000	.029	37.226	2.270			Equal variances not assumed	

Critical t with  $df = 38 = 2.125$

Table 4 shows the results on the participants' scores shows that the differences between the means were significant. Since the observed t (2.270) is more than the critical t (2.125) with  $df = 38$ , suggesting that the difference between the groups is significant at ( $p > 0.05$ ). To clarify which group outperformed the other group in the pre-test and post-test, descriptive statistics illustrated the specific mean effectiveness between the two groups in Table 5.

TABLE 5:  
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (PRE VS. POST-TESTS)

Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Groups	
.64031	2.86356	20	12.1000	Exp. Pre-test	Pair 1
.61942	2.77014	20	14.1000	Exp. Post-test	
.71919	3.21632	20	11.1500	Control. Pre-test	Pair 2
.71626	3.20321	20	11.9500	Control. Post-test	

Table 5 shows the results of the two groups' post-test, shows some differences in comparing to pre-test. And the means of two groups increased. It can be inferred that second groups of speech acts strategies instructions (14.1000 and 11.9500 ) shows the great difference in comparing to the pre-test groups (12.1000 and 11.1500 ). And it shows fun activity in learning had the most influence on the results of post-test. To compare the statistical significance of the two groups' mean in the pre-test and post-test, Paired sample t-test was applied and the results of the statistical operations are analyzed in Table 6.

TABLE 6:  
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST (PRE VS. POST-TEST)

Sig. (2-tailed)	df	t	Paired Differences					Mean		
			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference							
			Upper	Lower	Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation				
.000	19	-15.916	-1.73700	-2.26300	.12566	.56195	-2.0000	Exp. Pre vs. Post-test	Pair 1	
.000	19	-4.660	-.44067	-1.15933	.17168	.76777	-.80000	Control. Pre vs. Post-test	Pair 2	

Critical t with df 19 =2.020

Table 6 shows the results shows that the difference between the groups is significant at ( $p < 0.05$ ) in Pair 1. Since the observed t (2.020) is greater than the critical t (2.020) with  $df = 19$  and the difference between the groups is significant at ( $p > 0.05$ ) in Pair 2. Since the observed t (4.660) is greater than the critical t (2.020) with  $df = 19$ . To calculate the normality of the test distribution, one –Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was conducted to the two groups. Data are illustrated in Table 7.

TABLE 7:  
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

contpost	conpre	expost	Expre	N	
20	20	20	20		
11.9500	11.1500	14.1000	12.1000	Mean	Normal Parameters <sup>a,b</sup>
3.20321	3.21632	2.77014	2.86356	Std. Deviation	
.106	.119	.177	.173	Absolute	Most Extreme Differences
.094	.119	.126	.100	Positive	
-.106	-.110	-.177	-.173	Negative	
.475	.530	.793	.775	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	
.978	.941	.555	.585	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	

a. Test distribution is Normal.  
b. Calculated from data.

Table 7 shows the test distribution is normal.

## IX. DISCUSSION

This section elaborates on the results and findings presented in the previous part. To discuss the results of the research, the research question is raised again:

### **RQ. Does the use of fun activities affect learning vocabulary among EFL learners at the elementary level?**

With respect to the above inquiry, it ought to be called attention to that in light of the information got it is consistently asserted that the examination question is emphatically confirmed. It works out as expected that there is distinction between the use of fun activities in teaching vocabulary and traditional way of teaching. It means that using fun activity in teaching has positively affected learning at the elementary level. can be regarded as a good technique in teaching vocabulary, We can say that just memorizing them is insufficient and learners have a lot of difficulties in learning vocabulary especially abstract word more than concrete words, but fun activities make learners to feel easy in learning process and using language subconsciously and working together cooperatively. Here findings revealed that the experimental group registered a significant improvement. The calculated mean difference which was 17.00 for experimental group and 12.04 for the control group showed that using the new technique was successful in vocabulary teaching; it seems that new techniques in teaching vocabulary can help students to retain the new words better. In other words charades, letter scramble activities has played a crucial role in the development of vocabulary level of the learners.

Tuan (2012) whose review demonstrated recreations are a focal a technique to obtaining of learning through playing. Correspondingly, Uberman (1998) who affirmed that opposition gave by diversions positively affected understudy learning since they enabled the understudies to impart and work together utilizing the objective dialect.

Graphic measurements likewise demonstrated that the mean scores of the test aggregate were more prominent than that of control gathering. In this manner, the impact of utilizing fun movement on learning vocabulary effectsly affected improving student's vocabulary at the rudimentary level. The essential inquiry in this investigation was regardless of whether the impact of utilizing fun action on learning vocabulary at the basic level. The outcomes are clear and make a solid contention for thinking about the impact of utilizing fun movement on rudimentary students. The t-test insights was utilized to break down the information gathered. There was a critical contrast between the execution of trial understudies and their partners who were not noteworthy. Future discoveries may add to a superior comprehension of the way that a few understudies advantage more from mediation programs and, along these lines, demonstrate preferred treatment results over others. With respect to the set number of members and the examination setting place for the present investigation, more research is expected to demonstrate the legitimacy and reasonability of this exploration.

The aftereffects of this examination are in accordance with Al-Shawi (2014) found that the utilization of recreations to show vocabulary has improved understudies' capacity to remember words, cooperate and function as a group and expanded their inspiration. Additionally, Tunchalearnpan's (2012) consider testing the utilization of vocabulary amusements to enhance vocabulary information on 40 school understudies, which found that understudies' maintenance of vocabulary was enhanced by utilizing recreations.

## X. CONCLUSION

The results of the current study highlighted the significant role of using fun activity on learning vocabulary in improving learners' vocabulary learning and enhancing their vocabulary achievement. Based on the results of the statistical calculations pursued during this study, the study has yielded the conclusion that the use of fun activity technique is more effective in teaching vocabulary than traditional methods at the elementary levels. The outcomes additionally demonstrated that the members in the trial assemble has given important movement and activities as opposed to retaining design. This demonstrates learning vocabulary can be upgraded through utilizing fun movement and the students can take in the vocabulary in an important setting. In this way, this examination loans trustworthiness to this conviction that fun action effectsly affects the understudies' vocabulary learning. Consequently, instructors ought to think about these exercises as a feasible option for educating vocabulary. In this way, it can be useful for educators to use them in their classes to upgrade the advantages of this system. The discoveries of this investigation show that engineers of vocabulary direction and educational programs ought to reevaluate their utilization of fun action inside their introductions. Bolstered by hypothetical perspectives, the outcomes got from this investigation demonstrated that keeping in mind the end goal to build up the capacity of vocabulary authority, educators can profit by utilizing fun action procedures and ought not to depend only on customary instructing systems. Syllabus planners can build up the capacity of abusing distinctive sorts of movement in the understudies to conquer learning lacks. This investigation gave motivation to assert that utilizing fun movement in learning vocabulary is more powerful than conventional mode to ace words; in any case, it is firmly prescribed to utilize fun action in a supplementary way keeping in mind the end goal to advance vocabulary aptitude better and all the more proficiently. Future research may likewise consider distinctive dialect bunches other than English to check whether students from other dialect gatherings may carry on comparably. Moreover, it would likewise be valuable to contemplate tests outside of Iran to decide whether a similar result applies or no.

Finally, the outcomes of the present study are influenced by the following limitations: (1) it was just one term study in the English institute term of 2016 years, (2) It was limited to Elementary students enrolled at in English institute Ahvaz city, Iran, (3) It was limited to the vocabulary learning and improvement and no other skills, (4) The study included only 40 participants; the inclusion of more participants could improve the reliability and validity of the results of the thesis, (5) The participants were all female. Taking into consideration of male could also add the reliability and validity of the findings.

## REFERENCES

- [1] Ahmad, R. S. (2009). Can Grammar be taught through Games? *Tishreen University Journal for Research and Scientific Studies - Arts and Humanities*, 31(1), 195-203
- [2] Alemi, M. (2010). Educational games as a vehicle to teaching vocabulary. *The Modern Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2(6), 425-438.
- [3] Angelova, T. G., & Lekova, B. C. (1995). A model of early childhood foreign language education through playing motoric games. Retrieved October 22, 2009, from ERIC database. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED397957)
- [4] Anyaegbu, R, Ting, W, & Li, Y. (2012). Serious game motivation in an EFL classroom in Chinese primary school. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 17(1), 154-164.
- [5] Arikan, A. (2009). Environmental peace education in foreign language learners' English grammar lessons. *Journal of Peace Education*, 6(1), 87- 99.

- [6] Ashrafa.H, Ghanei M. F, & Salamic, M. (2014). The Impact of Online Games on Learning English Vocabulary by Iranian (Low-intermediate) EFL Learners, *Article in Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 286-287.
- [7] Atake, K. (2003). Using games to teach English in Japanese junior high school. Retrieved November 3, 2009, from ERIC database. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED479748).
- [8] Biemiller, A.(2005). Vocabulary: Needed if more children are to read well. *Journal of Reading Psychology* 24(6): 3-14.
- [9] Chen, J. L. (2007). Using games in teaching English to preschool students. Unpublished master's thesis, National Dong Hwa University, Hualian, Taiwan.
- [10] Demirbilek, Muhammet, Ebru Yilmaz, & Suszan Tamer. (2010). Second language instructors' perspectives about the use of educational game. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*.
- [11] Deng, Q. H. (2006). A study of using games in primary school English teaching. Unpublished master's thesis, Northwest Normal University, Shensi province, China.
- [12] Derakhshan, A & Davoodi K. E. (2015). The Effects of Using Games on English Vocabulary Learning. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 2(3), 39-47
- [13] Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education: An Introduction to Philosophy of Education*. Macmillan. New York: Macmillan.
- [14] Dolati, R., & Mikaili, P. (2011). Effects of instructional games on facilitating of students' vocabulary learning. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 5(11), 1218-1224.
- [15] Donmus,V. (2010). The use of social networks in educational computer-game based foreign language learning. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 9(3), 1497-1503.
- [16] Efendi, E. (2013). The use of games to improve vocabulary mastery. *Journal de Physique III*, 1(12): 78-84.
- [17] Emirmustafaolu, A, & Gökmen. D. U. (2015). The effects of picture vs. translation mediated instruction on L2 vocabulary learning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 199 (2015) 357 – 362
- [18] Ersoz, A. (2000). 'Six Games for the EFL/ESL Classroom'. *The Internet TESL Journal*. 6(6), 1-6
- [19] Fisher, P. J., & Blachowicz, C. L.Z. (2005). "Vocabulary instruction in a remedial setting." *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 21(3), 281-300.
- [20] Hansen, F. A. (1994). *Testing: Social Consequences of the Examined Life*. University of California Press, California
- [21] Hill,L, A. (2010). *Steps to understanding*. London: Longman.
- [22] Honarmand, B., Rostampour, M., & Abdorahimzadeh, J. (2015). The Effect of Game Tic TAC Toe and Flash Cards on Zero Beginners' Vocabulary Learning. *International Journal of Educational Investigations*, 2(3), 27-41.
- [23] Huyen, N., Thi, T., & Nga, T. T. (2003). Learning vocabulary through games, the effectiveness of learning vocabulary through games. *Asean EFL Journal*. Retrieved on January, 2018 from [http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/dec\\_03\\_sub.Vn.php](http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/dec_03_sub.Vn.php).
- [24] Krashen, S. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *The Modern Language Journal*, 24(3), 237-270.
- [25] Kumar, Rita & Lightner, Robin. (2007). Games as an Interactive Classroom Technique: Perceptions of Corporate Trainers, College Instructors and Students. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 19(1), 53-63.
- [26] Lee, J. M. (1996). *English Games*. The People Publisher, Seoul.
- [27] Lewis, G., & G. Bedson. (1999). *Games for Children*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- [28] Liang, D. Q. (2007). The teaching researches and practices of game in primary school (Master thesis, Guangxi Normal).
- [29] Nation, I. S. P. (1995). *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [30] Nation, I. S. P. (2000). *Learning Vocabulary in another Language (Cambridge Applied Linguistics)*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [31] Nation, I.S.P. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle Publisher.
- [32] Nation, P. & Chung, T (2009). Teaching and testing vocabulary. In Long, M.H & Doughty, C.J (eds.), *The handbook of language teaching*. Wiley- Black well publications.
- [33] Obee, B. (2002). *The Grammar Activity Book*. Cambridge. UK: Cambridge University Press.
- [34] Piaget, Jean. (2001). *The Moral Judgment of The Child*. Oxon, GB: Routledge.
- [35] Richard-Amato, P. (1988). *Making It Happen: Interactions in the Second Language Classroom*. Longman, New York.
- [36] Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching (2nd ed)*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- [37] Robbins, C., & Ehri, L. C. (1994). Reading storybooks to kindergartners helps them learn new vocabulary words. *Journal of Educational psychology*, 86(1): 54-68
- [38] Shahriarpour, N. (2014). On the Effect of Playing Digital Games on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Motivation toward Learning English Vocabularies. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 9(8): 1738-1743.
- [39] Song, W. (2011). Learning vocabulary without tears: a comparative study of the jigsaw and information gap tasks in vocabulary acquisition at school (Unpublished master thesis). Kristianstad University Sweden, School of Education and Environment. Retrieved February 7, 2013.
- [40] Sorayaie A. A. (2012). The Effect of Games on EFL Learners' Vocabulary Learning Strategies. *International journal of basic and applied science*, 1(2), 239-243
- [41] Taheri, M. (2014).The Effect of Using Language Games on Vocabulary Retention of Iranian Elementary EFL Learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5(3), 544-549,
- [42] Tunchalearnpanih, P. (2012). Using Games on Students' Vocabulary Learning. Srinakharinwirot University (SWU), Thailand, Pp. 816- 825.
- [43] Turgut, Y. & Irgin, P. (2009). Young learners' language learning via computer games. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1(6), 760-764.
- [44] Uberman, A. (1998). 'The use of games for vocabulary presentation and revision'. *Forum*, 36(1), 20-27.
- [45] Webb, S., Newton, J., & Chang, A. (2013). Incidental learning of collocation. *Language Learning*, 63(1): 91-120.
- [46] Wittgenstein, L. (1953). *Philosophical investigations*. Oxford, Blackwell.

- [47] Wright, A., Betteridge, D. & Buckby, M. (1984). From 'Games for Language Learning'. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

**Farideh Bavi** took his M.A degree in TEFL from Islamic Azad University of Ahvaz. She is currently a lecturer in English language teaching at different language institutes in Ahvaz. Her research interests involve psychological processes involved in learning English as a foreign language.

# Vietnamese Voices: A Project for Activating Student Autonomy

Nguyễn Ngọc Lư Ly

Department of French, University of Languages and International Studies, Vietnam National University, Hanoi, Vietnam

**Abstract**—For foreign language education in Vietnam, passive teaching and learning with limited materials is thought to be associated with low achievement. This paper discusses the design and implementation of an innovative approach to guide students to build a Fun Reading Corner in foreign language using an autonomous-based approach in a Vietnam university. Survey data were collected before and after the project and from a focus group's writing samples. The findings indicated that students' attitudes towards reading in French changed and their personal qualities and skills improved during the course. The paper concludes by explaining the significance of the results and implications for other Vietnamese foreign language programs.

**Index Terms**—reading corner, foreign language, autonomy, attitudes, qualities and skills

## I. INTRODUCTION

The global education rankings, based on the test results of 15-year-old students in Math and Science, were released in May 2015 by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Surprisingly, Vietnam was ranked 12th, which was higher than developed countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States (Vnexpress, 2015). Despite this relatively high ranking, the International Labor Organization reported that labor productivity of Vietnam is the lowest in the Asia-Pacific region (ILO, 2014). Vietnam labor productivity is equal to 20% of Malaysia's, 40% of Thailand's, 6% of Singapore's, 9% of Japan's, and 10% of South Korea's. Data from Vietnam's General Department of Vocational Training show that 53% of graduates in Vietnam have low levels of analytic and problem-solving skills, 27% lack independent working skills, and 60% must be retrained due to a lack of leadership skills, creative skills, and somewhat negative attitudes towards work (A. B. Nguyen, 2016).

Vietnamese parents invest considerable financial resources to support their children's education. Parents strive to create a professional learning environment, and to encourage achievements whereby children have the opportunity to achieve their full potential. It is common in Vietnam for parents to excuse children from helping with housework so that they have more time to focus on their studying. In Vietnam, parents are often seen lining up for school admissions, or picking up their children after graduation exams, or from extra classes. According to TriThucTre (2016) (The Youth Knowledge Magazine), this parental behaviour is viewed as overly protective of young people in Vietnam, like a velvet blanket. It has the effect of weakening young people's independent thinking skills and creativity in the workplace. As a result, a generation of "thirty-year-old babies" has been created, as often mentioned in online forums about the current state of Vietnamese youth (Vietnamnet, 2016).

How do Vietnamese educational institutes educate students? M. T. Nguyen (Vnexpress, 2016), chief of the new K-12 Vietnamese curriculum 2017, argued that the Vietnamese educational approach expects students to be well-behaved in class and to give correct answers to questions from teachers. Educators endeavour to educate students so that they have with the same level of knowledge and skills. Vietnamese people are believed to be smart, good at studying for exams, yet they lack diligent practices in the work place. They especially lack imagination. There are few notable inventions in Vietnam. This is understandable because there is little opportunity to exercise freedom of thought. Under these circumstances it is understandable that imagination is limited. In terms of the consequences for students in higher education, T. M. Pham (2004, p.6) pointed out that a large number of students learn passively; they depend on instructors' lectures. They want to learn from what they note down in their notebooks rather than from studying textbooks or reference books themselves. With these types of students, in addition to lectures some instructors help students to note important knowledge and only test this knowledge. This method helps students to learn; however, it promotes passivity and generates dependency on instructors. As a consequence, creativity is not promoted. During a lecture, students seldom speak out or participate in any discussions. Typically, they listen, make notes, and revise for exams.

Foreign language education in Vietnam also follows this passive approach. The two types of competencies specified in the National Education Goals that need to be formed and developed are general competencies (including autonomy, problem-solving, creativity, self-management, communication, collaboration, information technology), and specific competencies, such as foreign language skills (MoET, 2013). The outcome standards of foreign language subjects, consisting of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, are recognised by schools. However, the implementation of language practice subjects closely follows textbooks; their content does not always match learner interest. According to a survey



of the National Foreign Languages 2020 project (MoET, 2014), most foreign language teachers are the products of the old educational system. They focus on content knowledge and each class follows a teacher-dominant format. Exercises mostly focus on memorization and reconstructing the transferred knowledge. Learners do not have opportunities to apply learned knowledge and skills in real life communication in foreign languages. The majority of the teachers do not spend time on teaching students how to engage in self-study, make portfolios, or identify suitable development plans for each individual. Testing and assessment systems do not promote foreign language as communication tools which can be used at work, and they do not create opportunities for learners to establish and develop autonomy, collaboration, and problem-solving (L. A. Pham, 2017). Core national foreign language exams like national junior high school graduation, and university entrance exams, comprise written tests, including grammar tests; they neglect listening and speaking tests.

In Vietnam, building a foreign language learning environment with appropriate learning materials requires considerable development. The main sources of in-class learning materials are text books and photocopied materials provided by teachers. These help students to revise their knowledge and practice foreign language skills. However, they may not engage learners' interest or provide for the development of practical skills. Learning materials in the library are out-of-date, difficult, uninteresting, and not suitable for students' competence levels. Therefore, students do not apply for library cards, or do not activate their cards if they receive them. Educational institutions, family and society do not work together in developing reading habits for the young generation (BVHTTDL, 2013).

One of the advantages of teaching foreign languages is that information technology skills can be productively utilised (learning software, Internet) (Karsenti & Collin, 2017; Mark & Meei-Ling, 2011; Reinders & Lazarro, 2007). Unfortunately, most teachers do not have these skills themselves or are not familiar with applying them in their teaching (N. H. Nguyen, 2011). As a result, learners are not provided with learning resources, and guidance on selecting and utilizing learning resource materials. Extra-curricular activities, including practicing learned knowledge and skills, are not common in regular foreign language instruction. There is no payment mechanism for teacher participation in extra-curricular activities to be counted as working time, and no policy for supporting and spreading innovative pedagogy practices. The current situation perhaps is best reflected in the summary of Nguyen Vinh Hien (TuoiTre, 2011), Vice Minister of Education and Training, at the implementation of the Foreign Language Project at higher education institution workshop:

We have both limitations, and success in the other subjects. Nevertheless, we have taught foreign language subjects from year to year, but students are not able to communicate in the foreign language. This is a failure.

## II. LEARNER AUTONOMY

The concept of *learner autonomy* is very topical and has received special attention, studied, and applied by researchers around the world. Benson (2000, p.47) proposed the notion of learner autonomy in foreign language learning: "autonomy is defined as the capacity to take control of one's own learning". The word *control* is preferred to "take charge of" or "responsibility". He explains that "control" over learning "may take a variety of forms in relation to different levels of the learning process". Lennon (2012, p.9) reported on a study of learner autonomy involving students in 12 English classes from primary school to higher education. He noted that "all very successful language learners are, and always have been, to a greater or lesser extent, autonomous learners who have created their own opportunities for individualised language acquisition". Nunan (1999, p.145) says: "learners who have reached a point where they are able to define their own goal and create their own learning opportunities have, by definition, become autonomous". Seker (2016) pointed out that 94% of interviewed language teachers described a successful language learner as someone who can study independently.

There has been a considerable amount of action research on how to improve learner autonomy and how to identify the advantages of this approach. Fowler (1997, p.115) used an action research approach to examine "autonomy development". He reported that learner autonomy helps learners to improve their self-confidence and to attempt to use new learning strategies. Lennon (2012) wrote that successful teachers offer learners "freedom to learn in their own way", regardless of rigid curricular and teaching methods. Yap (1998 as cited in Bliidi, 2017), in a study involving senior high school English students in Hong Kong, noted that "teachers should create opportunities for students to share information about the strategies they use". This is a useful suggestion and has been supported by action research. Creating "a sufficient level of interest" and "listening to learners" may help students to focus on their lessons and improve their learning outcomes.

Chapman (2015) argued that teaching methods based on the learner autonomy philosophy should be treated with caution. He has drawn attention to the shortcomings of the "constructivist approach", and advises against adopting a "one-size-fits-all" approach to learners. He advocated for the use of "differentiated instruction" to ensure that all learners receive appropriate and on-time learning supports. Kirschner & van Merriënboer (2013, p.178) said that teachers "should provide some autonomy - but not too much - appears to us to be broadly consistent with the motivation research that advocates granting autonomy to students". They suggested that some controls in student learning must be considered, and based on student levels of development. We named this notion *autonomy with an appropriate dose*. Benson and Voller (1997, p.101-106) provided suggestions about teacher roles as facilitator, counsellor and resource in autonomous language learning.

Different models of learner autonomy have been considered. They are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Scharle and Szabo (2000, p.10) proposed a three-phase model that consists of raising awareness, changing attitudes and transferring roles. Nunan (1999, p.192) attempt remains a landmark that involves a model of five levels of “learner action”. These levels consist of “awareness”, “involvement”, “intervention”, “creation” and “transcendence”. Liu and Littlewood (1997, p.79) mentioned that teachers need to develop systematic strategies for furthering learners’ motivation, confidence, knowledge and skills in each domain of autonomy, included language learning. These models all emphasis learners’ awareness and attitudes as the first factor that teachers need to activate in autonomous language learning. Teaching should focus on each individual learner and allow him or her to choose appropriate learning tasks. Applying this approach during the implementation process, should facilitate development of the skills that are necessary for learners to complete assigned tasks.

Appropriate and modern learning environments, along with contemporary learning resources should play an important role in assisting the development of learner competencies that are considered essential for meeting the demands of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. As Benson (2000, p.40) points out, the teacher cannot teach students to become autonomous. But, the teacher may create the atmosphere and conditions in which they will be encouraged to develop the autonomy that they already have. Many studies have also discussed the positive effects of out-of-class learning (Mark & Meei-Ling, 2011; Maynard, 2011; Morrison, 2008; Palfreyman, 2011; Reinders & Lazaro, 2007; Yap, 1998). Learners said that it was more effective and fun to learn English out of the class. Teacher encouragement was less important in terms of motivation to learn. Yap concluded that:

...efforts to promote out-of-class learning should build upon the activities that students already value... Affective factors are an especially important factor in learner choices of, and attitudes to, the value of out-of-class activities.

Consistent with Yap’s findings, Benson (2000, p.203) argued that:

Out-of-class language learning is a new area of study of great importance to the theory and practice of autonomy. The dearth of studies in this area highlights the fact that research has tended to focus on the development of autonomy in institutional settings without establishing a firm knowledge base on the ways in which learners take control of their learning as a natural feature of the learning.

This may be a practical suggestion for teachers to engage learners in open learning spaces, rather than confining learning to the classroom. From our perspective, a vital important element that enables learners to apply foreign language in communication is to listen, read suitable materials by native speakers, then mimic, and rewrite continuously. As Krashen (1987) claimed, “acquisition differs from learning in two major ways: acquisition is slow and subtle, while learning is fast and, for some people, obvious. Acquisition takes time.” This is also applied to foreign language acquisition. Therefore learners must be autonomous in order to be successful, and if learners are not able to find appropriate out-of-class practices, perhaps it will be difficult for them to progress rapidly.

Along with an open learning space, learning materials must be designed appropriately to bring out optimal results for learners (Aston, 1993; Gardner & Miller, 2011; Littlejohn, 1997; Mark & Meei-Ling, 2011; Morrison, 2008; Reinders, 2010; Reinders & Lazaro, 2007; Yap, 1998). In his study about developing out-of-class learning materials for foreign language learning, Reinders (2011, p.189) concludes:

Creating and implementing materials for autonomy is challenging and, initially, time-consuming. Commercially available materials may not be suitable models to work from and for many teachers, this type of materials creation is a new experience. However, teachers can derive great satisfaction from knowing that the end result will help their students not only to improve their language, but also to improve their lifelong learning skills. In this way, the effect of one’s efforts stretches well beyond the brief teaching moment and well beyond the language classroom. The skills they acquire in the process will stay with your students for the rest of their lives.

This is a hard, yet meaningful approach that a teacher can implement gradually with his or her class. The benefits of allowing students to participate in materials creation have been discussed by many researchers. Littlejohn (1997, p.190) believes that it can “transform learners from the role of consumers to the role of producers, exercising some level of control and influence over the centre facilities”. Aston (1993)’s evaluation shows that when students participate in materials creation, they are “more motivated and feel a sense of control, which is a key component in becoming autonomous”.

Within this context, we believe that action research can gradually change the current situation. Researchers and teaching staff work, observe certain classes, gain experience, scale-up, and gradually push back inappropriate, yet long-standing practices. Creating an open out-of-class learning space will bring about a favourable condition for producing learning tasks and activities in a creative manner, which will gradually leave the old practice of assigning exercises and facilitate learning tasks, as mentioned in the autonomous learner model.

With these points in mind, we undertook a case study in which we chose to organize an autonomous approach-based French language class and to help students build a learning environment through a French reading corner. We sought to parse out the change in their attitude about reading in French and their learning by examining the following questions:

- (1) After an autonomous-based approach working process, do students’ attitudes towards reading in French change?
- (2) To what extent do students who participated in the learner autonomous project report that they have been helped in the preparation of career development?

Mastering a foreign language takes time. Therefore, we did not expect to have a quick solution that would enable learners to be fluent after a few weeks of working. However, we wished to design activities that helped learners to change their attitudes and to feel more independent in their learning.

### III. DESCRIPTION OF THE CASE

We completed this study with a third-year university French language class of 44 students. Of the study participants, 32% have learnt French before university (n=14) and 68% started to learn French at university (n=30). During the first two years of studying at university, they participated in 950 periods of French language in class (1 period = 50 minutes), as follows: textbooks Alter Ego 1 with 224 periods, Alter Ego 2 with 252 periods, Alter Ego 3 with 252 periods, Alter Ego 4 and B2 in the European reference framework with 195 periods, plus 27 periods for intensive exam preparation. They need to reach B2 level in French in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Verhelst, 2009) to graduate from college.

Before the start of the term we spent time discussing foreign language education in Vietnam, analysing actual trends and outcomes around the world in order to confirm the importance of autonomy in foreign language learning, as well as defining expectations for competencies development to effectively use foreign language at work in our courses.

Then together, we agreed to create and develop learning materials (Aston, 1993; Littlejohn, 1997; Reinders, 2011) by implementing the “Fun Reading Corner in French”, and other extensive reading support programs, to create friendly out-of-class environment for students to learn, increase interest for self-study and reading in foreign languages.

We developed a task framework, and analysed the links between these tasks and the common objective. We asked students to choose tasks, or to create other tasks consistent with the autonomous learning philosophy (Fowler, 1997; Lennon, 2012; Seker, 2016). Students were also required to choose their working groups (Blidi, 2017; Dam, 1995). We established 11 working groups. Each group had three to four members in the following task groups:

Project Support Group	Fun Foreign Language Reading Corner Support Group	Reading Activity Support Group	
Secretary group	Technical Group	Group 1	<i>(that later became Online Test</i>
Financial group	Decoration Group	Group 2	<i>Group, Game Group, Workshop</i>
Communication group	Book Management Group	Group 3	<i>Group, Report Group)</i>
Evaluation group		Group 4	

Figure 1. Task groups

Based on analysis of general tasks framework and list of tasks, we all required students to choose a task (Fowler, 1997, p. 115) and draw up their final products via their presentations in foreign language in class and correspondence out of class (Yap, 1998). We supported each group to define steps of procedure with “differentiated instruction” (Chapman, 2015), helped them adjust their plan to ensure it was realistic, and coordinate each other in and beyond the classroom by “autonomy with an appropriate dose” (Kirschner & van Merriënboer, 2013, p.178), based on factors determining the teacher’s role (Benson & Voller, 1997, p.101-106).

### IV. METHOD

#### A. Surveys

We developed two surveys for administration before and after the development of the Fun reading corner in French. These surveys were designed to assess how students’ attitudes towards reading in French changed. After discussing with the students, and explaining the nature and purpose of the questionnaires, surveys were distributed to each individual in the class.

The first survey comprised 12 questions, and was administered before development of the French reading corner. Two questions sought information from the responding students, four questions asked respondents about their reading habits in French, three questions focused on attitudes towards reading in French, and three final questions sought expectations about building reading corner in French.

The second survey was conducted after 7 working weeks. At that time our first reading corner in French had been developed. This survey had 15 questions. In addition to the 12 questions that constituted the first survey, three additional questions were added regarding reading support activities.

#### B. Students’ Writing about Their Learning

Towards the end of the course the students completed a written reflection on lessons to develop themselves to prepare their career, through their experienced stories during the project. This gets students to think about what they are learning and how they are learning it (Hargreaves & Shirley, 2012), and to help them raise awareness; that is an important step in the autonomous learning model (Scharle & Szabo, 2000, p.15). To do that, we described the content and the aim of the writing, analysed some examples of lessons from the project through students’ stories, and asked them to spend time thinking more about that. Then, this writing was required to be completed in class within 180 minutes and marked as an assessment component in our courses. This extrinsic motivation (Scharle & Szabo, 2000, p.7) might emerge as a necessary initial stage part to help students overcome passive habits from previous educational

approaches and assist in identifying strengths following the autonomous learning activity (Blidi, 2017, p.13). Then we interviewed some of our students outside the classroom in a more relaxed environment to further clarify information obtained from the narratives.

## V. RESULTS

### A. Surveys

For the first survey, 40 responses, which represents a response rate of 91%, were received. For the second survey, 41 responses, which represents a rate of 93%, were received. Specific questions were answered in full, whereas not all open-ended questions were completed.

Responses to reading habits resulted in a reversal of the before and after work process. Prior to the project, no student chose a response of freely regular reading in French outside the classroom. After the project, 68% reported engaging in regular French reading in their own time. In addition, 80% of students reported that they never read French in their own free time before the project; after the project this number dropped dramatically to 0.

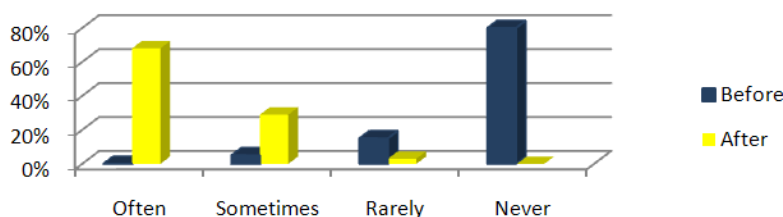


Figure 2. Reading habit in French

Before the project, only 15% students had responses about their interested topics and genres of book; after the project, it increased substantially to 100%.

In response to the questions about attitude towards reading in French, prior to the project, 17% of students were not interested in reading in French outside the classroom; the remaining 83% shared the difficulties of dealing with extended reading in French (typical responses in this section "do not know where to start", "cannot find the right source of books", "lack of vocabulary", "cultural differences"), 23% of whom admitted that reading was useful but not practicable.

After the project, only 7% of the students were not ready to read in French, whereas 88% of students considered reading in French as a feasible activity. Examples in this section are as follows: "Have a more positive view on reading in foreign language", "See inspiration in reading in foreign language", "Help me recognize if there are appropriate books and preferred reading space, reading in foreign language is not as scary as I thought", "Approaching more useful reading materials, "Better understanding how to read properly in a foreign language", "Many members joined organized activities and created great atmosphere, that stimulated ourselves to read, learn a lot to discuss and play together", "To win in the Game, must understand the books given in Game, so need to read a lot".

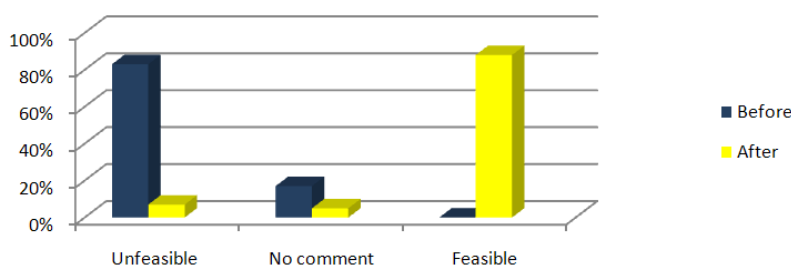


Figure 3. Attitude about reading in French

About the concept of developing a French reading corner, before the project we only got 6 responses that mainly revolved around adding more materials for the reading corner, such as "Need funds to enter more books", "Find and photocopy more books to the library", "Who has books shares it. Can eat in the library".

After the project, 100% of the students answered and the content of the responses became more various. In addition to the content of adding more materials (17%), we also received a variety of comments such as scale-up (20%), Complete or add some more plentiful reading support activities (39%), Maintain and strengthen the current activities (24%), Modify some existing decorations (15%).

### B. Students' Writing

Written responses revealed 188 lessons, analysed and extracted through real-life stories that they had experienced within 7 working weeks regarding the autonomous approach, in which 44% of the lessons were taken by gradual

adjustment and improvement from situations through self-awareness, advice from teachers or comments from friends; 33% of the lessons was taken from the initiative of learning new things in diverse situations or during discussing with teachers and collaborating with peer groups; 14% of the lesson were derived from observing the teacher's work style, peers or project performance; in addition, 10% of lessons were learned from failure.

We divided these lessons into two types of qualities (46 lessons, 24%) and skills (142 lessons, 76%) that students appreciated as important and have been working through the process to help them prepare for the future. Although the experiences reflected in the narratives are different, the shared qualities and skills had many common points. For example, lessons about being active at work were described as follows:

After realizing that our group schedule was falling behind, we actively contacted the teacher via emails and arranged face-to-face meetings out of class. Thanks to the support from the teacher and the liveliness of group members, our work started getting on the right track and kept up with the pace of the project. In a collaborative project, it is of great importance to actively seek for help, to be active in our work, and not to procrastinate or rely on any one individual. It can lead to schedule delay of an individual as well as the whole team, affecting the progress rate.

*(An evaluation group member)*

When our teacher invited the expert to provide further advice on individual book-making project, each of us gained experience for ourselves, or had out-of-class discussions with the expert to ask questions as well as to find the most suitable and the best plan to complete individual products.

*(A book management group member)*

My group is in charge of scheduling a meeting with the director of documentary center, but group members failed to arrange work and did not actively contact the director. This time our teacher helped to take the appointment and the meeting with the class still was held as planned. After that, on behalf of the group I apologized to the director. I recognized that we needed to determine what to do before, what to do after and what is the most important.

*(A secretary group member)*

The reports and feedback of students about the project show trained personal qualities, that was patience (32%), working-under-pressure skills (23%), confidence (23%), being active at work (11%), sense of responsibility (11%), sense of respect and trust (5%).

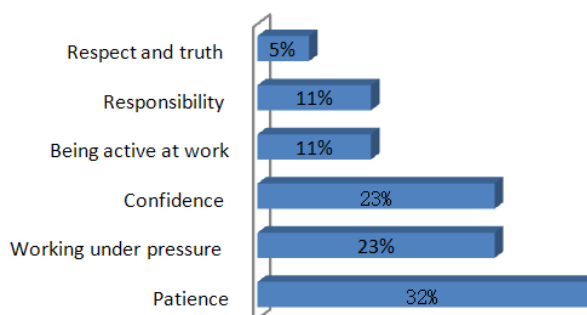


Figure 4. Enhanced personal qualities after the project

Compared to the number of qualities analysed by students in their writing, the number of skills mentioned is much greater. These skills are presented in Figure 5:

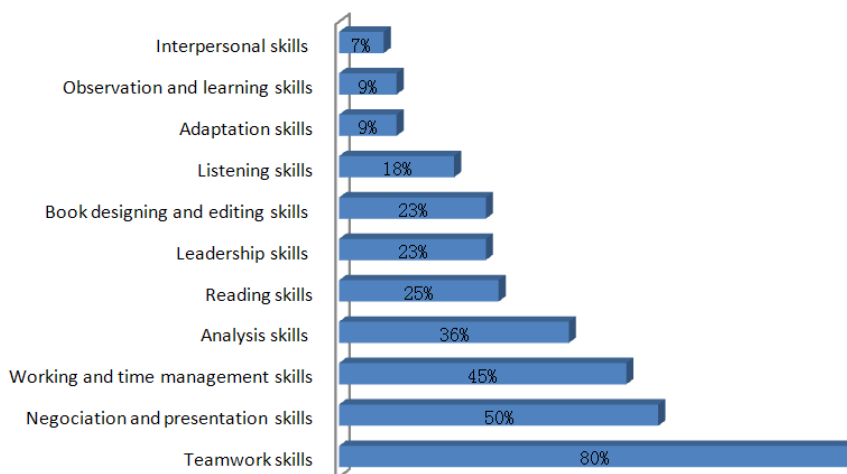


Figure 5. Enhanced skills after the project

The participants said that they had learned most about teamwork skills (80%), with various stories about working, cooperating, helping each other, such as:

Initially, group members were working independently, no connections were established. Each person carried out the project on his/her own according to his/ her thinking and subjective evaluations, resulting in overlap and ineffective work. After that, our team found a sponsor group on Facebook, and members proposed ideas there. The team leader summarized and divided the work. The members were required to report on current situation, results, and plans for next week. Thanks to the experience, we came to the conclusion that it is necessary to have interactions, sharing and mutual supports in teamwork.

*(A sponsor group member)*

50% of students said their negotiation and presentation skills were enhanced after the project:

People were rather shy and lacked confidence in front of the class prior to the project. It was visible that people were all fingers and thumbs and nervous. Thanks to weekly report, people are more confident and better at communication.

*(A decoration group member)*

Apart from this, there are some specific stories of work group, such as:

Due to the nature of work of sponsor group, we had to communicate and present the project in the front of class. The experience improved our communicative and negotiation skills: What should we say? How should we deliver it? Who are we going to talk with? We also learned to choose appropriate communication methods for different sponsors. For example, during the first week, nobody contributed any items for the class, after the campaign many were convinced and contributed a lot.

*(A sponsor group member)*

In addition, 45% students believed that their working and time management skills were improved; 36% said that analytical skills and critical thinking were frequently practiced during the project. Besides, many students said that they also gained a great deal of experience, namely in literacy skills (skimming and scanning skill in particular) (25%), leadership skills (23%), book designing and editing skills (23%), listening skills (18%), adaptation skills (9%), observation, searching, and learning skills (9%), interpersonal skills (7%).

## VI. DISCUSSION

### A. Reading in French

After the seven-week implementation, the reading habits of students changed markedly. While students had never actively looked for reading material in French outside the classroom in the past, now they frequently do it. This is rather similar to the changes of student attitudes. A plausible reason is that students were placed in a context that activated their autonomy, and given solid support to build a friendly French reading corner. Therefore, the difficulties that students mentioned at the beginning stage like "I don't know where to start", "I can't find a suitable source of reading material", "lack of vocabulary", "cultural differences"... were gradually overcome. Students were instructed to collect their favorite reading materials and add an index to explain high-level vocabularies for readers. Student groups were able to hold various reading supporting activities, such as online quizzes, to check students' understanding about the reading material contents. Collective games like *Hunting Treasure* unobtrusively helped students to read, and extract information from different materials in a short period to participate and to win the game. Holding discussions, evaluating the collected reading materials, and honoring authors that had interesting books or effective product communications, also contributed to increase the attractiveness of the product collections. Apart from a friendly reading space with visual stimulation, such as slogans honoring reading, one hundred reasons for reading table, a feedback tree, a decorative layout also got students increasingly involved in reading French. More notably, students considered themselves project facilitators, since the number of answers on the ideas of building a reading corner in French increased from 15% prior to the project to 100% after the project. The proposed content also became more feasible, specific and diversified after serious working process.

The first good results helped students form a new reading habit. The more students worked on it, the more ideas were generated for the reading corner as pointed out in the survey results. However, this is just the beginning. To maintain a stable reading habit, autonomous-approach activities must be held by teachers so students can stay interested, active, and creative in new activities.

### B. Self-development

Writing about self-study progress enabled students to reflect, gain valuable experience. After seven weeks of working, 118 lessons were thoroughly portrayed by students from their real-life experience with different levels of emotions, reflecting their levels of awareness, and work and life experiences. Each student had different strengths, weaknesses and interests, thus gained different valuable learned lessons, even they shared the same experience.

Perhaps due to the long-lasting effects of the passive learning approach, most students' learned lessons were positively supported by the teachers. Only when students got teacher approvals, ranging from self-adjusting lessons, the failure that needed the guidelines from the teachers, to the lessons on autonomy and creativity, were the students confident to proceed.

The numbers of lessons on qualities (24%) and skills (76%) analyzed by students are uneven. This can be explained by the fact that skills are easier to recognize. During the implementation process, when problems occurred, students were required to think, discuss, and so added up lacking skills to complete the task. 80% of participants said that they had learned a great number of teamwork skills, and 50% said their negotiation and presentation skills were enhanced after the project. This is understandable as assigned tasks and products required collaboration among individuals within a group and between groups. Individuals in particular, and groups in general, had opportunities to enhance their skills through activities like weekly oral reporting about the project operation in front of the class. Students must listen to reports and the presentations of other groups to learn and gain experience. Frequent practices and adjustment processes required students to learn more skills to meet the requirements of the work.

Qualities are summarized and generalized through a sequence of events or a process. The main qualities that students gained after the project are patience (32%), the ability to work under pressure (23%), and confidence (23%). These match their working experiences in the project. Many students wrote in their reflections that they recognized that a good product was not easy to make; that they had to go through many adjustments, learning processes, and then they gained lessons from this learning. This helped students to be more confident. Because the schedule was full of deadlines, students must work under pressure. In addition, students also referred to qualities such as activeness, responsibility, respect and trust. These qualities, leading to autonomy, seem to be lacking in traditional passive teaching methods. They are highly appreciated, interested, and practiced by students through this reading in the foreign language project.

## VII. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

If autonomy in learning is properly implemented, it will become a practical for all majors at higher education levels in Vietnam. Further, through our understanding of relevant theory and our experience of the project, we developed the following reflections:

### *Reflections of students*

Students were used to a theory-heavy educational model, passive learning style and attached great importance on achievements; therefore, the project was a real struggle for students. Many students were not ready, did not want to encounter difficulties, therefore, it took a while for the project to show positive progress. The progress rates were not even among different groups. Teachers and students had to spend a great deal of time and effort to talk over, support, and encourage others instead of simply focussing on creativity, and project improvement. In order to run project-based learning for this specific-type learner, it is important to establish good teamwork attitudes and culture. A student commented, "I have never seen my class working together so much. We worked together at lunchtime, after-class, and even during the evening. Obviously, we are more close-knit now". Perhaps, for young people, the shared working process is just as important as the results, and working methods are just as important as the achievements. Reviewing, adjusting and editing processes help to increase product quality.

### *Reflections of teachers*

Each action research offers a great deal of suggestions for each teacher on the path of guiding students to be autonomous. We believe that this experience will give teachers ideas on how to guide learners to be autonomous. We also believe that managers, parents, and learners, will see the benefits of autonomous learning methods for foreign language students. However, studying action research, Lennon (2012, p.9) said that "although young learners quickly take to the approach" in fact "teachers may be unwilling to abandon their traditional instructional role". The notion "teach less, learn more" (Hargreaves & Shirley, 2012), is leading to many changes in Singaporean education. But this idea is not yet fully understood and appreciated in Vietnam. While teach less does not mean that students will work less, it requires lessons to be prepared more carefully and appropriately so that students can engage in autonomous learning, make progress, and be successful. To achieve this outcome, teachers also need to learn a great deal. Many Finnish teachers, for example, apply "teach less" to spend more time on drawing up teaching plans, holding private meetings with students, collaborating with colleagues to adjust, and giving suggestions for student learning outcomes. As long as there is resistance to such change among Vietnamese people, teachers will struggle to confidently engage in new teaching approaches.

From a management perspective the very first and necessary step to initiate innovation is to create a secure and exciting atmosphere from the teaching staff itself. As a result, colleagues who have the same thought about innovation in education can collaborate with one other in innovative projects. In addition, it allows "individual autonomy" turns into "collective autonomy" (Hargreaves & Shirley, 2012). By this way, teaching projects will be increase in the value gradually.

Finally, the space nurtures a great number of potential ideas (activities for training extensive reading, building learning material resources, encouraging and honoring system, displaying book by genre, establishing book discussions, book festivals, book reviews, reading marathons, e-books, and engaging students in management). Enjoying a favourable condition, the next generation of students does not only able use the products of the current project but also can do much better, and gain more experience. We hope that this model can be scaled up outside our school with appropriate policy and supports.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to acknowledge and thank Professor James Chapman for his support and advice in preparing the research write-up for publication.

## REFERENCES

- [1] Aston, G. (1993). The learner's contribution to the self-access centre. *ELT journal* 47.3, 219-227.
- [2] Benson, P. (2000). Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning. Harlow: Longman.
- [3] Benson, P., & Voller, P. (1997). Autonomy and independence in language learning. New York: Longman.
- [4] Bliidi, S. (2017). Collaborative Learner Autonomy: A Mode of Learner Autonomy Development. Singapore: Springer Singapore.
- [5] BVHTTDL (Ministry of Culture, Communication and Tourism) (2013). Books day and reading culture 2013. <http://bvhttdl.gov.vn/> (accessed 22/12/2013).
- [6] Chapman, J. W. (2015). Learner Autonomy: When Philosophy Meets Pedagogy. Paper presented at the 7th COTEFL Conference, Purwokerto, Indonesia.
- [7] Dam, L. (1995). From theory to classroom practice: Learner Autonomy. Dublin: Authentik.
- [8] Fowler, A. (1997). Developing independent learning. In A. Burns, S. Hood (eds.), *Teacher's voices* (vol. 2), 115-123.
- [9] Gardner, D., & Miller, L. (2011). Managing self-access language learning: Principles and practice. *System* 39, 78-89.
- [10] Hargreaves, A., & Shirley, D. (2012). The global fourth way : the quest for educational excellence. California: Corwin Press.
- [11] ILO (International Labor Organization) (2014). The ILO's World of Work 2014 Report. International Labor Organization.
- [12] Karsenti, T., & Collin, S. (2017). Eduportfolio: a tool for second language teachers. *Revista Diálogo Educacional* 10.31, 581-592.
- [13] Kirschner, P. A., & van Merriënboer, J. J. G. (2013). Do Learners Really Know Best? Urban Legends in Education. *Educational Psychologist* 48.3, 169-183.
- [14] Krashen, S. D. (1987). Principles and practice in second language acquisition. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall International.
- [15] Lennon, P. (2012). Learner Autonomy in the English Classroom. Empirical Studies and Ideas for Teachers: ERIC.
- [16] Littlejohn, A. (1997). Language learning tasks and education. *MEXTESOL Journal* 22.1, 41-44.
- [17] Liu, N.-F., & Littlewood, W. (1997). Why do many students appear reluctant to participate in classroom learning discourse? *System* 25.3, 371-384.
- [18] Mark, W., & Meei-Ling, L. (2011). Emerging Technologies for Autonomous Language Learning. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal* 2.3, 107-118.
- [19] Maynard, J. (2011). Learning Environments That Facilitate Reflection on Language Learning. *JALT CALL Journal* 7.3, 293-306.
- [20] MoET (Ministry of Education and Training). (2013). National Education Goals. Hanoi, Vietnam: Ministry of Education and Training.
- [21] MoET (Ministry of Education and Training). (2014). List of International joint programs approved by the Ministry of Education and Training in 2014. Hanoi, Vietnam: Ministry of Education and Training.
- [22] Morrison, B. (2008). The role of the self-access centre in the tertiary language learning process. *System* 36.1, 123-140
- [23] Nguyen, A. B. (2016). Năng suất lao động ở Việt Nam hiện nay (Productivity in Vietnam today). *Vietnamese Social Sciences* 5.1, 24-25.
- [24] Nguyen, N. H. (2011). Báo cáo tổng kết năm học 2015-2016 và triển khai nhiệm vụ năm học 2016-2017 (Expenditures for the school year 2015-2016 and plan for the school year 2016-2017). Ministry of Education and Training: Vietnam's National Foreign Language 2020 Project.
- [25] Nunan, D. (1999). Second Language Teaching & Learning. Florence: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- [26] Palfreyman, D. M. (2011). Family, Friends, and Learning Beyond the Classroom: Social Networks and Social Capital in Language Learning. In P. Benson & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Beyond the Language Classroom*, London: Palgrave Macmillan UK, 17-34.
- [27] Pham, L. A. (2017). Innovation in assessment: The process of changes and challenges. Paper presented at the Conference of Vietnam's National Foreign Language 2020 Project, Ministry of Education and Training.
- [28] Pham, T. M. (2004). Improving Learner Autonomy. Paper presented at the The yearbook of the 35th School of Urban and Regional Planning establishment, Hanoi Architectural University.
- [29] Reinders, H. (2010). Towards a Classroom Pedagogy for Learner Autonomy: A Framework of Independent Language Learning Skills. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education* 35.5, 40-55.
- [30] Reinders, H. (2011). Materials Development for Learning Beyond the Classroom. In P. Benson & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Beyond the Language Classroom*, London: Palgrave Macmillan UK, 175-189.
- [31] Reinders, H., & Lazarou, N. (2007). Innovation in Language Support: The Provision of Technology in Self-Access. *Computer Assisted Language Learning* 20.2, 117-130.
- [32] Scharle, A., & Szabo, A. (2000). Learner autonomy : a guide to developing learner responsibility. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [33] Seker, M. (2016). The use of self-regulation strategies by foreign language learners and its role in language achievement. *Language Teaching Research* 20.5, 600-618.
- [34] TriThucTre. (2016). Tai sao hoc sinh Viet Nam hoc gioi ma nang suat lao dong thap (High achievements at school but low outcomes in workplace). <http://www.misa.com.vn/tin-tuc/chi-tiet/newsid/51672/Tai-sao-hoc-sinh-Viet-Nam-hoc-gioi-ma-nang-suat-lao-dong-lai-thap> (accessed 30/03/2017).



- [35] TuoiTre. (2011). Ngoai ngu day mai sinh vien van kem (Failure in language teaching for students) <https://tuoitre.vn/ngoi-ngu-day-mai-sinh-vien-van-kem-470754.htm> (accessed 10/04/2017).
- [36] Verhelst, N., Van Avermaet, P., Takala, S., Figueras, N., & North, B. (2009). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [37] Vietnamnet. (2016). Vi sao ngay cang nhieu cac em be tuoi 30? (Why are there more and more 30-year-old babies?) <http://vietnamnet.vn/vn/tuanvietnam/vi-sao-viet-nam-ngay-cang-nhieu-em-be-tuoi-30-300389.html> (accessed 10/07/2016).
- [38] Vnexpress. (2015). Viet Nam vuot Anh My trong bang xep hang giao duc toan cau (Vietnam surpasses the United Kingdom, the United States in the global education rankings). <http://vnexpress.net/tin-tuc/giao-duc/vie-t-nam-vuo-t-anh-my-trong-ba-ng-xe-p-ha-ng-gia-o-du-c-toa-n-ca-u-3217885.html> (accessed 18/03/2017).
- [39] Vnexpress. (2016). Giao duc Viet Nam den luc phai lot xac (Vietnamese education comes to the point of being stripped). <https://vnexpress.net/tin-tuc/thoi-su/giao-duc-viet-nam-den-luc-phai-lot-xac-2242819.html> (accessed 22/03/2017).
- [40] Yap, S.-I. (1998). Out-of-class use of English by secondary school students in a Hong Kong Anglo-Chinese school. Thesis of Hong Kong University.



**Nguyễn Ngọc Lưu Ly** is an Associate Professor in Department of French, University of Languages and International Studies, Vietnam National University, Hanoi, Vietnam. She was granted a doctoral degree in French teaching and linguistic modality in 2009. Her major research interest deals with foreign language education, especially in autonomous-based approach in higher education, literacy in foreign language, and play-based approach for early childhood. Email: [nguyen.ngocluly@yahoo.fr](mailto:nguyen.ngocluly@yahoo.fr), [nguyen.ngocluly@vnu.edu.vn](mailto:nguyen.ngocluly@vnu.edu.vn)

# The Cultural Factors in Postcolonial Theories and Applications

Yufeng Wang

Xiamen University of Technology, Fujian, China

**Abstract**—This article focuses on the introduction of postcolonial theories and applications, aiming to stress the close relations between literature and cultural studies. The definitions of imperialism, colonialism, neocolonialism, and postcolonialism are discussed one by one in order to highlight the cultural factors of postcolonialism. Then Edward Said's Orientalism, Gayatri Spivak's subaltern voice, and Homi Bhabha's hybridity are mentioned together with the cultural factors in their postcolonial theories. Finally the author takes George Bryon's *Don Juan*, Charlotte Bronte's *Jane Eyre*, and Vladimir Nabokov's diasporic literature as specific samples for the three respective postcolonial theories, with the purpose to demonstrate the importance of cultural factors in literature studies.

**Index Terms**—culture, postcolonialism, orientalism, subaltern, hybridity

## I. INTRODUCTION

Ever since the appearance of Birmingham School in England, cultural studies have become more and more popular for literature scholars. In the context of cultural studies, the idea of a text includes not only films, music, mass media, photographs, fashion, but also social classes, races, gender, and cultural identities in written languages. Therefore, literature and culture are closely connected with each other. It has been widely recognized that the intercultural dimension is an important component in literature learning and teaching. In the study of literature, culture plays many important roles. It serves either as illustration or a starting point for the study. And it is usually understood as part of a specific domestic or foreign civilization. Thus, literature researches can be carried out from cultural or intercultural perspectives by exploring the social, historical, linguistic and other cultural phenomena in literary texts or critical theories. In this article the postcolonial theory will be taken as an example to show how the cultural factors are related to literary study and demonstrate the importance of cultural research for the literature field.

## II. CULTURE AS A FACTOR TO DEFINE POSTCOLONIALISM

Postcolonialism has nowadays become a popular and important theory for literature research. It “plays a significant part in the growing culturalism of contemporary political, social and historical analysis” (Young, 2016, p.7). Culture is a key factor to define this literary theory as well as an essential point to distinguish postcolonialism from its forefathers: imperialism, colonialism and neocolonialism.

Imperialism derived from the word “empire”. It generally means a strong or large empire's direct territorial acquisition over a weak or small country. Imperialism is characterized by “the exercise of power either through direct conquest or (latterly) through political and economic influence” (Young, 2016, p.7). Colonialism means more direct control by aggressive and military subjugation. It is mainly about the establishment and expansion of colony in one territory by a powerful country. Both imperialism and colonialism involve forms of subjugation of one people by another. Some of the clear distinctive features suggested by Robert Young (2016) are:

Colonialism functioned as an activity on the periphery, economically driven; from the government's perspective, it was at times hard to control. Imperialism, on the other hand, operated from the centre as a policy of state, driven by the grandiose projects of power. Thus while imperialism is susceptible to analysis as a concept (which is not to say that there were no different concepts of imperialism), colonialism needs to be analyzed primarily as a practice. (p.17)

Though it is often difficult for some scholars to tell the differences between imperialism and colonialism, we know one thing for sure. That is, imperialism and colonialism concern more about politics and economy.

The term neocolonialism appeared on literary contexts since the decolonization took place after World War II. It is like “a continuation of traditional colonial rule by another means” (Young, 2016, p.7), for the formerly colonized territories still had to endure the economic hegemony from the world powers though the political sovereignty had been returned to them.

From the above three terms that appeared earlier than postcolonialism, it is not hard for us to find that the mark of the imperialism and colonialism is that the colonized countries were fully controlled by the colonists in politics and economy. As for neocolonialism, the ex-colonized countries still could not be free from the ex-colonized countries in politics and economy. But when it comes to the postcolonialism, the stress tends to be different. Postcolonialism concentrates on the cultural, intellectual and spiritual realm.

Postcolonialism, as a critical theory, came into existence at the end of the 1970s in the USA; then it extended to Europe and became a cultural trend in all over the world. Postcolonialism claims “the right of all people on this earth to the same material and cultural well-being” (Young, 2003, p.2). According to postcolonialists, it may be easy to break away from the colonists politically and economically, but it is much too difficult to uproot the tangible or intangible control of culture. This is just what postcolonialism is primarily concerned about. In fact, we can go so far as to claim that postcolonialism is actually a cultural colonialism. And the adoption of postcolonialism in literature research in turn shows the importance of cultural phenomena for literature.

### III. CULTURE AS A CONCEPT FOR POSTCOLONIAL CRITICS

As we know, postcolonialism is mainly concerned about the study of cultures formerly (or currently) colonized power, struggle between cultures, and intersection of cultures. Culture has been an important concept for the study from the very beginning of this literary theory. Postcolonialism has three pioneers and important theoretical basis. Namely, Antonio Gramsci (1891-1937) and his cultural hegemony, Franz Fanon (1925-1961) and his voice of racist culture, and Michel Foucault (1926-1984) and his theory of power and discourse. Gramsci’s cultural hegemony claims that a culturally-diverse society can be ruled or dominated by one of its social classes. Fanon’s personal experience as a black intellectual in a whitened world, especially the disorientation he felt since his first encounter with racism decisively marked his psychological theories about colonial culture, mostly expressed in *Black Skin, White Masks* (1952). And Foucault’s power and discourse theory often serves as a foundation for one culture’s dominance over another, which is extensively used by Edward Said in his *Orientalism and Cultural Imperialism*.

The three pioneers obviously inform us that postcolonialism is also a symbol of race, ethnicity, culture and human identity. Apart from them, there are three other influential representatives most active in the postcolonial arena of contemporary period. They are Edward W. Said(1935-2003), Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak(1942-) , and Homi K. Bhabha(1949-), who, being of either Indian or Islamic background, experienced differently from their compatriot and those Western natives. These three giants also take culture as their primary concept for literature study and criticism.

#### 1. *Said and Orientalism*

Edward W. Said is a Palestinian American literary theorist, cultural critic and political activist who is famous for the creation of the Oriental Studies, drawing on the basis views of Marxism (Gramsci), Adorno’s negative dialectics, and more markedly Foucault’s analysis of power and discourse, and exposing the nature of the hegemony of the Western imperialist culture. At the same time, Said’s voice cultural imperialism established a relatively complete system of postcolonial cultural theory, which had a great role in promoting the development of the postcolonial theory research and a profound impact on the development of the post-modern literature and cultural studies. Edward Said’s pivotal book *Orientalism* marked the historical breakdown of a disfigured socio-cultural discourse and it “established a template for studies alert to the culture of imperialism” (Jacobs, 2002, p.13). First published in 1978, it sought to rebuild the current academic debate addressing cultural misrepresentations of “The Orient”. Undoubtedly speaking, Said’s *Orientalism* started a new academic field, that is, the colonial discourse. The term Orientalism means several things: an academic term, a style of thought, and the corporate institution for the Orient, who are actually interdependent. Orientalism describes the “subtle and persistent Eurocentric prejudice against Arabo-Islamic peoples and their culture” (Warraq, 2007, p.301). Said (2003) wrote in the book, “Western representations of the Orient, no matter how well intentioned, have always been complicit with the workings of Western power. Even those Orientalists who are clearly sympathetic of Oriental peoples and their cultures can not overcome their Eurocentric perspective, and have unintentionally contributed to Western domination” (p.6). After all, “Orientalism is a Western style for dominating, restructuring, and having authority over the Orient” (Said, 2003, p.4) .

Orientalism depends on a culturally constructed distinction between the ‘Occident’ (West) and the ‘Orient’ (East). Said pointed out that Orientalism actually occupied three overlapping domains. “ It designates first the 4000 year history of and cultural relations between Europe and Asia; secondly the scientific discipline producing specialists in Oriental languages and culture from the early nineteenth century; and thirdly the long-term images, stereotypes and general ideology about ‘the Orient’ as the ‘Other’” (Selden, et al., 2004, p.223). Noted for the “Western knowledge of the Eastern world”, Orientalism is just like the Westerner’s fantasy, regarding the east as a place of backwardness, irrationality, and wildness. It is a political and cultural doctrine made by the west, trying to control the east politically or culturally. The scope of Said’s scholarship established Orientalism as a foundation text in the field of postcolonial cultural studies. Said’s further bibliographic production features *The World, the Text, and the Critic* (1983), *Nationalism, Colonialism, and Literature: Yeats and Decolonization* (1988), *Culture and Imperialism* (1993), *Representations of the Intellectual: The 1993 Reith Lectures* (1994), *Humanism and Democratic Criticism* (2004), and *On Late Style* (2006). Most of his works hold a postcolonial point of view and attempt to highlight the inaccuracies of those wrong assumptions of cultural imperialism.

#### 2. *Spivak and the Subaltern Voice*

Gayatri Chakravorty Spivak, an Indian literary critic and theorist, is famous for deconstructive interpretations of imperialism and the struggle for decolonization. The essay “Can the Subaltern Speak?” (1983) and the book *In Other Worlds* (1987) are her best representative works; Spivak’s theories drew quite a lot for Marxism and feminism; and cultural identity and woman discourse become Spivak’s major focus. She is famous for broadening the concept of

“subaltern” put forward by Gramsci. In “Can the Subaltern speak?”, Spivak talked about the suicide of a young Bengali woman who failed to “speak” outside normal patriarchal channels. But she questioned the possibility if the Gramscian “subaltern” could have a voice when the identity of the subaltern is different and their voice is heard through the academic discourses of Western metropolitan culture.

In postcolonial theory, the term subaltern describes the lower classes and the social groups who are at the margins of a society. They cannot represent themselves and their voices have to be represented by others. According to Gramsci, the subaltern is the lowest class, or the lowest strata of the urban sub-proletariat, being ignored seriously by the capital society. In Spivak’s opinion, the term subaltern is a synonym of proletariat when applied to postcolonial theory. It has a broad and specific meaning: the poor, the oppressed and the exploited who has no right to speak out what are in their minds, not to mention getting their voice heard. Spivak actually “seeks to affirm and empower the subject-position of subaltern peoples suppressed by colonial regimes” (Lopez, 2001, p.22) Here again, we find the obvious cultural hegemony and cultural imperialism in Spivak’s subaltern voice.

### 3. Homi K. Bhabha and Hybridity

Homi K. Bhabha, a Persian descendant born in India, is now teaching in Western higher institutions. Bhabha has coined a number of the field’s neologisms and key concepts, such as third space, hybridity, mimicry, difference, ambivalence, etc. Such terms, according to Bhabha’s theory, describe ways in which colonized peoples have resisted the cultural power of the colonizer. In *The Location of Culture* (1994), Bhabha wrote about hybridity and third space from a postcolonial perspective.

Homi Bhabha developed the hybridity theory in *The Location of Culture* (1994) which analyses hybridity as a paradigm of colonial anxiety. Bhabha’s cultural hybridity stresses the mixture of different cultures and describes the emergence of new cultural forms from multiculturalism. Bhabha (1994) wrote in his *The Location of Culture*.

For a willingness to descend into that alien territory—where I have led you— may reveal that the theoretical recognition may split the space of enunciation may open the way to conceptualizing of international culture, based not on the exoticism of multiculturalism or the diversity of cultures, but on the inscription and articulation of culture’s hybridity. To that end we should remember that it is ‘inter’—the cutting edge of translation and negotiation, the in-between space— that carries out burden of meaning of culture. (p.38)

Bhabha’s statements clearly demonstrate his idea on cultural hybridity rather than differences, which paves the way for the topics of cultural identities and multiculturalism in many literature researches.

## IV. CULTURE AS A PERSPECTIVE FOR POSTCOLONIAL READINGS

Postcolonial criticism in general draws attention to questions of cultural identity. Since the 1980s and especially in the 1990s, postcolonial theories also had a significant impact on the study of multiculturalism and English and American literature, which also “promoted links between culture and the construction of collective identities” (Lauter, 2010, p.112). Postcolonialists often rethink conventional modes of reading, reinterpreting canonical literature in order to examine if past texts perpetuated or questioned the latent assumptions of colonial discourse. They tend to enquire into the representations of colonized subjects in a variety of colonial texts. For postcolonialism, culture has always been the major topic of reinterpreting the canonical literature. Of course postcolonialists do not degenerate the traditional values of those literary works. They just want to bring out new perspectives for the literature studies from a cultural point of view. In the following parts, let’s take three different works to briefly analyze the cultural phenomena in literature researches.

### 1. Orientalism and Byron’s Don Juan

Although the postcolonial meaning of Orientalism was put forward by Said in 1978, Orientalism as a traditional term had been mentioned by western scholars since the 19th century. At that time “Orientalism” was widely used in art to refer to the works of the many Western artists, who specialized in “Oriental” subjects. The oriental tendency of George Gordon Byron and his works are often discussed by postcolonial scholars. Byron used to pursue an exotic life because of the repressed cultural environment in Britain and his own emotional distress. From 1809 to 1811, Byron’s travel to Portugal, Albania, Greece and Turkey was an important phase for him to experience different kinds of life in other parts of the world, which are “Orient” compared with England. The rich oriental experiences laid the solid foundation for Byron’s writing. As one of the poets that most closely devoted link with Orientalism, Byron devoted most of his literary activity to writing about the Islamic Orient, or the Levant as he called it. From 1765-1859, this time was a period of all-round development of Orientalism and nearly everyone was infatuated with the Oriental things. More importantly, Byron’s oriental travel provided him with a new point of re-reading the Orient. The true eastern ways of life was different from the bookish knowledge at that time. Besides, due to the oriental visit, large number of memories, genuine Oriental words, proper names and adventures were presented. It also reshaped Byron himself and the culture he belonged to. In this way, his truly oriental experience assimilated himself into that culture. His famous Work *Don Juan* can be interpreted culturally from an Oriental point of view.

*Don Juan* is a long but great epic satire about abuses of the contemporary of society. It is on the romantic adventures of a legendary Spanish youth who has many love affairs with different kinds of women. During his adventure, Don Juan is made to participate in different historical events. Thus a broad panorama of social life of the time is presented. In *Don Juan*, the Orient appear in almost all cantos, and the Eastern cantos are structured in four parts: Don Juan’s adventures

on Haidee's island (I-IV), in Turkey's harem (V-VI), at the Siege of Ismail (VI-VIII), and being a favorite of Empress Katherine (mostly V-VI, and referred to in VII-VIII). The seraglio, the symbol of Eastern power, the corruption and the most powerful aspect of the Muslim East were the focus that Byron's involvement with the East in *Don Juan*. But in almost all this parts of the long epic, the East is not considered an equal continent for human living, but a place of evil and darkness. The vast continent of the Orient is created as a 'place of savages', filled with 'superstitions', and is held in contempt by Westerners. The Orient is barbaric, primitive, poor, wild, dangerous, and full of horrors, while the West is civilized, modern, rich, safe, and so on. People who live on the Orient are depicted as brutal animals in contrast to the Western people. In Westerners' eyes, the Orient in every way is inferior to the West and can only be used by the West to indicate its powerfulness, its distinctive civilization, and its exclusive superiority. Not only is the Orient like an unknown primitive planet, but also native Oriental people's behavior is odd and funny. Let's take two women in *Don Juan* as examples.

At the beginning, Don Juan is seduced by a married woman named Julia. She is a wanton woman who can hide her lover in a nest and then play plausibly when her husband is searching her bedroom. Here we notice such a description in her appearance.

The darkness of her oriental eye

Accorded with her Moorish origin.

Her blood was not all Spanish, by the by;

In Spain, you know, this is a sort of sin. (Byron,1986, p.60)

Byron first depicted her mixed blood to emphasize her humble birth, and then reached his goal to completely separate this wonton woman from gentle Spanish. Though in the "The Isles of Greece" of *Don Juan*, we find the description of "Where burning Sappho loved and sung, Where grew the arts of war and peace, Where Delos rose, and Phoebus sprung, The Scian and the Teian muse, The hero's harp, the lover's lute", which are the glorious culture of Greece, yet the civilized country was tortured by the barbarous Turks. Although Don Juan loves Haidee very much, she is still a snake with the same character as a snake in the eyes of Don Juan. Without resisting the deadly allure of the snake, people live in a corrupt life, "but her eyes were black as death, their lashes the same hue, of downcast length, in whose silk shadow lies deepest attraction... Tis as the snake late coiled, who pours his length and hurls at once his venom and his strength" (Byron,1986, p.131). These all provided the readers or critics with some hints to study Byron's tendency of Orientalism from a cultural point of view.

## 2. Subaltern Voice and Jane Eyre

As we know, postcolonialism can be applied not only to analyze direct cultural domination; it can also be used to explore abstract cultural meanings in some literary works. Another typical example appeared in Spivak's discussion of the novels *Jane Eyre*, *Wilde Sargasso Sea* and *Frankstein* in the essay "Three Women's Texts and a critique of Imperialism". Spivak in the essay saw in *Jane Eyre* "otherwise a class text for Anglo-American Feminism, an allegory of the general epistemic violence of imperialism" (Selden, et al., 2004, p.226). According to Spivak, Bronte's novel may well uphold its protagonist as a new feminist ideal; but it does so at the expense of Bertha, Rochester's Creole bride who functions as a colonial subject of "other" to legitimate Jane's simultaneous ascent to domestic authority. These opinions brought a new topic for the study of *Jane Eyre* from such a cultural point of view.

In this story, echoing Spivak's "Can the Subaltern Speak?", *Jane Eyre* is a subaltern who dares to break the oppressive silence and utters her own voice and finally changes her status as a subaltern. Although Jane is born as a subaltern, she dares to speak out and gives out her own voice-- in the series of struggle and resistance against the power that oppresses her voice. In the eyes of the Reeds, Jane is not their relative but a subaltern who is no better than a servant and must bear harsh treatment. The Reeds family always requires her to remain silent, "Be seated somewhere; and until you can speak pleasantly, remain silent"(Bronte 1992:8). However, Jane does not want to remain in oppressive silence, instead, she always tries to break it. Her battle with the Reeds takes place most profoundly on the level of language. When her cousin John Reed, who always claims to be the master of the family, hurls at Jane and pushes her to the end of her patience, Jane erupts. "Wicked and Cruel boy!" Jane shouted. "You are like a murderer. You are like a slave-driver. You are like the Roman emperors!" (Bronte,1992, p.11). Later, when Jane is interrogated by Brocklehurst, Mrs. Reed banishes her once more to silent confinement in her room. Jane again retaliates with words, "Speak, I must". In other words, she can break the oppressive silence. Therefore, Jane has changed her subaltern status in her world.

But unlike *Jane Eyre*, Bertha Mason, Rochester's mad wife, is a forever silenced subaltern, who has been deprived of the right of discourse and has no means to break the oppressive silence and remains a silent subaltern forever. Bertha is a silenced victim, who has always been suffering in the dark attic. The only sign of her existence is her laugh through which she expresses her dissatisfaction and complaints to the outside world. All the adjectives Jane used to describe her laugh shows the repressed inner self of a confined woman, "...while I paced softly on, the last sound I expected to hear in so still a region, a laugh, struck my ear. It was carious laugh; distinct, formal, and mirthless... it passed off in a clamorous peal that seemed to wake an echo in every lonely chamber..." (Bronte,1992,108) When Jane is alone, she frequently hears Bertha's laugh "the same peal, the same low, slow ha!ha! which, when first heard, had thrilled me; I heard, too, her eccentric murmurs; stranger than her laugh" (Bronte,1992,111). At the night of Mason's arrival, Jane hears a cry, "What a cry! The night- its silence- its rest, was rent in twain by a savage, a sharp, a shrilly sound that ran from end to end of Thornfield Hall" (Bronte,1992,207-208). Through this simple example of the two characters in *Jane*

Eyre, we see how Spivak's writing of "the subaltern" offers a relatively new perspective of literature and cultural studies.

### 3. *Hybridity and Nabokov's Diasporic Literature*

A hybrid is something that is mixed, and hybridity is simply mixture, or a cross between two separate races or cultures. The term "hybridity" has been seen as a cultural effect of globalization. According to Bhabha's theory of hybridity, on the process of intercultural communication and literary inheritance, people do not refuse other's culture, but borrow and identify it, and further enrich and renew one's self-culture. It is an embodiment of multiculturalism or even cosmopolitanism. In the age of globalization, the diasporic literature in which there are characters moving from one culture to another already has attracted many postcolonial critics' attention, for which Jessica Langer (2011) even claimed, "It is impossible to conceptualize postcolonialism without recognition and analysis of the diasporic movements that have been inherent to colonization" (pp.56-57). In this case, many American diasporic works can be studied from the perspective of cultural identity and hybridity, which again shows the relation between literature and culture. Let's briefly take the Russian-born American writer Vladimir Nabokov as another typical example.

Vladimir Nabokov is famous as a 20th century Russian exile intellectual representative in world literature. From Russia, England, Germany, France, America to Swiss, Nabokov was exiled in many countries all his life. The pain of losing his motherland and homesickness aroused his strong cultural identity anxiety. But because of his years in exile between heterogeneous cultures, he formed unique creative methods and broad culture mind. Nabokov's literature has a multicultural identity, either Russia's, or the world's. For example, in his famous work *Invitation of a Friend*, the protagonist Timofey Pavlovich Pnin is a Russian-born professor living in the United States, teaching Russian at fictional Waindell College, which possibly originated from Cornell University or Wellesley College, where Nabokov himself taught. In *Pale Fire*, Kinbote declares that he used to be a king and was later exiled to America. In *Lolita*, Humbert is a European who goes to America and becomes a literature teacher after divorce. It is true that Nabokov also described about nostalgia and cultural shocks in these works, yet we can clearly find multiculturalism and the characteristics of hybridity in them, which has already become a hot topic for the world study of Nabokov.

## V. CONCLUSION

Postcolonialism, as a literary criticism, is different from imperialism, colonialism, and neocolonialism for the major focus on culture. It is a combination of literary research and cultural studies, which offers new perspectives to re-read literary works from the cultural point of view. With the advancement of multiculturalism, cosmopolitanism and globalization, more and more scholars will follow the path of Said, Spivak, and Homi Bhabha. Postcolonialism will continue to be an important topic for literature studies. And the adoption of postcolonialism, especially the cultural factors in it, will in turn influence the study of world literature for a long period of time.

## REFERENCES

- [1] Bhabha, Homi. (1994). *The Location of Culture*. New York: Routledge.
- [2] Bronte, Charlotte. (1992). *Jane Eyre*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [3] Byron, George Gordon. (1986). *Don Juan*. New York: Penguin Books.
- [4] Jacobs, Jane M. (2002). *Edge of Empire: Postcolonialism and the City*. New York: Routledge.
- [5] Langer, Jessica. (2011). *Postcolonialism and Science Fiction*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- [6] Lauter, Paul. (ed). (2010). *A Companion to American Literature and Culture*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- [7] Lopez, Alfred J. (2001). *Posts and Pasts: A Theory of Postcolonialism*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- [8] Said, Edward. (2003). *Orientalism*. London: Penguin Books.
- [9] Selden, Raman. et al. (2004). *A Reader's Guide to Contemporary Literary Theory* (4th edition). Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [10] Warraq, Ibn. (2007). *Defending the West: A Critique of Edward Said's Orientalism*. New York: Prometheus Books.
- [11] Young, Robert. J.C. (2016). *Postcolonialism: An Historical Introduction* (15th Anniversary Edition). West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- [12] Young, Robert. J.C. (2003). *Postcolonialism: A Very Short Introduction*. New York: Oxford University Press.

**Yufeng Wang** was born in Fujian Province, China in 1979. He is currently an associate professor for English majors at Xiamen University of Technology and a Ph.D. candidate at Shanghai International Studies University. He has published two books and more than 30 papers. His research field is British and American literature.

# Do Cultural Intelligence and Language Learning Strategies Influence Students' English Language Proficiency?

Noor Rachmawaty

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

M. Basri Wello

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

Mansur Akil

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

Syarifuddin Dollah

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

**Abstract**—Cultural Intelligence (CQ) is believed as an additional type to the existing forms of intelligence (IQ, EQ). It also explains why some individuals are more effective than others in culturally diverse situations. Studies have documented how successful language learners seem to use wider variety of language learning strategies than unsuccessful learners. Having these two important aspects in relation to the successfulness of acquiring foreign language thus this study is intended to explore the relationship of Cultural Intelligence, Language Learning Strategy and English Language proficiency. The study involved 87 second-year students of English Department, Mulawarman University. Data were gathered using The Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS), The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and TOEFL. Descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS 20 were used in the process of data analysis. The result reveals that CQ level of the students is medium ( $M=51.984$ ) with metacognitive and motivational as dominant factors for both male and female students. The data shows that there is a significant relationship between CQ and LLS ( $F=13.082$ ,  $p=0.001$ ). This result confirms the previous studies that culture influences the frequency and type of LLS use. As for strategy categories, metacognitive is the most frequently used strategy ( $M=3.704$ ) and affective is the least frequently used ( $M=3.080$ ). The students' proficiency level is ranging from elementary (25.29%) to advanced (8.05%). The dominant level is low intermediate. The data recorded that there is no correlation among cultural intelligence, language learning strategies and English language proficiency ( $F=1.208$ ,  $p=0.304$ ).

**Index Terms**—cultural intelligence, language learning strategies, English language proficiency

## I. INTRODUCTION

A great deal of technological innovations in different fields such as communications, transportation, and various information tools have contributed to create the greatest blend of cultures in the world (Lustig and Koester, 2010). As a result of the rapid growth of globalization, technology development and population migration (Chen and Starosta, 2008), English Language Teaching in the 1980s recognized the need for communication with people from other cultures. It then resulted in the intercultural perspective towards language teaching (Derin et al., 2009). Based on this perspective, the competence is not being a *native-like*; rather, it is an intercultural one (Corbett, 2003) through which students “decenter from their own linguistic and cultural situation to consider that of others” (Scarino, 2009) and improved positive attitudes and reduced sense of ethnocentrism towards different culture (Schultz, 2007). In this perspective, culture is seen as an important part of foreign language learning and instruction. Thanasoulas (2001) noted how language and culture are interrelated as culture help people to identify not only speaker and listener, topic of the conversation but also help people to better understand how to identify messages, meaning behind the message and the contexts. However, the manner in which culture is often presented often does not meet the expectations and needs of an increasingly communicated world.

With regards to the importance of culture, researchers' extensive review of intercultural theory and intelligence approach led to the early conceptualization of cultural intelligence (CQ). It is an intelligence which has the same basic root other intelligences but the focus is particularly on having the skill needed to be effective in the globalized, interconnected world (Livermore, 2011). Further he emphasizes that CQ adds to the existing forms of intelligence (IQ, CQ) and explains why some individuals are more effective than others in culturally diverse situations. The reason lies basically on the fact that norms for interaction are different from one culture to another.

A large and extensive number of researches have been conducted on the topic of language learning strategy use (e.g. Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; O'Mailey & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990) which resulted in an agreement that language learning strategy is one of the most important factors in second language acquisition process. In similar vein, many studies in second language learning (e.g. Oxford, 1990; Green & Oxford, 1995; Wharton, 2000, Griffiths & Parr, 2001) have documented how successful language learners seem to use wider variety of language learning strategies than unsuccessful learners. In addition selecting appropriate language learning strategies could enhance the learners' performance of second language learning (Oxford, 1990; Bruen, 2001).

Regarding the role of language learning strategy in the successfulness of a second or foreign language learner, studies provide several factors which may affect the choice and use of the strategies. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) point out that the relationship between language learning strategies and other individual factors such as intelligence, aptitude, attitudes, motivation and anxiety is complex. Other potential learner variables which may affect the choice of language learning strategies are personality, learning style, beliefs and personal circumstances. Three factors which commonly regarded to have an impact on learners are the variables of nationality, sex and age.

Knowing how powerful language learning strategy for a learner to take part in the learning his or her own learning process and the fact that individual within cultures differ and bring different personality traits should be uphold in order to promote culturally responsive education system which will speed up the successfulness of learners. In addition, there is still more to delve on the existence of Cultural Intelligence (CQ) in the field of foreign language education. Therefore, a study which investigated the extent of CQ as the mediator of the relationships between language learning strategies and language proficiency is necessary to be carried out as it will shed a different insight to the existence knowledge about CQ.

It is also derived from the previous studies that most studies which explored the relationship between Cultural Intelligence (CQ) and language skills were carried out in middle-east, little or even no empirical study has been conducted in Indonesia especially East Kalimantan. This study involved second-year students of English Department, Mulawarman University. They are chosen as they fit into the criteria set for this study.

This study is aimed at answering the following questions:

1. How are the Cultural Intelligence Level, Language Learning Strategy Use and English Proficiency Level of the Students?
2. Is there any difference in Cultural Intelligence Level, Language Learning Strategy Use and English Proficiency Level of the Students by gender?
3. Is there a relationship between Cultural Intelligence, Language Learning Strategies and English proficiency among the English Department students?

#### *Cultural Intelligence*

Globalization, multiculturalism and international status of the English language have urged English as second or foreign language learners to develop their Cultural Intelligence (CQ) as it acknowledges the practical realities of globalization (Earley and Ang, 2003) and complements Intelligence Quotient (IQ) by focusing on specific capabilities that are important for high quality personal relationships and effectiveness in culturally diverse settings (Ang, Van Dyne and Koh, 2006). In the same vein Ramis and Krastina (2010) point out that CQ goes beyond the concept that intelligence is based solely on cognitive and/or practical skills. It is one step ahead as it consists of academic intelligence (acquired in academic context), practical intelligence (acquired in daily context) and communicative intelligence.

Cultural Intelligence was first introduced by Earley and Ang (2003), their work draws on Sternberg and Detterman's (1986) cited in Ng, Dyne and Ang (2012) which look at an integration of multiple loci of intelligences which proposed a set of capabilities covering mental, motivational, and behavioral components that concentrating mainly on resolving cross-cultural problems. CQ incorporates four qualitatively different constructs which include metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ and behavioral CQ.

#### *Language Learning Strategies*

The definition of learning strategies was firstly proposed by Rubin (1975). She defined learning strategies as techniques used by learners to acquire knowledge. Further she came up with the categorization of learning strategies, they are *direct strategies* and *indirect strategies*. The direct learning strategies involve clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning and practice while the indirect learning strategies consist of creating opportunities for practice and production tricks.

Oxford (1990) conducted thorough literature studies on language learning strategies which resulted in recommending the categorization into: *memory strategies* (strategies to remember language), *cognitive strategies* (strategies to acquire knowledge about language), *compensation strategies* (strategies to deal with limited knowledge), *metacognitive strategies* (strategies to cope with learning process), *affective strategies* (strategies related to students' feelings), *social strategies* (strategies that adopt learning by interaction with others).

#### *Definition and the measurement of English Language Proficiency*

Language proficiency has been one of the popular topics in second or foreign language research, however defining and determining proficiency in language learning for speakers of other languages is no easy endeavor. According to the traditional view proficiency is mainly related to grammar and lexis (Harley, Allen, Cummins and Swain (1990). Along



with the development of research in second and foreign language, proficiency deals with the degree of skill with which a language can be used (Richards, Platt and Platt, 1985). Yet, the word ‘skill’ opens a debate on its content in language, also the importance of fluency over accuracy and vice versa (Brumfit 1984), or on whether skills such as reading, writing, listening and speaking should be separated from elements of knowledge such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and cultural awareness (Lado, 1961).

In a more practical definition, Lange (1990) defines foreign language proficiency as the ability to use the language modalities (listening, reading, writing and speaking), and to assume the cultural framework of the language being studied for the purpose of communicating ideas and information. Similarly, the Ohio Department of Education on their website (2017) provides definition of language proficiency as the ability of individual to use culturally appropriate language to communicate spontaneously in non-rehearsed context. Further they add that proficiency also refers to the degree of skill with which a person can use a language to understand, speak, read and write in real life situations.

There are different types of measurement used to measure the proficiency of a language learner, two of which are extensively used tests, they are Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). Apart from being extensively used in almost 130 countries in the world, there are critics related to its validity as well as reliability. It is the construct validity of TOEFL, the multiple choice format is regarded not testing the ‘real’ language. Regarding the questionable case of its validity and reliability, many colleges and universities in the world still use either one of the test as one of the requirements to enter the university.

In this current study, the researcher chooses TOEFL as a measurement as this type of test is the most familiar test for the students under study. It is also representative in measuring the proficiency of the students as it covers three main sections with different aims of testing.

## II. METHOD

This study was correlational as it aimed at revealing the relationship of Cultural Intelligence, Language learning strategies and English Language Proficiency. Gall, Gall, & Borg (2007) argue that the correlational research designs are useful in predicting the relationship between variables.

The present study involved the fifth semester students of English Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Mulawarman University East Kalimantan and they were approximately 120 students. However, only 87 students were willing to join the study. The reasons choosing this particular group of students are related to the number of skill subjects (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing) that they had taken in the previous years assumed to equip them to have certain language proficiency in English, the length of time they have spent in academic life in campus has helped them to exercise their academic and socio-cultural skills in real life situations and lastly the specific subject about Cross Cultural Understanding that they had might give them background knowledge when they are asked about culture and its related factors.

## III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section is arranged in accordance with the aforementioned research questions. The findings from Cultural Intelligence questionnaire, SILL and proficiency test were statistically analyzed and discussed in relation to findings from previous studies.

### Research Question 1: How are the Cultural Intelligence Level, Language Learning Strategy Use and English Proficiency Level of the Students?

Responding to the first research question, Table 1 describes the level of students’ Cultural Intelligence with the *Medium* level as the most dominant level (74.713%) then followed by *High* (16.092%) and finally *Low* level (9.195%).

TABLE 1  
STUDENTS’ CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE LEVEL

<i>Cultural Intelligence Interval</i>	<i>Category</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage (%)</i>
80 < X ≤ 100	Very High	0	0
60 < X ≤ 80	High	14	16.092
40 < X ≤ 60	Medium	65	74.713
20 < X ≤ 40	Low	8	9.195
0 < X ≤ 20	Very Low	0	0
Total		87	100
Maximum Score		71.429	
Minimum Score		28.571	
Average		51.984	
Standard Deviation		8.439	
Variance		71.209	

The overall use of language learning strategies by the students is shown in Table 2. This table presents the frequency of strategy use among all the students. The percentage of strategy use ranged from a very high 4.598% to a low of

2.299%. The table also shows that most students use language learning strategy in medium level as can be seen from the average score that is 59.106.

TABLE 2  
STUDENTS' LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY USE

<i>SILL</i>		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage (%)</i>
<i>Interval</i>	<i>Category</i>		
80 < X ≤ 100	Very High	4	4.598
60 < X ≤ 80	High	35	40.230
40 < X ≤ 60	Medium	46	52.874
20 < X ≤ 40	Low	2	2.299
0 < X ≤ 20	Very Low	0	0
Total		87	100
Maximum Score		90.000	
Minimum Score		23.889	
Average		59.106	
Standard Deviation		10.418	
Variance		108.531	

A TOEFL prediction test was conducted in order to know students' proficiency level. Table 3 describes the students' proficiency level ranging from elementary with the total percentage 25.287% to advance with the total percentage 8.046%. The most dominant level is low intermediate with almost half of the total sample is categorized in this category.

TABLE 3  
STUDENTS' PROFICIENCY LEVEL

<i>Proficiency Level</i>		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage (%)</i>
<i>Interval</i>	<i>Category</i>		
525 - Above	Advanced	7	8.046
480 - 520	High Intermediate	14	16.092
420 - 480	Low Intermediate	44	50.575
310 - 420	Elementary	22	25.287
Total		87	100
Maximum Score		590	
Minimum Score		316	
Average		448.01	
Standard Deviation		49.05	
Variance		2405.94	

### Research Question 2: Is there any difference in Cultural Intelligence Level, Language Learning Strategy Use and English Proficiency Level of the Students by gender?

The next description on Table 4 displays students' Cultural Intelligence based on gender and the four factors of Cultural Intelligence.

TABLE 4  
STUDENTS' CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE BASED ON GENDER

<i>Cultural Intelligence Factors</i>	<i>Gender</i>		<i>Total Average</i>
	<i>Male Students</i>	<i>Female Students</i>	
Metacognitive	3.444	3.537	3.518
Cognitive	3.167	2.925	2.975
Motivational	3.200	3.412	3.368
Behavioral	2.900	3.267	3.191

Based on the Table 4, the most dominant factor which influences students' level of cultural intelligence is the Metacognitive factor (M=3.518) then followed by Motivational factor (M=3.368) and Behavioral factor (M=3.191) while the least is Cognitive factor (M=2.975). Both male and female students' cultural intelligence level is influenced by metacognitive factor that is individual's cultural consciousness and awareness during interactions with people who have different cultural backgrounds (Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., and Koh, C.K.S., 2009). However, the least dominant factor that influences the female and male groups is different. The Female students' Cultural Intelligence level is influenced less by the cognitive factor (M=2.925) while behavioral factor becomes the least dominant influence for the male students' Cultural Intelligence level.

The description of the most dominant strategy used by students referring to their gender can be seen in Table 5.

TABLE 5  
DESCRIPTION OF OVERALL USE OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

SILL	Gender		Total Average
	Male Students	Female Students	
Memory strategy	3.118	3.197	3.181
Cognitive strategy	3.214	3.439	3.392
Compensation strategy	3.322	3.371	3.361
Metacognitive strategy	3.525	3.750	3.704
Affective strategy	2.741	3.169	3.080
Social strategy	3.222	3.290	3.276
<b>Total</b>	<b>3.209</b>	<b>3.405</b>	<b>3.364</b>

As for strategy categories, metacognitive strategy is the most frequently used strategy (M=3.704) and affective strategy is the least frequently used (M=3.080), while between the two descending order are cognitive strategy (M=3.392), compensation strategy (M=3.361), social strategy (M=3.276) and memory strategy (M=3.181). With regards to gender, both female and male students use metacognitive strategy as the most frequently used strategy and affective strategy as the least frequently used.

**Research Question 3: Is there a relationship between Cultural Intelligence, Language Learning Strategies and English proficiency among the English Department students?**

In relation to the linkage between cultural intelligence, language learning strategies and English language proficiency, the computation from one way analysis of variant (ANOVA) shows a meaningful relationship between cultural intelligence and language learning strategies ( $F= 13.082, p= 0.001$ ).

TABLE 6  
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES  
ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1259.377	1	1259.377	13.082	.001 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	8182.709	85	96.267		
	Total	9442.086	86			

a. Dependent Variable: SILL

b. Predictors: (Constant), C.I

ANOVA was also used to find out the correlation among the three variables, they are Cultural Intelligence, Language Learning Strategies, and English Language Proficiency. The result shows that there is no correlation among the variables ( $F=1.208, p= 0.304$ ).

TABLE 7  
THE CORRELATION AMONG CQ, SILL AND ENGLISH PROFICIENCY  
ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5853.018	2	2926.509	1.208	.304 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	203463.970	84	2422.190		
	Total	209316.989	86			

a. Dependent Variable: TOEFL

b. Predictors: (Constant), SILL, C.I

*Cultural Intelligence and the frequency of Language Learning Strategies use adopted by the students*

With regards to the correlation between Cultural Intelligence and the frequency of language learning strategies use, Table 8 describes that the cultural intelligence factors, particularly metacognitive influences both frequent and less frequent use of language learning strategies. The next factor that is assumed to give influence on language learning strategies use is motivational then followed by behavioral and the last is cognitive.

TABLE 8  
CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE FACTORS AND THE FREQUENCY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES USE

Cultural Intelligence Factors	SILL Frequency	
	High	Low
Metacognitive	3.558	3.271
Cognitive	3.009	2.764
Motivational	3.448	2.867
Behavioral	3.248	2.833
Total	3.288	2.908

*Cultural Intelligence and the students' English language proficiency*

This study reveals that the link between factors in Cultural Intelligence (CQ) and the level of language proficiency was not significant. However, there are several results which could be used to inform the students' current condition

related to cultural intelligence and proficiency level. The data indicates that high proficiency students reported have higher mean score in two factors of CQ compares to the low proficiency students. To be more precise, the proficient students seemed to be influenced by metacognitive and cognitive factors while the less proficient students were directed by motivational and behavioral factors.

TABLE 9  
CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE FACTORS AND PROFICIENCY LEVEL

<i>Cultural Intelligence Factors</i>	<i>Proficiency Level</i>	
	<i>High</i>	<i>Low</i>
Metacognitive	3.738	3.448
Cognitive	3.183	2.909
Motivational	3.333	3.379
Behavioral	3.124	3.212
<b>Total</b>	3.317	3.210

#### *Language learning strategies and English language proficiency*

The statistics computation shows that there was no correlation between language learning strategies and English language proficiency. Nevertheless, several data might be used to reveal additional information regarding the result of the study. The data shows that high proficiency students reported to have relatively higher mean score in all of the six strategy categories than the low proficiency students. The proficient students used all types of strategies more frequently than the less proficient students except on the affective strategy (M=2.976). The most preferred strategy types for the high proficiency students were Metacognitive strategy (M=3.841) and Compensation strategy (M=3.514) respectively, while for the less proficient students Metacognitive strategy (M=3.660) and Cognitive strategy (M=3.380) were the most favorable strategy types. It is interesting to note that both high and low proficiency students prefer to use metacognitive strategy than other language learning strategies.

TABLE 10  
LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVEL

<i>SILL</i>	<i>Proficiency Level</i>	
	<i>High</i>	<i>Low</i>
Memory strategy	3.196	3.176
Cognitive strategy	3.432	3.380
Compensation strategy	3.514	3.312
Metacognitive strategy	3.841	3.660
Affective strategy	2.976	3.114
Social strategy	3.413	3.232
<b>Total</b>	3.419	3.346

Culture is assumed to give influence on the language learning strategies used by a second or foreign language learner as culture is embedded in the context where the learner live. In line with this idea, Oxford (1990) points out that the frequency and type of learning strategy use influenced with factors such as degree of awareness of learning strategies, stage of learning, task requirements, age, gender, cultural and mother language background, purpose of learning, personality traits, and motivation. The findings of the current support Oxford's (1990) argument with regards to the argument that culture influences the frequency and type of language learning use. This study also in line with the previous research related to the correlation between culture and language learning strategies Harsch and Riley (1998) cited in Macaro (2001) conducted a study which compares adult ESL and EFL learners in two different countries, Hawaii (USA) and Japan. The study looked at the teaching approaches that were used as contexts to discuss the differences between the ways that the learners in these two countries use strategies. It was revealed that ESL students reported greater use of LLS than EFL students. Being in an English-speaking environment made the ESL students more aware of strategy use. The finding of Harsch and Riley's study (1999) lead another studies to find out about the role of culture in relation to language learning strategies. Wharton (2000) conducted a study involving bilingual students with Chinese ethnicity background at a Singaporean university. The students studied a foreign language (French or Japanese). It was found that the students favored social strategies the most but reluctant to use affective.

Based on the result of the study, it can be assumed that the influence of culture on the frequency and types of language learning strategy use can be seen through the existence of certain cultural intelligence level. In this study, the average level of cultural intelligence is categorized as medium (M=51.984) with metacognitive and motivational factors, respectively as the dominant factors that constitute the level of cultural intelligence. Metacognitive factor is considered as the critical component for cultural intelligence because of several reasons, the first, it promotes active thinking, about people and situations when differences are found regarding cultural backgrounds. Second, it triggers critical thinking about habits, assumptions, and culturally bound thinking. The last, it lets a person to evaluate and revise their mental maps which will increase the level of understanding (O'Neil and Abedi, 1996; Pintrich and DeGroot, 1990 cited in Van Dyne, Ang and Koh, 2009). The metacognitive factor of CQ promotes an individual's cultural consciousness and awareness of different cultural backgrounds when facing the process of learning a foreign language. Having this in mind, help the students to choose which strategy to adopt when learning English and how frequent to use the strategies.

Based on the findings, it is noted that the motivational factor of cultural intelligence also contributes to the current level of students' cultural intelligence under this study. Van Dyne, Ang and Koh (2009) define that this factor is related to the capability of an individual in directing attention and energy toward cultural differences. The motivational factor strengthens the individual's self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation in using certain language learning strategies to promote the process of English foreign language learning.

Given the arguments of how cultural intelligence plays an important role in students' preference of language learning strategies and the frequency of applying them, it is necessary to note that English teachers should promote a culturally responsive teaching atmosphere in their classroom. This type of classroom will help students' level of cultural intelligence improved as it provides more opportunities on cross-cultural interactions. High level of cultural intelligence is assumed to encourage students to better understand their own culture and the foreign culture that they are learning. With this understanding, they could direct themselves to be good language learners who know the most suitable strategies to use that fit to their personality and cultural backgrounds.

The data revealed that there was no correlation between the three variables though Cultural Intelligence and Language Learning Strategies were significantly correlated. The results of the current study seem contradict to the result from the previous researchers. Previous study which looked at similar area that is the relationship between cultural intelligence and English language proficiency was conducted by Khodadady and Ghahari (2012). The study used Cultural Intelligence in Persian version and a disclosed test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) as the instruments for gathering data. There were forty five undergraduate university students majoring various fields of knowledge in three Iranian Universities. The result showed negative but significant correlation between Cultural Intelligence and English Language Proficiency. In addition, when the EFL learners were divided into High, Middle and Low level of proficiency, there was a significant but negative correlation particularly with Cognitive and Motivational factors for the middle level proficiency group. The differences found between current study and Khodadady and Ghahari's (2012) study were possibly associated with major of the study of the participants, individual differences and context where the study was carried out.

The current study seemed revealing similar results to study conducted by Marcum (2017) who investigated the predictive relationship between Cultural Intelligence and Language Proficiency in distance English-language program. The findings showed that cultural proficiency did not predict students' language proficiency at the beginning of the course, during and at the end of the course.

In relation to the results of the current study, correlation did not exist between the variables. Thus, this study disconfirms the proposed linkage model of cultural intelligence, language learning strategies and English language proficiency. In addition, it can be assumed that language learning strategies did not have any role either as mediator or moderator in the relationship between cultural intelligence and English language proficiency. In attempt to understand more about the finding which showed no correlation among the variables, the level of students' language proficiency were divided into high and low group. The data indicates that high proficiency students reported have higher mean score in two factors of CQ compares to the low proficiency students. To be more precise, the proficient students seemed to be influenced by metacognitive and cognitive factors while the less proficient students were directed by motivational and behavioral factors. This could be implied that less proficient students provide themselves with cultural motivation and behavior as variables which contribute to their EFL learning while the proficient students rely on the contribution of cultural metacognition and cognition variables. Another finding that could be noted is that high proficiency students reported to have relatively higher mean score in all of the six strategy categories than the low proficiency students. The proficient students used all types of strategies more frequently than the less proficient students except on the affective strategy. This result confirms the previous studies which argue that good language learners of high proficient learners tend to adopt more learning strategies and use them more frequent during the process of learning compared to low proficient learners (Abraham & Vann, 1987; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

#### IV. CONCLUSION

This study has examined four main issues related to three different variables, namely; cultural intelligence, language learning strategies and English language proficiency. The first issue focused on the level of Cultural Intelligence of the students. The level of students' Cultural Intelligence was Medium. The most dominant factor which influences students' level of cultural intelligence was the Metacognitive factor while the least was Cognitive factor. Both male and female students' cultural intelligence level is influenced by metacognitive factor. The second main point is highlighting the current condition of language learning strategies used by the students. The students' language learning strategy use was in medium level. As for strategy categories, metacognitive strategy was the most frequently used strategy and affective strategy is the least frequently used. With regards to gender, both female and male students used metacognitive strategy as the most frequently used strategy and affective strategy as the least frequently used. The third issue is English proficiency level of the students. The students' proficiency level was low intermediate (420 – 480) with almost half of the total sample is categorized in this category.

In relation to the linkage between cultural intelligence, language learning strategies and English language proficiency, the statistical analysis showed a meaningful relationship between cultural intelligence and language learning strategies.

However, it was found that Cultural Intelligence, Language Learning Strategies, and English Language Proficiency had an insignificant correlation.

Knowing that there is a correlation between cultural intelligence and language learning strategies, therefore it is necessary for English teachers to provide a classroom where students' cultural intelligence could potentially be built as a way to improve their language learning process. Interactive tasks and cultural discussions activities could be arranged as optional classroom activities as these activities encourage students to involve in multicultural interactions which may lead to high level of cultural intelligence.

The result of this study showed that there was no correlation among cultural intelligence, language learning strategies and English language proficiency which means that this study could not confirm the proposed linkage model of the three variables. Future research is however suggested to employ different approach in revealing this relationship, i.e. using a mixed method as the design of the study or replicate the present study with university students in different geographical areas.

#### REFERENCES

- [1] Ang, S., Van Dyne, L. & Koh, C. (2006). Personality Correlates of the Four Factor Model of Cultural Intelligence. *Group and Organization Management*, 31 (1), 100-123.
- [2] Bruen, J. (2001). Strategies for success: Profiling the effective learner of German. *Foreign Language Annals*, 34(3), 216-225.
- [3] Brumfit, C. (1984). *The Practice of Communicative Teaching*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- [4] Corbett, J. (2003). An intercultural approach to English language teaching. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters
- [5] Chen, G.M., and Stratosa, W.J. (2006). Intercultural awareness. In L. Samovar and R. Porter (Eds.), *Intercultural Communication A reader* (11<sup>th</sup> ed.) (pp.357-366). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- [6] Derin, A., Zeynep, C., Pinar, E., Ozlem, K., and Gökçe, K. (2009). Turkish EFL teachers' opinions on intercultural approach in foreign language education. *Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1, 1611-1616.
- [7] Earley, P.C. and Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural Intelligence: Individual Interactions Across Cultures*. Palo Alto: CA: Stanford University Press.
- [8] Gall, M.D., Gall, J. P., & Borg. (2007). *Educational Research: An Introduction* (8<sup>th</sup> Edition). Boston: Pearson, Inc.
- [9] Gardner, R.C. and MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). A Student's Contributions to Second-language Learning. Part II: Affective variables, *Language Teaching*, 26:1-11.
- [10] Green, John M. & Rebecca Oxford (1995) "A Closer Look at Learning Strategies, L2 Proficiency and Sex", *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol.29, No.2, 261-297.
- [11] Griffith, C. & Parr, J.M. (2000). Language Learning Strategies, Nationality, Independence and Proficiency. *Independence*, 28, p.7-10.
- [12] Harley, B., Allen, P., Cummins, J., and Swain, M. (editors) (1990). *The development of second language proficiency*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [13] Khodadady, E. & Ghahari, S. (2012). Exploring the Relationship Between Foreign Language Proficiency and Cultural Intelligence, EN, *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, Volume ( 1 ), 2012-12, Pages 22-30.
- [14] Lado, R. (1961). *Language Testing: The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests*. London: Longman.
- [15] Lange, D.L. (1990). *Assessing Language Proficiency for Credit in Higher Education*. ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics Washington DC. [www.eric.ed.gov](http://www.eric.ed.gov) (Retrieved on 8 November 2017).
- [16] Larsen-Freeman, D., & Long, M. (1991). *An introduction to second language acquisition research*. London: Longman.
- [17] Livermore, David. (2011). *The Cultural Intelligence Difference Special Ebook Edition: Master the One Skill You Can't Do Without in Today's Global Economy*. New York: AMACOM.
- [18] Lustig, M. W. and Koester, J. (2010). *Intercultural Competence: Interpersonal Communication across Culture*. Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.
- [19] Macaro, E. (2001). *Learner strategies in second and foreign language classrooms*. London, England: Continuum.
- [20] Markum, J. (2017). *Language Proficiency and Cultural Intelligence in Distance English-Language Learning*. All Graduate Theses and Dissertations.669. <http://digitalcommons.usu.edu/etd/6691> (Retrieved on 8 November 2017).
- [21] Ng, K.Y., Van Dyne, L., and Ang, S. (2012). Cultural Intelligence: A Review, Reflections, and Recommendations for Future Research. In A.M. Ryan, F.T.L. Leong and F.L. Oswald (Eds.), *Conducting Multinational Research: Applying Organizational Psychology in the workplace* (pp.29-58). Washington DC, American Psychological Association.
- [22] Ohio Department of Education. (2017). *Proficiency and Research-Based Proficiency Targets*. [education.ohio.gov/Topics/Learning-in-Ohio/Foreign-Language/World-Languages-Model-Curriculum/World-Languages-Model-Curriculum-Framework?Introduction-to-Learning-Standards/Proficiency-and-Research-Based-Proficiency-Targets](http://education.ohio.gov/Topics/Learning-in-Ohio/Foreign-Language/World-Languages-Model-Curriculum/World-Languages-Model-Curriculum-Framework?Introduction-to-Learning-Standards/Proficiency-and-Research-Based-Proficiency-Targets) (Retrieved on 8 November 2017).
- [23] O'Malley, J. Michael, Anna Uhl Chamot, Gloria Stewner-Manzanares, Lisa Kupper & Rocco P. Russo. (1985) "Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students", *Language Learning*, Vol.35, No.1, 21-46.
- [24] Oxford, R.L. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- [25] Ramis, M., & Krastina, L. (2010). Cultural intelligence in the school. *Revista de Psicodidáctica*, 15(2), 239-252.
- [26] Richards, Jack, John Platt, and Heidi Weber. 1985. *Longman dictionary of applied linguistics*. Harlow, Essex, England: Longman.
- [27] Rubin, J. (1975) "What the 'good language learner' can teach us", *TESOL Quarterly*, 9 (1), 41-51.
- [28] Scarino, A. (2009). Assessing intercultural competence in language learning: Some issues and considerations. *Language Teaching*, 42. 67-80.

- [29] Schulz, R.A. (2007). The challenge of assessing cultural understanding in the context of foreign language instruction. *Foreign Language Annals*, 40, 9-26.
- [30] Thanasoulas, D. (2001). The importance of teaching culture in EFL classroom. *Radical Pedagogy*. <https://media.startalk.umd.edu/workshops/2009/SeattlePS/sites/default/files/files/The%20Importance%20Of%20Teaching%20Culture%20In%20The%20Foreign%20Language%20Classroom.pdf> (Retrieved on 8 November 2017).
- [31] Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Koh, C.K.S. (2009). Cultural Intelligence: Measurement and Scale Development. In M.A. Moodian (Ed.), *Contemporary Leadership and Intercultural Competence: Exploring the cross-cultural dynamics within organization* (pp. 233-254). Thousands Oaks: Sage.
- [32] Wharton, G. (2000). Language Learning Strategy Use of Bilingual *Foreign Language Learners in Singapore*. Vol. 50 (2). Pp. 203-243.



**Noor Rachmawaty** is a lecturer at English Department, Faculty of Education, Mulawarman University. Her Master's degree in TESOL-International was obtained from Monash University – Australia and is currently a doctorate candidate at State University of Makassar majoring English Education. Her research interests cover English language teaching and Culture.



**M. Basri Wello** is a Professor at State University of Makassar. He earned his Master degree at Kansas University, United States of America and completed his Doctoral Degree at Hasanuddin University in 1999, Makassar Indonesia. He is also the Rector At Universitas Indonesia Timur, Makassar. His strong background is in ESP, Cross Cultural Communication and Business English.



**Mansur Akil** is a Professor at State University of Makassar. He obtained his Doctoral degree at Universitas Hasanuddin in 2007. He is Senior lecturer on: Language Philosophy, Theory Construction and Model Building, Translation, Systems Theory, and Research Methodology.



**Syarifuddin Dollah** got his master's degree in English Language Education from the State University of Malang and a doctorate degree in English Language Studies in 2006 at the State University of Makassar. Currently he is the Dean for Languages and Literature Faculty, State University of Makassar, Indonesia. His research works cover Cross Cultural Communication, Learning Strategies. He has written a book entitled *Self esteem, Anxiety and Gender in Oral Communication of EFL Students*. Pustaka Ramadhan, Bandung, Indonesia, 2016.





# Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

## Aims and Scope

Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR) is a scholarly peer-reviewed international scientific journal published bimonthly, focusing on theories, methods, and materials in language teaching, study and research. It provides a high profile, leading edge forum for academics, professionals, consultants, educators, practitioners and students in the field to contribute and disseminate innovative new work on language teaching and research.

JLTR invites original, previously unpublished, research and survey articles, plus research-in-progress reports and short research notes, on both practical and theoretical aspects of language teaching, learning, and research. These areas include, but are not limited to, the following topics:

- Language teaching methodologies
- Pedagogical techniques
- Teaching and curricular practices
- Curriculum development and teaching methods
- Programme, syllabus, and materials design
- Second and foreign language teaching and learning
- Classroom-centered research
- Literacy
- Language education
- Teacher education and professional development
- Teacher training
- Cross-cultural studies
- Child, second, and foreign language acquisition
- Bilingual and multilingual education
- Translation
- Teaching of specific skills
- Language teaching for specific purposes
- New technologies in language teaching
- Testing and evaluation
- Language representation
- Language planning
- Literature, language, and linguistics
- Applied linguistics
- Phonetics, phonology, and morphology
- Syntax and semantics
- Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics
- Discourse analysis
- Stylistics
- Language and culture, cognition, and pragmatics
- Language teaching and psychology, anthropology, sociology
- Theories and practice in related fields

## Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  - o Submission of extended version
  - o Notification of acceptance
  - o Final submission due
  - o Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at <http://www.academypublication.com/jltr/>





The Relevance among Preservice English Teachers' Preparation Courses, Their Views about Teaching and Their Real Teaching Behaviors (A Case Study) <i>Hosam ElDeen Ahmed El-Sawy</i>	510
A Study on the Spread of Chaozhou Opera in Thailand under the Strategy of Maritime Silk Road <i>Lei Miao and Qiuping Wang</i>	520
Evaluating a New Writing Material: Students' Perception towards the Use of a Teacher-made Coursebook <i>Mansur Akil, Arifuddin Hamra, Haryanto Atmowardoyo, and Magdahalena Tjalla</i>	525
Toward the Use of Conceptual Metaphors of "Teacher" Perceived by High-school Students <i>Fariba Mansouri Koohestani, Narjes Banou Sabouri, Parisa Farrokh, and Maryam Hessaby Dehbaneh</i>	534
Incorporating Intercultural Competences in Developing English Materials for Writing Classes <i>Haerazi, Dedi Irwansyah, Juanda, and Yek Amin Azis</i>	540
The Pragmatic Strategies Adopted by an Advanced Chinese EFL Learner in Realization of Request Speech Act—A Case Study <i>Yanfei Su</i>	548
Learning Tasks Design in Improving Reading Comprehension Ability of Informational Text of 5th Grade in Indonesia: An Interactive-compensatory Model Use <i>Tri Indri Hardini, Ryan Dwi Puspita, and Rully Agung Yudhiantara</i>	555
The Effect of Visual Contextual Support and Glossary of Words on Guessing Meaning of New Vocabulary Items in English by Pre-university Male EFL Students <i>Kamal Nasrollahi and Samran Daneshfar</i>	561
A Comparison of Corrective Feedback Used in International and EFL Contexts <i>Julia Simhony and Natthapong Chanyoo</i>	573
A Study of the Transitive Construction of Chinese Dream <i>Min Lian</i>	583
Developing Authentic-based Instructional Materials for Writing Skill <i>Andi Kamariah, Djamiah Husain, Haryanto Atmowardoyo, and Kisman Salija</i>	591
Dynamic Assessment in Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory: Origins and Main Concepts <i>Samran Daneshfar and Mehdi Moharami</i>	600
Teachers' Beliefs of Authentic Materials for Teaching Reading in Indonesian EFL Classrooms <i>Desy Rusmawaty, Haryanto Atmowardoyo, Arifuddin Hamra, and Nurdin Noni</i>	608
From Differentiation of the Expressive Effects to Conscious Use of Rhetorical Language <i>Yulan Gu</i>	614
Bilingual-based Instruction in Teaching English for Academic Purposes at Islamic University <i>Sitti Nurpahmi, Muhammad Asfah Rahman, and Kisman Salija</i>	620
The Effect of Using Fun Activities on Learning Vocabulary at the Elementary Level <i>Farideh Bavi</i>	629
Vietnamese Voices: A Project for Activating Student Autonomy <i>Nguyễn Ngọc Lưu Ly</i>	640
The Cultural Factors in Postcolonial Theories and Applications <i>Yufeng Wang</i>	650

---