

Journal of Language Teaching and Research

ISSN 1798-4769

Volume 10, Number 2, March 2019

Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- Spain, Germany, and the Holocaust: Uniting Global Learning and Student Philanthropy through Transdisciplinarity 215
Kajsa C. Larson and Andrea Fielner
- Secondary School Students' Experiences with Reading Aloud in Uganda: A Case Study 224
Rebecca Nambi
- Blended Learning in English Teaching and Learning: A Review of the Current Literature 232
Waheeb S. Albiladi and Khlood K. Alshareef
- Critical Analysis and Evaluation of the UAE Twelfth Grade Students' Language Instructional Material Based on the Set Goals and Objectives 239
Haytham M. Badr
- Historical Evolution of English in Bangladesh 247
Mohammad Nurul Islam and Azirah Hashim
- Filipino English Teachers in Japan: "Nonnativeness" and the Teaching and Learning of English 256
Nelia G. Balgoa
- Analyzing Errors Committed in Paragraph Writing by Undergraduates 264
Iman Muwafaq Muslim Muwafaq Al-Ghabra and Afrah Suhail Najim
- Intertextualities in English Writing of EFL Learners in the Context of Chinese University 271
Yuanyan Hu
- The Impact of Pre-task Instruction and Task Rehearsal on Fluency, Accuracy and Complexity of Iranian EFL Learners' Writing 281
Ghorbanali Salehi Aref and Ahmad Mojavezi
- A Recollection of Chinese Bible Translation throughout History—A Sociological Study on Translation 289
Xizhi Zhang
- Students' L2 Refusal Appropriateness and Accuracy 294
I Made Rai Jaya Widanta, Ni Putu Somawati, and I Wayan Dana Ardika
- The Application of Task-based Approach in English Grammar Teaching in Junior High Schools 304
Simin Wang
- A Contrastive Analysis of ESL and EFL Learning Strategies 311
Wafa Ismail Saud
-

A Survey of Practical Knowledge of Pre-service English Teachers in China <i>Mingmei Wang</i>	322
The Terms of Address of <i>Abung</i> Lampungese Language as a Local Wisdom in Its Multicultural Society <i>Iing Sunarti, Sumarti, and Bambang Riadi</i>	329
Translation and Dissemination of Chinese Dietary Culture with the Belt and Road Initiative <i>Yan Miao</i>	338
Integrated Curriculum for a Saudi University EAP Class <i>Sami Al-wossabi</i>	344
Effect of Topic-prominent Features of Mandarin Chinese on English Writing <i>Haiyan Han</i>	353
The Design of Local Culture-based Indonesian Language Teaching Materials <i>Kartini, Achmad Tolla, Jasruddin, and Juanda</i>	363
Problems in and Solutions to Oral English Teaching in Rural Middle School—A Case Study in ZhaoCheng Middle School <i>Yayan Yu</i>	372
Foreignising versus Domesticating Translations of Arabic Colour-related Expressions <i>Amal Abdelsattar Metwally</i>	383
Supernatural Elements in Shakespeare's Plays <i>Liwei Zhu</i>	391
The Representation of The <i>Tri Hita Karana</i> Ecosophy in The <i>Awig-awig</i> (Customary Law) Text of Tenganan Pegringsingan Village: Critical Ecolinguistics Perspective <i>I Gede Astawa, Made Budiarsa, and I Wayan Simpen</i>	396

Spain, Germany, and the Holocaust: Uniting Global Learning and Student Philanthropy through Transdisciplinarity

Kajsa C. Larson

Department of World Languages and Literatures, Northern Kentucky University, Highland Heights, USA

Andrea Fieler

Department of World Languages and Literatures, Northern Kentucky University, Highland Heights, USA

Abstract—While the atrocities of the Holocaust have been well documented, this catastrophic event has been commonly studied through the lens of a single discipline. In a course co-taught by German and Spanish professors in conjunction with the 70th anniversary of the liberation of WWII concentration camps, advanced students of German and Spanish at Northern Kentucky University engaged with this topic by analyzing, comparing, and contrasting the German-Dutch (Anne Frank) and Spanish-French (Jorge Semprún) experience. To deepen students' cross-collaboration, the two classes engaged in a philanthropy project called the Mayerson Student Philanthropy Project. The class received a \$2,000 grant, researched and advocated for local nonprofits that addressed topics related to the Holocaust, and collectively decided on the final grant recipient. This article discusses the course structure, objectives, and outcomes of a transdisciplinary approach to literature, along with student feedback about the experience.

Index Terms—Spanish, German, transdisciplinary, student philanthropy

I. INTRODUCTION

Transdisciplinary pedagogy has been examined through a variety of lenses, as a way to restore and strengthen connections between academic disciplines that have weakened over time (Hyun, 2011; Dey, Ott, Antonaros, Barnhardt, & Holsapple, 2016; Williams, Berger, McClendon, 2005). Whitehead (2016) stated that transdisciplinarity is a vehicle to meet future employers' expectations for graduates to "cooperate, to wrestle with diverse perspectives, and to build capacity to solve unscripted problems" (p. 1). Scholars such as Hyun (2011) as well as Stock and Burton (2011) have offered a variety of definitions of transdisciplinarity, as well as suggestions for how it can be integrated into the curriculum; however, more examples regarding practical classroom application of this approach are necessary.

At Northern Kentucky University (NKU), students of German and Spanish in an advanced-level literature course jointly studied the topic of the Holocaust and explored connections between the disciplines through a service-learning project, called the Mayerson Student Philanthropy Project (MSPP). Throughout the course, students examined and assessed five important global themes related to the Holocaust—emigration and displacement, sites of memory and historical testimony, artistic representation and catharsis, human rights, hunger and disease—and their portrayal in fictional and nonfictional Holocaust accounts, while simultaneously investigating nonprofits that address these same issues in the local community. At the end, through a class vote, students chose two nonprofits and awarded each with a \$1,000 grant. Additionally, students completed a survey to measure the effects that global learning and transdisciplinary study had on their cultural awareness, interest in foreign language learning, and community engagement in the context of student philanthropy. Survey results from students enrolled in the class reveal that the combined German-Spanish perspective improved students' historical understanding across borders, and empowered them to be more civic-minded and engaged. This project can serve as a means to developing high-quality global learning that includes "multiple opportunities for analysis from different perspectives and a real-world context for applying the knowledge and skills they have gained" (Whitehead, 2016, p. 1). The inclusion of the MSPP in the Spanish/German course offered students a shared experience and a chance to engage in a discussion of Holocaust-related topics, while also improving and understanding the real-world implications of the Holocaust in the twenty-first century.

For several decades, higher education has been reflecting on what constitutes a well-rounded education. In today's job market, students need to be able to do more than simply interact with individuals from different backgrounds and cultures. Indeed, students need preparation to explore, analyze, and attempt to solve the big societal challenges of today and tomorrow, challenges that are global in nature—including climate change, food and water security, global health, human rights, migration, sustainability, and technological innovation (Whitehead, 2016, p. 1).

With this in mind, students also need to have a historical understanding in order to ask appropriate questions, which allows them to confront these issues. The article begins by describing transdisciplinarity and community engagement in a global context, then the methods employed will be discussed and the results, followed by the conclusion.

II. TRANSDISCIPLINARITY AND COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT IN A GLOBAL CONTEXT

Transdisciplinarity is a tool to achieve high-impact practices (HIPs) on a local and global scale. Similar to Kuh's findings (AAC&U, 2008, 2013), Fink (2016) identifies five HIPs, which assist in "helping students become meta-learners, learning-centered course design, using small groups in a powerful way, service-learning/community engagement—with reflection, and being a leader with your students" (p. 3). Global learning discusses US diversity and world cultures while taking into account multiple perspectives. Similarly, according to Jean Piaget, who coined the term in 1970, transdisciplinarity "attempts to understand the current world with an imperative overarching unity of knowledge" (Hyun, 2011, p. 8). Stock and Burton (2011) listed an extensive collection of terms found when considering transdisciplinarity. Among them are "collaborative, integral, integrated, complementary, combined, participatory, transepistemic, system-oriented, transprofessional, comprehensive, problem oriented, cross-boundary, holistic, multidisciplinary, crossdisciplinary, interdisciplinary, and transdisciplinary" (p. 1094). In more detail, Hyun (2011) defined transdisciplinarity as follows:

Transdisciplinarity is a principle for unity of knowledge beyond disciplines, and its approach implies full interaction between, among, and beyond disciplines from a real-life problem-based perspective. Transdisciplinary vision is also transcultural and transnational, encompassing ethics, spirituality, and creativity (p. 8).

Hyun's (2011) description is closely related to the definition employed by NKU depicting transdisciplinarity as a process, which "stimulates collaborations that integrate and transcend separate disciplinary perspectives around a big problem, idea, or theme" ("Fuel the Flame," 2013). Additionally, NKU's strategic plan includes community engagement as follows: "Engage with community partners to catalyze regional growth and vitality" ("Fuel the Flame," 2013). The article at hand employs the defining lines of Hyun (2011) as well as NKU and attempts to further connect these transdisciplinary "islands of innovation" (Williams, Berger, & McClendon, 2005, p. vii).

Keeping in mind the ideas behind transdisciplinary pedagogy, global learning, and HIPs, service learning is a way to address some of the targeted goals of interaction among disciplines "from a real-life problems perspective" including collaboration around a big problem, idea, or theme (Hyun, 2011, p. 8). Community engagement has been a way to increase students' civic participation and global awareness. The interest in these two objectives has been growing, as shown by the creation, of the Carnegie Foundation "Community Engagement" classification in 2005, which is currently managed by Brown University's Swearer Center for Public Service ("Brown University," 2018). Today, there are 361 higher education institutions with this designation ("Brown University," 2018). Twenty-first century scholarship has also reconfirmed the benefits of, and interest in, community engagement pedagogy as a way to address big-picture, socially minded problems.

In the realm of foreign language studies, scholars have turned to community engagement because it assists in "meaningful language growth," and "cultural competence" as well as in the promotion of the practical applications of learning another language (Ebacher, 2013, p. 398; Lear & Abbott, 2009; Caldwell, 2007). In some instances, involvement with the community may also increase students' motivation to learn a foreign language (Morris, 2001, p. 244). In line with Ebacher (2013), community engagement can offer a much broader appreciation for civic engagement and teach students about democracy and the vital life skill of being an active citizen as well as an advocate for global social concerns.

Boyte (2004) and Colby et. al (2003), who have studied the millennial generation born between 1978 and 2000, have observed "diminished civic attachment" among this population. Millennials display a greater interest in individualism (Boyte, 2004, p. 77; Colby et. al, 2003, p. 7). Nonetheless, a study by Southgate (2010) concluded that college-age students have a strong interest in both volunteerism and cross-generational dialogue to solve problems in the community (p. 3). Thus, there is value in offering consistent community engagement or service opportunities throughout undergraduate programs as a way to fulfill students' desire to be proactive in responding to social needs in local and international arenas.

With regards to the value of service-learning opportunities, service learning is an innovative classroom approach commonly linked to community engagement, and this component relies on two main ideas: 1) reciprocity among students, faculty, community members, and educational institutions to achieve a common objective, and 2) a critical reflection component to produce and record meaningful learning and service outcomes (Felten & Clayton, 2011, pp. 77-78).

Finally, philanthropy is another approach to community engagement and is defined by a one-way transaction of resources to a recipient organization (Briggs, Yang, Harmon-Kizer, & Arnold, 2016, p. 111). Philanthropy and service learning differ in that the former provides monetary support to community partners while the latter may provide more hands-on support such as fundraising, volunteerism, or other contribution. Fig. 1 below provides a visual overview of the intersections of the above-mentioned components with the course project:

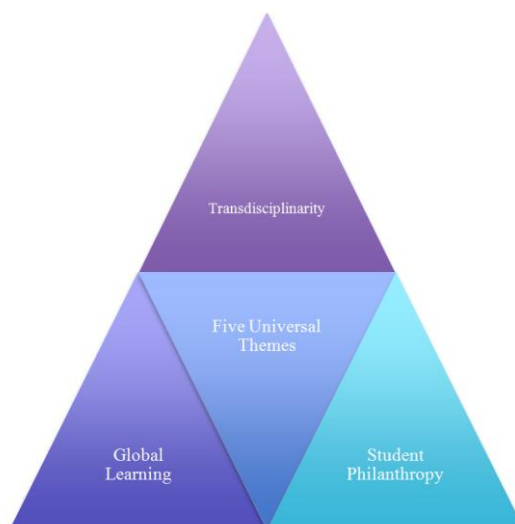


Figure 1.: Class intersections centering around the five universal themes.

Keeping the aforementioned in mind, the study aimed to measure the compatibility of transdisciplinary learning with cultural as well as language learning and community engagement. Students completed a post-survey and answered the following questions:

- Was transdisciplinary study a positive experience?
- Did transdisciplinarity make students more culturally aware or culturally sensitive?
- Did transdisciplinary study influence students' desire to learn another foreign language?
- Does student philanthropy have a positive impact on transdisciplinary study?
- Did the Mayerson Project impact students' interest in social activism, volunteerism, civic engagement, or student philanthropy?

- What is the overall impact of incorporating a student philanthropy project in a college course?

The following section will present the methods and layout of the class.

III. METHODS

The course was co-designed to offer Spanish and German students a transdisciplinary class with a thematic focus on the Holocaust in the context of the 70th anniversary of the liberation of WWII concentration camps. The course examined the impacts, implications, and recollections that the Holocaust had across European countries. SPI/GER 481: "Repression, Resistance, and Reflections," is required for German and Spanish majors as an advanced literary study course. The topic varies from semester to semester and, thus, students can enroll in the course more than once. As a prerequisite, students must have completed at least one 300-level course. The two courses were not cross-listed, but instead were two separate sections offered at the same time of day. This gave the option for both classes to meet as an entire group or to meet separately. 22 students were enrolled in SPI 481 and 13 students were enrolled in GER 481. The class met three times per week for 50-minute sessions over 16 weeks. 16 sessions were co-taught by the two professors and for 29 of the sessions, the classes met separately. As a large group, class was conducted in English. On the days that the classes were not held together, students engaged in discussion and lecture in their language of study.

The instructors chose two primary texts that represent the German-Dutch and Spanish-French point of view: *The Diary of Anne Frank* and *The Long Voyage* by Jorge Semprún. Students read these texts in their respective language of study. To further bring together the ideas in these texts, students also read and watched some historical accounts about the Franco-Hitler connection, the 2000 PBS show *The Trials of David Irving*, a Holocaust denier, and information about the Spanish Civil War and its connection to World War II. Students also read theoretical works about testimony, Pierre Nora's *lieux de mémoire* (sites of memory), human rights, catharsis, and enlightenment.

In the Spanish and German sections, students further united through a philanthropic component via the MSPP. This campus-wide initiative was first implemented in 2000 at NKU (*The Mayerson Annual Report*, 2011/2012, p. 4). On average about 10 classes have been invited to participate per semester. Each Mayerson class is given a \$2,000 grant and students in those classes are asked to select, research, and evaluate nonprofits (501c3 organizations, government agencies, or public schools) that have specific missions, or that offer services related to the course content and the social needs being studied. Toward the end of the semester, students collectively vote to invest the money in one or two nonprofits, so the minimum award amount given to a nonprofit is \$1,000. The funding comes primarily from the Manuel D. & Rhoda Mayerson Foundation.

The SPI/GER 481 classes were counted as one Mayerson class, and used the philanthropy project to study the connection between Holocaust-related themes and the persistence of these same needs in the local community today. The five Mayerson themes were: 1) emigration and displacement, 2) sites of memory and historical testimony, 3)

artistic representation and catharsis, 4) human rights, and 5) hunger and disease. These aspects were chosen not only to show their historical meaning in context of the Holocaust, but simultaneously to connect their sustained legacy to local and global communities today in a real-world setting.

The SPI/GER 481 course outcomes, as listed on the syllabus, were to enable students to explain the international implications of the Holocaust, as well as the theoretical underpinnings of topics such as emigration, displacement, commemoration, testimony, and human rights. Successful students would also advance further in their language of study in the realms of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Listed separately on the syllabus, the Mayerson outcomes were to educate students more about civic engagement, gain awareness of social problems and nonprofit organizations in the local community, and increase their knowledge of philanthropic processes such as grant seeking and grant making. Lastly, students built upon their critical thinking, communication, leadership and other work/real-life skills.

Students' grades were assessed in the following ways:

- Class Participation and Attendance: 25%
- Diary: 25%
- Mayerson Student Philanthropy Project: 30% (The first reaction paper was worth 5%, the second was 10%, and the group presentation was 15%)
- Final Essay: 20%

For the participation component, students were given a paper folder to document their attendance, learning, and progress. After each class session, the professors provided a basic 'question of the day' about the course material that students had to correctly answer in their target language, and which assisted in tracking students' attendance, while empowering students to take full ownership of their learning experience and grade. The 1-page diary entries were due every Monday, and students handed them in through their folders. The diary entries were written in the language of study and the professors provided grammatical feedback. The final exam, also written in the language of study, was a take-home essay that required students to incorporate a selection of readings studied throughout the course. For example, during the Anne Frank unit, students read a common selection of diary entries and were given comprehension questions to complete that focused on topics such as the progression of information of the diary material, Anne Frank's personal aspirations and her legacy. Anne Frank was of German nationality, however, she wrote in Dutch. The professors also purchased two models of the Anne Frank house (the Annex) to assemble as a class. At the end of this unit, the class read Pierre Nora's article about *lieux de mémoire* (sites of memory) to discuss how the diary dialogues with this theory. For the unit on Semprún, the students discussed the notion of identity. Semprún, a Spanish citizen, spent most of his adult life in France and wrote his novel in French. The fictional account, heavily influenced by the personal experiences of the author, traces the journey on a train to a concentration camp. Similar to the Anne Frank unit, the professors incorporated creative exercises such as poetry writing and drawing into the class lessons in order to help students link the past to the present as well as reflect on individual experiences.

As a follow-up to the course content, the professors arranged to bring Werner Coppel, a Holocaust survivor, to class as a guest speaker. At the end of the course, the class visited a special exhibit at Cincinnati's National Underground Railroad Freedom Center, called "Unlocking the Gates of Auschwitz 70 Years Later." This last activity brought together the concepts studied throughout the class, ranging from first-hand accounts of atrocity to how these memories have been preserved.

To complement the class learning outcomes, the MSPP was included so students could explore how topics related to the Holocaust persist in our own communities. The process of selecting and awarding the \$2,000 grant follows several core procedures across the disciplines at NKU. First, the instructor must connect the course content to social need, or needs, that students can discuss as well as research outside of class. Second, students split up into small groups, often called "community boards," and research one of the social needs and the nonprofits in the area that service this need. Third, the community boards identify the nonprofit, related to their social need, that they find most compelling (and also select one as a runner-up) to further investigate. One group member contacts the selected agency and invites the agency to participate in the MSPP. Fourth, students are required to conduct a site visit to the chosen nonprofit or, in some instances, complete twenty hours of volunteer work with the organization. Thus, the MSPP has the potential to be considered both a community engagement project, through a site visit, or a deeper form of service learning, through logged volunteerism, depending on how the professor integrates it into the course.

In the last stages of the project, the goal was to gather information as well as materials and reflect upon them to prepare a persuasive presentation to the rest of the class. The purpose of the presentation is to synthesize the information about the course content with students' observations and experiences in relation to their chosen nonprofit. In most cases, the community boards want to persuade the class that their chosen organization deserves the \$2,000 grant. The process is shown in overview in Fig. 2 below.



Figure 2.: The MSPP process.

An award ceremony is held at the end of each semester in which professors and some students from Mayerson classes convene with representatives from the chosen nonprofits to present the grant awards. At this time, professors, students, and nonprofit representatives reflect upon, and most importantly celebrate, the positive impact of the Mayerson experience.

Since the SPI/GER 481 class was a larger group (35 students), the professors adapted the Mayerson model to better suit the class needs. The following timeline was built into the syllabus of the 16-week course:

Week 1: Students reviewed five social themes that connected the course content to the Mayerson Project: emigration and displacement, sites of memory and historical testimony, artistic representation and catharsis, human rights, and hunger and disease. Each person was asked to pick two topics that interested him or her.

Week 2–Week 5: The class was divided into five groups (“community boards”) based on the aforementioned themes. There were 7 students per group. Each group had to include both German and Spanish students. As homework after class, students began preliminary internet research about the group’s assigned theme in order to prepare a 2-page report, written in the target language, that required students to synthesize the course content and community connections by answering the following questions:

1) How does this theme connect to Spain/Germany and the Holocaust? What types of social problems or needs are associated with this theme? Cite specific examples from research on the internet.

2) Next, do some internet research to identify the types of 501(c)3 nonprofits, public schools or government agencies in the Northern Kentucky/Cincinnati area that offer services related to your theme. These services do not have to deal directly with the Holocaust, but should correspond with some of the social needs identified in #1. Discuss a minimum of three nonprofits and describe what they do.

3) Explain what nonprofit you find most valuable or interesting? Why?

Week 5: In class, students met in their community boards to discuss their individual reaction papers. The community boards then selected two organizations to research in depth. The groups also chose one back-up organization. At that time, each community board was split in two so that the smaller subgroups (3-4 students) could conduct a site visit to at least one of the group’s two chosen nonprofits. The students had the option to attend both site visits. Two students in each community board volunteered to contact the chosen nonprofits and explain the Mayerson Project and the amount of the minimum grant award (\$1,000) to them.

Week 5–Week 11: The community boards conducted site visits to the chosen nonprofits. The goal of these site visits was to ask questions and gather any materials (pamphlets, visuals, photos with the organization’s permission) and for students to take notes. The observations were used to write the second 2–3-page reaction paper, written in the language of study, which included the following:

a) Explain in detail the site visit and your personal impressions (1–1.5 pages). This part should be written to help the professor envision what this experience was like for you (who you met, what you saw, what called your attention, what you learned, etc.).

b) How does this nonprofit relate to our course content and the Mayerson theme you are studying? When possible, cite specific examples from what you have learned throughout the semester (no “works cited” page is required). (1 page)

c) Write one paragraph that explains the agency’s mission and program and how they would spend the grant money. After visiting, do you think this nonprofit deserves the grant money? Why? (1/2 page).

To address specialized language needed to describe the nonprofits, students had the option to share important statistics or information related to the nonprofits using footnotes in English.

Week 11–Week 13: Students prepared for a group presentation that took place in Week 13. The presentations lasted 15–20 minutes and were given in English. The community board presented information about the information that they gathered about the two nonprofits. They were given the following tips to prepare for a successful presentation:

a) The audience will not be familiar with your topic, so make sure to keep that in mind while preparing your presentation. Please provide basic information (such as what theme did your community board study), a general

introduction to your community board and your assigned theme, and the films associated with it. Briefly, share information about the preliminary research on this topic. Why did you decide to research this particular nonprofit?

b) Groups should also give a general introduction to your nonprofit and its mission. What did you learn during the site visit? What was most compelling? How does this nonprofit relate to, and promote the needs of, the topic you studied? Explain.

c) When possible, the presentations should bring together information that we have studied in class and the research that you have conducted through the Mayerson Project. To receive a good grade for the presentation, community boards must synthesize class material with Mayerson research. Please refer directly to some of the readings or concepts, as well as research you have done outside of class with the Mayerson Project, to support your ideas.

d) Make sure that your presentation is convincing and persuasive if you believe that your nonprofit should receive the grant funding!

Week 13: The first two days of Week 13 were devoted to the five community board presentations. After each one, the entire class (including those who presented) voted to decide which of the group's two nonprofits was a finalist. After all of the finalists were selected, students dedicated an entire class session to vote and decide how many awards would be given to nonprofits. The class chose to give two \$1,000 awards to the emigration group's nonprofit, Centro de Amistad, and to Melodic Connections, the nonprofit from the artistic representation and catharsis group. At this time, the class also decided how to contact all of the nonprofits and present them with either a rejection or an award letter.

Week 15: The Mayerson classes across campus convened for the award ceremony to speak about their experiences and award the grant money. At the end of the course, the professors sent a two-part survey to students.

IV. DISCUSSION

The hypotheses for the survey were that students would embrace both the transdisciplinary nature of the course and the philanthropic component of the class and become more aware and sensitive to cultural differences through the structure of the class. It was uncertain if students would feel more inclined to learn another foreign language, consider volunteerism, or become more socially active. The first part implemented a Likert scale and included a total of 17 questions. The Likert scale questions were coded with 1 as strongly disagree, 2 as disagree, 3 as no effect, 4 as agree, 5 as strongly agree. The second part included three free-response questions. The following is a breakdown of the Likert-scale questions that were asked to measure the specific survey objectives, along with the results and an analysis of student responses:

Was transdisciplinary study a positive experience?

○ 1 a) The cross cultural approach to the course improved my overall learning experience. 84% of students either strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while 9% either strongly disagreed or disagreed, and 6% stated no effect.

○ 2 d) I would not take another course with a cross-cultural component. Only 15% answered strongly agree or agree, and another 78% strongly disagreed or disagreed, while 6% stated no effect, thus suggesting that it was overall a positive experience.

The findings of these two questions show that a large majority of the class was receptive to taking another cross-cultural class, thus identifying the experience as positive.

Did transdisciplinarity make students more culturally aware or culturally sensitive?

○ 1 b) Throughout this course, I was able to make historical cultural connections between two separate cultures and languages. None of the class strongly disagreed or disagreed with this statement, 87% strongly agreed or agreed, and 13% stated no effect.

○ 1 c) My global cultural awareness improved as a result of this course? None of the students strongly disagreed, 16% stated no effect, and 78% strongly agreed or agreed, and 6% disagreed.

○ 1 d) I feel more interested in learning about other cultures as a result of this course. None strongly disagreed, 10% disagreed, and 10% stated no effect. 80% strongly agreed or agreed.

○ 1 e) I feel more compassionate toward other cultures as a result of this course. None strongly disagreed, 6% disagreed, 9% stated no effect. 84% strongly agreed or agreed.

A larger majority was able to identify cultural connections, both globally and locally as well as felt compassionate as a result.

Did transdisciplinary study influence students' desire to learn another foreign language?

○ 2 a) I do not feel more motivated to learn a third language as a result of this course. 69% either strongly disagreed or disagreed, 15% stated no effect, while 12% strongly agreed and 3% agreed with this statement.

With regard to motivation, survey responses suggest some level of motivation to learn another foreign language.

Did transdisciplinary study impact students' interest in social activism, volunteerism, or civic engagement?

○ 2 b) My perspective of social issues has not changed as a result of this course. 82% strongly disagreed or disagreed, 12% stated no effect, no one strongly agreed, but 6% agreed with this statement.

○ 2 c) The course content did not enhance my desire toward social activism. 72% strongly disagreed or disagreed, 12% stated no effect, 15% agreed, while no students strongly agreed.

○ 2 e) The course content did not enhance my desire toward volunteerism. 72% strongly disagreed or disagreed, 18% stated no effect, 9% strongly agreed or agreed.

○ 3 b) The course content enhanced my awareness of social needs, especially those related to the topics that the class researched through the Mayerson Project. 88% strongly agreed or agreed, 9% stated no effect, and 3% disagreed, while no students strongly disagreed.

Students indicated some impact on their social activism and awareness of social issues and this points to a desire to be more socially active as a result of the course.

Does student philanthropy have a positive impact on transdisciplinary study?

○ 3 a) The Mayerson Project enhanced my understanding of the topics we studied in this course. 81% strongly agreed or agreed, 12% stated no effect, 3% disagreed, and 3% strongly disagreed with this statement.

With regard to the Mayerson Project, there were similar percentages of students who agreed that the philanthropy project had a positive impact on transdisciplinary study while also positively influencing students' activism.

What is the overall impact of incorporating a student philanthropy project in a college course?

○ 3 c) The Mayerson Project enhanced my awareness of social needs, especially those related to the topics that the class researched through the Mayerson Project. 97% strongly agreed or agreed, 3% stated no effect, and no one strongly disagreed or disagreed with this statement.

Overall, students agreed that the philanthropic component contributed to their awareness of social needs with a total of 97% either strongly agreed or agreed while 72% of students either strongly agreed or agreed, that the transdisciplinary nature of the course impacted their heightened awareness of social needs.

The free-response comments provided by students allowed for greater insight into their experiences. The free-response questions are listed below along with selected student comments.

How did the cross-cultural approach to the course affect your language learning?

1. "It was really cool for me to be able to compare certain words and phrases with the German students. I loved being able to interact and become friends with students I wouldn't have known and learning about the cultures we are studying together."

2. "Overall, I became interested in learning languages. Watching Dr. Larson and Dr. Fielder [*sic*] interact with each other with the two languages was a good learning experience. The connections were there and useful. With regards to Spanish specifically, it didn't affect a large portion of my language learning."

3. "The combination with the German class did reduce the amount of Spanish used in the class, but it gave me the opportunity to learn about the language and culture. I have wanted to learn German for many years and this gave me the opportunity to hear and learn about the language and help keep that desire alive. I also learned about the German culture through the class experiences with the German professor."

How did the cross-cultural approach to the course affect your cultural learning?

1. "It really shows that there isn't a stark line between cultures and history, they all intermix."

2. "It helped to understand social issues around the world and how we can become activists."

3. "I think it is important when learning about cultures, history, etc. to learn about them through a wider perspective. Often we are taught about a culture through a narrow perspective, that is to say that for example just learn about one country. But I think it is important to understand a culture/time period in relation to other countries, themes, etc. This sort of learning broadens our knowledge, and I really enjoyed that about this class."

Did the Mayerson Project adequately complement the cross-cultural approach to this course? Explain.

1. "With the different themes, it helped me expand my view of nonprofits. It also provided good connections to the cross-cultural class. The mayerson [*sic*] project enhanced the cross-cultural approach."

2. "Yes it did! It went well with the 5 themes discussed in class and the entire class was able to easily connect it back to our texts (which came from two different cultures in a way), and the presentations related to a wide variety of cultures and groups (hispanic [*sic*] community, the economically disadvantaged, etc.)"

3. "Yes, the Mayerson Project deepened my knowledge of other cultures (not just ethnic cultures) and gave me a chance to understand where other people's lives have taken them."

If your perspective of social issues has changed as a result of this course, please explain how?

1. "I am more interested in new organizations as a result of this project. I often have a biased prejudice that people in need have done something wrong to put them in that position. This course has helped me be more compassionate toward many social issues and needs."

2. "It's one thing to read about social issues, and quite another to go out and see them firsthand. It was very educational in that respect."

3. "My perspective of social issues have not changed much. However, I do have a better understanding of different struggles in this area and ways I can help."

What could you have done better to make this a more successful experience?

1. "I felt that I had a very good experience so I really wouldn't have done anything differently. I had a good group and great topic that we were all passionate about. I could have thoroughly read the readings more in order to improve my reading comprehension."

2. "Nothing. Maybe put a little more time into the readings, but I fulfilled my obligation to the course and consistently felt intellectually stimulated."

3. "I think fundraising would have been a good addition."

V. CONCLUSION

Offering a cross-listed class can be challenging, not only to the students, but to faculty alike. It requires planning, teamwork, open dialogue, and good communication. Overall, SPI/GER 481: “Repression, Resistance, and Reflections” successfully brought together a transdisciplinary approach with community engagement in order to create a global learning environment. The data confirms the hypotheses that students would embrace the transdisciplinary nature and philanthropic component of the class and would become more aware and sensitive to local as well as global cultural differences through the structure of the class. To some degree, students also felt that they became more socially active and more inclined to learn another foreign language. For example, one student from the Spanish section chose to enroll in German 101 the following semester.

There are, however, several possibilities for improving and developing a future course. For instance, language instruction could be incorporated into the curriculum so that students could begin to acquire a second foreign language at a rudimentary level (aka the Spanish professor teaches a micro lesson to the German class and vice versa). Furthermore, the two professors could offer targeted lectures in their areas of specialty. For instance, during the course students particularly benefited from personal photography taken of Dachau. More could have been presented in a similar fashion to deepen the personal connections to the Spanish Civil War, such as showing images of mass grave exhumations. Lastly, more academic articles on transdisciplinary study and community engagement could be assigned to students to further deepen their understanding of the course objectives. The class could also develop a blog or vlog to promote an online dialogue. Focusing on the translational aspects, it may be productive to select a few linguistically challenging passages and reflect on how to resolve the issues and to generally discuss the overall differences of the texts. This would add another layer of reflection and synthesis to both the course material and the community engagement project. It is hoped that readers of this article will also reflect upon ways of developing transdisciplinary courses with community engagement components to promote global learning while offering fun and new experiential opportunities for students.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors wish to thank Northern Kentucky University’s Scripps Howard Center for Civic Engagement, the Mayerson Student Philanthropy Project, Mark Neikirk, Filicia Share, the Department of World Languages and Literatures, and Dr. Caryn Connelly.

REFERENCES

- [1] Briggs, E., Yang, Z., Harmon-Kizer, T.R., & Arnold, T.J. (2016). How do differing community engagement strategies affect consumer responses to a retailer? *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice* 24.1, 109–127.
- [2] Brown University (2018). Carnegie classification. Retrieved from <https://www.brown.edu/swearer/carnegie> (accessed 10/10/2018).
- [3] Bowen, F., Newenham-Hahindi, A., & Herremans, I. (2010). When suit meets roots: The antecedents and consequences of community engagement strategy. *Journal of Business Ethics* 95, 297–318.
- [4] Boyte, H. C. (2004). *Everyday politics: Reconnecting citizens and public life*. Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- [5] Caldwell, W. (2007). Taking Spanish outside the box: A model for integrating service learning into foreign language study. *Foreign Language Annals* 40.3, 463–471.
- [6] Colby, A., Erlich, T., Beaumont, E., & Stephens, J. (2003). *Educating citizens: Preparing America’s undergraduates for lives of moral and civic responsibility*. San Francisco, CA: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
- [7] Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and education*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- [8] Dewey, J. (1927). *The public and its problems*. Athens, OH: Swallow/Ohio University Press.
- [9] Dey, E. L., Ott, M. C., Antonaros, M., Barnhardt, C. L., & Holsapple, M. A. (2010). Engaging diverse viewpoints: What is the campus climate for perspective-taking? [PDF document]. Retrieved from www.aacu.org/sites/default/files/files/core_commitments/engaging_diverse_viewpoints.pdf (accessed 9/13/2016).
- [10] Ebacher, C. (2013). Taking Spanish into the community: A novice’s guide to service learning. *Hispania* 96.2, 397–408.
- [11] Felten, P. & Clayton, P. H. (2011). Service-learning. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning* 128, 75–84.
- [12] Fink, L. D. (2016). Five high-impact teaching practices. *Collected Essays on Learning and Teaching* 9, 3–17.
- [13] Hyun, E. (2011). Transdisciplinary higher education curriculum: A complicated cultural artifact. *Research in Higher Education Journal* 11, 1–19.
- [14] Kuh, G. (2008). *High-impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- [15] Kuh, G. & O’Donnell K. (2013). *Ensuring quality & taking high-impact practices to scale*. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- [16] Lear, D. & Abbott, A. (2009). Aligning expectations for mutually beneficial community service-learning: The case of Spanish language proficiency. *Hispania* 92.2, 312–323.
- [17] Levin, T. & Nevo, Y. (2009). Exploring teachers’ views on learning and teaching in the context of a trans-disciplinary curriculum. *Journal of Curriculum Studies* 41.4, 439–465.
- [18] Morris, F. A. (2001). Serving the community and learning a foreign language: Evaluating a service-learning program. *Language, Culture and Curriculum* 14.3, 244–255.

- [19] Northern Kentucky University. (2013). Fuel the flame. Retrieved from fueltheflame.nku.edu/ (accessed 9/13/2016).
- [20] Rhoads, R. A. (2003). How civic engagement is reframing liberal education. *Peer Review* 5.3, 25–27.
- [21] Scripps Howard Center for Civic Engagement at NKU. (2012). The Mayerson Student Philanthropy Project Annual Report: Fall 2011/Spring 2012 [PDF document]. Retrieved from <https://inside.nku.edu/content/dam/nkuhome/images/scripps/2011MayersonAnnualReportFINAL.pdf> (accessed 9/13/2018).
- [22] Southgate, S. R. (2010). Making the move from shouting to listening to public action: A student perspective on millennials and dialogue. *Journal of Public Deliberation* 6.1, 1–10.
- [23] Stock, P. & Burton, J. F. (2011). Defining terms for integrated (multi-inter-trans-disciplinary) sustainability research. *Sustainability* 3, 1090–1113.
- [24] Whitehead, D. M. (2016). Integrating global learning across the curriculum for all students. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities.
- [25] Williams, D. A., Berger, J. B., & McClendon, S. A. (2005). Toward a model of inclusive excellence and change in postsecondary institutions [PDF document]. Retrieved from www.aacu.org/sites/default/files/files/mei/williams_et_al.pdf (accessed 9/13/2016).

Kajsa C. Larson earned a Ph.D. in hispanic and lusophone literatures, cultures, and linguistics in 2010 from the University of Minnesota, Twin Cities in Minneapolis, MN. She also holds an M.A. in hispanic literature from the University of Minnesota, Twin Cities in Minneapolis, MN, which she received in 2005. She is currently an Associate Professor of Spanish and Faculty Coordinator of the Mayerson Student Philanthropy Project at Northern Kentucky University in Highland Heights, KY. In addition to publications about film and student philanthropy, she is co-author of the forthcoming third edition of the Mayerson faculty handbook for how to introduce student philanthropy in the college classroom, which can be found at <https://inside.nku.edu/civicengagement/programs/mayerson.html>. Her current research interests include the cultural representation of disability in Spain as well as the impact of student philanthropy on academic success.

Andrea Fieler holds a PhD in German Studies from the University of Cincinnati, United States of America, since 2009. She currently works as Lecturer of German at Northern Kentucky University, United States of America. In 2015, Dr. Fieler published her book *W.G. Sebalds Nach der Natur: Eine Analyse* (Bern, Switzerland: German Life and Civilization, Peter Lang). Additionally, her research interests include language acquisition and service learning. Recently, she connected language acquisition, video games as well as other digital resources, and student philanthropy.

Secondary School Students' Experiences with Reading Aloud in Uganda: A Case Study

Rebecca Nambi
School of Education, Makerere University, Uganda

Abstract—Reading aloud supports vocabulary build-up, provides basic background knowledge of the text and motivates learners' interest in the text even among adolescents. This paper explores classroom experiences of Senior One students (12-13 years) with reading aloud of Soyinka's (2007) play *The Trials of Brother Jero*. The findings show that both the teacher and the learners performed clear roles during the reading exercise and this seemed to create a systematic classroom environment for reading aloud. However data also indicates that although many of the learners declared to find value in reading aloud, some learners did not participate in the activity due to various reasons. The classroom context and the nature of the text also seemed to affect the way reading aloud was implemented during the lessons.

Index Terms—reading aloud, literature in English, learners' experiences, interaction

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading aloud, specifically teacher read aloud is widely identified as an advantageous classroom activity that can enhance learners' positive attitude towards reading if used effectively. Teacher read aloud can augment vocabulary build-up among learners and provide basic background knowledge of the text. Despite these benefits reading aloud is commonly associated with younger learners (Albright & Ariail, 2005) usually giving the argument that as learners grow into adolescents and become progressively competent readers they do not need to listen to other readers (Cliff Hodges, 2011). More so, literature on the value and experiences of reading aloud broadly focuses more on teacher read aloud and less on learners' read aloud and their experiences. Studying learners' experiences of their classroom experiences in general and reading aloud in particular is a worthwhile undertaking because the learners are major participants in the reading process.

In this paper I explore how learners in one secondary school in Uganda perceived and experienced reading aloud as a classroom activity during their literacy lessons. Globally, literacy is considered to be a powerful skill that leads to personal and social development (UNESCO, 2014). Literacy proficiency among the youth in sub-Saharan countries is 70% (UNESCO, 2015) while in Uganda in particular it is 48.3% (UNEB, 2012). These figures are so low compared to other global figures of 91% (UNESCO, 2015). Studying how literacy is taught in secondary school in Uganda should be a perennial area of concern in a bid to raise literacy levels to meet international standards. Reading aloud is one of the classroom strategies that National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC) in Uganda proposes for the Literature in English lessons (NCDC, 2008a). This paper focuses on learners in one lower secondary school class, Senior One, who were reading the play, *The Trials of Brother Jero* at the time of this study. In the next section of the paper I show some literature on the theoretical perspectives that inform reading aloud as an collaborative classroom activity before moving on to describe the research methodology and context. The findings follow the data analysis and the paper ends with discussions and conclusions.

II. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES LEADING TO READING ALOUD

Reading has been described as a social activity that requires learners to interact with texts and peers as they make meaning out of them (Moje, Overby, Tysvaer, & Morris, 2008; Guthrie, 2008). This perspective of reading echoes Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of learning that proposes that children learn through interaction with expert peers and through the use of artefacts. Vygotsky (1978) offers that talk is a tool for social interaction that leads to cognitive development. Cognitive development is achieved through social interaction when children learn some words and signals from adults. They transfer these words or symbols to their inner speech to be used at another opportunity when faced with a similar situation or challenge (Vygotsky, 1986). Speech arises spontaneously and cannot be blocked. Thus, actions or activity and speech move together in ensuring cognitive development as Vygotsky states: "the most significant moment in the course of intellectual development, which gives birth to the purely human forms of practical and abstract intelligence, occurs when speech and practical activity, ... converge" (1978, p. 24). The essential role of language is to assist communication, and as children grow and continue to accumulate words through social interaction they begin to use inner speech as a tool for organisation of activities.

Vygotsky's observations above offer some implications for classroom practice. In the classroom situation, speech as a sociocultural tool that leads to cognitive development feeds into several activities such as discussions, group work,

learners' presentations, questioning, quizzes, debates, and reading aloud. Alexander (2008) draws on Vygotsky's idea that social interaction through speech is vital in the cognitive development of a child to suggest different possibilities of using dialogic teaching. Alexander states that dialogic teaching "harnesses the power of talk to engage children, stimulate and extend their thinking, advance their learning and understanding" (2008, p. 37). Drawing on evidence from research and practice Alexander outlines the different forms in which dialogic teaching can take place in the classroom. Similarly Mercer and Littleton (2007) draw on the Vygotskian theory and classroom-based research to present how speech can assist learning and development in an interactive environment. Among other aspects they conclude that extended collaboration through exploratory dialogue contributes to learners' ability to reason, communicate and learn. Given the importance of speech in enhancing learning it is useful to examine the manner in which speech through reading aloud supports interactive literacy learning.

Wray and Lewis (2000) suggest that interactive reading, among other strategies can be done using a number of strategies such as reading aloud while learners follow in their texts. Although commonly used in primary schools, literature shows that reading aloud can offer a social approach of interacting with texts even at secondary school level (Albright & Ariail, 2005; Chambers, 1996; Clark & Andreasen, 2014; Cliff Hodges, 2011). Cliff Hodges (2011) argues that it is reading aloud in secondary literacy lessons offers a number of advantages such as engaging learners more deeply with the text especially when the reader uses a tone that appropriately reflects the events in the text. However some writers argue that reading aloud usually involves only the teacher or just a few learners hence rendering the rest of the class passive listeners. Clark & Andreasen (2014) advise that it is important to use the reading aloud activity alongside other strategies in order to help learners to effectively interact with texts. Kieff (2003) offers that: "Reading aloud helps young children become readers and older children become stronger readers" (Kieff, 2003, p.2).

Kieff (2003) makes suggestions for making reading adventure groups and advises that the groups should be small consisting between 20-25 students. Kieff (2003) argues that reading aloud mainly benefits the learners as they develop a community of readers. However reading aloud can also be of benefit to the teacher (Griffin, 1992; Rasinski & Padak, 1998; Guthrie, 2008; Richardson, 2000). Griffin (1992) writes that: "Reading aloud benefits teachers by providing them with the opportunity to evaluate learners' reading skills...by diagnosing knowledge of sound-symbol relationships and knowledge of syntactic structure, determining learners' overall comprehension, and understanding students' cognitive processing of written information" (p.785). She states that in a survey in Washington they found that teachers considered reading aloud as the strongest activity that supports the teaching of reading. Hence reading aloud does not only aim at completion of a chosen text but with appropriate planning by the teacher there are other levels or sub-skills such as vocalization, vocabulary build up and tapping into learners' imagination that can be improved.

Rounds (1992) points out that despite the advantages associated with reading aloud, it is worthwhile for practitioners to be cautious when using it as an activity. She describes her own experience as part of a large class where reading aloud was used and the lessons were "horribly boring" (Rounds, 1992, p. 788). In the context of large classes, there is a danger for learners who are not directly involved in the reading to lose motivation for the lesson. At the same time, the activity of reading aloud may not add much value to accomplished readers. Rounds (1992) questions the role of reading aloud in the reading process especially among second language learners who often learn to pronounce words they do not necessarily understand. In such a case reading aloud does not lead to comprehension of the content and nor does it help learners to further their understanding of the subject content. One of the recommendations suggested by Rounds (1992) to address this challenge is for teachers to employ interactive reading approaches that emphasise vocabulary build up as well as stronger levels of comprehension. In addition, reading aloud needs to be used alongside other activities such as choral reading, silent reading, discussion, note-making and note-taking (Rasinski & Padak, 1998; Wray and Lewis, 2000; Albright & Ariail, 2005; Chambers, 1996; Clark & Andreasen, 2014). The instructional implications for using reading aloud also include choosing reading content that stimulates the interest of the learners and to use other materials such as pictures to support the reading process (Richardson, 1994; Chambers, 1996; Albright & Ariail, 2005), choosing texts that learners will not find so difficult (Rasinski & Padak, 1998; Clark & Andreasen, 2014), involving different learners in the reading process (Rounds, 1992), involving learners in selecting texts (Kieff, 2003) and inviting guest readers (Kieff, 2003; Rasinski & Padak, 1998). Teachers usually have the autonomy to make appropriate choices for their specific classroom contexts depending on the availability of materials and general support from the school.

III. TEACHING READING IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN UGANDA

Reading in secondary schools in Uganda is largely taught under the subjects of English and Literature in English. The NCDC (2008b) integrated English language syllabus from Senior One to Senior Four designates that reading is taught on a weekly basis whereby learners are assigned short passages or stories. Reading for comprehension, enjoyment, information and improving reading speed are emphasized as the key objectives for teaching reading. The syllabus also suggests that "reading is considered the most natural starting point for an integrated lesson and the teacher needs to vary the materials to sustain the interest of the learners" (NCDC, 2008b, p. 6). English is a compulsory subject at Ordinary Level and hence all learners at this level participate in reading. Literature in English on the other hand is an optional subject but it also offers opportunity for teaching reading. The NCDC (2008a) Literature syllabus prescribes a number of texts the teacher can choose from. The texts are categorised under the general genres of literature: the

novel/short story, poetry and drama. Teachers are also encouraged to make selections for Senior One and Two outside the prescribed syllabus. In both the English and Literature syllabus, reading aloud is one of the classroom strategies that are proposed, for example, “Loud reading of the selected texts to aid the speaking skill with attention to meaning and pronunciation” (NCDC, 2008a, p. 4).

Reading among students in lower secondary schools in Uganda has been described as poor although there are variations in proficiency between urban and rural schools with urban students performing better (Clegg, Bregman & Ottevanger, 2008). Part of the problem is attributed to a weak reading foundation in primary education where reading is not supported with appropriate materials and instruction (Penny, Ward, Read & Bines, 2008). In primary education students are taught using their mother tongues under the thematically organised curriculum for the first three years of formal education before they transit to English in the fourth year. Ssentanda (2014) however argues that despite the strong reasons given to support of the thematic curriculum in Uganda, it presents a number of complexities for both the teachers and learners especially in the area of teaching reading. The complexities stem from the seemingly uneven implementation process among different schools whereby aspects such as location of the school, availability of or lack instructional materials and a weak teacher training system determine the learning outcomes of reading (Ssentanda, 2014). All this culminates into a low progress in reading, which in turn affects reading in secondary school.

The current proposed review of the secondary school curriculum aims to address some of the challenges facing the teaching reading by allocating more time to English and literature in English lessons. Glegg et al. (2008) suggest that Literature in English should be made a compulsory subject at the secondary school level in order to improve learners’ reading and writing skills. NCDC & Cambridge Education (2013) argue that “effective learning of a language is integrated with appreciating the literature of the language and hence literature written in any language enriches our knowledge of that language” (p. 58). To this end they suggest that 23% of the learning time per week should be allocated to languages and their literatures in a bid to improve literacy levels.

Uganda National Examinations Board (UNEB, 2012) reported that in reading comprehension “only 38.3% showed ability to read a passage and make conclusions based on information in the text” (p.20). These dismal figures invite attention to the classroom strategies used by the teachers in an effort to gain insight into some of the gaps and possible enabling factors that can lead to improvement in the reading proficiency levels of learners.

IV. THE STUDY

The findings presented in this paper are part of another study that sought to explore the challenges and possibilities of using learner centred pedagogy to teach secondary school literacy in Uganda (Nambi, 2015). The purpose of that qualitative study was threefold: to examine teachers’ perceptions of the use of learner centred pedagogy to teach secondary school literacy in one secondary school in Uganda; to explore the impact of the school context on the use of learner centred pedagogy to teach literacy; and to examine learners’ experiences with literacy and learner centred pedagogy. Reading aloud was identified as one of the teaching strategies under learner centred pedagogy. This paper presents practices and experiences of reading aloud of a single teacher and his learners in one Senior One class. Senior One is the first class in secondary school and the average age of learners is 12-13. The study was carried out in Bakira¹ Senior School (BSS), which was purposively selected because Literature in English is a compulsory subject at this school and this enlarged the area sample of the number of classes to select from. BSS is government aided and this ensured stability and availability of teachers who provided rich information in relation to the research. Six teachers and six classes were studied. All were teachers of English, Literature and General Paper each holding a bachelors’ degree in education.

Interpretivist theoretical lenses were used to observe and interact with the participants and the research context in a naturalistic manner (Denscombe, 2007; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2014). The methods of data collection included interview, lesson observation and documentary evidence. The different methods of data collection were useful for triangulation purposes where information from multiple perspectives provided deep and broad understanding of the research context. Data was analysed by first organising raw data in chunks according to how it seemed to address each research question (Yin, 2014). Second, data was reduced into categories to represent key concepts that arose from the reviewed literature in relation to specific research questions before it was displayed on large visible documents (Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2014). This was helped to handle large sets of data in a quick and manageable way and make comparisons among the different sets. Finally discourse analysis was applied to selected pieces of data with the intention of attaining social realities reflected in the data (Gee, 2014).

Tobias, the teacher who is the focus of this paper had a teaching experience of seven years and had a teaching load of 24 lessons of 35 minutes per week. Tobias taught English, Literature in English and General Paper in different classes. For the current study he was observed teaching Literature in English in a Senior One class. His mixed ability class had a total of 130 students. He taught them Wole Soyinka’s play *The trials of Brother Jero* (2007). Tobias was interviewed about his perceptions of using interactive teaching methods such as reading aloud, role play, and discussions during his lessons before he was observed for a period of nine weeks teaching the text in his class. After each lesson observation, I held a brief post-lesson interview in which aspects of the lesson such as his choice of activities were discussed. In

¹ A pseudonym is used for the school.

addition, a group interview was carried out with six students to gain insight into their perceptions of interactive classroom activities especially during their lessons.

The play, *The Trials of Brother Jero* (2007) was first published in 1964 and it has had a long presence on the Ugandan secondary school Literature in English syllabus. The play centres around three major characters, Jero, Chume and Amope. The play opens with the main character, Brother Jero on stage and in a detailed soliloquy he declares that he is a prophet of God by birth and by inclination. Despite his self-declared prophecy he acknowledges the trials he faces such as the threats from the Old Prophet (his mentor) and women who unsettle him both financially and sexually. The action on stage shows that his major current trial is his debtor, Amope a petty trader from whom he took a velvet cape that he has failed to pay for. On this particular day, Amope chooses to camp outside Jero's house until he pays the debt. Unknown to Jero, Amope is Chume's wife, Jero's most committed convert and heir apparent. As the play progresses, Jero discovers the relationship between Amope and Chume and in his position as a prophet he grants Chume permission to go get his wife, take her home and beat her (something Chume has been praying for, for a long time). The events of one day in the play reveal Jero as a false prophet who refers to his congregation as customers and prays openly to God to burn his lust for the daughters of Eve but cannot resist approaching them. Although Chume finally works out the truth about Jero at the end of the play, he (Chume) is declared mad and Jero still manages to ensnare another unsuspecting member into his congregation.

The play has a linear plot and is only 33 pages long. Tobias' class was able to read and discuss the play within one term. The students borrowed the texts from the library at the beginning of the term and brought them to all Literature lessons. The student-book ratio was one to two or in a few cases one to three. At the beginning of the term, during the first lesson, Tobias introduced the play to the students and dictated very brief notes about the author, the setting and the themes in the play. The larger parts of the other lessons were dedicated to reading aloud of the play with different learners being selected to read as different characters. The teacher sometimes participated in the read aloud. Below I present findings about how reading aloud was carried out in the Senior one class and how learners described their experiences with this activity.

The following questions guide the current paper:

1. How does the teacher implement the reading aloud activity in a Senior One class?
2. How do the Senior One learners describe their experiences with reading aloud?

V. FINDINGS

Specific questions were asked about how reading aloud was used in the classroom and the roles assigned to both the teacher, the readers and the rest of the classroom. The findings indicate that despite the fact that only a few students were involved in the act of reading aloud, everyone had an opportunity to read aloud. The teacher however had a leading role since he chose the readers and often decided when to start and when to stop.

Integrating reading aloud in the lessons

Data from lesson observations showed that Tobias chose the learners to read aloud. After reviewing the previous lesson Tobias' first question was usually: "Who wants to read Jero or Chume?" The learners would then put up their hands to be selected for the different roles. Approximately between 20-30 learners would put up their hands and a close observation revealed that some learners always put up their hands while a large number almost always did not volunteer. Given that the characters in the text were few, it could be understandable that most learners did not seem to show interest in reading aloud and hence resorted to following in their texts. Further probing however showed that there were some underlying reasons why some students did not volunteer to read as can be detected from Learner A's submission below:

Learner A: Actually, the teacher does not choose randomly. He first asks the class who wants to read then whoever feels ready will put up their hand and read. Mostly the children are shy some of them do not have the interest some of them do not care.

From this learner it is clear that the floor is open to all members of the class but only a few put up their hands due to shyness as he points out. Shyness is something we explore further in the section that follows, however what is noteworthy here is the fact that the teacher readily attempts to invite everyone to read and while learners are aware of this opportunity many of them choose not to participate.

Stage directions were often read by the teacher as learners followed in their texts. During post-lesson interviews Tobias said: "I usually get involved in the reading because they find some words difficult, so I kind of give the introduction". In addition to giving the introduction, Tobias' reading usually set the tempo and atmosphere for the students because whenever he started reading everyone turned to their texts in anticipation of what was to follow. His other role was to help learners make predictions and connections within the story as the reading proceeded. In such cases he would stop the reading to ask questions that seemed to aim at drawing learners' attention to particular events. For instance, when Chume tells his wife: "Hurry. I have certain work to do when I get home and I do not want you delaying me" (Soyinka, 2007, p.24), Tobias asked the learners: "Which work is that?" The learners excitedly answered together "beating". In so doing the learners connected the current occurrence in the text to an earlier event when Jero gave Chume permission to take his wife home and beat her. The excitement for the learners seemed to hinge on the fact that Amope who has largely been portrayed as a dislikeable character was not aware that she was about to be 'punished'.

Also, during the reading activity, Tobias took on the role of monitoring the class to ensure that all learners were on task. As a result all the learners appeared to be engrossed in the reading activity. In this way reading aloud was a supervisory tool that helped the teacher to call his class to order and have all of them on the same page.

The learners played the role of either reading aloud or following the reading in their texts if the teacher did not select them. The two or three readers at a given time often stood up as they read their parts. In a way this seemed to help them sound louder and hence project their reading to the whole class. Data from lesson observation notes describes most of the readers as “fluent, articulate and lively” or “audible, very good, and confident”. Some learners were able to adjust their tones to suit their roles appropriately. For example when Chume becomes spiritually excited while praying with Jero he intones the following lines: “Help ‘am God. Help ‘am God. I say make you help ‘am. Help ‘am quick quick... Adm help ‘am. Na your son, help ‘am. Help this your son... Je-e-esu, J-e-esu. Help ‘am one time Je-e-e-su...Abraka, Abraka, Abraka...” (Soyinka, 2007, p. 12). The student reading this part attempts to capture Chume’s jabber, which provokes laughter and a loud handclap from the rest of the class. From this performance and the learners’ reaction, it can be argued that for a moment reading aloud motivated their interest in reading the text as they appreciated the reader. The rest of the class sometimes took to chorusing the one line hymns such as “I will follow Jesus” (p.16) and simple responses to prayers such as “Amen” (p. 18). These brief encounters showed that the learners were engrossed in the reading of the play but more still the choruses seemed to add to their enjoyment of reading.

Data from lesson observation also showed that some learners followed their reading with simple spontaneous actions. The spontaneous actions seemed to provoke more interest for the text among the students because they were unexpected. The readers did not leave their desks but stood up to read their roles. This is what happened when reading the following extract:

CHUME: Very true, Prophet, but...

JERO: But? But? Kneel! (*pointing to the ground.*) Kneel!

CHUME: (*wringing his hands.*) Prophet!

JERO: Kneel, sinner, kneel. Hardener of heart, harboured of Ashtoreth, Protector of Baal, kneel, kneel.

(*Chume falls on his knees.*) (Soyinka, 2007, p. 14)

The readers raised their voices at his point and they followed their reading with actions of ‘wringing the hands’, ‘pointing’ and finally ‘kneeling’. They immersed themselves into the text and Chume was on her (the part was read by a girl) knees as she read the lines that followed this scene. The few times that reading was followed with action the learners seemed to interact deeply with the characters they were reading about. The visual impact of Chume falling to her knees portrayed a vivid image of the kind of power that Jero seemed to hold over him in particular and other members of the congregation in general. Hence the readers channelled some of their enthusiasm to the rest of the class and could have triggered better interpretation of both Jero and Chume’s characters. In this snapshot of classroom interaction with the text Tobias provided room for learners to ‘speak’ and ‘listen’ to the characters and to ‘see’ the characters in action. During the interview, Learner A said that: “For me I was Amope and because she was sharp I had to use a sharp voice to show that arrogant attitude”. Learner A does not only invest effort into her reading but along the way she interprets the content to understand Amope’s attitude before she reads to the class.

The readers’ confidence and fluency could be attributed to the fact that they had borrowed and read the text before the lesson as noted by Learner B: “Sometimes you even have to read the book before everyone else in order to understand the parts well”. For this reason they appeared to read using an appropriate pace because they were familiar with the story and thus they did not have to stumble over many new words. Consequently reading aloud proceeded without much interruption to explain new words until the end of a scene or of a section when the teacher asked brief questions about characters or the storyline. After brief teacher led discussions, new readers were selected to continue with the following scene or section. It can be said that 85% of the lesson time was dedicated to reading aloud with a few minutes for making a few outlines or answering brief factual questions. Tobias said the following when asked about how and when learners developed detailed notes about the book: “The learners develop their own summaries of each scene in the play during their free time. In class we have to read the book because we have to finish it”. It would appear then that the reason behind reading aloud was to help learners read and complete the book together. The reading activity in this case seems to be monotonous because during some lessons notes were not dictated and the learners just listened to the readers throughout the lesson without taking part in any other activity in the lesson. Although they seemed to be keen listeners as they followed the events attentively in their own texts and they mostly gave appropriate answers to the teacher’s questions, it can also be argued that the act of reading aloud cannot appeal to all learners and nor can it lead to deep understanding of the key issues in the text. Learners would benefit from brief group or pair discussions or buzzing sessions to talk about events without necessarily having to answer questions about plot or characterisation.

Learners’ experiences with reading aloud

Data from lesson observations and from interviews show that learners responded variously to reading aloud. Whereas most of the learners who participated in the group interview appeared to enjoy reading aloud, it was also observable that some learners were quite reserved due to a number of underlying reasons. In this section we show learners’ perceptions of reading aloud in Tobias’ class.

Self-confidence. Four out of the learners who participated in the study were of the view that reading aloud helped them to become confident readers and speakers. Confidence was associated with the way they were recognized by

fellow students and the way they used the skills in other spheres. The readers were socially recognized as ‘able’ or ‘good’ amongst their peers, which seemed to boost self-assurance as the following learners said:

Learner A: I stand out because people even congratulate me. I actually develop a certain level of confidence. Because at the end of the lesson like at break time my classmates come to me and tell me how well I read. It makes me happy. Yes you actually develop a certain level of confidence.

Learner B: Sometimes, they call us the names of the characters that we read or acted out in class. So this just makes you feel like you have actually learnt something and it actually gives you some confidence.

Learner C: Actually reading aloud gives you confidence to debate. Sometimes I ask my mom to listen to me so I practice with her.

Learner D: You just have to feel free. Build your confidence. By the time you put up your hand [to read aloud] then you can do it.

In the extracts above learners appear to attach value to the secondary benefits of reading aloud, that is, developing their speaking skills and confidence building. These benefits do not relate directly to a deeper understanding of subject content but they offer insight into learners’ attitude towards reading aloud. For these particular learners there is a sense of accomplishment that is traceable to the fact that they seem to be self-motivated to read in class. For instance Learner C takes an extra mile to practise with his mother in order for him to become a better speaker. It follows to reason then that though the learners may read articulately in class their motivation for reading aloud may not be aligned to those of the teacher.

Vocabulary build-up. Data also revealed that some learners thought that reading aloud helped them improve their vocabulary especially when they got support from the teacher and other learners. Expectedly learners had problems reading some of the words in the text and often the teacher had to step in to either help them pronounce the words appropriately or to explain the meaning. Some of the words included: ‘inclination’, ‘siege’, ‘penitent’, ‘ingrate’, ‘impersonate’, ‘bosoms’, ‘blasphemy’ etc. Tobias often wrote the words on the blackboard and some learners wrote them down in their books. Also, learners were sometimes seen helping the readers by prompting them when they seemed to skip over a line or a word in the text. During group interviews learners acknowledged that the support they got from the teacher and from other learners helped them as stated by the learner below when asked about some of the benefits of reading aloud:

Learner E: The students actually help you out and correct you when you make a mistake anywhere. I mean sometimes they laugh because it is funny but eventually correct you later. The teacher also helps you and it is okay because you are building your English. And you even remember it better when the students laugh at you.

Underlying tensions. Learner E seems to look beyond the discomfort of being laughed at by other learners to focus on the more important aspect of ‘building’ her English. However not all learners seemed to respond in the same way because ‘being laughed’ can also signal that the reading environment was not always friendly and this could deter other readers. Learners were probed further for reasons why some learners did not seem ready to participate in reading aloud and they said the following:

Learner A: There are many chances for talking but there are people who can even spend the whole term without saying anything in class. Some are shy. For someone to talk you must be self-willing. The teacher even changes characters to give chance to many people.

Learner B: Mostly the children are shy some of them do not have the interest some of them do not care.

Learner C: I think they are just shy. Some of them think that by reading they would be lowering their standards, like the cool guys do not read.

Learner D: I think that some of them think that by reading in class we are just showing off. Some just fear to stand up or do not want to.

Learner E: The first time it was the whole class reading aloud like a chorus but some people were just making fun others were just sleeping, I think that is why the teacher came up with the idea of just one person reading [aloud].

Three out of four students above mention that shyness could be the reason why some students held back from reading aloud. However a close look at the statements shows that there is more to the alleged shyness. For instance some learners seem to lack the motivation to take up the stand but more still it is considered a matter of prestige not to read in class. Surprisingly, other students, like Learner D intimates, assume that reading aloud is a sign of vanity among the readers. It is clear that there are many tensions here towards reading aloud and it is not easy to find the explanations behind these attitudes. The negative effects of peer pressure in schools are well documented. Hence teachers have to take into consideration that in addition to providing opportunities for reading aloud, they may also have to study the other needs and tensions among the learners. Encouragement and creating a classroom atmosphere with simple rules where learners feel safe may go a long way in motivating more learners to participate in reading aloud.

Learning process. For some learners learning to read aloud seemed to be a learning process where they had to listen and observe other readers before they acquired the skill. Learner A said: “For me I listen to the teacher, I want to talk like him”. While Learner B stated: “For me I want to speak like Sheila [local TV news anchor], Shakur [BBC] or Ryan Seacrest [American Idol]”. Learner C: “For me I have developed it over time from the time I was young”. Models are important for these learners. It is worth noting that their selected models range from the teacher to TV personalities. They seem to extend their reading experiences beyond the classroom to their personal contexts and this suggests that

there is some level of connection between content and their social settings. Even for learners who were afraid, they went through the motions of presenting or reading aloud and later they seemed to be willing to withstand the bad comments because perhaps it was a requirement by the teacher as Learner D said: "When I stand in-front of the class I feel shy but I just present. But some people make me feel bad by their comments". The word 'just' suggests that this learner has no alternative but to do as required despite the unfavourable classroom environment.

Examination benefits: some learners were of the view that reading aloud was useful in helping them remember important parts of the content during examinations. Learner C pointed out the following when asked about the benefits of reading aloud:

Learner C: It is really helpful. Like for example in the exams, you can never forget the parts you read aloud and acted. I mean you understand the parts better than the people that are just listening. You just remember the parts you read because you get them in your head for example I can remember almost all the parts of Amope.

Indeed Learner C had participated in reading aloud in class. Examinations are sometimes viewed as laborious and abstract because they do not seem to relate directly to life experiences or reality. However examinations are a valid assessment tool and learners more often than not are taught to respond to examination questions rather than for life experiences. Hence for Learner C above it seems the act of reading aloud enhanced her performance in examinations. She internalises the spoken words and uses them in an appropriate situation. The danger here is that reading aloud may be taken to be beneficial to only school content. Nevertheless, the school context in general and the classroom in particular offered different opportunities for reading. Reading aloud was just one of the activities to support reading and not an end in itself.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Reading aloud, even among older learners is important. The findings presented here are similar to literature in a number of ways. The teacher and most of his students seemed to see value such as enjoyment, vocabulary build-up and development of personal confidence from reading aloud (Albright & Ariail, 2005; Chambers, 1996; Clark & Andreassen, 2014; Cliff Hodges, 2011; Wray & Lewis, 2000). The reluctance and disinterest shown among some learners is also not something that is restricted to the current study (Rounds, 1992). However the discrepancies among learners' expectations and reasons for reading aloud or not need further attention. The benefits of reading aloud for the learners seem to arise in a haphazard manner whereby each learner has a different reason for participating or not participate. There is lack of coordinated outcomes; hence it is difficult to establish whether the teacher achieved his objectives when he involved the class in reading aloud. It becomes imperative then for the teacher to be more aware of the needs of his learners by ensuring that the reading environment is supportive of even the weak or 'shy' readers. For instance it was noticeable that confident readers could easily overtake the reading activity if the other learners were not encouraged to participate.

That said, the text had very few characters and naturally it was difficult to involve many learners in reading aloud. As one learner mentioned above the teacher had abandoned chorus reading due to the challenges it posed. However reading aloud was observed to be a major activity during the lessons. It is important to balance the reading activity with other strategies such as writing, drawing, discussions, and pair work (Wray & Lewis, 2000). This would help to involve learners in the lesson as they analyse the text 'immediately' other than putting off detailed discussion for another lesson until the whole text has been read. It is also a matter of interpretation of the curriculum; in this study reading seems to be understood in a literal sense where a book was read to its completion without involving the use of other materials and activities. The play, *The Trials of Brother Jero* and the words therein were the centre of focus throughout most of the lessons. Discussion of complementing materials such as articles about religious zealots would enhance understanding of the content and would greatly relate to learners' own experiences.

The contextual challenges observed in this study decidedly have a great impact on reading aloud. Any teacher needs extraordinary skills to manage a large class of young adolescents. Reading aloud involves listening to different learners' voices and as they listen to each other they are bound to get excited and sometimes become rowdy. Albright and Airail's (2005) report that the teachers in their study used reading aloud as a managerial tool to control students and keep them on the same page. Whereas that is true in this study to some extent, the teacher still had to monitor that everyone had a text, was reading and was quiet as they followed in their texts. Additionally, the large class creates relaxation among some learners when they know that someone else will take the burden of reading while at the same time it limits the reading chances for everyone. True, some learners were involved in chorus reading of songs and responses to prayers such as 'Amen', but the text, though appropriate for the class, had very few characters hence rendering the rest of the class as passive readers (Clark & Andreassen, 2014).

Finally, the group interviews involved just a portion of the learners in Tobias' class but their awareness of the benefits of reading aloud and their collective enthusiasms for the same are inspiring aspects to support it as a classroom activity. The teacher needs to tap into this readiness and find ways of inspiring more students in the reading activity. Though they had different reasons for reading, it was clear that there was a budding community of readers within Tobias' class. Tobias on his part played important roles of modeling how to read and helping the learners to make connections between events in the text. Also the school appears to support the aim of promoting reading as stipulated by

the NCDC syllabus by making Literature in English compulsory in the Senior One and Two classes and by providing reading materials for the learners.

REFERENCES

- [1] Albright, L.K., & Ariail, M. (2005). Tapping the potential of teacher read-alouds in middle schools. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 48(7), 582-591.
- [2] Alexander, R.J. (2008). *Towards Dialogic Teaching: Rethinking Classroom Talk*. (4th ed.). Osgoodby: Dialogos.
- [3] Chambers, A. (1996). *The reading environment: how adults help children enjoy books*. Lockwood: Thimble Press.
- [4] Clark, S. K., & Andreassen, L. (2014). Examining sixth grade students' reading attitudes and perceptions of teacher read aloud: are all students on the same page? *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 53(2), 162-182.
- [5] Clegg, A., Bregman, J., & Ottevanger, W. (2008). *Uganda secondary education and training curriculum, assessment & examination (CURASSE): roadmap for reform*. Paris: ADEA.
- [6] Cliff Hodges, G. (2011). Textual drama: The value of reading aloud. *English Drama Media*, Issue 19, 19-26.
- [7] Denscombe, M. (2007). *The good research guide: for small scale social research projects* (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill: Open University Press.
- [8] Gee, J.P. (2014). *How to do a discourse analysis: a toolkit* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- [9] Griffin, S. M. (1992). Reading Aloud: An Educator comments..." *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(4), 784-787.
- [10] Guthrie, J. (2008) (Ed.). *Engaging adolescents in reading*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- [11] Kieff, J. (2003). Classroom idea-sparkers: revisiting the read-aloud. *Childhood Education*, 80(1), 28L-28S.
- [12] Mercer, N., & Littleton, K. (2007). *Dialogue and the development of children's thinking: a sociocultural approach*. London: Routledge.
- [13] Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2014). *Qualitative Data Analysis: a methods sourcebook* (3rd ed.). London: SAGE.
- [14] Moje, E., Overby, M., Tysvaer, N., & Morris, K. (2008). The complex world of adolescent literacy: myths, motivations and mysteries. *Harvard Educational Review*, 78(1), 107-154.
- [15] National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC). (2008a). *Literature teaching syllabus: Uganda Certificate of Education, senior 1-4*. Kampala: NCDC.
- [16] National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC). (2008b). *The integrated English teaching syllabus: Uganda Certificate of Education, senior 1-4*. Kampala: NCDC.
- [17] National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC)., & Cambridge Education. (2013). *Lower secondary curriculum assessment and examination reform programme: situational analysis report*. Cambridge: Cambridge Education.
- [18] Penny A., Ward M., Read T., & Bines H. (2008). Education sector reform: the Ugandan experience. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 28(3), 268-285.
- [19] Rasinski, T., & Padak, N. (1998). How elementary students referred for compensatory reading instruction perform on school-based measures of word recognition, fluency, and comprehension. *Reading Psychology*, 19(2) 185-216.
- [20] Richardson, J. S. (1994). Great read-alouds for prospective teachers and secondary students. *Journal of Reading*, 38(2), 98-103.
- [21] Richardson, J.S. (2000). *Read it aloud! Using literature in the secondary content classroom*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- [22] Rounds, P. L. (1992). Another Educator Comments. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(4), 787-790.
- [23] Soyinka, W. (2007). *The trials of Brother Jero*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. (Original work published 1964).
- [24] Ssentanda, M. E. (2014). The challenges of teaching reading in Uganda: curriculum guidelines and language policy viewed from the classroom. *Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 8(2), 1-22.
- [25] Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. London: SAGE Publications.
- [26] Uganda National Examination Board (UNEB). (2012). *The achievement of S.2 students in English language, mathematics and biology: NAPE report*. Kampala: Government Printers.
- [27] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2014). *Teaching and learning: achieving quality for all*. Paris: UNESCO.
- [28] United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2015). *Education for all 2000-2015: achievements and challenges*. Paris: UNESCO.
- [29] Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: the development of higher psychological processes*. Boston: Harvard University Press.
- [30] Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- [31] Wray, D., & Lewis, M. (2000). Extending literacy: learning and teaching. In M. Lewis & D. Wray (Eds.), *Literacy in the secondary school* (pp. 15-28). London: David Fulton Publishers Ltd.
- [32] Yin, R. (2014). *Case study research: design and methods* (5th ed.). London: Sage.



Rebecca Nambi holds a PhD, which she obtained from the University of Cambridge in the United Kingdom in 2015. Her major areas of study include educational research methodology in general, teacher education and the teaching/learning of English and Literature. She joined the Department of Humanities and Language Education, Makerere University in 2000 as a teacher trainer and she is currently a full time Lecturer in the department. She teaches on both the graduate and undergraduate programmes and supervises and examines research students. Dr Nambi is the Unit Coordinator of English and Literature in the department and she also the Coordinator of PhD students in the faculty of School of Education.

Blended Learning in English Teaching and Learning: A Review of the Current Literature

Waheeb S. Albiladi
University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, USA

Khlood K. Alshareef
University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, USA

Abstract—This paper provides a review of the research related to the use of blended learning in English as a second/foreign language context. Blended learning is a relatively new field that combines traditional teaching approaches with distance and online learning. The use of blended learning has been emphasized by the recent research that examines the academic and social benefits of this teaching approach. Because it combines traditional and online teaching modes, the promise of blended learning rests on the strengths of both teaching approaches. The present review of the literature revealed that blended learning can be used effectively to develop language skills, enhance the English learning environment, and promote students' motivation toward learning the language. There is a dearth of literature that examines the challenges that face language teachers when using blended learning. Hence, more research has to be done to identify and deal with these challenges.

Index Terms—blended learning, English learning, educational technology, English teaching, ESL, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last few decades, blended learning has arisen as a new and significant educational trend. Research on blended learning is relatively new and is linked with other educational fields such as English teaching methodology, educational technology, computer-assisted language learning (CALL), and distance education (Picciano, Dziuban & Graham, 2013). Blended learning has been defined to differentiate between this teaching and learning mode and traditional or online learning. To illustrate, Bonk and Graham (2012) defined blended learning as the combination of traditional face-to-face instruction with computer-assisted instruction. In another definition, Garrison and Vaughan (2008) indicated that blended learning was developed from the strengths of face-to-face and distance learning. It combines both types of learning as traditional classroom lecture and online learning are used in the teaching and learning process. When describing blended learning, Neumeier (2005) stated that “the most important aim of a Blended Learning design is to find the most effective and efficient combination of the two modes of learning for the individual learning subjects, contexts and objectives.” (p. 164). Significantly, blended learning can be used instead of traditional or online learning because it promotes a stronger sense of engagement and community than traditional face-to-face or fully online teaching and learning methods (Tayebnik & Puteh, 2013). In other words, blended learning allows for more learning opportunities that motivate students to participate in and outside of the class settings Senffner and Kepler (2015) pointed out blended learning is a flexible, scalable, and meaningful way of teaching and learning. That is, the online component of blended learning allows students to learn anytime in anywhere they prefer without being limited to groups or partners. According to Riel, Lawless, and Brown (2016) “Blended learning environments provide students with online and face-to-face places to meet, collaborate, and work on meaningful projects. Each of these spaces has particular benefits to successful learning” (p. 189). Rhem (2012) mentioned that the one of the unique characteristics of blended learning is that it allows teachers to provide classroom activities in two different settings: in person and online.

In addition, Zhang and Zhu (2018) noted that finding a suitable environment for all students is a difficult task, but the blended learning approach facilitates an “accessible, flexible, active, interactive, encouraging, and inspiring” teaching and learning environment (p. 268). In the language teaching and learning context, Neumeier (2005) provided a framework for designing a blended learning environment. This framework consists of six parameters that identify the key factors in designing a blended learning environment for language learning and teaching. These parameters are: (1) mode, (2) model of integration, (3) distribution of learning content and objectives, (4) language teaching methods, (5) involvement of learning subjects, and (6) location. Each one of these parameters is significant for language teachers to determine whether to integrate blended learning into their teaching practices.

Graham, Allen, and Ure (2003, 2005) identified three reasons for designing or using blended learning over other teaching options. These reasons are to improve teaching and learning pedagogies, increase access and flexibility, and increase cost-effectiveness. These three reasons might explain why instructors, trainers, or learners might choose blended learning over other types of teaching and learning. Moreover, Graham (2006) identified several levels of blended learning: activity-level blending, course-level blending, program-level blending, and institutional-level blending. Each one of these levels uses a combination of traditional ways of teaching and online elements depending on

the type of learning, whether it is an activity, course, program or institution (Graham, 2006). Figure 1 illustrates the blended learning environment as it relates to traditional (face-to-face) and online learning.

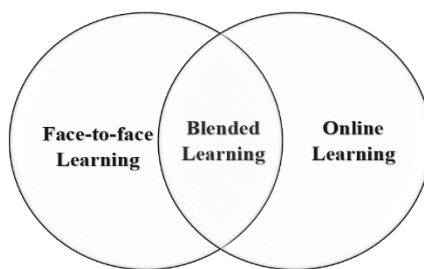


Figure1. Blended learning environment

II. BLENDED LEARNING IN THE ESL/EFL CONTEXT

Research on blended learning and English teaching and learning has increased as researchers have looked for ways to use this educational model in teaching English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL). Blended learning has been the focus of many research studies (Adas & Bakir, 2013; Akbarov, Gönen, & Aydoğan, 2018; Alias & Pandian, 2012; Ghazizadeh & Fatemipour, 2017; Grgurovic, 2011; Liu, 2013; Manan, Alias, & Pandian, 2012; Shih, 2010; Yoon & Lee, 2010; Zhang & Zhu, 2018) that investigated the use and the effectiveness of blended learning in the ESL/EFL context. Several academic and social benefits of using this teaching approach have been identified. For instance, Marsh (2012) mentioned that the use of blended learning could provide many benefits to language learners over traditional teaching approaches. Some of these benefits include developing language learners’ autonomy, providing more individualized language support, promoting collaborative learning, increasing students’ interaction and engagement, providing opportunities to practice the language beyond the class settings, and improving the language skills of language learners. Even though many authors have defined blended learning, Osguthorpe and Graham (2003, p.228) perhaps have provided the most comprehensive definition in the following statement:

Those who use blended approaches base their pedagogy on the assumption that there are inherent benefits in face-to-face interaction (both among learners and between learner and instructor) as well as the understanding that there are some inherent advantages to using online methods in their teaching. Thus the aim of those using blended learning approaches is to find a harmonious balance between online access to knowledge and face-to-face human interaction (p. 228).

In addition, Sharma and Barrett (2007) mentioned that several factors influence the uptake of a blended learning approach in language courses. These factors are teachers’ positive or negative attitudes toward technology use, learners’ proficiency levels, teachers’ training, teachers’ and students’ accessibility to technology, and cost. Each one of these factors plays a vital role in decisions regarding implementing a blended learning approach in language classrooms.

TABLE I
OVERVIEW OF THE FINDINGS RELATED TO THE USE OF BLENDED LEARNING IN ESL/EFL CONTEXT

Findings	Research studies
BL as a means to develop students’ language skills	Adas & Bakir (2013); Grgurovic (2011); Ghazizadeh & Fatemipour (2017); Shih (2010); Tosun (2015)
BL as a means to increase students’ motivation and engagement	Banditvilai (2016); Manan, Alias & Pandian (2012); Marsh, (2012); Liu (2013); Yoon & Lee (2010)
BL as a means to improve the learning environment	Akbarov, Gönen & Aydoğan (2018); Ja’ashan (2015); Marsh (2012); Zhang & Zhu (2018)

Significantly, after examining the literature surrounding the use of blended learning in ESL/EFL classrooms, it was found that this teaching model can be used to develop various English language skills (Adas & Bakir, 2013; Ghazizadeh & Fatemipour, 2017; Grgurovic, 2011; Shih, 2010), improve the learning environment (Banditvilai, 2016; Liu, 2013; Manan, Alias & Pandian, 2012; Yoon & Lee, 2010), and enhance students’ engagement (Akbarov, Gönen & Aydoğan, 2018; Ja’ashan, 2015; Zhang & Zhu, 2018). Table 1 illustrates the research surrounding the use of blended learning in the ESL/EFL context.

A. Blended Learning and Language Skills

Many studies (Adas & Bakir, 2013; Grgurovic, 2011; Ghazizadeh & Fatemipour, 2017; Shih, 2010) have indicated that blended learning can be used effectively to develop the language skills of language learners. For instance, learners’ speaking, listening, reading, and writing abilities can be developed when using blended learning instead of traditional face-to-face or fully online approaches.

As a way of illustration, in a quasi-experimental study, Ghazizadeh and Fatemipour (2017) examined the effect of blended learning in developing the reading skills of English language learners. Specifically, the study aimed to investigate whether blended learning can be used to develop the reading proficiency of sixty intermediate-level Iranian EFL learners. The participants were randomly assigned to two groups: an experimental group, which received classroom instructions and blended learning focused on the reading skills, and a control group, which received a more traditional approach to English teaching. The two groups were tested before and after the treatment to determine the learners' reading proficiency level. After comparing the two groups using a t-test, the researchers found that the use of blended learning resulted in a statistically significant positive effect on the reading proficiency of the EFL learners. In other words, Ghazizadeh and Fatemipour (2017) asserted that using blended learning with language learners has a direct impact on enhancing the reading skills of language learners. Based on the study results, the researchers also stated that blended learning facilitates the learning process and can be successfully adopted in English reading classes.

Likewise, Adas and Bakir (2013) examined the use of a blended learning strategy in developing the writing competency of EFL learners. Specifically, the study aimed to determine whether blended learning can be an effective strategy that helps in increasing students' overall performance in writing. Sixty EFL learners in a Palestinian university participated in the study. The students were divided into two groups: one was taught English writing using the traditional face-to-face approach, while the other group was taught using a blended learning model. At the end of the teaching period, the researchers found that the group that was taught using a blended learning performed better in writing than the other group. In other words, the use of blended learning helped in developing the writing competencies of the participating EFL learners. The researcher concluded by stating that using blended learning developed many aspects of the participants' writing such as grammar, spelling, punctuation, and paragraph coherence.

Moreover, Grgurovic (2011) investigated the use of blended learning in an ESL context. Using Neumeier's (2005) framework of blended learning, the study aimed to determine how blended learning is used in ESL classes and how both face-to-face and distance learning are integrated. The study was conducted in a speaking and listening class in an intensive English program in the USA. The participants were 19 ESL students and one English instructor. The research method included observing the language classes, surveying the students, and interviewing the instructor to explore the effectiveness of this learning model. The findings indicated that blended learning could be successfully and effectively used to teach all language skills. Both teachers and students shared positive perceptions and attitude toward integrating blended learning in English teaching. They believed that the use of online teaching added to the traditional ways and improved the students' language learning process. The researcher concluded by stating that blended learning can be used effectively to teach English in foreign/second language programs.

Similarly, in another study, Shih (2010) investigated the use of a blended learning approach to teach an English course. In particular, the study aimed to design a blended learning environment in which instructional blogging is used with ESL learners. Forty-four college ESL learners were involved in the study. Several research methods were used to investigate the effects of the blended learning mode, including students' satisfaction survey, teachers' and students' feedback, students' self-reflection, and interviews. The results of the study indicated that using the blended learning mode with video-based blogs resulted in many benefits such as improving the students' speaking skills, developing a sense of autonomy and collaboration, and enhancing the learning process. Shih (2010) stated that one of the benefits of using blended learning approach is to improve students' speaking skills as well as other language abilities such as their grammar, pronunciation, facial expression, and eye contact.

However, other studies indicated that the use of blended learning does not always have a direct impact on language skills. For instance, Tosun (2015) investigated the effect of using a blended learning approach in teaching English vocabulary. The study also explored English language learners' perceptions about blended learning in learning English vocabulary. The study included 40 students studying at two classes in an intensive English program in Turkey. The participants were divided into two groups: an experimental group that studied the target vocabulary through a blended learning approach, and a control group that was taught the same vocabulary using the traditional teaching method (face-to-face instruction). At the end of the instruction period, both groups were tested to determine their vocabulary knowledge. The findings indicated that even though the students were satisfied with blended learning as a teaching strategy, the use of a blended learning strategy did not have any positive effect on students' vocabulary knowledge. Tosun (2015) mentioned that their findings did not resonate with many previous research studies that linked the use of blended learning to the development of language skills. Tosun added that the one possible explanation of these results is the short duration of the study.

All in all, in the ESL and EFL context, research shows that blended learning can be used effectively to develop the language competencies of English language learners. The reviewed studies indicate that language teachers could utilize blended learning as a teaching model to develop various skills such as reading, writing, speaking, and vocabulary knowledge.

B. Students' Motivation and Engagement

Perhaps one of the most cited benefits of blended learning in the ESL/EF context is related to students' motivation, satisfaction, and engagement. Language learners usually showed their satisfaction when both approaches (traditional face-to-face and online) were combined. The strength of blended learning rests in using both teaching approaches effectively, and that motivates students to interact and engage in the language learning process.

To illustrate, Banditvilai (2016) conducted a study that examined the use of blended learning to enhance English learners' language skills and learning autonomy in an Asian university. The study was carried out in an English for specific purpose class and included 60 undergraduate students majoring in English. The study aimed to understand students' attitudes toward blended learning in English learning. The researcher used e-lessons, a questionnaire, and achievement tests as instruments to collect data. The findings of the study indicated that the use of an online approach aligned with classroom instruction enhances the language skills of language learners. Also, it was found that blended learning can be used effectively to increase autonomous learning and learners' motivation. Banditvilai mentioned that students can learn and practice their language anytime anywhere they want and that is what makes the blended learning approach preferable for language learners. The research concluded by stating that "Blended learning is a valuable concept that can be used to more successfully achieve teaching goals." (p.227).

Furthermore, a study conducted by Liu (2013) examined the effectiveness of blended learning in an academic English writing course at a major university in Beijing, China. The study aimed to evaluate several aspects of blended learning such as course design, material presentation, students' involvement, and classroom assessment. The class in which the study was conducted included 90 minutes of classroom meetings each week and one more online hour after the class. Based on the teacher's reflection and students' evaluation of the course, it was found that the students highly appreciated the use of blended learning strategy because it had many advantages such as motivating autonomous learning, increasing classroom interactions, eliminating communication anxiety, and improving learners' academic writing competencies. The researcher concluded by stating that because it allows for two different types of learning interactions, the use of blended learning is more motivating and inspiring for language learners.

In another study, Manan, Alias, and Pandian (2012) examined the effectiveness of blended teaching using one of the social media features. Specifically, the researchers used Facebook groups along with face-to-face instruction in an ESL context. The study included 30 undergraduate ESL learners enrolled in an ESL course at one of the public universities in Malaysia. The students were taught using the conventional classroom teaching as well as online using Facebook groups. According to the researchers, after observing students learning through this blended learning strategy and asking their perceptions, it was found that the majority of students showed apposite perceptions toward this learning strategy. The students said that using a Facebook group along with classroom instructions was interesting and authentic. They were motivated to interact and collaborate, and that is one of the significant strengths of blended learning. You report the results, but there is not really a clear sense of the 'how' – what is it about blended learning, especially the technological side perhaps, that allows for student motivation to be high, and autonomy? What is the inherent quality that leads to success?

Likewise, Yoon and Lee (2010) investigated students' perspectives and the effectiveness of blended learning as a teaching strategy in an ESL writing class. For more than 16 weeks, 47 university language learners in two writing classes participated in the study. Four sources of data were used: questionnaires, pretest, post-test, and midterm examination. The results indicated that students showed positive attitude and perceptions toward the use of a blended learning approach in L2 writing classes. The students believed that this learning approach is useful, motivating, and interacting. Moreover, the use of blended learning resulted in a better performance in students' writing abilities. The researcher stated that the use of blended learning increased students' motivation and promoted many significant aspects in language learning such as interaction, autonomy, and collaboration. Yoon and Lee (2010) indicated that the students "seemed to appreciate the opportunities for interaction and were satisfied with blended learning in L2 writing" (p.198).

Ultimately, the use of blended learning has been linked to increasing students' motivation and engagement. Combining the traditional and online teaching modes allows language learners to interact with the language inside and outside of classroom settings. Different studies showed that this type of teaching facilitates language learning and improves students' participation and engagement.

C. Blended Learning and the Learning Environment

The review of the literature related to blended learning revealed that one of the significant benefits of using this teaching approach in the ESL/EFL context is enhancing the language learning environment, which plays a vital role in the learning and teaching process. Several studies have indicated that relying on a blended learning strategy will result in improving the teaching and learning process.

Zhang and Zhu (2018) conducted a study in which blended learning mode was compared to traditional face-to-face learning mode. Specifically, the study investigated the effectiveness of blended learning compared to the traditional methods used to teach English as a second language in China. The sample size of the study included 5376 students who were enrolled in ESL courses at a major university in Beijing. The researchers analyzed a large database that included students who were enrolled in ESL courses and their performance, gender, grade, and discipline. The results indicated that students who were studying using a blended learning mode had better academic achievement in ESL courses when compared with other students who were taught using the face-to-face mode. In other words, students in blended learning settings performed better in ESL courses than students in face-to-face settings. The researcher indicated that the results showed that the use of blended learning has a positive impact on student learning outcomes.

Another study conducted by Akbarov, Gönen and Aydoğan (2018) investigated students' attitudes toward blended learning in the EFL context. The study's sample involved 162 English language learners. The researchers employed a questionnaire, which included questions that examined the learners' perceptions and attitudes toward blended learning

compared to the traditional classroom in EFL classes. The study's results indicated that most of the EFL students prefer blended learning over the traditional approach of English teaching because it enhances their motivation to learn which results in improving of the learning process. In other words, they believed that blended learning has a direct impact on their learning. Nevertheless, the participants reported that they prefer to be tested using traditional ways rather than digital ways. The findings from Akbarov et al. (2018) also suggested the participants believed that the use of blended learning resulted in developing their English proficiency levels. As such, the researchers concluding by stating that blended learning is an effective learning mode that can be used in an EFL context to improve the teaching and learning process.

Similarly, Ja'ashan (2015) investigated students' perceptions and attitudes toward the use of blended learning in an EFL English course in Bisha University, Saudi Arabia. To understand the students' perceptions and attitudes, a survey was administrated and involved 130 undergraduate English learners. Analysis of the data indicated that students showed positive perceptions toward the use of blended learning in English teaching. The participants were satisfied with blended learning because they believe this teaching approach can be used to enhance their language skills, develop their learning autonomy, improve student-teacher interaction, enhance the learning process, and allow for interesting learning experiences. The researcher also reported some disadvantages of using blended learning mode as it requires long time to prepare and implement blended lessons. Teachers have to apply teaching and learning activities for two modes (face-to-face and online). Ja'ashan (2015) concluded by stating that the participants mentioned that blended learning is more convenient than traditional face-to-face teaching, and that it increased their motivation to learn and develop their skills accordingly.

In summary, research shows that blended learning can be used to enhance the learning process and outcomes of language learners. English language learners usually show positive perceptions and attitudes toward the use of blended learning as an English teaching approach. These positive perspectives are derived from several directions, including, but not limited to, developing students' language skills in interacting and engaging settings, fostering the learning process, and providing opportunities to be independent learners.

III. CHALLENGES OF USING BLENDED LEARNING IN ESL/EFL CONTEXT

Even though research regarding blended learning focuses on the benefits of this teaching mode, some challenges have been identified for this teaching approach. Perhaps one of the most comprehensive discussions to shed light on the issues of blended learning can be found in Bonk's and Graham's (2012) work. The researchers identified six major issues arising when designing a blended learning environment. These issues are: (1) "The role of live interaction"; (2) "the role of learners' choices and self-regulation"; (3) "models for support and training"; (4) "dealing with the digital divide"; (5) "cultural adaptation"; and (6) "finding balance between innovation and production" (pp.14-16). The first issue is the role of live interaction. This is related to the amount of interaction in both learning mode, face-to-face, and online learning. The second challenge is understanding the role of learners' choices and self-regulation. This means understanding students' choices regarding which kinds of blended learning they participate in, and how a teacher can guide and affect their learning when using blended learning. The third issue is related to the models used for support and training. To use a blended learning approach more effectively, support is needed for both technological aspects as well as pedagogical and instructional teaching. The fourth challenge is the digital divide. Bonk and Graham (2012) mentioned that "the divide between the information and communication technologies available to individuals and societies at different ends of the socioeconomic spectrum can be great" (p. 15). The fifth issue that arises when designing a blended learning course is cultural adaptation. This is related to the materials that are used in both modes and their relation to the students' culture. The final issue mentioned by Bonk and Graham (2012) is trying to find a balance between innovation and production. According to Bonk and Graham (2012), in designing a blended learning classroom, a tension might arise between trying to use the new technological innovation and the ability to produce cost-effective results.

Also, Riel et al. (2016) indicated six sets of challenges that teachers encounter during the implementation process of a blended learning curriculum. First, teachers might face issues when working with students on curriculum activities. Students might have difficulty communicating with peers to finish the given tasks. Second, there might be challenges with student self-management. When using a blended learning approach, teachers might have difficulty keeping students focused on their task, so teachers need to keep activities relevant and active. Third, establishing work expectations is another challenge that might face teachers when implementing blended learning. This refers to setting achievable goals and objectives related to students' learning. Fourth, curriculum orchestration concerns organizing the work and finding time to conduct the lesson as well as a time frame to finish the work. Fifth, another challenge that arises when implementing the blended learning method is outside-of-classroom challenges. One example could be participating in out of the class activities. Scheduling a time for students to participate in out of the class activities can be difficult. Sixth, teachers might face technology challenges. These are the technological problems that arise during the implementation process of blended learning.

IV. CONCLUSION

Blended learning is a teaching strategy that combines both traditional face-to-face and online teaching in one setting. It is a growing trend in the age of technological development. Blended learning is a promising idea that has linked together many significant fields such as teaching methodology, educational technology, online teaching, and learning. The use of blended learning in the ESL/EFL context has received much attention as a way to teach and learn English. Research has shown that using blended learning instead of traditional teaching or online teaching approaches alone results in many benefits not only on students' learning but also on the learning environment. Some of these benefits include enhancing the English learning process, developing language skills, and improving the English learning environment. Despite these benefits, the use of blended learning can be associated with some challenges. However, there is a dearth of literature that examines the issues that face teachers when using a blended learning approach in the ESL/EFL context. More research has to be done to explore ESL/EFL teachers' perspectives regarding the challenges that they encounter when using blended learning in English teaching and learning.

REFERENCES

- [1] Adas, D., & Bakir, A. (2013). Writing difficulties and new solutions: Blended learning as an approach to improve writing abilities. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 3(9), 254-266.
- [2] Akbarov, A., Gönen, K., & Aydoğan, H. (2018). Students' attitudes toward blended learning in EFL context. *Acta Didactica Napocensia*, 11(1), 61-68. doi:10.24193/adn.11.1.5.
- [3] Banditvilai, C. (2016). Enhancing Students' Language Skills through Blended Learning. *Electronic Journal of e-Learning*, 14(3), 220-229.
- [4] Bonk, C. J., & Graham, C. R. (2012). *The handbook of blended learning: Global perspectives, local designs*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- [5] Garrison, D. R., & Vaughan, N. D. (2008). *Blended learning in higher education: Framework, principles, and guidelines*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- [6] Ghazizadeh, T., & Fatemipour, H. (2017). The effect of blended learning on EFL learners' reading proficiency. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(3), 606-614. doi:10.17507/jltr.0803.21.
- [7] Graham, C. R. (2006). Blended learning systems. In Bonk, C. J. & Graham, C. R. (Eds.). (in press). *Handbook of blended learning: Global Perspectives, local designs*. (3-21). San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons
- [8] Graham, C. R., Allen, S., & Ure, D. (2005). Benefits and challenges of blended learning environments. In M. Khosrow-Pour (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of information science and technology* (pp. 253-259). Hershey, PA: Idea Group.
- [9] Graham, C. R., Allen, S., Ure, D., (2003). Blended learning environments. A review of the research literature. Unpublished manuscript, Brigham Young University.
- [10] Grgurovic, M. (2011). Blended learning in an ESL class: A case study. *Calico Journal*, 29(1), 100-117.
- [11] Ja'ashan, M. M. (2015). Perceptions and attitudes towards blended learning for English courses: A case study of students at University of Bisha. *English Language Teaching*, 8(9), 40-50. doi: 10.5539/elt.v8n9p40.
- [12] Liu, M. (2013). Blended Learning in a University EFL Writing Course: Description and Evaluation. *Journal of Language Teaching & Research*, 4(2), 301-309. doi:10.4304/jltr.4.2.301-309.
- [13] Manan, N. A. A., Alias, A. A., & Pandian, A. (2012). Utilizing a Social Networking Website as an ESL Pedagogical Tool in a Blended Learning Environment: An Exploratory Study. *International Journal of Social Sciences & Education*, 2(1), 1-9
- [14] Marsh, D. (2012). *Blended learning: Creating learning opportunities for language learners*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- [15] Neumeier, P. (2005). A closer look at blended learning: Parameters for designing a blended learning environment for language teaching and learning. *ReCALL*, 17, 163-178. doi: 10.1017/S0958344005000224.
- [16] Osguthorpe, R. T. & Graham, C. R. (2003). Blended learning environments: Definitions and directions. *The Quarterly Review of Distance Education*, 4(3), 227-233.
- [17] Picciano, A. G., Dziuban, C., & Graham, C. R. (2013). *Blended learning: Research perspectives*. New York, NY: Routledge Publication.
- [18] Rhem, J. (2012). *Blended learning: Across the disciplines, across the academy*. Sterling, VI: Stylus Publishing, LLC.
- [19] Riel, J., Lawless, K. A., & Brown, S. W. (2016). Listening to the teachers: Using weekly online teacher logs for ROPD to identify teachers' persistent challenges when implementing a blended learning curriculum. *Journal of Online Learning Research*, 2(2), 169-200.
- [20] Senffner, D., & Kepler, L. G. (2015). *Blended learning that works*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Talent Development
- [21] Sharma, P., & Barrett, B. (2007). *Blended learning: Using technology in and beyond the language classroom*. Oxford, UK: Macmillan education.
- [22] Shih, R. C. (2010). Blended learning using video-based blogs: Public speaking for English as a second language students. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 26(6), 883-897. doi: <https://doi.org/10.14742/ajet.1048>.
- [23] Tayebinik, M., & Puteh, M. (2013). Blended Learning or E-learning? *International Magazine on Advances in Computer Science and Telecommunications (IMACST)*, 3(1), 103-110. doi: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2282881>.
- [24] Tosun, S. (2015). The effects of blended learning on EFL students' vocabulary enhancement. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 199(1), 641-647. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.592>.
- [25] Yoon, S. Y., & Lee, C. H. (2010). The perspectives and effectiveness of blended learning in L2 writing of Korean university students. *Multimedia Assisted Language Learning*, 13(2), 177-204.
- [26] Zhang, W., & Zhu, C. (2018). Comparing learning outcomes of blended learning and traditional face-to-face learning of university students in ESL courses. *International Journal on E-Learning*, 17(2), 251-273.

Waheeb S. Albiladi is a Ph.D. candidate in the TESOL program at the University of Arkansas. He has 8 years of experience in teaching English as a second/foreign language. His research interests include ESL/EFL pedagogy, educational technology, the use of social media in English teaching and learning, and bilingual education.

Khlood K. Alshareef is a Ph.D. student in the gifted and talented education at the University of Arkansas. Her research interests include gifted education, differentiated instructions, creativity, and cooperative learning.

Critical Analysis and Evaluation of the UAE Twelfth Grade Students' Language Instructional Material Based on the Set Goals and Objectives

Haytham M. Badr

Faculty of Education, The British University in Dubai (BUiD), Dubai, UAE

Abstract—Textbook is in the heart of any language teaching and learning program as it relieves some pressure placed on teachers' shoulders, provides students with a sense of progress and cohesion as well as providing education systems with the main structure by which they work and function. Therefore, great attention is paid to this critical area of research by syllabi developers and designers in addition to educationalists, scholars and researchers as a way to improve second language teaching and learning. One of main areas that concerns with the development of textbooks is to evaluate such textbooks to meet students' needs in accordance with the intended goals and objectives. The current research focuses on evaluating the UAE twelfth grade students' language textbook to check its compatibility, in terms of layout, topic and design, with the goals and objectives as set by the UAE educational process's decision makers. Some recommendations for the effective use of the current instructional material as well as some suggestions for future research are provided.

Index Terms—content-based syllabus, ESL, theme-based model

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Study

In the field of language education, many approaches to syllabus design are developed by different researchers and developers in order to enhance students' learning of the target language, and these approaches, according to White (2005), have three main bases; the content-based approach which requires structural, situational, informational (topic), functional or functional-notional focus, the skill-based approach which requires the focus on language productive/receptive skills or language acquisition skills and the method-based approach which requires process or procedural focus. Adding to this, Graves (2007) stresses that these approaches are not fixed to some designs or certain procedures but sometimes they are adapted to suit the goals and objectives as set by decision makers of the educational process. He goes on to say that this action or procedure also requires other adaptations or modifications in the studied/taught material.

In this regard, Nunan (2007) emphasizes the importance of assessing instructional materials to check the suitability of the content to the set goals and objectives before conducting any modifications or adaptations on the content. He continues to say that the set goals and objectives should, at all times, reflect students' needs to enhance their motivation towards learning or acquiring the learnt/taught language. Other advantages are highlighted by McDonough and Shaw (2012) who say that conducting continual assessments or analyses of materials based on students' needs as formulated and presented in the set goals and objectives is important to prepare students to deal with future academic and professional challenges or any other challenges of particular interest to them.

Paying particular attention to our assessed material, we find that the content is organized, structured and designed around some thematic units and topics, and according to White (2005), Nunan (2007) and Snow and Brinton (2017), the instructional material that focuses on thematic units and topics is an instructional material designed in accordance with the content-based approach. For this reason, the content-based approach will constitute the general framework through which the suitability of the content to the set goals and objectives is investigated and assessed.

B. Characteristics of the Content-based Approach

Richards (2017) and Snow and Brinton (2017) define the content-based approach as the product of continual and purposeful development of different approaches to syllabus design from acquiring the target language through studying the linguistic features of that language to acquiring the target language through studying the content. Through the content-based approach, Nunan (2007) explains that students acquire the target language if they are exposed to a number of different topics and academic texts in a very organized way. The topics and activities in the content-based approach, according to Richards and Rodgers (2015), should be authentic and related to real-life situations in order to motivate students to learn the content and should also serve the specific objectives which revolve mainly around developing students' cognitive and linguistic skills and especially the communicative language skills.

Moreover, the work done by Haley and Austin (2014) gives more insights into our understanding of the characteristics of the content-based approach when they say that both language and content should be integrated in any

material designed according to the content-based approach with the aim of improving students' linguistic skills, enhancing their cognitive skills as well as developing their academic language proficiency skills. They continue to say that this integration leads to three different models constituting a continuum; (1) the theme-based model, in which the target language is learnt or acquired through the content, (2) the shelter model, in which the content is learnt or studied through the target language, (3) the adjunct model, in which equal attention is given by designers to both language and content.

C. Rationale Aim, Objectives and Scope of the Study

As stated above, the successful modification or development of any instructional material depends primarily on the suitability of the content to the goals and objectives as determined by decision makers of the educational process based on students' needs analysis or assessment. In this regard, literature shows no attempts by researchers or other concerned developers or designers to evaluate the suitability of the current material to the set goals and objectives in the UAE context. Therefore, this study is going to be a unique study as being the first study, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, which looks into the appropriateness of the current material for the intended goals and objectives based on students' needs to maximize students' benefit from the current material.

By conducting this study, the researcher expects to arrive at conclusive answers about the suitability of this material to the intended goals and objectives. Moreover, he will be able to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the current material and provide suggestions for improvement if necessary. Furthermore, the significance of this study extends from improving the investigated material local-wide to improving it nation-wide as this material is circulated by the UAE Ministry of Education to be used at all 12th grade private and governmental schools that adopt the MOE curriculum. Finally, and to make this study more intensive, the researcher examines the current material in terms of the suitability of the layouts, topics and design to the set goals and objectives.

D. Research Question

To what extent are the current material's layouts, topics and design suitable for the set goals and objectives?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Gradual Development of Language Syllabi Types

Literature shows argument among researchers or contradiction in their views towards the nature of language and language learning based on their classifications of the different types of language syllabi. The following lines shed light on the gradual development of the different types of language syllabi explaining how they see language and language learning to be able to identify the location of the content-based syllabus among other language syllabi and fully understand its views towards language and language learning.

Literature indicates that language syllabi are first divided by Wilkins (1985) into two types; analytic and synthetic types. According to him, the first type includes three syllabi; the functional syllabus, the notional syllabus and the situational syllabus, in which syllabus designers should pay special attention to what students need from the target language. He continues to say that students, in this first type, acquire the target language when they are exposed to it in proper contexts, and this exposure should be in the form of chunks. Wilkins adds that the content should focus on developing the communicative skills as a starting point towards acquiring the target language, and this content should vary to encompass different academic topics, themes or situations. Unlike the analytic type, Wilkins insists that students, in the synthetic type, acquire the target language when they are exposed to it in the form of small parts. Language in this later type is viewed as a set of rules, and learning happens when such rules are studied in a gradual manner from the simplest to the most complex ones.

Later on, White (2005) divides language syllabi into two different types; (A & B) types. According to him, the question about the language skills to be learnt should be the starting point for the (A) type, while the question about how language skills are learnt should be the starting point for the (B) type. He goes on to say that the first type can be called an "interventionist" approach as designers of this type intervene in designing the syllabus from the very beginning by putting some pre-determined language goals and objectives to direct teachers' attention to such goals and objectives when teaching the content, while the (B) type can be called a "non-interventionist" approach as no goals or objectives are pre-determined by syllabus designers as the best way to acquire the target language, according to this later type, is through the exposure to authentic materials in natural environments.

More recently, and as a result of the changes in researchers' views towards language and language learning, language syllabi are divided by Nunan (2007) into two new types; the product syllabus type and the process syllabus type. According to Nunan, the product syllabus type includes three different syllabi; the functional-notional, the situational and the structural syllabi, in which particular attention should be given by designers to the activities that enhance the language skills or the knowledge that students should acquire. He continues to say that language in the structure syllabus is acquired through the exposure to some certain forms of that language, and language in the situational syllabus is acquired through the exposure to authentic and real-life situations, while language in the functional-notional syllabus is acquired through the exposure to a combination of language forms and authentic situations. However,

Melrose (2015) among others criticizes this type of language syllabi for encouraging teachers to use pre-conceived language scripts in ESL classes.

According to Nunan (2007), the process syllabus type includes also three different syllabi; the content-based syllabus, the task-based syllabus and the procedural syllabus. Language in this type is seen as a process through which the new language skill or knowledge is acquired. Nunan goes on to define each syllabus by saying that the content-based syllabus focuses on integrating both language and content in an instructional material to foster students' both cognitive and language skills. He adds that the instructional material in the task-based syllabus is structured around some communicative tasks to be performed by students, while the instructional material in the procedural syllabus is structured around some assumptions and conclusions to be drawn by students through the exposure to various tasks.

B. Theoretical Framework of the Study

Theory of language:

There are three main assumptions about the nature of language, and these assumptions are summarized in the following lines. Firstly, language is text and discourse-based implying the importance of focusing in instructional materials on the linguistic features that make text types and speech events coherent and cohesive. In other words, language is seen as a medium to learn the academic content through the study of discourse and textual structure of written texts such as book chapters, descriptions or reports, or of speech events such as discussions, lectures and meetings. Secondly, language use involves the study of the four language skills together by focusing on some selected topics and activities to enhance language, knowledge and thinking skills. Thirdly, language is purposeful; namely, language is used to serve specific purposes and these purposes may be social, vocational, academic or recreational, but whatever the purpose is, the content in the theme-based model or the language in the shelter model comes to serve this purpose.

Theory of language learning:

The integration of both language and content in students' textbooks or in a syllabus is first introduced in the Krashen's theory of comprehensible input, in which language is best acquired if students are exposed to considerable amounts of inputs that are understandable and, at the same time, are a little above students' current language level. Moreover, this theory suggests providing L2 students with the same environment as provided to L1 students in order for language learning to occur. The emphasis in this theory is given to language meaning rather than language form as language form can be acquired spontaneously when students are exposed to the input that is considerable and comprehensible.

The constructivist theory as first developed by Piaget is an expansion of the Krashen's theory of comprehensible input, in which the input, characterized as slightly above students' current level, should be well-constructed and well-represented in students' mind in order for language learning to happen. The starting point in designing the syllabus is the question about what is known about the input. The input, according to this theory, should also be typified as authentic, interesting and suitable for students' age and educational level to achieve effective language learning.

The social constructivist theory, as developed by Vygotsky, is considered a further expansion of the Krashen's theory of comprehensible input, in which the input, typified as considerable and slightly above students' current level, should be socially shaped by students' interaction. According to this theory, students will be able to construct some new concepts and ideas about the new knowledge if they are fully involved in classroom activities using that knowledge, and the result is better linking the new knowledge to the one that exists in students' mind, leading to effective language learning. The starting point in designing the syllabus is the same starting point as the constructivist theory, but the content here should be designed to include lots of communicative activities that encourage students to work in pairs or groups.

C. Issues with the Content-based Approach.

Literature shows some issues regarding the application of the content-based approach to achieve effective language learning. Firstly, many critics such as Harley (1990) and Sheen (1994) criticize the Krashen's theory of comprehensible input for focusing only on solving students' language fluency issues, keeping other language accuracy issues unsolved. To handle this issue, the content-based approach's instructional materials may be designed to include both meaning-focused and structure-focused instructions and activities to improve students' both fluency and accuracy levels of the learnt/ taught language.

Secondly, using the target language as a medium to learn or understand the content is another issue as it is recommended by many researchers; such as Ghorbani (2011) and Ovando and Combs (2017), to use both L1 and L2 in second language classes to enhance students' understanding of the content especially if students are classified as low language achievers. Notwithstanding, the mechanism by which syllabus designers can use to create dual language teaching materials is still a big challenge.

Lastly, the two-tiered skills model, as first introduced by Cummins (1979), is considered a big issue. This model suggests two different types of language skills; the basic interpersonal communication skills and the cognitive academic language proficiency skills. In this regard, Cummins indicates that skills of the first type are less complex and quicker to be acquired than skills of the second type, and thus, the adoption of integration to foster both students' language and

knowledge skills is not appropriate. However, this issue can be solved if students are fostered to master the academic language skills before being exposed to the content to facilitate their understanding of the content.

III. TEACHING CONTEXT

A. *Research Material and Research Site*

The current research material, attached as a separate document to this study, is scanned from the UAE 12th grade students' textbook, "*Bridge to Success*", Borecki, Smith, Brettell, Cullinan, Al Baloushi and Behan (2018), third term material. It consists of three units covering the following three topics; environment, people and psychology, and life after school. Furthermore, the school, from which this instructional material is collected, is a very popular private school named "Al Dhaid private school" and located in Al Dhaid city, Sharjah, UAE. This school is accredited by the UAE Ministry of Education to provide teaching services for different academic subjects at its site including teaching English as a second language, and therefore, it is chosen by the researcher to be the current research site.

B. *The Intended Goals and Objectives*

The instructional material under investigation consists of three units all of which have one general aim and two specific objectives, and they all revolve mainly around expanding students' knowledge of the wider world by presenting different authentic topics, themes and situations in a very interesting way to enhance respect and interest in other cultures and increase the awareness of global citizenship. It also aims at developing students' language, thinking and knowledge skills to prepare them to cope with the latest updates and developments on various cultural and educational levels and to deal with future academic and professional challenges if or when encountered by them.

To explain this in details, the current instructional material aims at developing students' critical thinking and social skills, proactivity and self-confidence and cognitive and meta-cognitive abilities through a wide variety of content-based academic texts and activities that motivate students to participate as active learners. It also aims at developing students' receptive and productive language skills to reach the competency level that enable them to meet future needs and challenges both academically and professionally by providing topics and creating situations that are authentic and related to the real life.

IV. MATERIAL'S EVALUATION

McDonough and Shaw (2012) contend that the main purpose of analyzing or assessing any instructional material is to measure its suitability in relation to the general aims and specific objectives as set by decision makers of the educational process. Not only that, they go on to say that this procedure is usually followed by some recommendations towards any shortcoming or unsuitability as detected by assessors or developers. The researcher of this study allocates this section to analyze and assess the current research material in terms of the suitability of layout, topics and design to the set goals and objectives, while the following section is allocated to talk about areas of improvement, if necessary, to maximize students' benefit from the current material. Moreover, and in order to make the evaluation process more effective, a checklist, as suggested by McGrath (2016), in the form of some questions is fully developed by the researcher to help him focus on the current research objectives, and this checklist is annexed in the appendix (A) to this research.

A. *Material's Layout*

The current material attracts students' eyes to the key text elements and information using a variety of font and text highlight colors plus a large number of color images to explain or facilitate students' understanding of the content. These colors are harmoniously and consistently used by the designers of this material to please students' eyes and encourage them to read and study the content. Moreover, the material's font size is relatively large, allowing for students to read the content without difficulty leading to low pressure on the students' eyes and more focus, in return, on the content. Furthermore, the current material's designers extensively use single focal points and big and bold headline fonts to provide students with clear references and guide pages. In addition, white spaces are considered to achieve a more pleasing composition of the layout, and this is done by enlarging page margins and gutters and by increasing the white space between key page elements.

The above layout considerations, as taken care of by the current material's designers, are deemed important by many researchers (e.g., Mohanna, Cottrell, Wall & Chambers, 2017; Schröpfer et al., 2012; Stoller, 2002) to make any designed material readable and understandable. These considerations are also compatible with the current instructional material's goals and objectives which call for attractive, likable and comfortable layout to trigger students to read and focus on the academic content, resulting in a wider understanding of the presented topics and a better learning of the studied language skills.

B. *Material's Topics*

According to the principles of the content-based approach, the topics should be authentic and linked to real life to trigger and prompt students to learn both language and knowledge skills. They should also suit students' current educational level and cognitive abilities to ensure well-representation and well-construction of the new information or knowledge in students' minds resulting in content and language learning. In this regard, the content-based approach

calls for gradual exposure of topics so that the easiest topics that students have previous background about are first presented to easily link the new information to the existing one leading to well- representation and well-construction of the new information in students' mind. The first unit talks about the following topics: "the great pacific, garbage patch, recycling and endangered species", and the second unit discusses the following topics: "personality profiles, personality types, body language, society and personal space", while the third unit tackles the following topics: "self-assessment quiz, magazine article on smells and five year plan".

A deep look at the material' topics shows that, in contrast to the first unit (unit 10 in students' textbook), the second and third units (unit 11 and unit 12 in students' textbook) are very authentic and related to real life, and also touch students' core needs of learning and prepare them for future challenges. It is also noticed that the topics in the three units can be considered suitable for students' educational and cognitive level as students of their age, between 17 and 18 years old, are able to, according to Piaget's view of learning, think logically and abstractly, believe in the unseen and accept situations they do not know about or hypotheses unknown to exist for them (Slavin, 2009).

Nevertheless, Niaz (1997) and Piekny and Maehler (2012) among others challenge Piaget's view of this last learning stage, called the formal operation stage, when they say that some people never reach this stage of learning. Based on that, the topics in the first unit may have to be adjusted to suit students of low proficiency levels. Adding to this, it is noticed that the topics of the first units have nothing to do with the topics of the second and third units, and the material's topics are not even presented gradually in terms of difficulty level, which are considered important by Richards and Rodgers (2015) to allow for cohesive transition of concepts, skills, structures and vocabulary. It is quite apparent from the investigated material that the topics of the first unit require more technical processes than the topics of the second and third units and at the same time supposes knowing some concepts, structures, vocabulary and skills about the content.

C. *Material's Design*

Syllabus design:

The current material is typically designed using the theme-based model of the content-based approach as it uses the content in the form of some selected topics, instructional sentences and written texts as a medium to learn the target language, the English language in our case, with the aim of developing students' language and knowledge skills in full agreement with the intended goals and objectives as set by decision makers of the educational process. Moreover, and based on the classification of Haley and Austin (2014), the current instructional material is suitable for students' educational level in congruent with the work of Richards and Rodgers (2015) in which the theme-based syllabus model can be designed for students at both elementary and secondary levels.

Types of teaching and learning activities:

According to the theme-based model of the content-based approach, the activities should be designed to develop the four basic language skills with much more focus on the communicative language skills along with the other social and knowledge and thinking skills through teacher-student and student-student interaction. This idea is elaborated in the works of Stoller (2002) and Snow and Brinton (2017) by saying that the content-based activities should be directed towards improving language skills, discourse organization, vocabulary building, study skills and communicative interaction.

A closer look at the current material shows that a good number of activities is designed, approximately 35 activities per unit, to improve the four basic language skills along with the other social, knowledge and thinking skills in agreement with the set goals and objectives. To provide a thorough and accurate analysis of the designed activities, the reading activities are designed to improve students' word and sentence analysis skills as well as developing their abilities to explore new vocabulary meanings and grammar functions. The speaking and writing activities are designed to enhance students' communicative skills through work in groups or pairs by creating different situations and events triggering students to produce richer language. The listening activities are designed to improve students' understanding of the spoken language through listening to a variety of academic topics. Moreover, the questions in the activities are perfectly designed to suit both low-achieving and high-achieving students by providing simple questions that require short answers, less active participation and lower mental processes and other complex questions that require richer answers, more active participation and higher mental processes as appears in the true/false questions and other WH questions of the current material's activities.

Nevertheless, and despite all above, it is noticed that the activities of the current material are equally distributed to developing the four language skills without paying particular attention to developing the productive language skills as considered crucial by Haley and Austin (2014) to acquire or learn the target language. It is also noticed from the investigated material that students' social skills are enhanced only in the activities designed to develop the productive language skills, and this is against one of the core principles of the content-based approach in which low-achieving students are always scaffolded by their classmates and are active learners during all classroom language activities. In this regard, teachers and especially inexperienced teachers are advised by McCafferty, Jacobs and Iddings (2006) and Orlich et al. (2013) to be very careful when adopting massive use of group work activities as this may result in teachers' distraction from focusing on the intended goals and objectives.

The role of instructional materials:

The material in the content-based approach, according to Snow and Brinton (2017) and Richards and Rodgers (2015), should be authentic in order for language learning to happen, and the material's authenticity occurs when two conditions are provided; (1) it should be like the materials used in teaching the native language, (2) it has a collection of different sources; such as magazine articles, newspaper and any other media materials, that are not basically used for language teaching purposes. Snow and Brinton (2017) and Stoller (2002) advocate the second condition by saying that the content-based material should include as much instructional media (e.g., CDs and/or audiotapes) as possible to enhance the authenticity of the studied/ taught materials. Moreover, Richards and Rodgers (2015) argue that materials' comprehensibility is of the same importance as material's authenticity. To put this in simple words, instructional materials may have to be designed to include some linguistic simplifications to make the content understandable. In this regard, Gagné (2007) and Snow and Brinton (2017) suggest providing some linguistic tips, strategies or guides to help students understand the content.

A deep look at the investigated material shows that it provides authentic sources using audiotapes or CDs to enhance students' listening skills. It also uses lots of linguistic simplifications whether at the right side or at the bottom of pages to simplify and summarize the content. However, using a collection of different sources; such as magazine articles and newspaper, is not much seen in the assessed material to further enrich the material with authentic sources as important by Snow and Brinton (2017), Richards and Rodgers (2015) and Gagné (2007) to foster language learning. Furthermore, the suggested instructional media are not heavily used confining their use to developing the listening skill, while it can also be used to provide authentic environment to improve the other three language skills (Stoller, 2002). In the same vein, Stoller suggests having access to the modern technologies; such as computer and internet, in classrooms not only to provide authentic environment, but also to widen students' horizons and encourage their curiosity about the wider world to meet the current material's general aim as set by decision makers of the educational process.

V. CONCLUSIONS, AREAS OF IMPROVEMENT, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The current material is well-structured and well-designed using the content-based approach following the theme-based model to achieve effective language and content learning with the aim of preparing students for their future both academically and professionally. To achieve this aim, a variety of topics are selected and lots of activities are designed to improve students' cognitive capabilities and mental abilities as well as developing them in the four language skills. Moreover, it provides authentic sources and linguistic simplifications to enhance students' content understanding and language learning in agreement with the intended goals and objectives as set by the educational process's decision makers. Notwithstanding, our analysis and evaluation of the current material reveal some points to be taken into account by future potential developers or designers to maximize students' benefit from this material, and these points are recapitulated in the following lines.

Firstly, the current instructional material seems to enhance teacher-centered instruction by focusing much more on making the content understandable through some linguistic simplifications and confining students' participation to some activities to develop their communicative skills in contradiction with the most recent teaching strategies in which students are always active and independent in all classroom activities. Secondly, efforts to overcome the limitations of the content-based approach in the way that it pays only attention to language meaning rather than language form are tangible by designing a large number of activities to improve the four basic language skills, but, in doing so, these efforts fail to pay specific attention to the communicative language activities as crucial to achieve effective language learning.

Thirdly, the material's authenticity is another issue as the current material provides authentic sources only in the listening activities through some audiotapes or CDs to enhance the listening skill, while other authentic sources; such as newspaper, article magazine and other online activities, can also be used to enhance the other three language skills. Fourthly, the first unit (unit 10 in students' course book) fails to deal with students' disparities in terms of their cognitive capabilities and mental abilities as it provides inputs suitable only for high achievers. Besides, the content of the first unit is not linked to the other two units and even much more difficult to learn than them in contrast to the principles of the content-based approach in which any new inputs should be closely connected to avoid confusion and gradually presented in terms of difficulty level to facilitate students' construction and representation of new inputs.

Therefore, the current material may have to be re-designed to include more activities that encourage peer or group work with paying more attention to the speaking and writing activities. Moreover, the current material may be adjusted to include authentic reading, writing and speaking sources to enhance the acquisition of the four language skills as emphasized by principles of the content-based approach. Finally, the topics in the first unit may be changed to suit low-achieving students, but before doing so, future potential designers have to reach the mechanism by which they can judge students' zone of proximal development to be able to design materials suitable for both high and low achievers.

APPENDIX. A EVALUATION CHECKLIST

Assessed Elements	Comments
<p>Material's layout</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Does the material attract students' eyes using font and text highlight colors? - Does the material use color images to explain or facilitate students' understanding of the content? - Is the texts' font size readable? - Are the focal points and bold headline fonts used to provide students with clear references? <p>Material's topics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Are the materials' topics authentic and related to real life? - Are the topics suitable for students' cognitive and educational levels? - Are the topics connected to each other and arranged or presented in terms of level of difficulty? - Do the topics challenge students' experience and knowledge in agreement with the intended goals and objectives? <p>Material's design</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What kind of approaches used in designing the current material? - Is the adopted approach congruent with the set goals and objectives? - Does the syllabus design compatible with students at a 12-grade level? - How many activities are designed, and are they directed to enhance students' language and knowledge skills? - Do the designers use different types of questions in the activities to encourage both low-achieving and high-achieving students to participate in classroom activities? - Do the activities pay special attention to the productive language skills as stressed by the content-based approach to foster effective language learning? - Is the material authentic and if so, what are the types of sources used to make the material authentic? - Is the material comprehensible, and if so, what are the strategies used to make the material comprehensible? - Does the current material encourage using the modern technologies; such as computer and internet, to facilitate both language and content learning? 	

REFERENCES

[1] Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, 49.2, 222-251.

[2] Gagné, R. M. (2007). Principles of instructional design (5th edn). Belmont, CA: Thomson/Wadsworth.

[3] Ghorbani, A. (2011). First language use in foreign language classroom discourse. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, 1654 –1659.

[4] Graves, K. (2007). Designing language course: A guide for teachers. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

[5] Haley, M. H. & T. Y. Austin. (2014). Content-based second language teaching and learning: An interactive approach (2nd edn). Boston: Pearson.

[6] Harley, B. (1990). The development of second language proficiency. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[7] McCafferty, S. G., G. M. Jacobs & A. C. D. Iddings. (2006). Cooperative learning and second language teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[8] McDonough, J. & C. Shaw. (2012). Materials and methods in ELT (3rd edn). Hoboken: Wiley.

[9] McGrath, I. (2016). Materials evaluation and design for language teaching (2nd edn). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

[10] Melrose, R. (2015). The communicative syllabus: A systemic-functional approach to language teaching. London: Bloomsbury.

[11] Mohanna, K., E. Cottrell, D. Wall & R. Chambers. (2017). Teaching made easy: A manual for health professionals (3rd edn). [S.l.]: CRC Press.

[12] Niaz, M. (1997). How early can children understand some form of "scientific reasoning"? *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 85.3, 1272-1274.

[13] Nunan D. (2007). Syllabus design. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[14] Orlich, D. C., R. J. Harder, R. C. Callahan, M. S. Trevisan, A. H. Brown & D. E. Miller. (2013). Teaching strategies: A guide to effective instruction (10th edn). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

[15] Ovando, C. J. & M. C. Combs. (2017). Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts (6th edn). Lanham, Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield International.

[16] Piekny, J. & C. Maehler. (2012). Scientific reasoning in early and middle childhood: The development of domain-general evidence evaluation, experimentation, and hypothesis generation skills. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 31.2, 153-179.

[17] Richards, J. C. (2017). Curriculum development in language teaching (2nd edn). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[18] Richards, J. C. & T. S. Rodgers. (2015). Approaches and methods in language teaching (3rd edn). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[19] Schröpfer, T., J. Carpenter, S. Kennedy, L. Margolis, T. Mori, N. Tehrani & P. Yeadon. (2012). Material design: Informing architecture by materiality. Basel: Birkhäuser.

[20] Sheen, R. (1994). A critical analysis of the advocacy of the task-based syllabus. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28.1, 127-147.

[21] Slavin, R. E. (2009). Educational psychology: Theory and practice (8th edn). USA: Pearson Education.

- [22] Snow, M. A. & D. Brinton. (2017). *The content-based classroom: New perspectives on integrating language and content* (2nd edn). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- [23] Stoller, F. L. (2002). Project work: A means to promote language and content. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 107-119.
- [24] White, R. V. (2005). *The ELT curriculum: Design, innovation and management*. Malden: Blackwell.
- [25] Wilkins, D. A. (1985). *Notional syllabuses: A taxonomy and its relevance to foreign language curriculum development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.



Haytham M. Badr was born in Mansoura, Egypt in 1983. Badr is currently studying as a Ph.D student in Education, TESOL at the British University in Dubai, United Arab Emirates. He achieved his master degree in Education, TESOL from the British University in Dubai in 2017, his two post-graduate diplomas in Education, curriculum and teaching methods/ English department from Tanta University, Egypt in 2007-2008 and his bachelor degree in simultaneous interpretation/ English department from Al-Azhar University, Cairo, Egypt in 2006.

He currently works both as an English language instructor and as an English-Arabic interpreter in Abu-Dhabi government, UAE. He also worked as an English instructor, translator, interpreter and English teacher in Mansoura University, Egypt. His research interests include L2 teaching and learning, discourse analysis, curriculum and innovation, educational policy, inclusive education and translation.

Mr. Badr is a member of a non-profit association based in Egypt to provide recommendations for the development of English instructional materials as well as providing free of charge English teaching services for indigents and a member of translators' association to improve different types of written translation through free online courses and discussions.

Historical Evolution of English in Bangladesh

Mohammad Nurul Islam

Department of English Language, Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia;
Department of English Language, Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Azirah Hashim

Department of English Language, Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Abstract—This paper aims to make a contribution to the study of history and evolution of English in Bangladesh. Bangladesh is a young country, twice-split once from India as a part of Pakistan and then from Pakistan as an independent nation. Therefore, to look at the history, we have to look at the history of English education first in India upto 1947, then in Pakistan (1947-1971) and then only in Bangladesh (since 1971 onwards). The paper begins with how English was brought into Bangladesh; language policy and use in Bangladesh; medium of instruction and also shed lights on the current status of English in Bangladesh.

Index Terms—English, history, language contact, education

I. INTRODUCTION

Bangladesh, in full The People's Republic of Bangladesh, a republic of Southern Asia, in the northeastern portion of the Indian subcontinent, bordered on the west, north, and east by India, on the southeast by Burma (Myanmar), and on the south by the Bay of Bengal. The area of the country is 147,570 square kilometers (56,977 square miles). The capital and largest city of Bangladesh is Dhaka. Geographically, historically, and culturally, Bangladesh forms the larger and more populous part of Bengal (Statistics Yearbook of Bangladesh, 2011). The population is 167,256,205 (Worldometers, 2019) The national language is Bengali (also known as Bangla), an Indo-European language which is the world's sixth or seventh largest language in terms of speakers. Although Bangladesh is considered to be by and large a monolingual country in which majority of the population is speakers of Bangla language. Whereas a sizeable minority are speakers of more than ten additional languages like Urdu, Monipuri, Chakma, Santali, Garo, Rakhain, Tipra. In a small country like Bangladesh with the presence of ten other languages in addition to Bangla, the linguistic situation and the language distribution presents an interesting scenario. To communicate with the speakers of other languages (intranational and pan-national), we either need to know their language or communicate in a Lingua Franca that is comprehensible to both of us. The facts, therefore, demand that a trilingual situation may be explored in order to determine the use of English as a lingua franca.

II. HOW WAS ENGLISH BROUGHT INTO BANGLADESH?

Education, as is obvious from the extended meaning of the term, is a broad category which includes all disciplines and subjects of study in a formal university set up. It is a blanket term which covers all branches of knowledge, English language being one of them. But we must point out that among other disciplines, English enjoys a special status. English is known as a service language which is used in the teaching and learning of a number of disciplines as a medium. Hence, the overall policy of education in a country provides special space for the teaching and learning of English. We shall discuss in the chapters that follow Bangladesh policy of teaching and learning of English in its historical perspective. A proper historical overview of the status of English in Bangladesh can be made in the following sections:

- A. The status and the teaching of English in the pre-independence period, ie, up to 1947(colonial period)
- B. The status and the teaching of English in newly created Pakistan (since 1947-1971) or post-colonial period
- C. The status and the teaching of English in newly created Bangladesh (since 1971 onwards) or Post-Liberation period (Bangladesh period).

A. *The Status and the Teaching of English in the Pre-independence Period, ie, up to 1947 (Colonial Period)*

English Language teaching and learning in India started with the arrival of the British to the sub-continent. When the British arrived, they found three existing education systems in India – first the 'Aryan' system prevalent in the north, second the 'Dravidyan' system in the south and the third was the 'Muslim' system. These systems were mainly based as the role learning of the classical/religious texts (Dakin, 1968, p. 5).

English in India was first motivated by Missionaries who were eager to improve the ethnicity and customs of the natives and to show the flow of knowledge and faith to them. Thereafter, English missionaries began to set up their missions and Christian schools in India (Baldrige, 2002; Kachru, 1983). The 'missionary clause' the East India

Company of 1698 further encouraged them. But actually, much before that the struggle for language dominance on the Indian land had started in the shape of English-Portuguese competition for lingua-franca (Sinha, 1978, cited in Agnihotri & Khanna, 1997, p. 20).

The 'Missionaries' efforts in the expansion of English use were strengthened by the political consolidation of the small territories of India by the East India Company. For instance, the Nawab of Bengal was defeated and hence the region fell under the British rule in 1757. Between 1783 and 1790 the moral, social and intellectual situation of the Indian natives were totally subdued (Agnihotri, 1997, p. 21). As a consequence, Charles Grant (residing in Malda) wrote an important treatise 'observations on the state of society among the Asiatic subjects of Great Britain'. In charter act of 1793, Christianity was also motivated for teaching English in India for improving the moral fabric of Indian society. In 1795 the Rajas of Tanjore and Marwar established English medium schools by Reverend Mr. Swartz. Subsequently, Fort William College, Kolkata School Book Society, Kolkata School Society and General Committee of Public Instructions were established.

In 1835, Thomas Macaulay justified the cause of English teaching and learning approved by Governor General Lord William Bentinck on 7 March 1835. Macaulay's Minute of 1835 was intended to reshape policy on the medium and declared English as the language 'best worth knowing' and 'most useful to our native subjects'.

The implementation of Macaulay's Minute was manifested in the establishment of a college at Hooghly in 1836. In 1840, Macaulay's Minute also manifested a proposal for a college at Dhaka and one at Patna and the transfer and development of Kolkata Hindu College into the Presidency College. Convinced of the superiority of English Language and Literature, the Bengal presidency Report (1844) for the period 1842-43 proposed to promote the Indian languages and cultures.

Sir Charles Wood's Despatch of 1854 modified the filtered education policy of Macaulay and European knowledge among all classes of the people, while the English Language continues to be the most perfect medium for the education. However, English was to remain the medium only of the higher education and the universities that required a knowledge of English. Consequently, new secondary education was applied to anglicize themselves.

Macaulay's policy of selective English for higher education had achieved the greater success and established itself as an academic discipline with the setting up of universities in Mumbai, Kolkata and Madras in 1857 (Dutta, 2001, p. 123). Since then English occupied an important position in the curriculums of schools, colleges and universities of the sub-continent till the end of the British rule.

The Hunter Education Commission of 1882 appointed to inquire the principles of Despatch (1854) and suggested priority to be given to primary education for the masses. Its provision, extension and improvement were to be furnished by the provincial government. The recommendations of Hunter Education Commission further strengthened Lord Curzon's Resolution of 1904 which claimed that the active extension of primary education was one of the most important duties of the state (Dakin, 1968, p. 8).

Though the above policies raised the triple question of (a) the content of education, (b) the spread of education and (c) the medium of education (Dakin, 1968, p. 5), it was for the first time that education in the Indian sub-continent was recognized as the state responsibility.

The scope of English in the colonies such as India added a prestige to the language and its literature and established it as an academic subject. Now a curricula model for English Language and Literature was necessitated. Agnihotri & Khanna (1997, p. 25) added that the movement for National Education had started much earlier when the partition of Bengal in 1905, and initiated a reaction against English education, its supremacy continued unchecked. The National Council of Education in Bengal was registered in 1906. A variety of changes were introduced by the Morle-Minto reforms (1909). Despite the Montague-Chelmsford report (1917) and the Kolkata University Commission Recommendation (1919), neither the English Language nor the English model of education could reach the Indian masses. The Commission also recommended that the medium of instruction for most subjects upto high school stages was to be the vernacular, but for later stages it should be English.

By the turn of the century, the importance of English was triggered high notwithstanding a gulf kept on widening between the primary education in native language and secondary and higher education in English. English was introduced in the Indian teaching and learning framework in compliance with a request in 1932 by educators like Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Macaulay, Lord Bentinck and Lord Harding. Dakin (1968, p. 8) added that the Sergent Report of 1944 reflects Ghandhi's philosophy. It envisaged universal, compulsory and free education for children between the ages of six to fourteen. The report announced that facility would be provided for adult education for all men and women between the ages of fourteen to forty. The medium of instruction in primary, secondary and adult education would be the vernacular languages.

During the British rule, English was the instrument and language of the colonial power. During this colonial era, English began to take root in India (Kachru, 1983) and was used in all formal domains such as administration and education (Misra, 1982). McArthur (2003) has argued that since Bengali is spoken in the Indian state of Bengal and in Bangladesh, and much of the linguistic history of Bengal and Bangladesh has been shared, the English usage of the two territories is similar, and Bangladeshi English usage shares much with Indian English at large (cf. 328).

B. The Status and the Teaching of English in Newly Created Pakistan (since 1947-1971) or Post-colonial Period

On 14 August 1947, the Indian sub-continent was divided into two countries- India and Pakistan. After getting independence, Pakistan came up with fresh and new ideas, promises and dreams of an ideal state. But like any other newly created states, even Pakistan had to face the challenges to strengthen the existing socio-policio-economic conditions weakened by the long colonization and challenges to build up a bright future. Dakin (1968, p. 4) rightly states (which is true of Pakistan too) that 'unity' and 'progress' are the two main problems that are needed to be solved in relation to a newly independent state. And the only way to both of these is education. In a monolingual society/nation, the problem of medium of instruction does not emerge as a hurdle to educate all, because the local language works as a national language, an official language, as a language of education and other communications. But in a multilingual country, like Pakistan, for instance, the language issue takes a serious shape. In multilingual Pakistan, English functioned as a link language, facilitating communication among linguistically diverse communities (Banu & Sussex, 2001).

At the time of partition English was the language of Pakistan Government and was taught as a compulsory subject at both primary and secondary level. English also served as the link language between the two parts of Pakistan- 'West Pakistan' and 'East Pakistan' (present day Bangladesh) (Dil, 1966, pp. 199-207). The situation, therefore, both in India and Pakistan was the same. While India made Hindi her national language, Pakistan assigned this status to Urdu. While India talked of continuing English as an associate official language for 15 years through Article 343(2) of the Indian constitutional provision, even Pakistan continued it for 20 years through Article 214 of the constitution of Pakistan (Khatun, 1992, p. 85). Pakistan Government came up with the language policies through its constitution, but they could not meet the requirements and aspirations of the common mass and even the demands of science and technology.

Urdu, therefore, was considered to be the national language which even replaced some of the functions of English and other local languages over a period of time. Among the common people English was the symbol of British imperialism. Maulvi Abdul Haq and his vocal group known as 'Baba-e-Urdu', for instance, demanded the replacement of English by Urdu. While others believed that English should continue as an instrumental language because, Urdu was not sufficiently well-developed to assume such an important role for a progressive nation. Even Fazlur Rahman, the first education minister of Pakistan, made a number of policy speeches during 1947 and 1948.

A crisis developed in February 21, 1952, when the language movement started in East Pakistan for the adoption of Bengali along with Urdu, as the national language of Pakistan. The Prime Minister Mohammad Ali Jinnah on May 7, 1954, specified that English, Urdu and Bengali will be three official languages of Pakistan, until such time that Urdu and Bengali can replace English as the official language.

The constitution of Pakistan 1956 (article 214) clearly specified that English will be continued as the official language for twenty years (Khatun, 1992, p. 85). The first language teaching conference was held at Karachi in March, 1957. The conference was recommended schemes that would improve their teaching and in addition to the development of Bengali and Urdu as state language. We must consider the place of English language as an invaluable medium of communication all over the world. Apart from its present role in Pakistan, English has today attained the status of an international language. In some places like India, Pakistan and many other countries it is functioning as the official language (Dil, 1966, p. 20).

Khatun (1992) stated that on January 3, 1957 the Education Commission was appointed by the Awami league Coalition Government. But the commission's proposals and recommendations remained only a paper work due to the declaration of Martial Law in 1958. Ayub Khan, the then president of Pakistan, also talked of reforming the whole system of education of Pakistan. On June 24, 1960 the Ministry of Education appointed the curriculum committee for secondary education, drawing up curricula in all subjects for class six to twelve. The new secondary syllabus was introduced in 1962 as the first step towards achieving the objectives set out by the curriculum committee, that is, to teach a functional language rather than literature. In 1964, President Muhammad Ayub Khan while addressing in the Urdu College at Karachi that the world is shrinking in books, telegraphs, telephones, airplanes, international trade, political relations and other contacts. Therefore, in such circumstances, the English Language is inevitable for us (Dil, 1966, pp. 203-5).

A number of projects were taken up by the Central Board for the development of Urdu in Lahore and the Board of Dhaka for the development of Bengali. As a consequence, the question of the medium of instruction at primary and secondary levels was resolved more or less in a satisfactory manner among the masses. The University of Karachi took a decision whereby Urdu was being made compulsory as a medium from the year 1965-66, and at the post-graduate level optional from 1965-66, and compulsory from 1967-68. In all other universities much more emphasis was given to Bengali in East Pakistan and Urdu in West Pakistan, but English remained the medium of instruction.

The new teaching and learning policy was the outcome of an intensive review of the entire education system of Pakistan undertaken by a number of study groups following an announcement of President Yahia Khan in 1969, known as New Education Policy. Waseem (1987) argued that English had a renaissance in Pakistan after independence. English generally continued to enjoy a position of vital importance at that time.

Thirteen daily newspapers out of a total 84 were published in English. Besides, a large number of weekly, fortnightly, monthly and quarterly were also published in English. News bulletins and regular programs in English were aired from all stations of Radio and Television of Pakistan. It was estimated that about 2.75 to 3.0 percent of the people could be said to know English at that period in Pakistan. The Commission on National Education had recommended that English

should be taught as a compulsory language from class vi to xii in schools and at the graduate level of Pakistani educational system (Dil, 1966, p. 212).

In 1950s and 1960s many language teaching conferences, seminars, lectures, symposia, refresher courses were held to suggest appropriate teaching methodology in different parts of Pakistan such as Dhaka, Karachi and Lahore etc. Some of them sponsored by Linguistic Research Group of Pakistan (LRGP), Ford Foundation, Asia Foundation, British Council, Oxford University, The United States Education Foundation in Pakistan (USEFP) and The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) in order to provide an applicable teaching method in relation to English as a second language. But none of them could be able to achieve the goal. Since 1947, the standards of English have shown considerable decline and nationwide concern has been roused to improve the teaching of English at all levels.

1. Controversy between Bengali and Urdu

The language controversy was intensified in 1952. On February 21, 1952 a meeting was held at noon on the Dhaka University Campus. The students' leaders were able to excite the students to violate section 144 and stage a demonstration in front of the Provincial Assembly, defying a ban imposed on meetings and processions by the Pakistani Government. In response, the police used tear-gas shells to disperse the crowd, but when students retaliated by throwing stones, they opened-fired, killing several individuals (Imam, 2005). When the news of the killing spread like wildfire throughout the city and other places, the condition became worse. On February 22, 1952 East-Bengal Legislative Assembly recommended to the constituent Assembly of Pakistan that Bengali would be one of the state languages of Pakistan. The resolution by the Provincial Assembly was not enough to pacify the students and politicized sections of the public (Maniruzzaman, 1980, pp. 54-57).

Agitation was still continuing and later, at a conference in Muree in 1955, a formula was agreed upon between the leaders of East and West Pakistan that Bengali and Urdu should be the state languages of Pakistan. Finally, Bengali was accepted as one of the state languages along with Urdu in the constitution of Pakistan in 1956 after a long and bitter battle of about nine years. The martyrs by sacrificing their lives for their mother tongue set an unparalleled example in the history.

Later in 2000, UNESCO marked February 21, 1952 as the International Mother Language Day (Imam, 2005). In retrospect, the Language Movement of 1952 paved the way for the liberation war that culminated in Bangladesh gaining its independence in 1971. From the Bengalis' perspective, the recognition of Bangla as a state language in 1956 was an action that came too late. By then the relationship between the two regions turned bitter to the point that civil war became imminent (Hoque, 2008, p. 5).

C. The Status and the Teaching of English in Newly Created Bangladesh (since 1971 onwards) or Post-liberation Period (Bangladesh Period)

East Bengal became a province of Pakistan after the partition of 1947. But feeling the absence of an autonomous status and dissatisfied by the imposing government policies of Pakistan a 'Nationalist Movement' was initiated which saw its culmination in the 'Liberation War' of 1971, and its final victory of December 16, 1971, when East Bengal emerged as a sovereign state, called Bangladesh.

After the liberation of Bangladesh, the new Government initiated the task of reconstructing the 'English language teaching and learning System'. Bangladesh Education Commission was established and the Commission held, "Education policies have close relation with political events and system. Since 1947, Bangladesh witnessed diverse changes in political events. Each change in political life is an instrument for national reconstruction. Therefore, educational policies and their implementation follow closely political ideas of the nation" (Khatun, 1992, p. 9).

Since the introduction of the new curriculum by the Jatiyo Shikkya Upadestha Parishad or National Advisory Council of Education in 1978, English is continued to be taught as a compulsory subject. Though it was the state policy to teach English from class III onwards, in quite a large number of schools, as was in the past, English was started to be taught from kindergarten and nursery onwards. Perhaps the pressure of public opinion was behind the unofficial policy of teaching English from class I of the primary stage of Education in Bangladesh. It is the elite group that largely populates Bangladeshi government agencies in charge of developing language policies in the public school system (Banu & Sussex, 2001). Bangladesh inherited this format of English language teaching with all its merits and faults even after its emergence as an independent country in 1971, and for a long time could not formulate any new method of Teaching English. There existed no link between secondary and higher secondary education because while the former emphasized language, the later concentrated on literature.

Although English ceased to be the medium of instruction at the secondary level, it remained as the medium of teaching and learning at the higher secondary and university levels. It also remained the only means of communication for official matters. Within a few years, an all-out switch-over was attempted, though not with great success. It took quite a long time to introduce Bangla at all levels of education but higher and technical education still remained dependent on English. Sultana (2012) found that books and journals in central and seminar libraries in various universities in the country were mostly in English. According to his study, in the central library of Dhaka University the total number of books is 7 lakhs of which 55,76,868 were in English, and out of 89,500 journals 78,567 were in English. So, English still enjoys a special status not only among teachers but among students too. Moreover, most administrative jobs whether government or private demand a good command of the English Language.

III. LANGUAGE POLICY AND USE IN BANGLADESH

A. *Constitutional Provision*

The Resolution of 1949, the Constitutions of 1956 and 1962 of Pakistan and the Bangladesh Constitution of 1972 are the main sources of constitutional provision of teaching and learning in Bangladesh. Bangladesh made its own constitution within one year of its independence. The objective of National Educational Policy of Bangladesh was derived from the preamble.

“The education of Bangladesh should be inspired with the high ideals of nationalism, socialism, democracy and secularism. The constitution reflected the aspiration of the heroic people who dedicated themselves to and the brave martyrs who sacrificed their lives in the liberation struggle” (Khatun, 1992, pp. 31-32).

The constitution of the People’s Republic of Bangladesh 1972 adopted Bengali as the state language in Article (3). Later in 1987, The Bengali Language Introduction Act was passed to provide more muscle power to earlier directives. These steps to broaden the use of Bangla had serious repercussions for English since the expansion of Bangla came at its expense. Bangla took over domains (e.g. education, administration, law, etc.) that previously belonged to English. Commenting on the relationship between English and Bangla, Hamid (2007, p. 3) notes that the two languages are locked in what he describes as “Zero-sum relationship,” in which promotion of one leads to usurping the other’s space (Choudhury, 2010, p. 6). Although there is no specific mention about the English Language in the constitution, but the emphasis is thus given to building both languages--English is required for development of human resources, but teaching in Bangla is to be continued in earnest since it is linked to national identity (Hoque, 2008, p. 1). Therefore, students are expected to have gained a fairly considerable command of English with which they will be able to effectively communicate facts, ideas and opinions in real-life situations.

When Bangladesh was a part of Pakistan, the constitution of 1956 adopted the principle of language policy (Article 219), and announcement of Bengali and Urdu as the state language was resolved to a certain extent. It also ensured the constitutional provision of keeping English in National life for twenty years. In the spirit of the preamble, Article (17) there are three statements which bear special significance of education.

Article 17: The state shall adopt effective measures for the purpose of:

(a) Establishing a uniform, mass-oriented and universal system of education and extending free and compulsory education to all children to such as may be determined by law;

(b) Relating education to the needs of society and producing properly trained and motivated citizens to serve those needs;

© Removing illiteracy within such time as may be determined by law.

(S. Malak, Begum, Habib, Shaila, & Moninoor, 2013).

These constitutional provisions serve as a guide for educational planning and development. Bangladesh took a democratic stand in detailing the need for an education system, which reaches every child. This deal continues to provide a frame work for mass education and these provisions were quoted in the five years plan of Bangladesh (M. S. Malak, 2013).

B. *Government Policies*

In the post-independence Bangladesh, several educational bodies were formed by the Government in different phases. The recommendations of these bodies contributed to the development of contemporary teaching and learning policy of Bangladesh.

Bangladesh Education Commission suggested measures to the Government for enabling it to remove weakness and failures of the existing education system and to give guide line for national reconstruction in the spirit of the new philosophy of the state.

In Bangladesh, a number of foreign languages like Arabic, Urdu, Persian, French, German and Japanese etc. are taught in the universities. English however is taught as a mandatory subject at primary, secondary, higher secondary and college levels (Khatun, 1992, pp. 65-66).

Describing the English language policy in public and private Bangla-medium schools, Hussain and Tollefson (2007) state, “sometimes English has been encouraged, sometimes it has been limited, and sometimes it has been forbidden,” with the result that currently only about 3% of the population uses English as a second language” (cf. 241).

Dove’s (1983) examination of the educational policies in Bangladesh from 1971 to 1981, demonstrates that there was, in fact, a gap between policy goals an implementation. She maintains that the explanation for this gap lies in the socio-political context in which educational policies were generated and implemented. She noted that this policy was not earnestly followed since elite wanted English education for their children. Therefore, she sees a gap between policy and practice in spite of some progress that was made during this period:

Throughout all these shifting views on language policy and education, even though the national policies generally favored Bangla, the elite continued to invest in English- medium education (Banu & Sussex, 2001; Dove, 1983; Imam, 2005). As a result, Private University Act in 1992 was passed, which helped establish English-medium private universities in the country (Hamid, 2007, p. 4; cited in Hoque, 2008, pp.10, 12)

The Indian sub-continent was a British colony for two hundred years. It was the British colonial rulers, that firmly established English as a compulsory curriculum subject by introducing English teaching and learning in this sub-

continent in the first half of the 19th century. Since then English has been an important component of our national curriculum (Hoque, 1997, p. 130).

C. Present Day English Language Teaching Scenario in Bangladesh

By now it is clear that Bangladesh is a new nation and carried the socio-cultural heritage of Pakistan and India. Both have influence on the present education system of Bangladesh. The main elements of the previous system were laid during the British rule of India and consolidated during Pakistan times. Between 1947 and 1971, there was no radical thinking or major reforms in the field of education to make it more relevant to the present day problems.

During the last few decades, English Language Teaching has undergone a great change all over the world even in Bangladesh where English was once the second language and acted as the lingua franca to interact with West Pakistan. Bangladesh came into existence as a sovereign state with some radical socio-political and economic philosophy. Naturally, it could not be satisfied with a system of education which was designed by the Pakistani Government. So after liberation, the new country had to reconstruct its society and make a rapid progress according to its new socio-political and economic philosophy. In this great nation building task, the founders of Bangladesh thought education would play a vital role.

The traditional English teachers strongly opposed when new theories of ELT (CLT) crept into Bangladesh. The main reason is that they were not ready for something new. Another reason is that their forefathers had learnt English from the British rule in the same manner (i.e. through Grammar- Translation method) and they were quite successful in their lives. Therefore, teachers do not want to practice anything new. They were also unable to realize any change in the status of English. The different methods and techniques of teaching were implemented through teachers' training. So far teachers of English considered literature and grammar as the only means of teaching English Language. But these groups knew a little or nothing about the teaching of the four skills in the beginning which are crucially important for the teaching of any language (i.e. teaching of listening, speaking, reading and writing).

English is a compulsory subject which occupies an important place in National Curriculum. It needs to be taught with great care and attention. Teaching a language in general and teaching a foreign language in particular is a complex enterprise which involves the risk of wasting efforts on the part of an unskilled teacher. Most of the parents are aware of the need for English. They encourage their children to learn and to use English inside and outside. They feel their children need to learn English because globally it is the common medium of communication.

It is generally believed that language means the teaching English literature textbooks. However, they forget that the main purpose of teaching English is not to equip our students to appreciate literature, but to prepare them to be able to interact in actual social situation (Hoque, 1997, pp. 135-38).

To determine current status of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Bangladesh the prevalent trends of ELT need to be examined. In most educational institutes at the university level, English is being taught as a literature subject but hardly any focus on language teaching. It is only recently that the authorities have decided to make English a compulsory subject to be studied by the students of all departments of the Faculty of Arts at Dhaka University.

D. Medium of Instruction

The main purpose of teaching English is to acquire language skills and not to learn any particular subject. It is also to enable students to interact in it in real-life situations. The themes and topics introduced in the syllabus are meant to be used as vehicles for practicing all four skills effectively. Therefore, the situation demands that English should be taught as a functional or operational language.

According to a popular belief, the main aim of teaching English in Bangladesh is to enable students to use it as a 'library language' in the higher education both at national and international levels.

But such naming gives the impression of a confined role of the language, while it remains a fact that the use of English in Bangladesh is as expanded and dynamic as in any modern country of the world, ranging from interpersonal use to international communication.

The Report of the commission on National Education (1960) Chapter III (P-III, P-147), put a greater emphasis on English language education in comparison to Bengali, Science and Mathematics. The commission also suggested that English should be taught as a functional language at all levels. The teachers must be properly trained before they enter services. All sorts of effort should be made by the authorities, the schools and the communities to provide facilities such as classroom, laboratories, workshops, libraries, garden-plots, play-ground and equipment in order to cover achievement of secondary education. Explaining the importance of English in international communication, the President of Bangladesh emphases that with a view to promoting employment abroad and encouraging transfer of technology, emphasis will be laid on teaching English language beside the mother tongue (*The Daily Observer*, 2002; cited in Imam, 2005, p. 477).

1 Primary level

Teaching of any foreign language is not justifiable at primary stage both on pedagogical and psychological grounds. Meanwhile, the Government of Bangladesh undertook a massive project to reconstruct and develop the education system (Dove, 1983). The educational policy of the time was committed to providing more access to basic education for all (Hoque, 2008, p. 6). As there was public demand for English, it was introduced in the last two classes of the primary school. This state of English remained the same in post-independent Bangladesh, although Bangladesh Education

Commission did not recommend any foreign language at primary level. At present unofficially English is taught from class one in many of the primary schools and even in nursery and kindergarten school (Khatun, 1992, p. 99). Students at the end of primary level education are expected to have acquired an elementary command on the four language skills of English. The general skills of English which they acquire are likely to enable them to carry out simple language activities such as spoken, greetings, farewells, reading signboards, addresses and writing ordinal numbers such as first, second, third etc. The main purpose of teaching English at this stage is to prepare the students for more serious and intensive study of the language for secondary level.

2. *Secondary level*

Secondary education has been regarded as the most critical stage of any national system of education (Salam, 1956, p. 41). By the end of the secondary level education, students undergo studying of English as a compulsory subject for about ten years. During this long period, students study it seriously and in great detail. By class X (ten), students study about 2000 vocabulary and 20 basic structural patterns as well. Students also acquire about four language skills with greater emphasis on reading and writing skills because students' performance in the examination depend mainly on reading comprehension and writing ability (Hoque, 1997, p. 148). At this stage, students are also required to use reference books like dictionaries and to translate passages from Bengali into English and vice-versa which enable them to use English more effectively. A point to note here is that currently there are 317 Bangla-medium public secondary schools, which employ 7,434 teachers, and 13,224 private secondary schools, which employ 1,78,269 teachers, in Bangladesh (Ministry of Education Statistics, 2005), but all follow the NCTB prescribed curricula. After grade 10, students, both from public and non-government schools, are required to sit for a state mandated examination--the secondary School Certificate (SSC). The examination follows a common national content, but is administered regionally (Imam, 2005; as cited in Hoque, 2008, p. 13).

3. *Higher Secondary level*

After passing the secondary examination, students enroll themselves for higher secondary studies; some of them take up vocational education, while others for some socio-economic reasons, put an end to their academic life. In fact, the teaching of English at this level may be looked upon as a continuation of the secondary level study. The main objective of teaching English at this level is to extend and strengthen the command of language skills which students have already acquired at the secondary level through revision and practice activities.

During these two years, students are expected to acquire an additional vocabulary of 6 to 8 hundred head-words. Further, they also practice additional structural patterns mainly with conditional clauses (such as unless..... even, if....., since....., etc.). At this stage, they also study short stories and poems mainly for understanding, enjoyment and have to answer comprehension questions in the examination (Hoque, 1997, p. 151). Besides, the four basic language skills, students have to acquire a fairly considerable command of the reference and translation skills with the help of dictionaries and reference books, which are related to other subjects of study.

Generally better resourced than the Bangla-medium schools, Imam (2005) observes that English-medium schools (which, as previously mentioned, are private) follow a globalized curriculum, developed in the United Kingdom (UK). In these schools, all subjects are taught in English, except Religious studies and Bangla. Bangla is an optional subject, and those who take it seldom reach competency beyond grade 5 standard in writing (Imam, 2005). In accordance with the curriculum, the textbooks (as well as the other teaching materials) and the assessment are also developed in the UK. The assessment referred to as General Certificate of Education has two levels: Ordinary Level (O levels in short), taken at the tenth year of schooling, and the Advanced Level (commonly referred to as A Levels), taken at the twelfth year, are prepared by the London Board of Examinations and facilitated by the British Council (Imam, 2005). After passing A Levels, the students from these schools take admission either in private English-medium universities or travel abroad for further studies. In fact, English-medium schools flourished because the wealthy or the elite in the country favored English education (Imam, 2005; cited in Hoque, 2008, pp. 11-13).

Higher Secondary education is seen not as a conclusion of secondary education, but rather as preparation for four-year college or university. Admission in college, therefore, depends greatly on students' performance in the SSC and HSC examination.

4. *Tertiary Level*

Students at the tertiary level seek a wide range of higher study options. Some of them enroll in medical colleges, some of them in engineering colleges and some of them enroll in agriculture colleges for higher study, while others enroll in colleges and universities to study degree pass or honors' courses in different faculties and subjects.

Under the National University, degree pass and honors' students study one paper of compulsory English consisting of 100 marks. The main objectives of teaching English are to reinforce the skills which students have already acquired through remedial teaching. Students also need to be taught elements of English for specific purposes (ESP) such as English for medicine, engineering and agriculture, etc. with special emphasis on reading and writing skills. The listening and speaking skills also necessitate for both effective learning and use in real-life situations when needed (Hoque, 1997, pp. 153-54). The private University Act in 1992 was passed, which helped establish English-medium private universities in the country (Hamid, 2007, p. 4). The Act allowed the setting up of some 80 universities (UGC, 2014). These universities place special emphasis on English because English is in much demand.

For higher education English was made an optional subject (hitherto it was a compulsory subject) in 1980 (Rahman, 1999). Nevertheless, the transition from English to Bangla was more gradual at the tertiary level. This gradual shift was largely due to the fact that translation of books and other materials into Bangla took considerable time; hence, English continued to be used as a medium of instruction alongside Bangla at this level (Rahman, 1999). English is the most widely spoken language after Bengali in Bangladesh (Bangladesh, 2012).

IV. CONCLUSION

Nowadays English is started to be taught from first level education. All the students from class 1 to 14 have to study the same English courses though all of them do not need the same English courses for their study or real life situations. Hence, what is needed in the national level policy for ELT is to identify the practical necessities for English in the society. The trained teachers, communicative learning materials, financial, infrastructure and management facilities can only meet the above conditions.

REFERENCES

- [1] Agnihotri, R. K. & A.L. Khanna (eds). (1995). *English Language Teaching in India*. Sage Publication, New Delhi.
- [2] Agnihotri, R. K., Khanna, A. L., & Ahluwalia, N. (1997). *Problematizing English in India*. New Delhi, India: Sage Publications.
- [3] Alam, S. (2002). On the proposed education policy: some proposals regarding languages (in Bangla). In H.A. Shahed(Ed.), *Bangladesh shikkha babostha* (pp. 515-525). Dhaka: Suchipatra.
- [4] Alam, F., & Zaman, N. (2001). Preface. In F. Alam, N. Zaman, & T. Ahmed (Eds.), *Revisioning English in Bangladesh* (pp.15-25). Dhaka: University Press Limited.
- [5] Alam.F., Zaman,N. & T.Ahmed (Eds.) (2001). *Revisioning English in Bangladesh*. The University Press Limited, Dhaka.
- [6] Annamalai, E. (2001). The colonial language in multilingualism and the process of modernization. In E. Annamalai (Ed.), *Managing multilingualism in India: Political and linguistic manifestations* (pp. 89-124). New Delhi: Sage.
- [7] Annamalai, E. (2004). Medium of power: The question of English in education in India. In J. Tollefson & A. B.M. Tsui (Eds.), *Medium of instruction policies – Which agenda? Whose agenda?* (pp. 177-194). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- [8] Banu, R., & Sussex, R. (2001). Code-switching in Bangladesh. *English Today*, 17(02), 51-61.
- [9] Banu, R., & Sussex, R. (2001). *English in Bangladesh after independence: Dynamics of policy and practice*. Oxford University Press.Oxford.
- [10] Banu, Rahela and Roland Sussex. (1999). 'English in Bangladesh after independence: dynamics of policy and practice.' Paper presented at the Conference on Colonial Englishes, Australian National University, October 1999. To be published in the conference proceedings by the Oxford University Press.
- [11] Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a Global Language*. 2nd edition. Cambridge: University Press.
- [12] Dakin, J. (1968). 'Language and education in India', in J. Dakin, B. Tiffen & H.G. Widdowson (eds.), *The Language in Education: The Problem in Common Wealth Africa and the Indo-Pakistan Subcontinent*, Oxford University Press, London, 1–61.
- [13] Dill.S. (1966). *The position and Teaching of English in Pakistan*. Pakistani Linguistics Series (Sahidullah Presentation Volume) Linguistics Research Group of Pakistan, Lahore.
- [14] Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education(DSHE). (2004). Evaluation report of ELTIP: phase -2. (Memo no. 39722/10-GA). Dhaka: Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education.
- [15] Dove, L. A. (1983). Education policy in Bangladesh1978-81: Promise and performance in political perspective. *Comparative Education*, 19(1), 73-88.
- [16] Dutta, S. K. (2001). English Language and literature in Bangladesh: Towards a methodology. In Alam.F., Zaman, N. &T. Ahmed (Eds.) 2001. *Revisioning English in Bangladesh* (pp. 123-140). Dhaka: University Press.
- [17] Education in Bangladesh. (1972). Ministry of Education, Dhaka.
- [18] Government of Bangladesh. (1994). *The constitution of the People's Republic of Bangladesh*. Amendment upto (1994). New Al-Jalaj Book Agency, Dhaka.
- [19] Hoque, M. E. (2008). M. Phil. in English Language (Applied Linguistics and ELT) (Doctoral dissertation, Jahangirnagar University).
- [20] Hoque, M. S. (1997). *English Language Teaching and Learning in Bangladesh*. Bangladesh Open University.
- [21] Hoque, M.E. (2008). *English Language Teaching and Learning at the Alim Level in the Madrashes in Bangladesh: Problems and Possible Solutions*. Unpublished M.Phil. Thesis. Dhaka: Jahagirnagar University.
- [22] Hossain, T., & Tollefson, J.W. (2007). Language policy in education in Bangladesh in Tollefson & A. B. M. Tsui (Eds.), *Language policy, culture and identity in Asian contexts* (pp. 241-257). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- [23] "http://www.worldometers.info/world-population/bangladesh-population/ Retrieved on February1st, 2002".
- [24] Kachru, Braj. B. (1978). Code-mixing as communicative strategy: In *International Dimension of English education* (ed.) James E. Alatis. George Town University Press.
- [25] Kachru, Braj.B. (1983). *The Indianization of English: The English Language in India*. Delhi. Oxford University Press.
- [26] Kachru, Braj.B. (1985). 'Standards, Codification and Socio-linguistic Realism; the English Language in Outer Circle; in Quirk and Widdowson (eds.) *English in the World*, pp.11-30.
- [27] Kachru, Braj.B. (1992). 'World Englishes and Applied Linguistics' in Koul, Omkar N.(ed.) Creative New Delhi.
- [28] Khatun, Sharifa. (1992). *Development of Primary Education policy in Bangladesh*. University of Dhaka, Dhaka.
- [29] Laird, M. A. (1972). *Missionaries and education in Bengal, 1793-1837*. Oxford University Press. Oxford.
- [30] Mahathir, M. (1999). *A new deal for Asia*. Petaling Jaya, Selangor: Pelanduk Publications.
- [31] Malak, M. S. (2013). *Inclusive Education in Bangladesh: Are Pre-service Teachers Ready to Accept Students with Special*

- Educational Needs in Regular Classes? *Disability, CBR & Inclusive Development*, 24(1). <https://doi.org/10.5463/dcid.v24i1.191>.
- [32] Malak, S., Begum, H. A., Habib, A., Shaila, M., & Moninoor, M. (2013). Inclusive Education in Bangladesh: Policy and Practice. *Joint AARE Conference, Adelaide*, 1–15.
- [33] Ministry of Education (1997). Kurd-at-e-Khuda commission report [National Education Commission Report]. Dhaka: Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh.
- [34] Ministry of Education (1997). National education policy 1998. Dhaka: Ministry of Education.
- [35] Nical, I., Smolicz, J. J., & Secombe, M. J. (2004). Rural students and the Philippine bilingual education program on the island of Leyte. *Medium of instruction policies-which agenda? Whose agenda*, 153-176.
- [36] Pakir, A. (2004). Medium of instruction policy in Singapore. In J. Tollefson & A.B.M. Tsui (Eds.), *Medium of instruction policies – Which agenda? Whose agenda?* (pp. 177-194). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- [37] Rahman, A. (2007). The history and policy of English education in Bangladesh. In Y.H. Choi and B. Spolsky, (Eds.), *English education in Asia: History and policies* (pp. 67-93). Seoul: Asia TEFL.
- [38] Rahman, A. M. M. H. (1999). English language teaching in Bangladesh: Diadactics on the pragmatics of a language teaching policy. In T. Hunter (ed.), *Collected papers of the international conference on national and regional issues in English language teaching: International perspectives* (pp. 5-32). Dhaka: British council.
- [39] Rahman, M. H. (2004). An evaluation of the teaching of reading skills of English in Bangladesh. Master in English. Retrieved July 10, 2018 from <http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/Thesis/Thesis-Rahman.pdf/>.
- [40] Rehman, Tariq. (1999). Language Education and Culture. Oxford: University Press
- [41] Rumnaz Imam, S. (2005). English as a global language and the question of nation - building education in Bangladesh. *Comparative Education*, 41(4), 471-486.
- [42] Salam, A.K.M. (1956). Improvement in Secondary Education. Published by Mrs. Akikan Nessa Khatoun. University Press Ltd. Dhaka.
- [43] Sattar, E. (1982). Universal primary education in Bangladesh. University Press. Dhaka.
- [44] Selim, A., & Mahboob, T.S. (2001). ELT and English Language Teachers of Bangladesh: A profile. *Revisioning English in Bangladesh*. Alam, F., Zaman, N., & Ahmed, T. (Eds.). University Press. Dhaka.
- [45] Sinha, B. S. (2001). English phobia in our schools and colleges. A.Alam, N.Zaman., &T.Ahmed (Eds.). *Revisioning English in Bangladesh* (pp. 169-175). Dhaka: The University Press.
- [46] Sridhar, S.N. (2008). Language contact and convergence in South Asia. In Kachru, B.B., Kachru, Y. & Sridhar, S.N.(Eds.).2008. *Language in South Asia*. (pp.237). Cambridge: University Press.
- [47] Statistics, B. B. O. (2011). Statistical Yearbook of Bangladesh. Statistics Division, Ministry of Planning, Dhaka, Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh.
- [48] Sultana, S. (2012). Problematising the popular discourses about language and identity of young adults in bangladesh. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature*, 18(4), 49–63.
- [49] The daily Observer (2002, February1). Opposition indispensable part of Govt. Retrieved February 1, 2002, from <http://www.Bangladeshobserveronline.com/new/2005/09/01/index.html>.
- [50] University Grants Commission. (2016). Annual Report 2014 (part-1-2). Dhaka: UGC. August 4, 2018, from <http://www.ugc.gov.bd/en/home/downloadfile/24>.

Mohammad Nurul Islam is a research scholar in the field of Varieties of English, Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya, Malaysia. Moreover, he is an Assistant Professor in ELT, currently working in the Department of English, Faculty of Languages and Translation at King Khalid University, Abha, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. He has been teaching ELT and ESP at the tertiary level more than a decade. His research interests include: ELT, ESP, and language testing. He has published many articles in professional refereed journals.

Azirah Hashim is a Professor at the Department of English Language, Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya, Malaysia. Moreover, she is an Executive Director, Asia-Europe Institute (AEI) and Director, Centre for ASEAN Regionalism (CARUM), University of Malaya 50603, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. She is the Vice President of International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA).

Filipino English Teachers in Japan: “Nonnativeness” and the Teaching and Learning of English

Nelia G. Balgoa

Department of English, Mindanao State University-Iligan Institute of Technology, Philippines

Abstract—A feature of the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program, which aims to internationalize Japan and to improve the English-speaking ability of its students, is the hiring of Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) who are described by the Japanese government as native-level speakers of English working in Japanese classrooms. By using critical applied linguistics which focuses on questions of power, difference, access and domination in the use of the English language (Pennycook, 2001), this paper examines the motivations of the Filipino teachers as ALTs, the processes of international teacher recruitment and how their 'nonnativeness' reconfigure their identity as nonnative English speaker teachers (NNESTs) and Filipino migrants. Data from in-depth interviews and focus group discussions of Filipino ALTs and Japanese teachers show that English is both motivation and vehicle for migration and settlement for the Filipino teachers. “Nonnativeness” requires from them reconfiguration of their identity which entails them to sound native, counteract perceived forms of discrimination and assess their roles in the spread and use of English. This “nonnativeness” is a repudiation of their skills and qualifications as English teachers thus, paving the way for an interrogation of language ideologies, and of linguistic and racial identities.

Index Terms—nativeness, Filipino migration, English language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

The teaching and learning of English has never been a contentious discourse in the field of social science because of the need of the globalized world to communicate. The academic terms, “lingua franca”, “international language”, “world language” have been used to describe the crucial role of the English language in terms of reach, usage and influence. These concepts emerged from studies and approaches of scholars, practitioners and academicians who immersed themselves in the study of the language, from its development, structure, usage and applicability. The field of applied linguistics for example, has focused, over the years, especially in developing and former colonized countries, to the policies and pedagogy in the teaching of the language. In multilingual societies, particularly where English is the second language, code mixing, code switching and translation studies have shown the complexities and issues of communication and language studies. Postcolonial studies view English as a continuing consequence of Western domination, imperialism and neoimperialism influencing the world view, culture and the social and political conditions of former colonies.

A much important issue in the study of English is its global spread. Kachru’s (1992) World Englishes (WE) has dominated the discussion in the past twenty years, problematizing the way varieties of English and the norms of correctness and standardization is approached and viewed. Critics of Kachru’s Three-Circle Model of WE argue that it has failed to address the other factors such as the dynamics of power, accessibility and inequality in the spread of language (Bruthiaux, 2003; Pennycook, 2017). Moreover, the model is often associated with operating along national and class lines such that it has failed to address the gaps and in-betweens between circles (Martin, 2014).

English as a lingua franca (ELF) is a more recent approach to the spread of English. In ELF, English is viewed as “the common language, a meeting ground” when non-native speakers of English communicate. Like the World Englishes paradigm, it interrogates varieties of English which emerge and develop from multilingual societies. ELF challenges deeply entrenched notions of what is standard, correct English by focusing on the use of English in local, specific contexts. Moreover, it questions the appropriateness of the native speaker (NS) model in countries where English is considered as a second language rather than a foreign language. It broadens the scope of the WE English by considering the local varieties of English not represented in the circles.

The spread of English globally and its use as ELF has been the precursor of countries in the outer circle of Kachru’s model to institutionalize the learning and teaching of English. Countries like Japan, in order to be at par with other highly developed countries and to “internationalize” its citizenship, mandated the learning of English in its educational system more aggressively. In 2001, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) implemented the “Rainbow Plan”, an educational reform for the 21st century. This plan made compulsory the learning of English in starting in elementary level, making it much earlier than previously requiring it in the junior high school.

In order to facilitate this reform, the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program was conceived in 1987 to promote international exchange and language education between Japan and other nations. It was established by local authorities, MEXT, and the Ministries of Internal Affairs and Communication and Foreign Affairs. According to McRostie (2017) with nearly 65,000 people from 65 countries participating since its modest start, the program has grown into one of the world's largest international exchange programs. Its goal is to promote international understanding through English programs and it is the hope of the participating Japanese government agencies that the students will then carry what they learned in school to their adult lives, thereby benefiting the country as a whole (Ohtani, 2010).

One of the main features of the JET Program is the hiring of Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) who will assist Japanese English teachers in their classrooms and in the supervision of their English classes. In addition, JET dispatches ALTs to public elementary and high schools in local communities. This aggressive move made by the Japanese government aims to make their students functional in English in five years (Ohtani, 2010) through exposing Japanese students to an English-speaking environment and for the ALTs to provide expertise in terms of language proficiency to Japanese teachers.

Although it was specified by the screening committee, the Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR), that ALTs must be native speakers, a great number ALTs are Filipino teachers, hired through recruiting agencies or directly by the Board of Education of Japan. This reveals that the concept of *nativeness* and the spread and teaching of English is a highly complex phenomenon, often connected to cultural, political and ideological forces. The binary opposition of nativeness/nonnativeness within the context of English language and learning in Japan is made possible and apparent within the hiring of Filipino teachers who participate in the dynamics of international migration and the spread of English in this highly globalized world.

This paper therefore is an attempt to explore and analyze the motivations of the Filipino teachers to migrate and teach English in Japan and how their “nonnativeness” shapes and reshapes their identity as nonnative English speaker teachers (NNESTs) and Filipino migrants in Japan thereby providing evidence that the spread of English, its learning and teaching is very much influenced by market demand, desires, ideological forces and international migration.

II. CRITICAL THEORY

According to Pennycook (1998, 2017), the spread of English cannot be disassociated and understood without considering the cultural, political and ideological forces which shape its development. This argument stems from his criticisms on the WE and ELF models which, according to him failed to address the fundamental questions of power and inequality. Rejecting the necessity of understanding historical imperialism as a prerequisite in understanding the domination of English, Pennycook rather argues that English is embedded in economic desires and that the demand for the language is part of a larger picture of change, globalization, access and longing, the last being a consequence of postcolonial ethos highly influenced by the movement of people across nation states.

The idea of nativeness within English Language Teaching (ELT) domains and disciplines interrogates the notion of “correct”, “standard” English. This has become more debatable as within the context of international migration, making societies and cultures multidimensional and multilingual. Contrary to what Jenkins (2006) claims, that the ELF paradigm does not subscribe to a single, monolithic English but proposes that participants of communication processes be equipped with linguistic repertoire for use which is intelligible and appropriate for English users who come from various language orientation and background, other language scholars argue that nativeness brings it with it a discourse of exclusion, discrimination or even rationalization for interventions (Pennycook, 1998; Kabel, 2009). This becomes more apparent as the need for English has become a global market, with the demand for teachers increasing and thus there is a divide between native-English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native-English-speaking teachers (NNESTs). This makes the teaching and learning of English not only a question of language studies but how this intersects with the notion of race and identity.

Holliday (2006) defines native-speakerism as pervasive ideology that places the native speaker as the source of “Western culture” and therefore brings into fore the question of inequalities in English Language Teaching (ELT). He elucidates this further by claiming that native-speakerism trivializes the abilities of NNESTs and students to adequately respond to and be engaged in classroom activities which is patterned after Western pedagogies (Kusaka, 2013). This ideology does not acknowledge the cultural background of a teacher or student as a re/source of learning and knowledge.

Within this context, this article takes into consideration the Filipino ALTs in Japan, and argues that their experiences as migrants and English teachers in a country where English is taught as a foreign language, and where the need for it is not for domestic consumption but rather for internationalization (Kobayashi, 2007), reflect what Pennycook claims that the global spread of English is not neutral nor given but rather an interplay of power and people's desires and dreams. In this context, the Filipino ALTs and how they reconfigure their identity as migrants and NNESTs in Japan is part of political and cultural practice and an examination of their roles as agents in the spread of English and its political implications.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Data Collection

Data from this research were gathered through in-depth interviews of 18 Filipino ALTs who worked in various public and elementary high schools in various areas of Japan. Two focus group discussions were conducted in Oyama City, Tochigi Prefecture, and were participated in by three ALTs in each session.

Interviews were conducted mostly in English, with ALTs switching to Filipino in most cases and lasted from 40 minutes to one hour and a half. They also code mixed with Japanese especially for words which they deemed have no English or Japanese equivalents. The interviews started with basic questions such as age, marital status, educational background, their length of stay in Japan so as to get the profiles of the informants. The overarching questions of the interview pertained to the following:

1. The processes of their entries to Japan and their reasons and motivations of becoming ALTs;
2. The challenges and hardships of being NNESTs in Japan and
3. Their opinions on the strengths and weaknesses of English learning and teaching in Japan.

A detailed questionnaire, which extracts their impressions of Filipino ALTs as NNESTs, was also distributed to four Japanese supervisors. The researcher was not able to observe classes but was able to watch a video of a class demonstration of one of the informants during a Board of Education visit to his school.

B. The Informants

Of the 18 Filipino ALTs that were interviewed, nine taught in high school and one of them was promoted to a supervisory level. Nine others taught in elementary level at the time of the interview. One, after follow up interviews transferred to high school. Of these 18, four entered Japan on student visa (all Japanese Government scholars), five as Japanese descendants, two on Japanese spouse visa, three on working visa, one on entertainment visa, two on working visa and one on missionary visa.

The informants have been ALTs on an average of 3-6 years; one informant has just taught for a year in an elementary school at the time of the interview while two has been an ALT for 8-10 years. Six of them come from Mindanao and the rest consider Luzon as their home. Eight of the informants teach in public schools in Tochigi, four in Osaka, three in Nagoya, two in Osaka and one in Kobe.

Of the Japanese supervisors who were interviewed, one is already retired and the three are in their 40s. Three claimed that they are better in Japanese than in English while one said he is "quite" proficient. Three supervisors answered the questionnaire in Japanese while one answered it in English.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. The Filipino ALTs in Japan

ALTs are considered to be cultural ambassadors and are to promote internationalization and cultural exchange in the grassroots level. As part of the Japan Exchange Teaching Program, they are expected to assist in classes taught by Japanese Teachers of English (JET) and in the preparation of teaching materials and participate in extra-curricular activities with students.

As of 2017, there are 5,044 ALTs in Japan from 66 countries. Of this number, 87 are Filipinos. For the year 2018, 40 Filipinos were accepted in the program. The ALTs' contract is usually for one year which then can be renewed for five years.

In its inception, the JET Program is the main source of ALTs in Japan. The program is usually facilitated by the embassies of Japan in participating countries, where upon acceptance, they undergo pre-departure orientation and seminar and observe and visit classes in Japanese Embassy attached schools. Participating local governments of Japan cover the salaries and airfare of the ALTs but with the increasing expenses entailed by the program, the local governments have shifted to private and outsource companies to hire and dispatch ALTs to their respective areas. Since the Philippines joined the JET Program only in 2013, all Filipino ALTs interviewed except for two went through the second process, since all of them entered Japan in different visa categories and applying for ALT was an option to extend their stay in Japan legally. Since most of them have stayed for more than 5 years in Japan, their reapplication process is through dispatch companies or to the local Board of Education of Japan.

Not all Filipino ALTs have teaching degrees and experience and this is also true for ALTs from other countries. Browne as cited by Ohtani (2010) claims that the JET program is fraught with inadequacies and one of these is the poor eligibility criteria in terms of educational and pedagogical background of the hired teachers. Insufficient training and inadequate preparation of the teachers were also cited by Ohtani (2010) as problems encountered in the implementation of the said program.

Of the 18 ALTs interviewed in this study, only six have a background in teaching, having taught in high schools, kindergarten schools and in university before going to Japan but none have background in teaching English either as a second language or foreign language. One is not even a high school graduate but claimed to have become proficient in the language through constant practice and interaction with English speaking acquaintances and friends.

¹ Retrieved. From <http://jetprogramme.org/en/countries/>. This number pertains to ALTs who applied through the JET program and does not include the ALTs dispatched through the local Boards of Education and private companies.

B. Filipino ALTs as Migrants: Economics, Not Internationalization

The JET program was conceived to promote mutual understanding between Japan and other nations through foreign language education and foreign exchange at the community level. Participants of the said program were expected to be actively engaged in activities that promote internationalization and cultural exchange.

None of these was in the minds and aspirations of the Filipino ALTs when they applied for the position. Validating previous studies on the push factors on why Filipinos migrate, the informants expressed that their motivations for becoming ALTs in Japan is for economic reasons. Dennis², for example, is a head teacher dispatched by a big private company in high schools in Kobe area. As head teacher, he monitors other ALTs and reports directly to the company. He arrived in Japan as a researcher for a private company but when his contract ended and he still had two years remaining in his visa, his Japanese-Canadian friend encouraged him to apply as an ALT. Although he had taught Biology in a state university in the Philippines before coming to Japan, he considered himself inexperienced in teaching English. Dennis attributes his promotion to being a head teacher to his performance and his ability to get along well with others.

Two female informants, who are married to Japanese men, consider being ALTs as a strategy to be highly regarded by the Japanese society and their families. Aware that Filipino women are stereotyped as entertainers and domestic helpers in the country, Bea sees teaching English as an opportunity to improve her worth in the eyes of her family, especially her children. According to her, since English is much valued in Japan, being an ALT allows her to reconfigure her identity as a Filipino migrant married to a Japanese man in such a way that she becomes more valued by her children and her husband and gives her an upward social mobility in terms of social acceptance and financial gains. The same is true with Dency, who used to teach history classes in high schools in the Philippines before she met her Japanese husband and then migrated to Japan. After three years, she worked as a part-time teacher in a cram school and then applied as an ALT through the Board of Education. Being an ALT, according to Dency, allows her to be financially independent and help her family back in the Philippines and she “can hold her head high” among the relatives of her husband because “she is not the usual Filipina who came to Japan.”

Dency and Bea’s experiences are manifestations of what Fuwa and Anderson (2005) call “agency”, which is the ability to make choices and become an active member of the society. English, in this sense, is a strategy for these two ALTs to exercise their agency and an attempt to assimilate into the Japanese society and in the process rectify the common stereotypes often attributed to Filipino women.

Pennycook’s argument that English as an embodiment of longing and economic desires propelled by globalization is very much evident in the four ALTs that were interviewed. Three of them entered Japan as Japanese Government scholars and are therefore considered to be highly skilled and educated individuals. When their scholarships ended, they were resolute in staying in Japan, find a job in order to help their families in the Philippines. Leslie, for example, has a PhD degree in Technology from one of the best universities in Japan and yet had difficulties in being accepted in Japanese companies. Her last option was to be an ALT, a job which she considers as “not really aligned with her educational attainment yet decent enough” not to disappoint herself and her family. Lourd and Irish were both public school teachers in the Philippines but decided to resign from their jobs after their scholarships and applied to be ALTs. According to them, the economic gains make up for the loneliness of being away from their families. All have substantial economic investments in the Philippines made possible by their being ALTs.

The three consider English as their economic capital as Filipino migrants in Japan. Within the ALT working system however they have to reconfigure their aspirations and dreams as befitting their motivations in coming to Japan. Leslie, who has a PhD degree, considers being an ALT as “settling” because she could not find a space in IT companies while Lourd and Irish, both stable and recognized teachers in high schools back in the Philippines have to deal with the uncertainty whether their contracts will be renewed every year. But for these ALTs, their English proficiency allow them to “settle” lowering their expectations but at the same time making them feel empowered migrants in Japan because according to Lourd “at least we are not entertainers or domestic helpers”.

Helen and Ivie’s motivation in going to Japan is not their aspirations but those of their parents who entered Japan as ‘nikkei jin’ or of second generation Japanese descent. Both girls studied in one of the best private universities in the Philippines, which they claim was made possible because of their parents’ work in Japan. When they graduated, their parents wanted them to come and join them in the country and find jobs. Their parents’ friends introduced the idea of being ALTs and they applied in the Japanese Embassy in the Philippines when they heard it was accepting applications. Not having enough teaching experience, they admitted having difficulty in adjusting to the profession especially with the language barrier and different culture, but they are convinced that as Filipino university graduates and with their proficiency in the English language, they are much better than other ALTs.

The experiences of the Filipino ALTs interviewed reflect not only their motivations of becoming English teachers but also how the language becomes an economic capital, an exercise of agency and an expression of longing and desires of migrants who need to reconfigure their identities and aspirations to be able to conform with the social expectations not only from their families in the Philippines but also how they can break away from the stereotyped notions of what Filipino migrants are perceived to be in Japan. In this sense, English and the ALT program of Japan reflects the

² No real names are used to ensure privacy.

interplay between the processes of international migration and the spread of English, revealing incongruences of goals between the Filipino ALTs and the program.

C. Filipino ALTs as Nonnative-English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs): Nonnativeness in English Teaching and Learning

The Philippines prides itself of being an English-speaking country. Inherited from the colonization of the United States, English became one of the official languages and modes of instruction in all educational levels. English is fully entrenched in the way of life of most Filipinos; it is considered as a status symbol, the language of the educated. It is the language used in domains of communication that involves power and prestige (Bernardo, 2008). In most social and political institutions that affect and define the conduct of affairs and perspectives of the people, English is the language used. In the discourse of national identity and nationalism, English and its implications is still a wedge that divides the regions of the country, the socio-economic condition of its people and the fate of local languages. Despite a number of legislations and debate among scholars and government officials on the use of the English language, it is still, at this point in time, a potent tool for communication and a persistence presence in the educational system and the lives of millions of Filipinos.

An indication of this is the emphasis on the need of students to gain proficiency in English in order to be globally competitive. As a migrant sending country, the Philippines relies heavily on the remittances of the Filipinos working abroad to keep its economy afloat. Thus, English is seen as a distinct advantage for most Filipinos who hope to migrate and seek for opportunities outside the country.

Japan, and its need to internationalize, is seen then as a market and opportunity for highly educated, highly proficient in English Filipino migrants. It is also a country known for its predilection to learning the native and standard English and avoidance of varieties of English (Honma and Takeshita, 1998). This propensity and this essentialist view towards English by the Japanese populace, especially in education, has created this wide divide between native and nonnative teachers. San Jose and Ballescas (2010) in their study of 14 Filipino ALTs dispatched to different parts of the country, pointed out that one of the challenges and burdens faced by Filipino ALTs is not being considered as “native speakers” and of having “Asian accents”. Thus, for the Filipino ALTs in this study, the workplace can be fraught with obstacles, hardships, adjustments and to a certain extent discrimination, which they attributed to a different education system and culture and largely to the fact that they are nonnative speakers of the language.

Studies on nonnative-English speaking teachers in Japan (NNESTs) are mostly phenomenological in approach; that is these are often reflective writings and emphasize mostly the personal experiences of ALTs themselves who are NNESTs (Muljadi, 2016; McRostie, 2017). San Jose and Ballescas (2010) also studied Filipino ALTs and their roles in promoting multiculturalism within and outside their classrooms. There is dearth of studies of placing these experiences in a wider political and social context and in the process understanding the ALT program and how the teaching and learning of English becomes a byproduct of the complexities of globalization and power relations affecting language use and teaching.

Accent is the most visible and discernible indication of nativeness and/or nonnativeness. Accent constructs identity; it can exclude or include a speaker in a speech community. For all informants, accent is one indicator which can be manipulated and, in the process, allow them to reconfigure their identity. Ike, a 42-year old ALT who used to work in a non-government organization in the Philippines puts extra and conscious effort to sound American when teaching in Japanese classrooms. The reason according to him:

There are difficulties. They (Japanese teachers) were commenting on the accent. There were Japanese teachers concerned on the accent, trying to compare Asian accent and the native accent. I think we experienced being criticized for our Filipino English. Because there is a distinct, we have grammatical loopholes in English. When we make mistake, they say, “Is that how you say it in the Philippines?” I say, yes, that’s how we say it in the Philippines.

Mihai, a 26-year old Filipino ALT of Japanese descent assigned in an elementary school in Kobe also feels the same way. For her, native speakers are more fortunate because they do not have to “practice” the language. According to her, for the native speakers, “It’s in their blood, it’s natural”. Mihai realized that being nonnative is considered an inadequacy when she was corrected by the Japanese English Teacher (JET) which she assisted in front of the students and the students laughed. From there on, she would study the lessons ahead of time, practice the words to be taught repeatedly in front of a mirror and watched numerous Youtube videos for tutorial.

All informants expressed a certain pride and superiority when a Japanese teacher or student or even parents would comment that they sound American. Dennis, the only supervisor among the ALTs interviewed, said he did not have difficulty in acquiring the American accent since he grew up speaking and using the language and considers it to be his first language. According to him, many native speakers and Japanese alike are surprised that he is a Filipino because of his accent. He sees nothing wrong should the Japanese school system demand that they sound native since according to him, this is to “make them sound legitimate and competent”. This is echoed by Ike who said that it is just proper to sound native in front of the students. Irish said that to sound native is their choice, so that they will be more convincing and believable. Leslie said it is not required by their schools nor the dispatch companies but she pressures herself to sound native so that students will respect her more.

Although the Filipino ALTs consider “to sound native” as a problem, they do not believe, however, that this is a form of discrimination. Since accent can be acquired and learned, they believe that this can be surmounted. For them, accent is

an achievable skill which they can reconfigure to be considered as native speakers which is more acceptable to their students and colleagues than their teaching qualifications and experience. They are convinced that native accent is a social capital and attribute which they can fully utilize to further their career.

The Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR), the body which screens and implements the JET Program specifies that ALTs must be native speakers. The Board of Education of Japan, however, according to the informants, does not have a policy that all NNESTs should sound American in the classroom. This is validated by the three supervisors who were interviewed. These Japanese supervisors agreed that “nativeness” does not necessarily equate with being good a teacher just as “nonnativeness” means being a bad teacher. They also do not believe that students learn better from native English-speaking teachers (NEST) than NNESTs. What the supervisors expect from the nonnative speakers ALTs are clear pronunciation, correct grammar and good classroom management. They do agree however, that strong accent can be a problem since “strong accent means pronunciation problems”. On one hand, the supervisors recommend that NNESTs should learn the Japanese language in order to communicate better with the Japanese students and teachers.

According to Lourd and Dennis, ALTs are required to learn basic Japanese. Other informants agreed that Japanese proficiency is important especially if they are assigned in elementary schools where the English proficiency of the students is very low or almost zero. However, according to Lourd, translations of the lessons from English of Japanese are usually done by the Japanese homeroom teacher. Although ALTs are allowed to use Japanese in the classrooms, they are not encouraged to do so. Dennis stressed that he uses Japanese as a last resort to make the students understand the lesson and to make the classroom livelier and more fun.

Postcolonial studies would attribute these views and perspectives to mimicry; the desire of the colonized to emulate the practices and cultural beliefs, including language of the colonizers. Because English in its standard varieties is seen as elusive, the belief that to sound native is an after effect, an ambivalent and impure colonial desire of longing to belong (Bhaba, 1994). Thus, Filipino ALTs see no problem in being pressured to sound native in the teaching of English in Japan where the long-held notion of nativeness and correctness is to sound American because it is the only way to be accepted and recognized in the system.

D. Working Environment and “Nonnativeness”

A number of informants share the view that the emphasis on their “nonnativeness” stem from their coworkers who are native speakers. This “othering” and the judging of performance based on the dichotomy of nativeness/nonnativeness is felt by Filipino ALTs around their NESTs colleagues. Irish and Lourd consider this treatment as discrimination.

They (NESTs) would correct our pronunciation or word use in front of other teachers. Their gestures, the way they talk, even blaming us for problems which are not our fault...it’s really discrimination...

Lourd has also a similar experience. In a team teaching with a NEST, he was told to shut up in front of others during a meeting and during activities. This NEST would also correct his pronunciation and articulation of words. Irish, the ALT who has a PhD degree, agrees that this can happen sometimes. For her, it is important to counter this discrimination by working better and harder. This is also shared by other informants who claim that the advantage of Filipino ALTs over NESTs is their work habits and attitudes. These include coming to class early, working overtime when they think it is necessary and without being asked to do so, volunteering in sports activities, maintaining a cordial relationship with students, parents and coworkers. Lourd, who has been a victim of gossip from NESTs, which according to him is because of jealousy because he is the favorite of Japanese teachers and students, said that the real strength of Filipino ALTs is the drive to earn for their family. While NESTs see the ALT program as a pastime and a diversion from their lives in their countries of origin, the Filipino ALTs consider their teaching as a respectable profession and an opportunity to make their and their family lives’ in the Philippines much better. He added that NESTs are only accepted as ALTs because they are native speakers.

These strategies of countering discrimination may have worked and made an impression to JETs. Although Filipino ALTs may need to improve on their grammar and pronunciation, the Japanese supervisors interviewed attest that they are very good in classroom management, interpersonal communication with their colleagues and student motivation. According to one of the Japanese teachers who answered the detailed questionnaire:

They (Filipino ALTs) are able to understand the characteristics of Japanese, they fit the demands here. They are extremely thorough. They adapt to the educational strategy and method here. They also provide specific support for/of Japanese teachers of English language, such as scoring tests, preparing teaching materials, and practicing speech.

Likewise, they can be highly dependable and creative in handling their classes. Thus, this counter discrimination acts by ALTs can be seen as a strategy to be accepted in the work place and to reconfigure their notions of what it means to be a teacher within the domain of the ALT system.

More importantly, frustrations can be gleaned from the Filipino ALTs on how English teaching and learning program is being implemented in Japan. They believe that the JET Program may be effective in its internationalization efforts but not in developing the intercultural competence and the language proficiency of the Japanese students. Seen from the perspective of a people who have imbibed the language and made it part of their daily communication, the Filipino ALTs agree that the Japanese educational system should create more opportunities for students to use English, emphasize to them the need for English proficiency and loosen its fixation on sounding like native speakers. What is

more frustrating for them is that these views do not have any influence on how the program is implemented since their tasks and roles as ALTs are already clearly defined.

These adjustments and exerting more efforts on the part of Filipino ALTs to make up for their nonnativeness repudiate their contributions and qualifications as NNESTs. The focus on nativeness in teaching English as a foreign language trivializes their abilities, fosters discrimination and to a certain extent unfair work practices.

V. CONCLUSION

The dichotomy of nativeness/nonnativeness in the teaching and learning of English in Japan brings forth the socio-political implications of the JET Program, its inadequacies and how the processes of globalization intersects and influences the spread, particularly, the teaching and learning of English.

Nonnativeness therefore, within the context of Filipino ALTs in Japan is a reconfiguration of identity and a fulfillment of desires and longing tied to language use and power. These require NNESTs to sound native, to put extra effort of work, face and counteract perceived forms of discrimination in order to be accepted in the work system imposed on them by the host country. Contrary to what the program aims, the Filipino ALTs do not feel empowered to help in the internationalization of Japan nor spread the use of English in the country. Despite the fact that their motivations to become ALTs hinge largely on economic gains and social mobility, the Filipino ALTs are aware of their responsibilities as teachers in a country that is not so receptive to the use of the language. However, they are limited and constrained by the Japanese ideological view on nativeness, thus repudiating their roles as teachers and precursors of the spread and use of the English language in Japan. Their experiences, particularly as ALTs and NNESTs pave the way for the interrogation of language ideologies such as nativeness and how it affirms Pennycook's claim that language learning, particularly English, is an intersectionality of the forces of globalization, local contexts and postcolonial ethos such as longing, desire and acceptance.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to thank Sumitomo Foundation of Tokyo, Japan for the financial support in the conduct of this study and to the Filipino ALTs for their time and trust.

REFERENCES

- [1] Bhabha, H. (1994). *The location of culture*. New York: Routledge.
- [2] Ballescas, C. (2009). Filipino ALTs in Japan. *Philippine Star*. <https://www.philstar.com/opinion/2010/10/14/620500/filipino-alt-japan> (accessed 01/10/2018)
- [3] Bernardo, A. (2008). English in Philippine education: Solution or problem. https://www.academia.edu/2323946/English_in_Philippine_education_Solution_or_problem?auto=download (accessed 02/10/2018).
- [4] Bruthiaux, P. (2003). Squaring the circles: issues in modeling English worldwide. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 13.2, 159-178.
- [5] Holliday, A. (2006). Native speakerism. *ELT Journal* 60.1, 385-387.
- [6] Honna, N. & Takeshita, Y. (1998). On Japan's propensity for native speaker English: A change in sight. *Asian Englishes* 1.1, 117-134.
- [7] Kabel, A. (2008). Native-speakerism, stereotyping and the collusion of applied linguistics. *System* 37, 12-22.
- [8] Kachru, B. (1991). World Englishes and Applied Linguistics. In Tickoo, Makhan., Eds. *Languages and Standards: Issues, Attitudes, Case Studies*, 178-195.
- [9] Kaur, P. (2013). Attitudes towards English as a Lingua Franca. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 118, 214 – 221.
- [10] Kobayashi, Y. (2001). The learning of English at academic high schools in Japan: Students caught between exams and internationalization. *Language Learning Journal* 23, 67-62.
- [11] Hayes, D. (2008). Non-native English-speaking teachers, context and English language teaching. *System* 37, 1-11.
- [12] Jenkins, J. (2006). Current Perspectives on Teaching World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca. *TESOL Quarterly* 40. 1, 157-181.
- [13] Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a Lingua Franca: attitude and identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [14] Martin, I. (2014). Philippine English revisited. *World Englishes* 33.1, 50-59.
- [15] McRostie, J. (2017). As Japan's JET Programme hits its 30s, the jury's still out. *Japan Times*. <https://www.japantimes.co.jp/community/2017/05/03/issues/japans-jet-programme-hits-30s-jurys-still/#.W8KU2i2B2JI> (accessed 01/10/2018).
- [16] McWhorter, J. (2015). How immigration changes language: The invention of new ways of speaking is one surprising consequence of migration to Europe. *The Atlantic* <https://www.theatlantic.com/international/archive/2015/12/language-immigrants-multiethnolect/420285/> (accessed 14/12/2017).
- [17] Mesthrie, R. (2010). New Englishes and the native speaker debate. *Language Sciences*, 32, 594-601.
- [18] Moussu, L and. Llurda, E. (2008). Non-native English speaking English language teachers: History and Research. *Language Teaching Cambridge* 41.3, 315-348.
- [19] Ohtani, C. (2010). Problems in the Assistant language teacher system and English activity at Japanese Public elementary schools. *Educational Perspectives* 43.1.2, 57-86.
- [20] Pennycook, A. (2017). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. New York: Routledge.

- [21] Pennycook, A. (1998). *English and the discourses of colonialism*. London: Routledge.
- [22] San Jose, B. & M.R. Ballecas. (2010). Engaging multiculturalism from below: The case of Filipino ALTs in Japan. *Journal of Asian Studies for Intellectual Collaboration*, 162-178.
- [23] Scholefield, W. (1996). What do JTEs really want? Swenson, Tamara. Ed. *Japan Association for Language Teaching* 18.2, 7-26.
- [24] Solano-Campos, A. (2014). The making of an international educator: Transnationalism and Nonnativeness in English teaching and learning. *TESOL Journal*, 5.3, 412-439.
- [25] Sponseller, A. (2016). Role Perceptions of JTEs and ALTs engaged in team teaching in Japan. https://ir.lib.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/files/public/4/42781/20170419113008205309/HiroshimaJSchEduc_23_123.pdf (accessed 30/06/2018).
- [26] The Japan and Exchange Teaching Programme. <http://jetprogramme.org/en/positions/> (accessed 01/10/2018).

Nelia G. Balgoa. Doctor in Human Sciences (2011) from the School of Human Sciences of Osaka University, Osaka, Japan. MA(2002) in Language and Culture from Osaka University of Foreign Studies, Osaka, Japan and BA (1994) in English from the Mindanao State University-Marawi. She is currently a professor in the Department of English where she teaches Language and Culture, Semiotics, in both the undergraduate and graduate programs. Her research interests include Philippine Migration, Philippine Literature and Transnationalism Studies.

Analyzing Errors Committed in Paragraph Writing by Undergraduates

Iman Muwafaq Muslim Muwafaq Al-Ghabra
English Department, College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq

Afrah Suhail Najim
Abdullah Al-Ashiq Primary School, Baghdad, Iraq

Abstract—Writing plays a key role in the educational system. Since it is a creative skill, both native and non-native speakers face difficulties to write in a proper and academic way. The main focus of the present study is to examine the type and frequency of errors in 87 paragraphs written by 87 of the 2nd year students (Department of English, College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad) when practicing paragraph writing as part of their syllabus. To achieve this objective, the researchers have designed a rubric that includes both the recognition and arrangement criteria. According to this rubric, they taught and trained their students how to write a paragraph for 3.5 months. At the end, the researchers gave the participants a title to write a good paragraph. The researchers identified the type and frequency of their errors. Results have been arranged in a descending sequence: grammar, capitalization, spelling, punctuation, formatting, handwriting, and coherence.

Index Terms—writing, paragraph writing, error analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is the leading cause of success in an academic achievement; it is becoming increasingly important in linguistics. The dependence on technology has shown some kind of deviation from the academic norms of writing. Therefore, in the new global world, writing in general and writing in English, in particular, has become a central issue of education. Here, Graham and Herbert (2011) state that writing has its positive effect on reading and comprehension, and at the same time, reading has its positive effect on writing. Accordingly, both teaching writing and learning the process of writing should be given their due importance. In this context, the researchers consider writing as one of the fundamental tools in the process of learning to achieve the academic success. Hence, it is logical to focus on the correctness of writing to be error-free and sensible, especially when it is produced by the would-be future teachers. They further believed that to know how to correct writing errors, they must have in mind which criteria to follow in teaching writing. For instance, in the grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods, Homstad and Thorson (1994) referred to the importance of writing as a supporting skill to acquire grammar, and facilitate memorizing language structure. The communicative approach, on the other hand, does not focus on writing. The researchers of the present work asserted Homstad and Thorson (1996) in that they do not give vocabulary and grammar the big role in the process of writing because they think that arrangement, coherence, spelling, and punctuation also have a role in enhancing it.

Another merit of writing is that it reflects creativity. In this respect, since writing is considered a creative skill, it is expected to be error-free in order to attract the readers' attention; however, frequent errors cause distraction. According to AL-Khasawneh's (2014) writing is a mental process which requires three steps: generating ideas, arranging them into sentences, and revising them. According to him, good writing is achieved through adequate knowledge of grammatical rules, lexical items, and logical connections.

The errors committed throughout the process of learning a language should not be always viewed negatively. In this respect, Corder (1967) believes that learning a second language is like learning the mother tongue. In spite of that infants are born with an inherent predisposition, they need to be exposed to their language in order to process their capacity of learning. However, they pass through different stages of committing errors till they reach the stage of perfection. This means that there is no harm associated with committing errors; it is only one of the stages of learning. The difference between acquiring the mother tongue and learning a foreign language is featured by the type of environment that individuals are exposed to. In the case of acquiring the mother tongue, the type of the environment is immersing, happy and encouraging faces make infants feel happy when they start to utter words and phrases; in addition, infants do not feel embarrassed when they commit errors and others correct them. However, the situation is reversed when learning a foreign language; individuals miss the immersion environment; they do not have the same strength of encouragement, and they could not govern the feeling of being embarrassed when they commit errors and be corrected. For this reason, error analysis and using it as a feedback is more effective and accepted by learners in writing than in speaking because learners can revise them thoughtfully away from the embarrassing eyes.

Other scholars, like Deane et al. (2008) had another point of view. They stated that educators confirm the importance of clear writing to clear thinking. Since writing is a connection between the writer and the audience, the clarity cannot be achieved unless the piece of writing is cultural-linguistic interpretative. This is an authentic reason to make teachers think of their responsibility for paying more attention to guide and direct their students well to improve their writing.

II. ERROR ANALYSIS AND TYPES OF ERRORS

Error analysis has grown in importance, specifically in the field of linguistics; accordingly a proliferation of studies using error analysis has been conducted. In this vein, Nzama (2010) attributed the increased interest in using error analysis to the importance of this method in discovering the strategies that learners use when acquiring a particular language. According to the researchers of the present work, error analysis further helps to find new teaching strategies that are based on students' weak points to reduce if not eradicating such errors.

Furthermore, Weireesh (1991; cited Darus & Subramaniam 2009) highlighted the importance of using error analysis in supporting the learning process. Error analysis has proven to be valuable in pinpointing the difficulties that learners face, and in getting learners' feedback. It is also a tool for deciding which remedial program is suitable to establish. Darus and Sabramaniam (2009) also confirmed in their study that recognizing learners' errors help teachers in preparing the required materials to overcome the learning problems.

On the other hand, Baghzou (2011) stated that teachers of composition feel uncertain about the usefulness of using feedback for their students' writing. This is because they believed that their students repeat the same errors; they adopt Corder's (ibid.) understanding about the similarity between acquiring the native language and learning a foreign language, and about the advantage of using feedback with kids only to correct their native language. This is because Corder (ibid.) believed in the effectiveness of feedback after frequent repetitions. Here, the researchers of the present work highly recommend using error analysis as a feedback for any learners of a foreign language, and not only with kids.

As for the types of errors, generally speaking, the researchers of the current study have categorized errors into two main evaluative types of criteria: Recognition and arrangement. Under "recognition errors", there are the following sub-criteria:

a. *Grammatical Errors*

Hasyim (2002) referred to the importance of error analysis to both learners and teachers. He said that with error analysis, learners could know the difficulty that they face in grammar, and teachers could know if they are successful in teaching the material in question. The focus of the researchers of the current study was on word order, verb tense, subject-verb agreement, and reference-pronoun agreement.

b. *Punctuation Errors*

Arama (2009-2010) stated that punctuation marks have the same duties of facial expressions and body language; they help readers understand what the writer exactly means. For this reason, errors of punctuation may cause misconception, so students have highly been trained to use them correctly. The researchers of the current study focused on the basic punctuation marks as those of the sentence ends such as the full stop, question and exclamation marks in addition to the usage of the semi-colon, and commas.

c. *Spelling Errors*

According to Kusuran (2016) spelling errors were divided into two main categories which were typographic errors and cognitive errors. Typographic errors include adding, omitting, substituting, or transferring letters while cognitive errors include those letters have phonetic similarities, such as "akademic" and "academic". Anyhow, since spelling errors often change the meaning of the sentence, and lead to misconception, the researchers of the current research considered all the spelling errors as cognitive, and they divided the erroneous words into frequently and less frequently used words.

d. *Coherence Errors*

Ruegg and Sugiyama (2013) referred to coherence as the content organization. They further laid more importance on it than on the mechanics of writing. The researchers of the current study confirm the importance of them together for their effect on attracting the reader's attention and interest. They trained the students to pay attention to organize their writing starting with an introductory sentence supported by explanatory sentences and ending with a concluding sentence.

As for arrangement errors, the researchers of the current study focused on the correct usage of capital letters, correct handwritten letters, and spatial arrangement because the individuals of the target population are prepared to be teachers of English language. Under "arrangement errors", there are the following sub-criteria:

a. *Capitalization*

Although McCaskill (1990) displayed different opinions and rules concerning capitalization, the researchers of the current study focused only on some of the essential rules. These rules were to capitalize the first letter of each word at the beginning of a sentence, the first letter of the proper nouns, the first letter of the names of months and days, as well as to capitalize the pronoun "I".

b. *Handwriting*

McFarland (2015) referred to the importance of handwriting to brainpower, memory, motor skills, and reading, and confirmed its importance in the early stages of teaching children. In their research, Trafford and Nelson (2003) demonstrated the importance of handwriting to the fluency in reading. Since the illegible writing is sometimes difficult to decipher, and the target students were future teachers, their writing was preferred to be legible and show the correct drawing of letters.

c. *Formatting*

Based on the researchers' experience as teachers, arranging the written paragraph according to the known spaces of indentation and reasonable spaces between words is one of the important aspects to attract the readers' attention and interest, and to avoid their frustration.

All such types of errors are thought to have their direct effect on the readers' interest, and indirect effect their comprehension. Carelessness to avoid such errors make readers feel bored and have a bad impression on the writer. They further prevent readers from continuing their reading. Careless writers fail to involve and convince their audience in their writings.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

As far as the writing skill is concerned, a considerable amount of literature has been conducted using error analysis where most of it has been descriptive by nature. For instance, Salebi (2004) conducted an error analysis study of midterm test answer sheets of 32 Saudi female students at the 4th college level. According to the study, the students committed 207 errors. Providing the students with feedback, Salebi asked them to comment on their errors showing the causes behind committing them. Accordingly, Salebi classified the errors into two kinds: developmental (students' efficiency), and interferential (Arabic and English) errors. The most of the blame was on the teachers and their methods of teaching.

Mungungu (2010) conducted a quantitative study to identify the errors committed in writing by three Namibian groups: Oshiwambo, Afrikaans and Silozi. He, then, compared the types and frequency of their errors. The sample consisted of 360 essays written by 180 participants from different secondary schools in different regions; each group consisted of 60 ones. The focus of the study was on the errors committed by the participants in tenses, prepositions, articles, and spelling. The study has further shown that the highest number of errors was committed by the Oshiwambo group, and then the Silozi group; the lowest number of errors was committed by the Afrikaans.

Sarfraz (2011) examined the errors of 50 English essays written by 50 undergraduate Pakistani students. The focus of the study was on identifying, describing, and evaluating errors committed by the 50 participants. Sarfraz thought that 61 out of 76 errors were resulted from the inter-language process, which implies bad habits of learning strategies. Besides, other 15 errors were due to the mother tongue interference. Sarfraz also ascribed the errors to the lack of practice, feedback, motivation and carelessness of the part of the students.

Jayasundara and Premarathna (2011) examined the errors committed in writing and speaking by the 1st year level students of Uva Wellassa University, Sri Lanka. Concerning writing, they pinpointed the errors committed by 55 students in their essays written on "The life in my university". Results have shown that more than 80% of the total errors were related to grammar, spelling, and syntactic categories. Jayasundara and Premarathna further ascribed the reason of the students' weakness to the teachers and the adopted curriculum.

Sawalmeh (2013) investigated the errors of 32 essays written by 32 Saudi learners of English at the university preparatory year program. The study uncovered that the essays contain ten common errors: (1) verb tense, (2) word order, (3) singular/ plural form, (4) subject-verb agreement, (5) double negatives, (6) spelling, (7) capitalization, (8) article, (9) sentence fragment, and (10) prepositions. Sawalmeh also attributed the committed errors to Arabic -the mother tongue- English interference.

The focus of Faisal's study (2013) was only on the syntactic errors committed by 50 participants from the 4th year university students of Educational and Psychological Sciences Department, College of Education for Human Sciences /University of Babylon. She classified the errors into syntactic categories: omission, substitution, addition, and permutation (word order). She also attributed the errors committed to Arabic -the mother tongue- English interference, the rarity of feedback and focus on sentence components in their earlier years of learning, and to the rarity of practicing writing in their current learning process.

Al-Khasawneh (2014) identified the types of errors committed in English paragraph writing by 26 Jordanian students of different majors at Ajloun National University. After categorizing the errors into the wrong use of articles, prepositions, subject-verb agreement, word order, tense, plurality, spelling, capitalization, sentence structure, demonstrative, and irregular verbs, the highest frequency of errors was in the use of articles. Al-Khasawneh thought that such errors were committed due to the insufficient exposure to the target language, lack of practice, and to interference.

As it is shown, the majority of the studies ascribed the reasons of committing errors in writing to the interference between the native and non-native languages, the lack of practice and feedback from the early years of learning in addition to the lack of the students' motivation and carefulness in following their teachers' instructions and to the use of the internet. No doubt, the role of teachers, curriculum, and the exposure to the foreign language is also important for improving the students' writing. To the researchers of the present work, Salebi's way of letting the students comment on their errors is a good way to help them recognize the errors and overcome them. Further, these studies consistently

showed that students suffer from several major drawbacks in writing. These drawbacks have a serious effect on the quality of their writing. Sometimes, students think that they are doing well; they cannot perceive that their writing has changed the real meaning of the information because of committing many errors, and as a result, they gain low marks.

As far as the current study is concerned, the researchers noticed that in spite of adopting different strategies of teaching and learning through the long study years, starting from the elementary school, passing through the intermediate, and preparatory schools, and ending with the university level, university teachers are mostly shocked by the frequency of the simple errors committed by the students. Such errors are considered the basics of writing; they are not expected to be committed by the undergraduate students of the English Department. Accordingly, the researchers of the present research seek to examine the type and frequency of errors committed by second year students when writing a paragraph.

The study will be limited to participants from the Department of English, College of Education for Women/ University of Baghdad. The size of the sample consisted of 87-second level female students. The students who accepted to participate in the study were homogeneous in their educational background and age; they were all between 20-21 years. Although the students have studied the basics of English writing for about ten years, the researchers focused on the points mentioned in the rubric that reflect the four month teaching conducting on the part of one of the researchers.

The two exams represented follow-up exercises. Such a step helped students to pinpoint their errors, focus on them, know about the governed rules and the non-governed ones, present some possible solutions and/or strategies that help to avoid such errors, and finally set a foundation for the development of more applicable curriculum and methods of teaching. The focus on the perfection of writing is multiplied when it is taught to students who are going to be teachers of language in general, and English as a foreign language, in particular.

IV. METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

To meet the objective of the study, which reads, examining the type and frequency of errors committed by the subject of the study when doing paragraph writing, the researchers passed through the following steps:

- Designing a rubric that covers both the recognition and arrangement errors, as shown in Appendix (I);
- Teaching the subject paragraph writing. That is; the participants were required to be trained on writing paragraphs according to the following qualities:
 - a. logical sequence of ideas starting with an introductory sentence, then the supporting, and concluding ones; b. good grammar, spelling, and punctuation; c. well-arranged concerning capitalization, handwriting, and formatting;
- Examining the subject twice and asking them to use the designed rubric to check their errors whenever they write a paragraph; and
- Conducting the third test. The question that was given to the subject was “Write a paragraph to describe ‘Your best friend’ taking into consideration the qualities of a good paragraph within a period of half an hour”;
- Analyzing the writings using the designed rubric. This step involved the following sub-steps:
 - Identifying the participants' errors;
 - Categorizing them into the seven categories identified in the designed rubrics;
 - Calculating the number of the participants as per the errors being tested; and
 - Deriving the conclusions.

As it is shown, the present study is qualitative and quantitative by nature. It aims at knowing both the type and frequency of the errors committed to be able to help the students to know how to avoid those errors, and show the teachers how they could help their students to conduct a self-assessment.

V. ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Examining the participants' writing once they have taken the test, the researchers categorized the types of errors and fixed the number of the students who committed those errors as shown in Table (1) below:

TABLE (1):
TYPES OF ERRORS AND THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS FOR EACH

Seq.	Category	No. of Students		
		Poor	Satisfactory	Distinguished
1	Grammar	70	15	2
2	Capitalization	66	9	12
3	Spelling	54	23	10
4	Punctuation	37	34	16
5	Formatting	21	47	19
6	Handwriting	14	55	18
7	Coherence	8	64	15

Based on Table (1), results have shown the following:

- Majorly the types of errors committed by the participants revolved around the following categories: grammar, capitalization, and spelling;

- ▶ The highest number of students as per to the three majorly mistaken categories: grammar (70), capitalization (66), and spelling (54);
- ▶ The highest number of the distinguished students was only (19) as far as the “Formatting” was concerned;
- ▶ It was further surprising to notice that a considerable number of the participants committed unexpected errors; a matter that reflected their lack of concentration; cases in point are errors in capitalizations, formatting, and handwriting;
- ▶ Contrary to expectations, the number of the participants who obtained the “Distinguished” level in formatting and handwriting was very limited, and those who obtained the “Poor” level in coherence was very limited while the number of the participants who obtained the “Satisfactory” level in coherence was the highest among the other categories of the same level;
- ▶ Although the researchers taught and trained the participants about the rules of coherent paragraphs, the importance of starting a paragraph with a well-organized topic sentence, followed by supporting sentences, and a closing sentence, it was found that participants sometimes used long and complex sentences with unsuitable vocabulary; a matter that made it difficult for them to connect ideas well together;
- ▶ It was noticed that most of the participants had memorized the example given to them during the previously conducted follow-up tests, as a result they showed no creativity;
- ▶ A considerable number of the participants used punctuation randomly although they were required to use only the basic ones which had to be familiar to them;
- ▶ Unfortunately, more than half of the participants were “Poor” in spelling; this might be attributed to teachers' carelessness at the early years of teaching;
- ▶ Though teaching capitalization has been started since the early years of teaching English, yet only (12) participants out of (87) showed a complete awareness of using it;
- ▶ The participants were told about the importance of formatting concerning paragraph length, indentation, and margins to show concern for keeping readers interested. They were taught that the length of a good paragraph ranges between five lines and half of a page in order to avoid committing more errors and boring more readers. Though they were all trained to describe briefly, indent the beginning of each paragraph, and leave margins from the two sides, it was found that only 19 participants were distinguished as shown in table (1);
- ▶ Despite the fact that the participants were encouraged to improve their handwritings, and pay attention to draw letters correctly, leave reasonable spaces between letters and words, it was revealed that only 18 participants were distinguished as shown in table (1).

VI. CONCLUSIONS

It is to be concluded that:

- ◆ The participants showed weakness in the seven tested categories: grammar, spelling, punctuation, coherence, capitalization, formatting, and coherence;
- ◆ It was clear from the results that not all teachers follow up with their students to get used to correcting themselves when they practice writing;
- ◆ The researchers ascribed the reasons behind committing such errors to external and internal factors. The external factors are represented by having busy teachers, who are assigned the duty of teaching more than one stage. Such a reason leaves no effort or space for the teachers to train their students to overcome their weak points. Besides, teachers have no time to adopt a specific rubric and ask their students to use it when writing. In addition, to follow up with the students involve having a limited number of students; a matter that is not applicable to the subject's classrooms. The internal factors are represented by the participants' internal desire and motivation, which are greatly affected and enhanced by the external factors;
- ◆ Generally, the findings are disappointing because of the considerable number of the participants who obtained the “Poor” level in the different categories, which were supposed to be learnt from the early years of their study;
- ◆ The disappointing results represent clear indications for researchers to revise their methods of teaching and decide where they have to stop and focus according to the mentioned results.

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

The researchers suggest some possible solutions to improve the students' level and avoid these errors:

1. It is important that teachers agree to adopt a specific rubric to help in examining their students' errors;
2. Dedicating scores to encourage students to do extracurricular on writing;
3. Students must not move from simple sentence constructions to compound and complex sentences unless they govern the first;
4. Teachers should attract students' attention to both grammar and punctuations;
5. Spelling cannot be improved without the repetition of writing;
6. To enhance the students' writing, curriculum designers must take into account the results of the above mentioned table, and add more various exercises;
7. Activating the role of establishing writing centers in all academic institutions;

8. Before involving in the job of teaching, graduates have to complete additional remedial and enhancement programs, and
9. Establishing committees to follow up the new graduates in their jobs as teachers for a year at least.

APPENDIX

Error Analysis of a Paragraph Writing					
Criteria			Poor	Satisfactory	Distinguished
Recognition	Grammar	Word order Suitable tense S-V agreement P-Ref agreement	More than 3 errors	1-3 errors	No error
	Punctuation	Sent. ending Comma Semicolon	More than 2 errors	1-2 errors	None is missing
	Spelling	Frequently used words Less frequently used words	Either more than 1 frequently used word, or more than 3 less frequently used ones	Either only 1 frequently used word, or 2-3 less frequently used ones	Only 1 less frequently word is accepted
	Coherence	Introductory Supporting Conclusion	None is clear; hard to understand	Some are applied; easy to understand, but sents. aren't perfectly connected to each other	All perfectly applied; understandable & sents. are perfectly connected to each other
Arrangement	Capitalization	Sent. beginning Proper nouns, months & days the pronoun "I"	More than 2 errors	1-2 errors	No error
	Handwriting	Correct image Spaces between letters & words	Incorrect images of more than 3 letters, and/or incorrect spacing	Incorrect images of only 1-3 letters and/or incorrect spacing	No error
	Formatting	Length Leaving margins Indent	None is applied	Two items are missing	Only 1 item is missing

REFERENCES

- [1] AL-Khasawneh, Fadi Maher. (2014). Error Analysis of Written English Paragraphs by Jordanian Undergraduate Students : A Case Study, *International Journal of English Language, Literature and Humanities*, Vol. II, Issue VIII, Retrieved on 10 March, 2017 from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/281864190_Error_Analysis_of_Written_English_Paragraphs_by_Jordanian_Undergraduate_Students_A_Case_Study.
- [2] Arama, Miss Asma. (2009-2010). The Comma and the Period: From Rote Learning to Efficient Classroom Practice. The Case of Second Year Students, University of Constantine, M.A. diss., University of Constantine, Retrieved on 30 November, 2017 from: <https://bu.umc.edu.dz/theses/anglais/ARA1110.pdf>.
- [3] Baghzou, Sabrina. (2011). The Effects of Content Feedback on Students' Writing, *Ankara Üniversitesi Dil ve Tarih-Coğrafya Fakültesi Dergisi*, 51, 2. Retrieved on 4 June, 2017 from: <http://dergiler.ankara.edu.tr/dergiler/26/1661/17733.pdf>.
- [4] Corder, S. P. (1967). The Significance of Learners' Errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, IRAL, Vol. 4. Retrieved on 30 June, 2017 from: <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED019903.pdf>.
- [5] Darus, Saadiyah & Subramaniam, Kaladevi. (2009). Error Analysis of the written English Essays of Secondary School Students in Malaysia: A case study, *European Journal of Social Sciences – Volume 8, Number 3*, 483-495, Retrieved on 28 June, 2017 from: http://www.researchgate.net/publication/235772401_Error_analysis_of_thewritten_english_essays_of_secondary_school_students_in_Malaysia_A_case_study.
- [6] Deane, Paul et. al. (2008). Cognitive Models of Writing: Writing Proficiency as a Complex Integrated Skill, Princeton, NJ. Retrieved on 26 May, 2017 from: <https://www.ets.org/Media/Research/pdf/RR-08-55.pdf>.
- [7] Faisal, Wafaa Mokhlos. (2013). Syntactic Errors Made by Students of Department of Educational and Psychological Sciences, *Journal of Babylon University*, Vol. 21, Issue 2, Retrieved on 10 July, 2017 from: <http://www.iasj.net/iasj?func=fulltext&aId=77375>.
- [8] Graham, Steve & Herbert, Michael. (2011). Writing to Read: A Meta Analysis of the Impact of Writing and Writing Instruction on Reading, *Harvard Educational Review*, Vol. 81, No. 4, Retrieved on 9 July, 2017 from: <http://www.studentachievement.org/wp-content/uploads/Writing-to-Read.pdf>.
- [9] Hasyim, Sunardi. (2002). Error Analysis in the Teaching of English, *Kata*, Vol. 4, No. 1, Petra Christian University, Retrieved on 6 August, 2015 from: kata.petra.ac.id/index.php/ing/article/download/15485/15477.
- [10] Homstad, Torild and Thorson, Helga. (1994). Writing Theory and Practice in the Second Language Classroom: A Selected Annotated Bibliography, Technical Report Series, No. 8, Lillian Bridwell-Bowles, Series ed. Retrieved on 25 May, 2017 from: http://writing.umn.edu/isw/assets/pdf/publications/Homstad_Thorson94.pdf.

- [11] Homstad, Torild and Thorson, Helga. (1996). Using Writing-to-Learn Activities in the Foreign Language Classroom, Technical Report Series, No. 14, Lillian Bridwell- Bowles, Series ed. Retrieved on 11 July, 2017 from: http://writing.umn.edu/isw/assets/pdf/publications/Homstad_Thorson96.pdf.
- [12] Jayasundara J.M.P.V.K. and Premarathna C.D.H.M. (2011). A Linguistics Analysis on Errors Committed in English by Undergraduates, *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, Vol. 1, No. 1, Retrieved on 11 July, 2017 from: http://www.ijrsp.org/research_paper_dec2011/ijrsp-dec-2011-05.pdf.
- [13] Kusuran, Amir. (2016). L2 English spelling error analysis: An investigation of English spelling errors made by Swedish senior high school students, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, diva portal.org. Retrieved on 25 May, 2018 from: <http://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:1078118/FULLTEXT01.pdf>.
- [14] McCskill, Mary K. (1990). Grammar, Punctuation, and Capitalization: A Handbook for Technical Writers and Editors, Langley Research Center, Hampton, Virginia, Retrieved on 20 May, 2018 from: <https://ntrs.nasa.gov/archive/nasa/casi.ntrs.nasa.gov/19900017394.pdf>.
- [15] McFarland, Erin. (2015). The Importance of Handwriting: How Montessori Didactic Materials Support Handwriting, a Master's Paper Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Education-Montessori, The University of Wisconsin – River Falls, Retrieved on 1 December, 2017 from: <https://minds.wisconsin.edu/bitstream/handle/1793/72252/ErinMcFarland.pdf>.
- [16] Mungungu, Saara Sirkka. (2010). Error Analysis: Investigating the Writing of ESL Namibian Learners, Master of Arts – with specialization in TESOL, University of South Africa, Retrieved on 11 March, 2017 from: <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.833.5369&rep=rep1&type=pdf>.
- [17] Nzama, Muzi V. (2010). Error Analysis: A Study of Errors Committed by Isizulu Speaking Learners of English in Selected Schools, M.A. diss., the Department of General Linguistics at the University of Zululand, Retrieved on 30 April, 2016 from: <http://uzspace.uzulu.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10530/615/error%20analysis.pdf?sequence=1>.
- [18] Ruegg, Rachael and Sugiyama, Yuko. (2013). Organization of Ideas in Writing: What are Raters Sensitive to? Language Testing in Asia, Retrieved on 30 November 2017 from: <https://link.springer.com/content/pdf/10.1186%2F2229-0443-3-8.pdf>.
- [19] Salebi, Mohamed Y. (2004). Saudi College Students' Perception of Their Errors in Written English, *Scientific Journal of King Faisal University (Humanities and Management Sciences)* Vol. 5, No.2, Retrieved on 1 June, 2017 from: <https://apps.kfu.edu.sa/sjournal/eng/pdf/a526.pdf>.
- [20] Sarfraz, Sumaira. (2011). Error Analysis of the Written English Essays of Pakistani Undergraduate Students: A Case Study, retrieved on 18 November 2016 from: <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?jsessionid=33C1C72EC259F65EFDCA214B32CC4E07?doi=10.1.1.676.1819&rep=rep1&type=pdf>.
- [21] Sawalmeh, Murad Hassan Mohammad. (2013). Error Analysis of Written English Essays: The Case of Students of the Preparatory Year Program in Saudi Arabia, *English for Specific Purposes World*, ISSN 1682-3257, Issue 40, vol. 14 Retrieved on 2 June, 2017 from: http://www.esp-world.info/Articles_40/Sawalmeh.pdf.
- [22] Trafford, Charles H. and Nelson, Rand H. (2003). Handwriting: A Complete Guide to Instruction-Teaching Physical Patterns for Reading and Writing Fluency, Peterson Directed Handwriting, Greensburg, Pennsylvania. Retrieved on 17 March, 2017 from: https://www.peterson-handwriting.com/Publications/PDF_versions/ReviewSections123.pdf.
- [23] Weireesh, S. (1991). How to Analyze Interlanguage, *Journal of Psychology and Education*, 9 in Darus, Saadiyah & Subramaniam, Kaladevi (2009). *European Journal of Social Sciences*, Volume 8, No.3, Retrieved on 28 June, 2017 from: http://www.researchgate.net/publication/235772401_Error_analysis_of_thewritten_english_essays_of_secondary_school_students_in_Malaysia_A_case_study.

Iman M. Muwafaq Al-Ghabra was born in Baghdad, Iraq on the second of February, 1956. She received the BA in English Language from the College of Arts, University of Al-Mustansiriyah, Baghdad, Iraq in 1978, and the MA in Linguistics from the College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq in 1988. She is now a lecturer at the Department of English, College of Education for Women.

She taught English in the different departments of the University of Technology, Institute of Iraqi Railways, University of Baghdad, University of Taiz, Yemen. The latest articles are: "Helping EFL Students Improve their Writing, *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, Volume 4, Issue 2, 2014", "Handwriting: A matter of affairs, *English Language Teaching*, Volume 8, Issue 10, 2015"; she is a coauthor with Asst. Prof. Maysaa R. Abdul Majeed of "Technology Usage in English Language Teaching and Learning: Reality and Dream, *Journal of the College of Education for Women*, Volume 27, Issue 6, 2016".

Ms Muwafaq Al-Ghabra is a member of TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), and ITA (Iraqi Translators Association-Baghdad).

Afrah S. Najim was born in Baghdad, Iraq on the eighth of February, 1986. She received the BA in English Language from the College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq in 2016; she was one of the top students. She is now a teacher in a primary school; she teaches English as a Foreign Language.

She has completed two courses for teaching and assessment in the ELT teach professional development program for English language teachers in 2017. Seeking information and research, she has not cut contact with the university professors trying to prepare for higher studies.

Intertextualities in English Writing of EFL Learners in the Context of Chinese University

Yuanyan Hu

College of Foreign Studies, Nanjing Agricultural University, China

Abstract—When the writing subject is communicating with the addressee, their texts simultaneously communicate with the present and the past texts. The author carries out an empirical study to find out issues to be addressed in the context of Chinese university in EFL learners' English writing with respect to intertextuality. The study examines the manifestations of three types of intertextualities---material intertextuality, generic intertextuality and cultural intertextuality and finds out that there are obvious material intertextualities between students' individualized texts and exterior texts. Certain generic intertextualities manifesting in the repetition of specific structures are deficient. And in terms of cultural intertextuality, it is found that the exterior texts have exerted an obvious cultural intertextual influence on activating pertinent schema texts of participants, promoting the comprehension of the writing theme as well as further affecting the completions of their writings.

Index Terms—material intertextuality, generic intertextuality, cultural intertextuality, EFL learner, English writing

I. INTRODUCTION

As a modern literary and cultural theory, intertextuality is acknowledged as a theory stemming from the Saussurean linguistics. (Allen, 2011) French semiotician Julia Kristeva utilized the term intertextuality “to render the complexity and heterogeneity of discourse intersecting in particular textual productions by stating that the construction of every text is based upon the absorptions and transformations of other texts” (Thibault, 1994, p.1752). According to Kristeva, Intertextuality is a salient distinction of text implying that a text is made up of traces or memories of other texts. She sees reflection and interlacing of literary texts from the reflection and interlacing of words and phrases. On the basis of Bakhtin's (1981) view that considers “the literary word as an intersection of textual surfaces rather than a point (a fixed meaning), as a dialogue among several writings: that of the writer, the addressee (or the character) and the contemporary or earlier cultural context” (Kristeva, 1986, p.36), the definition of literary text and the notion of intertextuality of Kristeva is endowed with a horizontal dimension and a vertical dimension as well. She defines literary text horizontally as it “belongs to both writing subject and addressee” (ibid, p.36-37), and vertically as it “is oriented towards an anterior or synchronic literary corpus”(ibid).

Intertextuality pays close attentions to the emergence of texts out of context as well as text's continuative existence and interaction within certain social and cultural texts. Kristeva (1969, 1980, 1986) believes that no literary text is written in a vacuum and text can never be cut apart from context, the larger cultural or social textuality where text is generated. When the writing subject is communicating with the addressee, their texts simultaneously communicate with the present and the past texts. With the development of researches on relationships among reader, writer and discourse, intertextuality theory has been widely used by many foreign scholars (Armstrong & Newman, 2011; Bloome, D. & A. Egan-Robertson, 1993; Hartman, 1995; Hartman, 2004; Holmes, 2004; Manak, 2011; Pantaleo, 2006; Short, 1992; Shuart-Faris, N. & D. Bloome, 2004) in the fields of linguistic studies and language teaching, especially in reading and writing teaching.

Ever since 2002 when YANG Hui and ZHANG Xinjun published the first article on the combination of intertextuality theory with teaching research in the core journal, the theory of intertextuality has been widely applied in the pedagogical researches in China by scholars especially in the study of writing teaching and learning. Taking SFL (Systemic functional linguistics) theory as the theoretical framework and intertextuality theory as a manner of integration, YANG Rufu (2009) has constructed a triple-faceted intertextual pattern consisting of co-presentational, co-orientational, and co-organizational intertextualities. YANG believes that applications of intertextuality strategy and the triple-faceted intertextual pattern can assist students' readings and writings and guide the discourse analysis in a more effective way. WANG Changmi (2010) attempts to reveal the intertextual nature of writing by regarding the construction of text as a dialogic course of multiple texts. He has developed an intertextual pattern of English writing, in which writer creates new texts from previous texts through referential intertextuality, functional intertextuality and generic intertextuality. He highlights that creating intertextual circumstance and cultivating awareness of intertextuality can be effective in increasing the efficiency of English writing and the quality of English writing teaching.

However, there are few studies exploring concrete embodiments of intertextualities in English writings of college students in China.

In this study, the author tries to find out whether or not intertextuality manifests in college students' writings and what are the issues to be addressed in students' writing processes with respect to intertextuality. Concrete embodiments of material, generic, and cultural intertextualities between students' compositions and other texts they have access to during the writing task such as classroom discourse and reading materials will be investigated.

II. CONCEPT AND CLASSIFICATION OF INTERTEXTUALITY IN WRITING

Intertextuality in this study underlines the ways and the extent that one text relates to another text or influences other texts by proposing that one text is composed of traces or memories of previous texts. It also focuses on the universal intertextual characteristics of text together with the dominant part intertextuality playing where a text is understood, interpreted and produced. Intertextuality can be seen, in a nutshell, both as a dynamic process of texts' absorptions and transformations of, and responses to other texts and an assembly of relationships that a text forms with other texts in the process of comprehension, interpretation and generation.

Based on a more open and broader conception of text, the manifestation of intertextuality can be seen as text rewriting. Every author in writing rewrites other texts intentionally or unintentionally. No text no matter how unique it is can escape from the constraints of the intertextuality rules. Text rewrites other texts through the following five ways:

(1) **Quoting:** One text directly or indirectly quotes other texts with intertextual marks such as quotation marks, direct or indirect indications of the original sources.

(2) **Appropriating example and allusion:** One text adopts the allusions and prototype, or draws on stories, cases and examples from other texts like myths, fairy tales, folk legends, historical stories, religious stories and classic literatures, etc.

(3) **Collaging and rewriting:** One text remolds, transforms other texts, or splits other texts and combines them with the present text into a harmoniously blended new text.

(4) **Imitating and rewriting of genre/structure:** One text deliberately employs, imitates or transforms a certain style or genre of some other texts in order to respond to a similar or the same situation.

(5) **Rewriting of texts whose source cannot be traced:** This rewriting is not confined to the borrowing of certain specific texts but implies the omnipresent influence from knowledge framework, ideology or cultural traditions. During the observation of reality, the writer looks through the vision that is inevitably affected by or even created from other texts, and adopts the subsistent text forms to keep a record of matters and experiences. Even the most updated text forms are the descendants of what already existed instead of being fabricated out of thin air.

The first four types of text rewriting (manifestations of intertextuality) can be regarded as the conscious rewriting, whereas the last type belongs to the unconscious rewriting (YIN Qiping, 1994).

Three Types of Intertextualities

On the basis of diversified classifications of intertextuality by both domestic and foreign scholars (Fairclough, 1992, p.118; Devitt, 1991; YANG Hui & ZHANG Xinjun, 2002; LOU Qi, 2005; LI Guangcai, 2011) and the view held by Goldman (2004) that intertextual connections can simultaneously take place on the surface layer, the meaning layer and the situational layer, the author in the present study divides the intertextuality during writing process into three types as follows: material intertextuality, generic intertextuality and cultural intertextuality.

Material intertextuality stands for a text directly referring to another text with evident intertextual relations including three kinds of conscious rewritings, that is, quoting, collaging /rewriting, and appropriating examples and allusion. It is a kind of intertextuality taking place on the language and content layer of discourse. As the most immediately visible and relatively superficial type of intertextuality, material intertextuality is similar to the referential intertextuality (Devitt, 1991) and the manifest intertextuality (Fairclough, 1992, p.118).

Generic intertextuality, which is based on the deep structure of text, refers to the reiteration of certain text's generic features in another text. It is the outcome of employing certain genres of other texts to respond to a similar situation. Since genre is the response to the context of situation and the context of culture, the generic intertextual relationship with other texts reflects in three metafunctions on the semantic stratum as well as three register variables of situational context during the generation and comprehension of texts. In writing practice, the generic intertextuality primarily manifests by the application, imitation or rewriting of structural characteristics, or the appropriation of certain logicity and meaning construction pattern after being refined and summarized, etc.

Cultural intertextuality can be classified as the untraceable rewriting of text consisting of thematic intertextuality and conventional intertextuality. **Thematic intertextuality** means that pertinent texts in reader-writer's brain such as background information, experience are informed and aroused by the accesses to certain texts instead of being drawn a complete blank. Text itself possesses signification together with tensile force, by which it is able to activate corresponding socio-cultural background, knowledge, memory, experience, cognitive psychology, worldviews, values, in another word, schema text from the reader-writer of it, and also update and enhance itself under the influence from other texts. Thematic intertextuality belongs to the unconscious rewriting and the category of cultural intertextuality in that text echoes with specific cultural context synchronously during the process of arousing schema text. **Conventional intertextuality** is the intertextual relationship on discourse type convention between text and other texts; text and speech community; or various speech communities. Discourse type convention, standing for the discourse mode and the ideology of certain groups, will leave influence on how reader and writer comprehend the text, and the way how text is

comprehended. For instance, the comprehension of meaning and the reader's reaction would be widely divergent according to whether a text is read as an advertisement discourse or an academic essay.

III. METHODOLOGY

Research question:

1. How intertextuality manifests in EFL learners' English writings?
2. What are the issues to be addressed in students' writing processes with respect to intertextuality?

Research subjects:

In this study, the research subjects are thirty-nine English major junior students in two natural classes of a Chinese university and their English writing teacher.

Sources of evidence

In the study, three types of data were gathered including marked and underscored reading materials; students' compositions; and finished questionnaires. By analyzing those data, the author tries to figure out whether intertextuality manifests in college students' writings and what are the specific embodiments of intertextualities in their writings.

The sources of evidence are listed as follows:

Direct observations of writing task: The researcher observed the participants' performances in the writing class.

- (1) Questionnaires
- (2) Written materials contain writing themes, learning and reading materials that are acquired from the Internet or excerpted from reference books listed below.

Reference book: "*English Writing Course 3*" (YU Dongming & LI Huadong, 2011)

Research Process

Taking three types of intertextualities, i.e., material intertextuality, generic intertextuality, and cultural intertextuality as the focal points, this study aims to find out the manifestations of three types of intertextualities in college students' writings and the existing problems to be addressed in terms of intertextualities during the writing task.

Material intertextuality in the forms of quoting; collaging and rewriting; and appropriating examples and allusions will be underscored. As for generic intertextuality, intertextual relationships between generic features of structures in students' compositions, reading materials and classroom discourses will be analyzed. Cultural intertextuality, as it embodies principally as influence on personal experience, socio-culture and ideology, can hardly be presented comprehensively through the analyses on written materials collected in the study. Therefore, the author attempts to solely investigate thematic intertextuality in the category of cultural intertextuality by focusing on the extent of students' comprehensions towards the writing theme as well as the influence from exterior texts on students' understandings on theme. Other aspects of cultural intertextuality will not be discussed in this study due to the limitation of the collected data.

This study was conducted simply for the academic purpose of intertextuality research and involved no assessment towards the effects of writing teaching or the qualities of students' compositions.

Design of the Writing Task

Students enrolled in the study used the textbook "*English Writing Course 3*" (YU Dongming & LI Huadong, 2011) and had learnt before participating the writing task unit 13 in the textbook-----Argumentation (3), of which the teaching objective is about making students have some ideas on how to use language and logic effectively in constructing an argument and how to support the arguments in different ways; and making students become familiar with the developing skills in maintaining argumentative focuses and writing a whole argumentative essay (ibid, p.177).

In Unit 13, students were provided with an article "*The Declaration of Independence*" and were required to read it themselves and discuss the strategies and structure of it by answering several after-text questions. The proposition of the writing task, which is excerpted from the after-class assignment task 16 of unit 13, related closely to the article mentioned above. (Details are presented as follows)

Prompt:

"Jefferson lists 'the pursuit of Happiness' in *The Declaration of Independence* as one of our basic rights. ["We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness."]

Construct an argument urging that this promise was unwise, that happiness cannot be guaranteed, and, therefore, that Americans have been set up for inevitable disappointment by the founding fathers. Your argument will have to anticipate the objection that the Declaration protects the pursuit of happiness, not happiness itself." (ibid, p.204)

In the writing task, four reading materials together with a questionnaire were handed out to all students before their writings and collected after the completion of the writing task. Students were required to write an argumentative essay about this topic and complete the writing task by following the seven procedures listed below.

- (1) Read four reading materials provided before writing;
- (2) Underline unfamiliar words in the reading materials and comprehend the meanings;
- (3) Underline good expressions and well-turned phrases;
- (4) List all the enlightening points in the reading materials;
- (5) Draw up an outline;

(6) Write an article;

(7) Finish the post-writing questionnaire.

Four reading materials, which were prepared by the author with information collected from both reference books and the Internet, have their respective emphases and purposes as follows:

Reading material 1: definitions of certain concepts and background knowledge;

Reading material 2: background knowledge and information expansion;

Reading material 3: generic structure of argumentation;

Reading material 4: relevant examples and corresponding values.

IV. DISCUSSION

Material Intertextuality

Material intertextuality is the most immediately visible and relatively superficial form of intertextuality residing on the surface structure of text. In this study, the author intends to examine students' writings for the manifest references to texts such as topic text, reading materials provided and other texts. Three forms of material intertextuality-----quoting; collaging and rewriting; appropriating examples and allusions in students' writings will be highlighted.

TABLE 1
EMBODIMENTS OF MATERIAL INTERTEXTUALITY IN PARTICIPANTS' WRITINGS

Student	Quoting	Collaging and Rewriting	Examples and Allusions
1		T	
2	M1	T	
3	T/other	M3	
4	T	M3/M4	M2
5	T/M4	M4	
6	T/M3		
7		M3	
8	T/M1	M3	
9	T/M1	M1/M2	M2
10		T	other
11	M2/M4	T	
12	T	T/M1/M2	
13	T	T/M2/M4	
14	T/M1	M3	
15	T/M1/M4	M4	M4
16	M1/M2/M3/M4	M1/M2/M4	
17	T/M4	M1/M2/M4	
18	T/other	M2/M4	
19	other	T/M1/M2/other	
20	T	T	other
21	T/M1/M3/M4		
22			other
23		T/M1	
24	M3	M3	
25	M2	M3/M4	
26		M1/M2/M3/M4	
27	M2	T/M2/M3	
28		T/M1/M2/M3	
29	M1/M3/M4	M1/M3/M4	
30	M1	T	
31	M1	T/M1/M2/M3	
32	T/M1/M2	M1/M2	
33	M1/M3	M1/M3	other
34	M1/other	T/M1/M2	other
35	M3	T/M2/M4/other	M2/other
36	T/M2/M3	T	
37		T/M2	other
38	M3	T	other
39	T/M2	T/M2	
Times	57	74	12

Notes: Examples and Allusions=appropriating examples and allusions

T= topic text

M1-4= reading material 1-4

Other=texts including other exterior texts and schema text

Times= times of intertextuality with exterior texts

As illustrated in table 1, as many as 36 students "collaged and rewrote" other texts including topic text, reading materials, or other exterior texts in their writings. 31 students adopted direct or indirect "quotations" in their writings and 11 writings contain "examples and allusions" excerpted from other texts. Among 39 writings, 8 of them present all three kinds of embodiments of materials intertextuality, 23 writings present only two kinds while 8 writings present only one kind.

According to the statistics, “collaging and rewriting” occurring in up to 92.3% of students’ writings is the most frequently used form of material intertextuality. Material intertextualities in the form of collaging and rewriting have appeared 74 times. “Quoting”, which has occurred 57 times in 79.5% of students’ writings, is prevailing as well. However, material intertextualities embodying in the form of “employing allusions and examples” from other texts are relatively less than the preceding two forms, which have occurred only 12 times in 28.2% of students’ writings.

Hereinafter, the author will elucidate respectively three types of material intertextualities and draw some specific examples from students’ writings in order to have a direct view about how material intertextuality manifests in students’ writings.

Quoting

As a form of material intertextuality, quoting, according to its definition, is characterized by possessing intertextual markers that can directly or indirectly indicate and trace back to the original resources. It can be seen through the following examples excerpted from students’ writings that evident indicators will distinguish the original text from the writing and help readers trace back to the source text straightforwardly, e.g.:

- 1) As an old saying goes: One man’s meat is another man’s poison. (From M3)
- 2) ...like a sentence I’ve ever read in an article: The essence of happiness is in the pursuit itself, in the pursuit of what is engaging and life-changing, which is to say, in the idea of believing. (From other exterior texts)
- 3) When we refer to dictionaries, we may find this “right” here means the right to enjoy doing any activity as long as it is legal and does not infringe on the rights of others. (From other exterior texts)
- 4) Just as the old saying goes, God help those who help themselves. (From other exterior texts)

In this writing task, the author finds that there are pervasive irregularities in students’ quotations, for instance, copying the whole paragraphs and sentences directly from other texts without evident indicators or any acknowledgement. According to the statistics, only 48.4% of students in the study applied intertextual markers in their quotations. As for those students who used intertextual markers, however, they failed to mark every quotation in their writings normatively either. The rest of students made quotations with utterly no awareness of marking. There are only 18 out of 57 times of quotations in total in students’ writings with intertextual markers. It is a commonplace that students referenced directly and turned other people’s discourses into their own without any quotation marks, citation indicators or paraphrasing.

Collaging and Rewriting

Collaging and rewriting, the most frequently used form of material intertextuality in students’ writings as mentioned above, refers to paraphrasing, and transforming the source texts or splicing part of them with the present text into a blended new text. The author finds that collaging and rewriting primarily occur in two ways. Firstly, students employed the meanings from the source texts for reference using different wording, for example:

- 1) People regard happiness differently, so one man’s happiness maybe another man’s misfortune.
(Source text in M3: “Happiness may fall into different categories. An old saying goes like this: ‘One man’s meat is another man’s poison.’”)
- 2) Happiness is a kind of emotion just like love, anger and sadness.
(Source text in M4: “Happiness is an emotion. So is sadness, love, hate, curiosity, revulsion, excitement, jealousy, contentment, depression, anxiety, fear, guilt and anger.”)

Secondly, compared to the first way, students in the study tended to split the original texts into several fragments, and then spliced them in a different order into a new text, as shown in the following example:

- 1) At the same time, happiness is not merely a life lived by accumulating moments of pleasure. It is not caused simply by entertaining your whims.
(Source text in M4: “All emotions have causes, causes which can be understood and controlled. The emotion of happiness is not caused simply by entertaining your whims... Happiness is not merely a life lived by accumulating moments of pleasure.”)

Appropriating Examples and Allusions

This type of material intertextuality stands for adopting allusions or prototypes, or drawing on stories, cases and examples from other texts like historical stories or classic literatures etc. It is the least prevalent one among three forms of material intertextualities in students’ writings in this study. Only 28.2% of students used this form. Here presents a sample excerpted from a student’s article:

- 1) A man who won the lottery was unhappy since then. Because of abuse of money, he was arrested for drunk driving, resisting arrest and having drugs in his car. The excitement of winning did not grow into a lifelong happiness.
(Source text in M4: “Billy won the lottery. A cool \$25 million! He appeared to be a good man with a good character. Of the many types of people who might have won, his friends were happy it was Billy. But two years later he was arrested for drunk driving, resisting arrest, soliciting a prostitute, and having drugs in his car. The arrests continued over the next few years. The excitement of winning did not grow into a lifelong happiness.”)

Apart from the appropriation of examples and stories from reading materials, students made references to other exterior texts as well including classroom discourses; literary works; and also schema texts like memories, self-experiences and background knowledge. Only 33.3% of examples and allusions appeared in students’ writings are excerpted from the reading materials provided by the researcher, while 66.7% of them are from some other sources. See

examples as follows:

- 1) Take the Chinese pop star Jet Li for example... (Schema text: background knowledge)
- 2) When I am forced to face the graduation, to face the so-called “the beginning of real life out of the campus”, I am extremely hesitated and scared. But somehow I know that it is merely the beginning of the pursuit of happiness. (Schema text: self-experiences)
- 3) For example, one person is so hungry that he steals a piece of bread from a store. For him, eating a piece of bread is the happiest thing in the world. However, do other people admit he owns the right to pursue happiness in this way? Of course not! What he did violates the law and infringes other people's benefits, which is totally prohibited. (Schema text: fabricated story based on knowledge framework)
- 4) We still can remember the old Grandet's shiny eyes when he sees the gold, and his expression shows gold is his fountain of happiness... When read the famous *Walden* written by Thoreau, we can acquire a feeling that living a simple life and accompanied by the purified nature is also a kind of happiness. (Other exterior texts: literary works-----*Walden* by Thoreau; *Eugénie Grandet* by Balzac)
- 5) Take the little prince who is the hero in the famous book *The Little Prince* for example. The rose is the whole world to him because he has spent much time looking after her and he sees her with his heart. It is happy enough for him to live with her. Other people, however, see the rose with eyes, considering it as an ordinary flower, and therefore, think there is no reason for the little prince to be happy. (Other exterior texts: literary works-----*The Little Prince* by Antoine de Saint-Exupéry)

Students did not employ the form of appropriating examples or allusions frequently during their writings. In spite of several reading materials provided beforehand, students made limited use of them in the aspect of content. The author believes that such phenomena are in larger part attributed to the traditional writing habits and inclination of Chinese students that they are more apt to preach rather than present facts or specific instances in writing. Especially in writing argumentative essay, Chinese students are liable to put forward points without setting forth any convincing evidences.

Generic Intertextuality

Based on the deep structure of text, generic intertextuality is the repetition of other text's generic features in certain text manifesting in the form of imitation or rewriting of genre and structure. In the next part, certain intertextual connections on features of genre and structure between students' compositions, and exterior texts including reading materials and textbook will be analyzed.

Structure of Argumentation in Textbook and Reading Materials

Before the writing task, all students in two classes have been taught the important contents about writing an argumentative essay in unit 13 of the textbook “*English Writing Course 3*”. Three alternative patterns are provided for students as references in writing an argumentative essay: (YU Dongming & LI Huadong, 2011, p.184-187)

Pattern 1

- a. open with the introduction
- b. refute the strongest opposition points
- c. state the case
- d. confirm our proposition
- e. refute the weaker opposition points
- f. end with the conclusion

Pattern 2

- a. open with the introduction
- b. offer our proposition as an open question
- c. state the case
- d. examine and refute the opposition
- e. examine and confirm our proposition
- f. conclude that our proposition should be accepted

Pattern3

- a. open with the introduction
- b. offer a rival proposition
- c. offer our own proposition
- d. confirm our proposition
- e. refute the opposition
- f. end with the conclusion

Apart from information in the textbook, the author also afforded students with certain reading material, which employs almost an identical constructing pattern with the pattern two in the textbook. From textbook and reading materials students had access to before writing, the author summarizes that an integral generic structure of an argumentation should be composed of the following elements:

- Element 1(E1) introduction
- Element 2(E2) an opposite point
- Element 2.1(E2.2) offering an opposite point

- Element 2.2(E2.1) refuting an opposite point
- Element 3(E3) your own proposition
- Element 3.1(E3.1) offering your own proposition
- Element 3.2(E3.2) confirming your own proposition
- Element 4(E4) conclusion

Embodiments of Generic Intertextuality in Students’ Writings

Except for the introduction and the conclusion part that should always be posited at the beginning and the end of essay respectively, the order of the rest of those elements can be comparatively flexible. By using matching methods, the author analyzes the structures of students’ articles and seeks to find out generic intertextualities manifesting between generic elements in the structures of their writings and those in the standard one presented above. (See table 2 for detailed information)

TABLE 2
REFERENCES TO GENERIC ELEMENTS IN PARTICIPANTS’ WRITINGS

Generic Elements	E2		E3		E4	
	E1	E2.1	E2.2	E3.1		E3.2
Percentage	100%	53.8%	38.5%	100%	97.4%	97.4%

On the one hand, it is indisputable that 39 students were all aware of the four fundamental components of argumentation, i.e., introduction, offering a point, reinforcing the point, and conclusion. According to table 2, element 1 and element 3.1 present in 100% of students’ writings; and the occurrence rate of element 3.2 and element 4 is 97.4%. On the other hand, they did not bear enough cognitions in anticipating an opposition in argumentation writing. Although 21 students, as many as 53.8% of all participants, mentioned an opposing point in their essays, only 15 of them took a further step to argue and dispute the opposing points proposed.

The major aim of an argumentative essay is to defend a position or a viewpoint with solid reasons. By offering a controversial point, writer’s own proposition can be strengthened in several ways. First of all, offering an opposite point will leave readers an impression that writer of this argumentation is a reasonable person willing to examine an issue comprehensively from all angles. Moreover, a differing viewpoint helps writers spot flaws both in the opposite part as well as in their own propositions. Thus, the strength and reliability of the argument can be reinforced. Therefore, besides making a point and supporting it afterwards as all essay do in a general way, an argumentation should advance a differing viewpoint. Acknowledging a controversial point and then rebutting it by providing reasonable evidences and pointing out problems can be regarded as the most important generic features of argumentative essay.

As was remarked above, generic intertextuality means the reiteration of certain generic features in a text in order to respond to a similar situation. However, only 15 students managed to offer a differing point in their essays and employed the holistic structure of argumentation constituted by E1, E2.1, E2.2, E3.1, E3.2, and E4. Fine generic intertextualities with exterior texts such as textbook and reading materials are reflected in their writings, while for the rest 24 students, there is not enough generic intertextuality showing in their argumentations in the aspect of generic features. Instead of writing an argumentative essay, some students wrote an exposition by comparison and contrast comparing the differences between happiness and the pursuit of happiness, or between spiritual happiness and materialistic happiness. Some students even wrote an exposition by definition that solely defines what is happiness or what is the pursuit of happiness.

Cultural Intertextuality

Cultural Intertextuality is an untraceable rewriting of text containing both conventional intertextuality and thematic intertextuality. Conventional intertextuality, which refers to the intertextual relationship on diversified discourse type conventions-----discourse modes and ideologies-----between texts and speech groups, can hardly be revealed through certain analyses on written materials. Thematic intertextuality, which stands for an arousal of pertinent schema texts after the access to a certain text during writing, will undoubtedly exert influence on the comprehension and generation of new texts. Therefore, thematic intertextuality can be revealed somehow through analyses on text’s comprehension and generation.

In respect of manifestations of cultural intertextuality, on account of the limitation of data mainly composing of written discourse and questionnaire results in the study, the author plans to explore thematic intertextualities by analyzing students’ digests of the writing theme as well as the relevancy of their compositions to the topic.

In this study, the proposition of the writing task is close to neither the cultural background nor life experience of students. Therefore students would inevitably encounter certain cross-culture barriers when they tried to comprehend the writing theme. The less relevant socio-cultural and historical background knowledge students possess, the less schema texts they can redeploy and activate. Although a passage “*The Declaration of Independence*” is provided in the textbook with the purpose of complementing in some measure the shortage of necessary background information and overcome the cultural barrier, unfortunately, neither has the teacher explained it in classroom instruction, nor the students have attached much weight to it. According to the questionnaire, only 2.4% of students considered their understandings towards the proposition an excellent one, 42.8% of students considered their understandings as a good one, 50% as an average one, while the rest 4.8% as a poor one. Most students believed that they could understand the

topic, which means that certain thematic intertextuality occurs and pertinent schema texts have been aroused.

According to the writing theme, the thesis of this writing should be: "Jefferson's promise was unwise because happiness cannot be guaranteed. And as a result, the Americans have been set up for inevitable disappointment by Jefferson." In addition, the writing theme requires students to anticipate the opposing point, which argues that "the Declaration" protects the pursuit of happiness, not happiness itself.

When assigning the writing task, the teacher interpreted the writing theme with a misleading information in class A that: "The title and the thesis statement of this argumentative essay should be 'Jefferson's promise is misunderstood'", while in class B, no guidance or explanation about the topic was provided for students. Due to such conspicuous difference between the classroom discourses in two classes, prominent dissimilarities occur in thematic intertextuality, which primarily embody during writing in students' digests of the writing theme and the relevancy of their writings to the topic. (See table 3 for the overall statistics of the accordance with the topic in students' writings in two classes)

TABLE 3
ACCORDANCE WITH THE TOPIC

Accordance with the topic	Class A	Class B
Digression	18	8
Vagueness	1	4
Relevancy	1	7

In two classes, the percentages of theme relevancy in students' writings are widely divergent. As for class A, in which the teacher provided the explication on the writing theme beforehand, the overall percentage of writings relevant to the theme is as low as 5%; whereas in class B, the number is 36.8%. Only one student's composition in class A is relevant to the thesis and one student presents vagueness by merely arguing that happiness cannot be guaranteed. For the remaining eighteen students, their writings are all excursive from the thesis of the topic by offering an entirely opposite proposition that Jefferson's promise is misunderstood because of the Declaration protects the pursuit of happiness, not happiness itself. They all refuted instead of defending the point that the topic required them to argue for, that is, Jefferson made an unwise promise and set up the Americans for an inevitable disappointment since happiness cannot be guaranteed. On the contrary, class B, in which no guidance has been provided before students' writings, has a much higher relevancy than class A. In class B, seven students' writings show good relevancies to the writing theme, while four students' writings show vagueness. Digressions from the theme occur in eight students' writings.

It can be concluded that there is obvious thematic intertextuality among the classroom discourses, students' understandings towards the topic as well as their individualized texts. Among the 18 students in class A whose writings are excursive from the theme, 14 of them present in their writings the keywords like "misunderstand, misunderstood, or misinterpretation" that have distinct intertextual relationships with the classroom discourses-----the teacher's interpretation on the topic. Hereinto, 11 students directly used or paraphrased the teacher's words of explication: "Jefferson's promise is understood" as their titles of writings, for instance: "Jefferson's Promise Be Misunderstood; or Have You Ever Misunderstood Thomas Jefferson?" And yet, in class B, there is no student adopting any correlative keywords as "misunderstand, misunderstood, or misinterpretation".

Apart from classroom discourses, other exterior texts such as reading materials provided by the researcher also perform a role in updating writing subjects' schema texts. For example, in reading material 1, the definition of the three basic rights in "the Declaration of Independence" as well as the explanation of the right to the pursuit of happiness would enrich students' knowledge reserves about the topic and in some measure assist them in overcoming cross-cultural barriers and understanding proposition correctly.

V. CONCLUSION

In respect of manifestation of three types of intertextualities in students' writings, the author finds that between students' individualized texts and exterior texts there are obvious material intertextualities, among which collaging and rewriting is the most notable form, quotation ranks the second, while adopting allusions and examples the least. This reveals a ubiquitous situation largely influenced by Chinese writing habits that in Chinese students' English writings there are very few specific examples or facts supporting the major points; or if there are any supporting facts, it is very likely that correlations between evidences and proposition are limited. Especially in the argumentation writing, when Chinese students are proposing a thesis, they scarcely provide sufficient and detailed grounds of arguments. They, in some cases, even construct supporting paragraphs that have nothing to do with the thesis statement.

Problems that occur in the application of material intertextuality should be taken much account of in order to avoid plagiarism. As shown in this study, many students who were incapable of paraphrasing a text into their own individualized texts failed to obey to the prescriptive steps containing using quotation marks or evident indicators in their quotations, collaging and rewritings. Students were liable to copy directly large segments from the source texts that sometimes have very little relevance to the point without proper integration or paraphrasing.

In addition, it is worth noting that although there are obvious manifestations of material intertextualities in students' writings, i.e., quoting, collaging and rewriting, a large portion of students did not have the initiatives in information searching and integration. The material intertextualities occur mostly between students' writings and the exterior texts

provided in class such as the topic text and reading materials. (See table 4) As shown in table 1, only eleven students have searched and utilized other exterior texts apart from those texts provided by the researcher.

TABLE 4
MATERIAL INTERTEXTUALITIES BETWEEN INDIVIDUALIZED TEXTS AND EXTERIOR TEXTS

	Quoting	Collaging and Rewriting	Examples and Allusions	Total
Topic text	17	19		36
Material 1	13	13		26
Material 2	7	16	3	26
Material 3	9	13		22
Material 4	7	11	1	29
Other exterior texts	4	2	8	14

It can be concluded from the foregoing discussions that not only the initiatives in searching useful materials and information for writings, but also the active thinking and the consciousness of originality of participants in this writing task are scarce.

Moreover, students are devoid of the abilities in resolving information during the intertextual processes. Allowing themselves led by the nose by the reading materials, on which they barely have their own analyses and decipherments, most of the students in this study could hardly distinguish the useful information from the unnecessary one.

Notwithstanding certain generic intertextualities manifesting in the repetition of specific structures such as introduction, offering own proposition, and conclusion between students' articles, textbook texts and reading materials, intertextualities in the aspect of generic features of argumentative essay are deficient. As high as 61.5% of students in this study failed to offer an opposing point-----an indispensable generic feature of argumentation-----in their argumentations. Therefore, students' consciousness of generic intertextualities, which are of singular importance in the course of reading and writing, should be reinforced in order to promote better grasps towards specific genres and achieve more effective responses to a similar situation.

In terms of cultural intertextuality, due to the limitation of data collected in this study, the author only focuses on thematic intertextuality by analyzing students' understandings towards the writing topic and the topic relevancy of their writings. It is found that the exterior texts including the topic, classroom discourses and reading materials have exerted an obvious cultural intertextual influence on activating pertinent schema texts of participants, promoting the comprehension of the writing theme as well as further affecting the completions of their writings. First of all, certain thematic intertextualities occurred when students were reading the writing theme. Secondly, differences in the classroom discourses conveyed and received in two classes lead to a conspicuous divergence in the comprehension of theme and the relevancy to the topic of students' writings. Besides, reading exterior materials during writing process could to some degree help students overcome some cultural barriers, achieve better understandings towards the thesis together with update their schema texts through cultural intertextuality.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor, Professor Liping CHEN in Nanjing Normal University for offering patient instructions and kind encouragement. Also, I am grateful to anonymous referees and journal editors for their careful readings of the paper and insightful comments that helped me improve the paper.

This work is supported by Guided Project of Philosophy and Social Science Research in Colleges and Universities in Jiangsu Province (Grant No.: 2016SJD740003), by Education Project of Humanities and Social Sciences Foundation of Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (Grant No.: SKYC2017004), and by Exploration Project of Humanities and Social Sciences Foundation of Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (Grant No.: SKTS2017025).

REFERENCES

[1] Allen, G. (2011). *Intertextuality*. New York: Routledge.
 [2] Armstrong, S. & M, Newman. (2011). Teaching Textual Conversations: Intertextuality in the College Reading Classroom. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 41(2), 6-21.
 [3] Bakhtin, M. M. (1981). *The Dialogic Imagination: Four Essays*. Holquist, M. (ed.), Emerson, C. & M, Holquist (trans.). Austin: University of Texas Press.
 [4] Bloome, D. & A. Egan-Robertson. (1993). The Social Construction of Intertextuality in Classroom Reading and Writing lessons. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 28 (4), 304-33.
 [5] Devitt, A. J. (1991). Intertextuality in Tax Accounting: Generic, Referential, and Functional. In Bazerman, C. & J. Paradis. (eds.). *Textual Dynamics of the Professions*. Madison: U of Wisconsin, 336-57.
 [6] Fairclough, N. (1992). *Discourse and Social Change*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
 [7] Goldman, S. R. (2004). Cognitive Aspects of Constructing Meaning Through and Across Multiple Texts. In Shuart-Faris N, & D, Bloome (eds.). *Uses of Intertextuality in Classroom and Educational Research*. Connecticut: Information Age Publishing, 317-51.
 [8] Hartman, D. K. (1995). Eight Readers Reading: The Intertextual Links of Proficient Readers Reading Multiple Passages. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 30 (3), 520-561.

- [9] Hartman, D. K. (2004). Deconstructing the Reader, the Text, the Author, and the Context. In Shuart-Faris, N. & D. Bloome (eds.). *Uses of Intertextuality in Classroom and Educational Research*. Connecticut: Information Age Publishing, 353-71.
- [10] Holmes, J. (2004). Intertextuality in EAP: An African context. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3(1), 73- 88.
- [11] Kristeva, J. (1969). *Σέν έoticέ Recherches pour une Σένanalyse*. Paris: Seuil.
- [12] Kristeva, J. (1980). *Desire in Language*. Roudiez, L. S. et al. (eds.). Gora, T. (trans.). New York: Columbia University Press.
- [13] Kristeva, J. (1986). *The Kristeva Reader*. Moi, T. (ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.
- [14] LI Guangcai. (2011). Courseware Design in College English Teaching under the Perspective of Intertextuality. *Education and Vocation*, 26, 106-107.
- [15] LOU Qi. (2005). Intertextuality of Text and Foreign Language Teaching. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, 2, 18-20.
- [16] Manak, J. (2011). The Social Construction of Intertextuality and Literary Understanding: the Impact of Interactive Read-alouds on the Writing of Third Graders during Writing Workshop. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 46 (4), 309-311.
- [17] Pantaleo, S. (2006). Readers and Writers as Intertexts: Exploring the Intertextualities in Student Writing. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*, 29 (2), 163–181.
- [18] Short, K. G. (2004). Researching Intertextuality within Collaborative Classroom Learning Environments. In Shuart-Faris, N. & D, Bloome. (eds.). *Uses of Intertextuality in Classroom and Educational Research*. Connecticut: Information Age Publishing, 373-395.
- [19] Shuart-Faris, N. & D, Bloome. (2004). *Uses of Intertextuality in Classroom and Educational Research*. Greenwich: Information Age Publishing.
- [20] Thibault, P. J. (1994). Intertextuality. In Asher, R. E. (ed.) *The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*. Oxford: Pergamon, 1751-1754.
- [21] WANG Changmi. (2010). Intertextuality and Its Application in the Designing of English Writing Tasks. *Shandong Foreign Language Teaching Journal*, 2, 69-73.
- [22] YANG Hui & ZHANG Xinjun. (2002). English Language Teaching in an Intertextual Perspective. *Shandong Foreign Language Teaching Journal*, 2, 43-45
- [23] YANG Rufu. (2009). An Integrated Model of Intertextuality for College English Writing Pedagogy. *Foreign Languages in China*, 06 (4): 79-84.
- [24] YIN Qiping. (1994). On Intertextuality. *Foreign Literature Review*, 2, 39-46
- [25] YU Dongming & LI Huadong. (2011). *Successful Writing*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.



Yuanyan Hu was born in Nanjing, Chia in 1984. She received her master of science degree in education from the University of Edinburgh, UK in 2008, and received her PH.D. degree in applied linguistics from Nanjing Normal University, China in 2015. She is currently a lecturer in the College of Foreign Studies, Nanjing Agricultural University, Nanjing, China. His research interests include the theory of intertextuality, writing teaching and research, discourse analysis and systemic functional linguistics. Dr. Hu is a member of the Jiangsu Foreign Languages & Linguistics Society.

The Impact of Pre-task Instruction and Task Rehearsal on Fluency, Accuracy and Complexity of Iranian EFL Learners' Writing

Ghorbanali Salehi Aref

English Department, Faculty of Literature and Humanities, Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch of Tehran, Tehran, Iran

Ahmad Mojavezi

English Department, Faculty of Literature and Humanities, Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch of Najafabad, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of pre-task instruction and task rehearsal, on fluency, accuracy, and complexity of Iranian EFL learners' writing. To achieve this, Forty-five foreign language learners with little access to the L2 outside the classroom participated in this study. They were both male (44%) and female (56%). Measures of fluency, accuracy, and complexity were utilized to measure students' writing. Data were analyzed using MANOVA and ANOVA. The results of the study revealed that pre-task instruction and task rehearsal have positive effect on the learners' writing. The result of the study and their pedagogical implications were discussed.

Index Terms—pre-task instruction, task rehearsal, second language writing, accuracy, fluency, complexity

I. INTRODUCTION

Second language acquisition researchers have studied the notion of planning with reference to different theories; One of these models is the “computational model”(Lantolf, 1996), which is based on an analogy between the human mind and a computer by which human being possesses limited capacity in terms of the amount of information that can process from input to output. These limits can lead language learners to prioritize one aspect of language over another. Levelt's (1989) model of speech production, on the other hand, considers speakers as complex information processors who are capable of translating intention, thought, and feeling into articulated speech. Three categories of autonomous processing in language production are established by this model: (a) message conceptualization, (b) formulation of language representation, and (c) message articulation.

In the course of the most recent 20 years, the lion's share of concentrates on task planning have been focused on L2 students' oral discourse (Bygate, 2001; Ellis, 2003; Mojavezi, 2014). We have taken in a lot about how the chance to design previously or amid an assignment may enhance a few parts of L2 discourse. However, we have little knowledge about what L2 learners actually do to plan for a task. In the meantime, there is currently a hot debate between Skehan's trade-off hypothesis (1998) and Robinson's (2001, 2007) cognition hypothesis and all of the studies which have tested these two hypotheses and have tried to falsify one of them have focused on oral performance. This study tries to shed light on the effect of pre-task instruction and task rehearsal on writing ability. In other words, an important goal of this study would be to see which hypothesis (cognition or trade-off) is more consistent with the data which will be obtained in an EFL context.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Recent years have seen enormous growth of interest in task-based language learning and teaching. There are several reasons for this surge of interest. First, a ‘task’ is a construct of equal import to both second language acquisition researchers and language teachers (Ellis, 2003). Second, task-based pedagogy is capable of a wide range of interpretations. That is, any single task, Ellis (2003) states, has the potential to be performed in a number of ways, depending on how the participants orient to it. This perceived *flexibility* of task-based tradition can deflect some of the criticisms leveled against it. One of these criticisms is based on the claim that performing tasks and language use does not *necessarily* lead to fluent and accurate production or language acquisition (Reinders, 2009).

From the vantage point of information processing theories, this is in part due to the fact that language learners' attentive or processing capacity is restricted, and hence, they cannot process ‘schematic’ and ‘systemic’ knowledge simultaneously (see Carroll, 2008; Ellis, 1994, 2003, 2005; Skehan, 1998a, 1998b, 2007a; Skehan & Foster 1999, 2001; Van Patten, 2009). This being so, language learners tend to *bypass* language form in favor of meaning drawing on their wide repertoire of communicative strategies to which they have access (Skehan, 1998a).

A. *Concept Mapping; a Form of Pre-task Instruction*

In this study, concept mapping (conceptual diagram) is considered as an instructional strategy and its capabilities for ameliorating written production of ESL (English as a Second Language) learners are investigated. Hanf (1971) was the first who created Concept mapping as a model so as to enhance the educating of study aptitudes. It typically begins with who produce words identified with the subject and order them into gatherings of related words. At that point, understudies build up their contemplation about the subject and draw authoritative structures, which can either be direct or various leveled. There are various terms under which the technique of concept mapping has been practiced and investigate including semantic mapping (e.g., Cronin, et al., 1992; Heimlich and Pittelman, 1986; Lipson, 1995; Schultz, 1991), cognitive mapping (e.g., Boyle, 1996; Peresich, et al., 1990; Reynolds and Hart, 1990) and webbing (e.g., Brown and Salisch, 1996; Norton, 1993; Pieronek, 1994). The refinement between these terms isn't clear in the writing, and they are probably going to be utilized as equal in both L1 and L2 ponders. The selection of this strategy as a target instruction is due the fact that concept mapping effective for both conceptual and linguistic development (Heimlich and Pittelman, 1986). Besides, it is widely implemented in classroom instruction.

Positive effects of concept mapping in a variety of instructional settings have been reported in some studies. For instance, it has been used as a technique to improve vocabulary (Harley et al., 1996; Johnson and Steele, 1996; Morin and Goebel, 2001), amend reading comprehension (Baumann and Bergeron, 1993; Carrell et al., 1989; Lipson, 1995; Tang, 1992), and writing skills (Cronin et al., 1992; Schultz, 1991), and assist the comprehension of concepts in subject areas (Park, et al., 1999; Roth, 1994). Concept mapping also helps students in special education programs to promote their literacy knowledge (Boyle, 1996; Englert and Mariage, 1991; MacArthur, 1996; Sinatra, et al., 1994). It is believed that concept mapping facilitate writing process (Pieronek, 1994; Renner, 1992; Rey, 2000; Washington, 1988); needless to say there are limited research on mapping and the vast majority of them were performed in L1 writing contexts. For instance, Cronin et al. (1992) contemplated a region plan process for optional schools in Mississippi, and showed that mapping techniques had supported understudies' comprehension of content association and composing forms dependent on the composition tests results over a time of four-years.

B. *Task Rehearsal*

To build up Task redundancy requires dialect students to be requested to rehash the equivalent or somewhat adjusted task (Bygate and Samuda 2005: 43). The main execution of the task assignment redundancy is considered as an arrangement for, or a pre-errand movement previously, more exhibitions (Ellis 2005). This may appear behaviorist drills which depend on the assumption that dialect learning happens through a propensity arrangement process by means of redundancy

In its new conceptualization nonetheless, task repetition doesn't allude to 'verbatim' redundancies of the prompts in the second language classroom; rather, it includes content and the reiteration of commonplace shape (Bygate 2006). This new conceptualization is to some extent educated by the view that our consideration and handling limit amid correspondence exercises is intrinsically confined in some imperative routes - for example, L2 students can't, center around both importance and shape all the while. By rehashing the equivalent or comparable undertakings, in this manner, students may be capable upon what they have officially done as such as to 'purchase time' not exclusively to do mental work on what they are going to impart yet in addition to get to and (re)formulate words and linguistic structures all the more productively, viably and precisely.

Comparative examples concerning impacts of task reiteration with L2 students of Spanish was seen by Gass et al. (1999), while Lynch and McLean's (2000) think about exhibited that recycling affected both fluency and accuracy in an English for Specific Purposes context. Similarly, Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) discover that task repetition could be employed as a pedagogic tool to direct L2 learners' effect of task repetition on complexity and fluency of L2 speech and, more recently, Hawkes' attention towards form. Generally speaking, however, research findings and empirical evidence lend support to the effectiveness of task repetition to improve language performance with some trade-off effects being reported. In reviewing task repetition literature there are three important points which need to be brought to attention: (a) design of the study (between-groups vs. repeated-measures designs); (b) the time interval between the two occasions of task performance; and (c) operationalization of 'task repetition' (whether the same task has been used or slightly altered tasks and the number of repetitions that they adopt). In the present study which is a between-groups design, there is a one-week interval between the two occasions of performing the same task. Having in mind the above mentioned points we review some closely relevant studies below. This will pave the ground for us to formulate appropriate hypotheses regarding the effects of task repetition.

III. METHOD

A. *Participants*

This study was a between-groups design that aimed to examine the effects of pre-task instruction and task rehearsal on fluency accuracy, and complexity, and fluency of EFL learners' writing.

The participants in this study were 45 intermediate level EFL learners recruited from two teacher education centers in Iran. A special effort was made to identify students who are at the same level of ability. To this aim, 160 participants

mastering in Language Teaching and was administered “Oxford Placement Test 2” (Allan, 1992), as a pre-test, to select the students with equivalent language proficiency at the outset of the study.

B. Instruments

In this study, measures of fluency, accuracy, and complexity was used to evaluate the quality of the participants’ written production:

1. Fluency measures

Estimating fluency as a build in composing has been a hot discussion from the 1970s. In the main endeavor, Hunt (1970) attempted to gauge learners’ L1 composing familiarity. He connected the develop of a T-unit, or insignificant terminal unit, which joined by any related ward provisions. He chose T-units rather than sentence length, since it was perceived that kids in their local dialect could and would compose long sentences just by utilizing coordination. More recent studies validated this construct by using the number of syllables per minute (e.g., Chenoweth, A., & Hayes (1998), Chenoweth and Hayes (2001), Ellis and Yuan (2004), Ellis and Yuan (2005).

According the theoretical principium for measuring fluency, this study will employ the same measures utilized by Chenoweth and Hayes & Ellis and Yuan (2004) for measuring writing fluency, i.e. syllable per- minute: the total number of syllables produced divided by the total number of seconds a contributor will take to complete the task multiplied by 60.

2. Complexity measures

a. **Syntactic complexity**: it is regarded as the ratio of clauses to T-units in the contributors’ production. in this study, T-unit will be employed instead of C-unit since the task performance is mono-logic and contains few elided utterances. It should be mentioned that T-unit analysis was primarily developed to evaluate written language and has been replaced by C-unit analysis for oral production.

b. **Syntactic variety**: The aggregate number of various linguistic action word frames utilized in the undertaking is called Syntactic assortment Grammatical action word shapes comprise tense (e.g., straightforward past, past persistent), methodology (e.g., should, need to), and aloof voice.

3. Accuracy measures

For accuracy measurement the following two criteria will be used:

a) **Error-free clauses**: the percentage of clauses that do not contain any errors. Errors were defined as deviant from standard norms with respect to syntax, morphology, and/or lexicon. Lexical errors are defined as errors in lexical form or collocation (e.g., **I was waiting you*). So, all errors in syntax, morphology, and lexical choice will be considered.

b) Correct verb forms:

The level of accuracy utilized action words regarding tense, viewpoint, methodology, and subject-verb agreement.3.4. Procedures

3.4.1. Data collection

For data collection, the participants were required to write an argumentative under the different planning conditions. The topic was: “Some people believe that watching Television is harmful. Others maintain that it is beneficial. What is your idea? Use specific reasons and examples to support your idea”.

3.4.2. Data Analysis

We segmented, coded, and scored all writing productions of different groups under the aforesaid conditions based on the measures selected for assessing complexity, accuracy, and fluency. The data was segmented, coded, and scored by two independent experts in order to ensure that the segmentation and scoring of the transcripts are conducted reliably. In the next step, inter-coder/inter-rater reliability coefficient magnitudes was estimated. SPSS version 22.0 was employed to check the normality of distribution via skewness and kurtosis indices. Each aspect of accuracy and complexity was submitted to MANOVA. Finally writing fluency was measured using one- way ANOVA followed by Post-Hoc Tukey tests.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the present study the impacts of pre-task instruction and task rehearsal on accuracy, complexity, and fluency of EFL learners’ writing were investigated. This study tried to examine the following research hypothesis:

The first research hypothesis was directed toward identifying the impact of pre-task instruction and task rehearsal on complexity writing of Iranian EFL learners. It was hypothesized that pre-task instruction and task rehearsal have no influence on EFL Learners’ writing complexity. To this aim, complexity was measured in two different ways: syntactic complexity and syntactic variety. So, the higher the obtained score, the better the complexity of language would be. Table4.1. summarizes the descriptive on learners’ complexity writing.

TABLE 4.1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON STUDENTS' WRITING COMPLEXITY

Groups	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
S. complexity (Group 1)	15	1.10	1.60	1.28	.14	.021
S. Complexity(Group 2)	15	1.30	1.70	1.49	.11	.014
S. complexity (Group 3)	15	1.50	2.30	1.86	.22	.051
S. variety (Group 1)	15	11.10	16.50	13.54	1.59	2.54
S. variety (Group 2)	15	14.40	22.30	17.51	2.70	7.29
S. variety (Group 3)	15	15.60	32.10	22.33	2.78	6.94
Valid N (list wise)	15					

As indicated in table 4.1.it became clear that mean scores on syntactic complexity and syntactic variety of group three is more than groups two and one. Group three preformed significantly differently from both groups two and one. Also learners in group two outperformed those in group one. Thus it can be inferred that the mean scores of learner group two is higher than that of group one. However, In order to test the null hypothesis, a one-way between –group multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to explore the effect of pre-task guidance and task practice on syntactic multifaceted nature and syntactic assortment of EFL students. To check for ordinarieness, linearity, univariate and multivariate exceptions, homogeneity of difference covariance lattices, and multicollinearity, Preliminary supposition testing was performed.

Checking preliminary assumption on using MANOVA, the researcher conducted Multi-Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). The result of this analysis is shown in table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4.
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	D.F	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Groups	Syntactic -complexity	2.59	2	1.29	45.36	.000
	Syntactic-variety	523.75	2	261.87	21.94	.000

Table 4.4 shows syntactic complexity and syntactic variety are significant (p=.000). F value was significant. This suggests that there is significant difference between / among the groups. It is also necessary to find out where the difference is stated. Hence, The Null Hypothesis has been rejected. To further examine the place of differences between the groups, Post-Hoc Tukey test was conducted. The result of the Post-Hoc indicated in table 4.5.

TABLE4.5.
POST-HOC TUKEY TEST

Dependent Variable	(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Syntactic complexity	no planning	Pre-task instruction without task rehearsal	-.20*	.061	.005
		task planning with task rehearsal	-.58*	.061	.000
	Pre-task instruction without task rehearsal	no planning	.20*	.061	.005
		task planning with task rehearsal	-.37*	.061	.000
	task planning with task rehearsal	no planning	.58*	.061	.000
		Pre-task instruction without task rehearsal	.37*	.061	.000
Syntactic variety	no planning	Pre-task instruction without task rehearsal	-3.97*	1.26	.008
		task planning with task rehearsal	-8.35*	1.26	.000
	Pre-task instruction without task rehearsal	no planning	3.97*	1.26	.008
		task planning with task rehearsal	-4.38*	1.26	.003
	task planning with task rehearsal	no planning	8.35*	1.26	.000
		Pre-task instruction without task rehearsal	4.38*	1.26	.003

The above table indicates syntactic complexity and syntactic variety in the three groups.

Thinking about syntactic unpredictability, the exposition by organizers who had both pre-errand guidance and undertaking practice contained the most linguistically complex sentences, averaging 1.86 conditions per T-unit, though the individuals who had no pre-assignment arranging Without any chance to practice the assignment furnished the slightest grammatically complex with 1.28 provisions per T-unit.

Regarding syntactic varieties, as measured by the total number of different grammatical verb forms used in the task, the essay by planners who had both pre-task planning and task rehearsal contained the most syntactically complex sentences, averaging 22.33 clauses per T-unit, whereas those who had no pre-task planning Without any opportunity to rehearse the task provided the least syntactically complex with 13.54 clauses per T-unit.

The results of this study support the findings of the previous studies suggesting significant differences among the groups with different task conditions. Task complexity in Robinson's theory is defined by two sets of aspects, 'resource

directing' (e.g. whether the task needs reasoning) and 'resource depleting' (e.g. whether there is opportunity for strategic planning). These two factors 'interact and affect task production in measurable ways' (p. 31). On the contrary, accuracy and specially complexity are achieved by learners drawing on their rule-based system and therefore require syntactic processing. Complexity is different from accuracy since it is related to the 'restructuring' that arises as a result of the need to take risks whereas accuracy reflects the learner's attempt to control existing resources and to avoid errors.

Additionally, the aftereffects of this investigation, bolster Ellis (2003, 2008) Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) thoughts, who trust that intricacy is resolved as the degree to which the dialect delivered in playing out an errand is intricate and shifted (Ellis 2003, p.340) and identified with students' propensity to go for broke to utilize the most exceptional of their semantic which may finally give rise to the process of restructuring (Ellis, 2008; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Thus, these findings led to the rejection of the first Null Hypothesis.

The second research hypothesis was directed toward identifying the impact of pre-task instruction and task rehearsal on accuracy writing of Iranian EFL learners. It was hypothesized that pre-task instruction and task rehearsal have no influence on EFL Learners' writing accuracy. Accuracy was measured in two ways: Error-free clauses and Correct-verb forms. In order to test the null hypothesis, a one-way between –group multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to investigate the impact of pre-task instruction and task rehearsal on syntactic complexity and syntactic variety of EFL learners. Initial assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and multicollinearity. The results of the analysis suggested no violation on the assumptions. Table 4.6. shows the related descriptive statistics on students' writing accuracy.

TABLE 4.6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON STUDENTS' WRITING ACCURACY

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Correct_verb_G1	15	.69	1.30	1.00	.20
Correct_verb_G2	15	.68	79.00	6.19	20.14
Correct_verb_G3	15	.87	1.50	1.20	.20
Error_free_G1	15	.06	1.10	.71	.23
Error_free_G2	15	.59	1.30	.87	.18
Error_free_G3	15	.78	1.40	1.00	.16
Valid N (list-wise)	15				

As mentioned, the above table indicates descriptive statistics on students' writing accuracy. Group one are the students with no pre-task instruction and task rehearsal, group two are the participants with pre-task instruction without task rehearsal, and group three are the students having opportunities for both pre-task instruction and task rehearsal.

The consequence of the analysis demonstrates that group three had the most astounding mean on the two measures, trailed by gathering two, and gathering one had the least mean. Nonetheless, In request to test the second invalid theory, a one way ANOVA analysis between – aggregate multivariate examination of difference (MANOVA) was performed to explore the effect of pre-task instruction and task rehearsal.

TABLE 4.7.
POST-HOC ON STUDENTS' ACCURACY

Source	Dependent Variable	d. f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Correct-verb-forms	2	.02	.95	.39
	Error-free-clauses	2	.16	4.87	.01
Intercept	Correct-verb-forms	1	46.65	1514.27	.000
	Error-free-clauses	1	31.43	955.91	.000
Groups	Correct-verb-forms	2	.02	.95	.39
	Error-free-clauses	2	.16	4.87	.01

As the above table indicates the significant level for correct verb form is .39 and error -free clauses is .01. So we can infer that the result of analysis is not significant. So the null hypothesis has been retained.

The third research hypothesis was directed toward identifying the impact of pre-task instruction and task rehearsal on fluency writing of EFL learners. It was hypothesized that pre-task instruction and task rehearsal have no influence on EFL learners' writing fluency. To this end, fluency was measured in One-way ANOVA. The researcher used the Construct of a T-units or minimal unit rather than sentence length T-units. So, the higher the obtained score, the better the fluency of language would be.

TABLE 4.8.
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR FLUENCY

	Sum of Squares	D. f.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.71	2	3.85	62.36	.000
Within Groups	2.59	42	.06		
Total	10.31	44			

As indicated in the above table, the result of between groups one-way ANOVA is significant. However, in order to show the difference between the groups Tukey Post- hoc tests were conducted. The result of the Post-Hoc is indicated in table (4.9.).

TABLE4.9.
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS
Dependent Variable: Fluency

(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
no planning	Pre-task instruction without task rehearsal	-.24*	.09	.03
	task planning with task rehearsal	-.97*	.09	.000
Pre-task instruction without task rehearsal	no planning	.24*	.09	.03
	task planning with task rehearsal	-.73*	.09	.000
task planning with task rehearsal	no planning	.97*	.09	.000
	Pre-task instruction without task rehearsal	.73*	.09	.000

As needs be, these outcomes lead to dismiss the third Null Hypothesis too. With respect to familiarity with thinking of, it tends to be guessed that pre-task guidance help familiarity with writing in two noteworthy ways: First, it simplifies process and text planning for content and organization. This affects the pre-task instructors obtain the related information that needs to be conveyed, establishes the context and explains the characters, identifies the main events, and evaluates them will find the pressure on working memory lessened during on-line assembly (Raab, 1992, cited by Zimmerman, 2000) Second, pre-task instruction may aid to boost second language writers' confidence in their capacity to write effectively and sufficiently . Therefore, may reduce their need to engage in extensive monitoring, Zimmerman suggested that writers do revise more when writing in their L2 than in their L1.It was find by Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) that second language writers who were more skillful wrote more fluently than less skilled writers; pre-task planning, hence, may compensate for lack of L2 proficiency where fluency is dealt with. The results of this study confirmed the findings of the previous related studies and this shows that there are significant differences among the groups having different task conditions.

The result of this study, also, support Foster & Skehan (1996) ideas, believe that a number of studies have shown that when learners have the opportunity to plan a task Task repetition is perceived to be particularly helpful to advance students' familiarity and multifaceted nature. Maybe the reason is that "when students realize what they will speak or expound on they have all the more handling space accessible for planning the dialect expected to express their thoughts with the outcome that the amount of the yield will be improved and furthermore the familiarity and intricacy. (Ellis, 2003).

An alternative view, promulgated by Robinson, is that pre-task planning simplifies the task and thus obviates the need to attend closely to form during performance but assists automatic access to stored language and so leads to greater fluency.

V. CONCLUSION

The key finding of this research, as discussed in the preceding chapters was as follow: First, the analyses indicated that there is reasonably positive correlation between pre-task instruction, task rehearsal and some aspects of learners' writing. This study revealed that learners with having opportunity, pre-task instruction and task rehearsal try to improve their writing. Secondly, the study showed that there is a significant positive correlation between task rehearsal, pre-task instruction and EFL learners' writing achievement. In other word, having higher opportunity in pre-task instruction and task rehearsal, the higher the learners' achievement in writing. In summary, it is obvious that pre-task instruction raises output in a written task. This is revealed in higher degree, fluency, and complexity of language, although such planning seems to have little effect on accuracy.

Implications of the study

Teachers and researchers are well-aware of teacher on EFL learners' writing and achievement. We can assume that having opportunity, pre-task instruction and task rehearsal can affect learners' writing and achievement in different settings and it is not context bound. It should also be noted that educational contexts, as well as schools' administrators provide high opportunity to promote pre-task instruction and task rehearsal so that EFL learners' writing will be improved.

The concept of task repetition may have explicit pedagogical implications. Task repetition research suggest insights into how instructors might develop and improve tasks during different phases of lessons. Research also shows the ways in which tasks might be related within lessons to provide learners with opportunities to work repeatedly with similar linguistic content. As a result, rather than focusing upon the performance of tasks in isolation (which characterizes much research to date), the task repetition notion shifts the focus of debate clearly towards the pedagogic use of tasks within lessons.

REFERENCES

- [1] Ahmadian, M. J., & Tavakoli, M. (2011). The effects of simultaneous use of careful online planning and task repetition on accuracy, complexity, and fluency in EFL learners' oral production. *Language Teaching Research*, 15, 35-59.
- [2] Allan, D. (1992). Oxford Placement Test. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [3] Bauman, J., Bergeron, B. (1993). Story map instruction using children's literature: Effects on first graders' comprehension of central narrative elements. *Journal of reading behavior*, 25, 407-37.
- [4] Brown, H. Salisch, S. (1996). Clustering: A model for the freshman thinking project. *College Teaching*, 4 (1), 29- 33.
- [5] Bygate, M. (1996). Effects of task repetition: Appraising the developing language of learners. In J. Willis & D. Willis (eds), *Challenge and Change in Language Teaching*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- [6] Bygate, M. (2001). Effects of task repetition on the structure and control of oral language. In M. Bygate, P. Skehan and M. Swain (eds), *Researching Pedagogic Tasks, Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing*. Harlow: Longman.
- [7] Bygate, M. & Samuda, V. (2005). Integrative planning through the use of task-repetition. In R. Ellis (Ed.), *Planning and task performance in a second language* (Vol. 11, pp. 37-74). Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- [8] Carrell, P. L. (1989). Metacognitive Awareness and Second Language Reading. *Modern Language Journal*, 73, 121-133.
- [9] Carroll, J.M. (2008). Geospatial Aspects of Activity Awareness. Technology, Design and Management: Creating New Models of Possibility for All, Monterrey, Mexico, April 3-5.
- [10] Chenoweth, N. A., & Hayes, J. R. (2001). Fluency in writing, generating text in L1 and L2. *Written Communication*, 18 (1), 80-98.
- [11] Cronin, J. J., & Taylor, S. A. (1992). Measuring Service Quality: A Re-examination and Extension. *Journal of Marketing*, 56(3), 55-68.
- [12] Ellis, R. (1994). The study of second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 824pp.
- [13] Ellis, R. (2003). Task-based language learning and teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [14] Ellis, R., & Yuan, F. (2004). The effects of planning on fluency, complexity, and accuracy in second language narrative writing. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26: 59-84.
- [15] Ellis, R. (2005). Planning and task performance in a second language. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- [16] Ellis, R. (2008). The study of second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [17] Ellis, R. & Barkhuizen, G. (2005). Analyzing Learner Language. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [18] Englert, C. S., & Mariage, T. (1991). Shared understandings: Structuring the writing experience through dialogue. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 24, 330-342.
- [19] Foster, P. & Skehan, P. (1996). The influence of planning on performance in task-based learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 299-324.
- [20] Foster, P. & Skehan, P. (1999). The influence of source of planning and focus of planning on task-based performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 3(3), 215-247.
- [21] Gass, S. Mackey, A., Alvarez-Torrez, M.J. & Fernandez-Garcia, M. (1999). The effects of task repetition on linguistic output. [Electronic version]. *Language Learning*, 49, 549-581.
- [22] Heimlich, J.E. & Pittelman, S.D. (1986). Semantic Mapping: *Classroom Applications; International Reading Association*. Newark: Delaware.
- [23] Hunt, K. (1970). Syntactic maturity in school-children and adults. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, 35, 229-233.
- [24] Johnson, K. (1996). Language Teaching and Skill Learning. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- [25] Lantolf, J. (1996). Second language theory building: Letting all the flowers bloom! *Language learning*, 46: 713-746.
- [26] Levelt, W. (1989). Speaking: From intention to articulation. Cambridge: MA: The MIT Press.
- [27] Lipson, M. (1995). The effect of semantic mapping instruction on prose comprehension of below-level college readers. *Reading Research and Instruction*, 34, 367-378.
- [28] Lynch, T., & Maclean, J. (2000). Exploring the benefits of task repetition and recycling for classroom language learning. *Language Teaching Research*, 4: 221-50.
- [29] MacArthur, C. (1996). Student assistant for learning from text (SALT): A hypermedia reading aid. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 28, 150-159.
- [30] Park, S. (1999). The influence of pre-task instructions and pre-task planning on focus on form during Korean EFL task-based interaction. *Language Teaching Research*, 14 (1), 9.
- [31] Peresich, M.L. Meadows, J.D. Sinatra, R. (1990). Content Area Cognitive Mapping for Reading and Writing Proficiency. *Journal of Reading*, 33(6), 424-432.
- [32] Reinders, H. (2009). Learner uptake and acquisition in three grammar-oriented production activities. *Language Teaching Research*, 13(2), 201-222.
- [33] Robinson, P. (2001). Task complexity, task difficulty, and task production: Exploring Interactions in a componential framework. *Applied Linguistics*, 22:27-57.
- [34] Roth, P. L. (1994). Missing data: A conceptual review for applied psychologists. *Personnel Psychology*, 47: 537-570.
- [35] Skehan, P. (1996a). A framework for the implementation of task based instruction. *Applied Linguistics*, 17: 38-62.
- [36] Skehan, P. (1998). A cognitive approach to language learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [37] Skehan, P. (1998a). Task-based instruction. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 18: 268-86.
- [38] Skehan P. (1998b). A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [39] Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (1999). The influence of task structure and processing conditions on narrative retellings. *Language Learning*, 49(1), 93-120.
- [40] Skehan, P. & Foster, P. (2001). Cognition and tasks in P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp.183-205). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- [41] Skehan, P. (2007). 'Re-examining Factors that Affect Task Difficulty in TBLA', *ILI Language Teaching Journal*, Vol.3 (1), 1-26.
- [42] Tang, T. L. P. (1992). The effects of hardiness, police stress, and life stress on police officers' illness and absenteeism. *Public Personnel Management*, 21, 493-51.
- [43] Zimmerman, R. (2000). L2 writing: Sub-processes, a model of formulating and empirical findings. *Learning and Instruction*, 10: 73-99.

Ghorbanali Salehi Aref received his B.A and M.A in English Language Teaching from Teachers University and Islamic Azad University Science and Research Branch of Tehran in 1999, 2013, respectively. He is an English teacher in secondary school. He has taught English for 25 years.

Ahmad Mojavezi received his M.A and Ph.D in English Language Teaching from Islamic Azad University of Najafabad Branch in 2009 and 2014, respectively. He is an assistant professor in Islamic Azad University of Zahedan.

A Recollection of Chinese Bible Translation throughout History—A Sociological Study on Translation

Xizhi Zhang

South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, Guangdong, China

Abstract—Under the guidance of Pierre Bourdieu's reflective sociology theory with the three key concepts, 'field', 'habitus' and 'capital', the author engages in a sociological study of Chinese Bible translation over the past one thousand years by dividing the historical course of Chinese Bible translation into five stages: namely, germination, initiation, prosperity, transition and development, thus outlining the history of Chinese Bible translation.

Index Terms—sociology of translation, Bible, Chinese translation

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the late 1990s translatology has been influenced by sociology, especially Pierre Bourdieu's reflective sociology. Pierre Bourdieu proposed a formula: [(habitus) (capital)] plus field = practice (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 101). In order to outline the history of Chinese Bible translation, the author intends to employ the three concepts, 'field', 'habitus' and 'capital', of Pierre Bourdieu's reflective sociology in reviewing Chinese Bible translation courses, which are divided into five stages.

It is necessary to make it clear that the so-called 'Chinese translation' only involves the Han people's language, as is the common language for all Chinese nationalities; all editions in dialects, for example, Cantonese and Shanghainese or in languages of minorities, for example, the Miao language and the Yi language, are beyond this study.

II. CHINESE BIBLE TRANSLATION: HISTORICAL EXPLANATIONS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF THE SOCIOLOGY OF TRANSLATION

With the formation and development of the field of Chinese Christianity within China, translators with different identities during different historical periods over the past one thousand years took part in translating practices. Their translating practices resulted from the contemporary 'religious fields', 'commercial fields' and 'the field of power' of those periods inside or outside China and were closely related to 'cultural capital', 'economic capital' and 'social capital,' which existed in those fields. In these special circumstances the unique habitus of these translators came into being.

A. *Foreign Churchmen Acting as Leading Translators (from the Tang Dynasty to the Time before and after the May 4th Movement): Chinese Bible Translation Accompanying the Religious Fields Appearing out of Nothing*

Christianity is not an indigenous religion in China. It was first introduced into China during the Tang Dynasty. The Christian field experienced a long and gradual process from absence to establishment from the Tang Dynasty to the time before and after the May 4th Movement, during which foreign churchmen who lived in China acted as leading translators in the Chinese Bible translation projects.

1. Stage of germination (the Tang Dynasty): Budding Chinese Bible translation originating from the appearance of the Christian religious field

The religious field is attached to political and cultural fields. During the long period spanned by the Tang Dynasty a stable and harmonious situation remained in place. It is during this period that the Silk Road was created. The rulers of the time thus encouraged foreigners to come to China for the purpose of trade. As a result, the commercial field brought about the Christian religious field. When Christianity was first introduced into China by Alopen, the missionary, it was named *Jingjiao* meaning 'Bright Church' and is universally known as Nestorianism. The record on the Nestorian Stele, which was made in 781 A.D. and is now exhibited in Xi'an, depicts the thriving nature of Nestorianism in China: '法流十道.....寺满百城.....' ('The creed spreads far and near ... Many cities are full of holy churches...'). This illustrates the appearance of the earliest Chinese Christian field. Since the foreign missionaries did not pay much attention to training local churchmen (Duan, 1998, p. 137), Chinese Bible Translation was carried out through foreign missionaries' oral accounts (though also drawing on the expressiveness arising from their body language) and Chinese church workers writing down the lines (Weng, 1996, p. 3). Although the Nestorian religious field was forming rapidly during this short period, it was still in the budding stage. The principal religious fields still belonged to Buddhism and

Taoism. In early Chinese versions, many Buddhist terms were borrowed: ‘三一妙身’(three parts making up a concordant body---corresponding to ‘Trinity’), ‘慈父阿罗诃’(Alaha, the kind father---corresponding to ‘Jehovah, our heavenly Father’), ‘弥施诃普尊大圣子’(the great son of the mahapa) corresponding to ‘Jesus, the son of the messiah’), to name just some. This practice was primarily for the purpose of promoting the development of the Christian field in China by making the Bible easy for Chinese people to understand. Another reason was that the Chinese translators were more familiar with Buddhist terms from their previous long experiences of indulging in Buddhist-Taoist culture (Wu , 2016) . Unexpectedly, owing to the action to suppress Buddhism during the reign of the Tang emperor Wuzong, Nestorian missionaries were forced to withdraw from central China. Moreover, since the Silk Road was cut off afterwards, the budding Christian field suffered severe setbacks and soon vanished in central China.

2. Stage of initiation (Late Ming Dynasty---Late 18th Century): Catholic missionaries acting as leading translators

During the 15th and 16th centuries European people succeeded in discovering the new continent and fulfilling the voyage around the world. Thereupon, a brand-new maritime navigation era began. European people started to develop a wider sphere of vision. At this time the religious field attached to the Roman Curia suffered a great blow because of the Reformation Movement in which Protestantism broke away from Catholicism and thus severely weakened the Roman Curia’s orthodox dignity and glory. Catholicism thus turned its gaze towards the remote oriental world (Shang, 2017, p. 80)

In the late 16th century, missionaries of the Catholic Society of Jesus once again introduced Christianity into China. In order to win the support of the Chinese field of power, the missionaries learned Confucianism on their own initiative so as to get close to the Chinese cultural field. Their efforts made them popular with far-sighted personage. Strikingly, they managed to baptize some intelligent people like Xu Guangqi, Li Zhizao and Yang Tingjun (<http://bbs.gxsd.com.cn/forum.php?mod=viewthread&ordertype=1&tid=470010>). Obviously the field of power was rather tolerant of the Christian field, which offered favourable conditions for restarting Chinese Bible translation projects. Italian missionary Matteo Ricci translated and edited the main ideas of the Bible. Portuguese missionary Emmanuel Diaz translated the Four Gospels of the Bible. Early in the 18th century, French missionary Jean Basset translated *Acts*, *The Letters of Paul* and some parts of the four Gospels. At the end of the 18th century, French missionary Louis de Poirot translated *The Old Testament* and *The New Testament*, except for most of *Prophets* and *Song of Songs*.

Since translation practices took shape after the Christian field had become established in China, the versions from this period were more loyal to the original Bible version. French missionary Louis de Poirot exemplified the principle of loyalty, only intending to retain the original meaning of the Bible and ignoring readers’ preferences (‘不图悦人听, 惟图保存圣经的本文文意’) (Zhao, 1993, p. 15).

3. Stage of prosperity (19th Century to the time before and after the May 4th Movement): Protestant missionaries acting as the main translators

During this period, the Chinese Christian field went from operating on a small scale to a large scale, from existing only in isolated areas of the country to having a presence across entire regions. At the same time, Western capitalist countries entered a stage of rapid development during which they further strengthened their outward expansion. In the early 19th century, foreign missionaries had no freedom to preach their beliefs. Things changed in the mid-19th century when the ‘Treaty of Whampoa’, the ‘Treaty of Tientsin’ and the ‘Treaty of Peking’ were signed. These treaties guaranteed preaching rights for foreign missionaries and provided them with protection and convenience. Henceforth, comprehensive favourable conditions for the introduction of Christianity formed: in the commercial field, capital strengthened; in the religious field of Western countries missionary actions became more active and, above all, in the Chinese field of power an unprecedentedly tolerant attitude toward the cause of local Chinese Christianity appeared. All of these factors helped the Chinese Christian field prosper and allowed Chinese Bible translation to develop and thrive.

From the perspective of translators’ habitus, since Protestantism pays greater attention to establishing relations between believers and God by each believer reading the Bible and praying, Protestant missionaries were more focussed on Bible translation. Thus, many Chinese versions of the Bible appeared during this period. Over a period of one hundred years—from 1819, when the British missionary Robert Morrison completed the first Chinese cover-to-cover translation of the Bible, to 1919—nine cover-to-cover translated versions in all appeared; in contrast, no Catholic cover-to-cover Chinese translated version appeared until 1968. In terms of lingual styles, the above nine versions can be classified into three types: contemporarily vernacular versions, semi-classical versions and classical versions. Obviously, the Chinese Bible versions appearing in this period were unprecedented, many in terms of both quantity and variety. And the translation projects in this period were carried out under more careful organization than ever before. For example, the translating practice of the British missionary William Milne and his assistants was the direct mission assigned by the London Missionary Society. In 1890, a missionary conference was held in Shanghai. During the meeting, deputies from different churches formed three commissions, each in charge of one of the three versions: *the Chinese Union Version* (CUV) (contemporarily vernacular), *Easy Wenli Union Version* (semi-classical versions) and *High Wenli Union Version* (classical).

A notable fact is that the British missionary Robert Morrison’s completion of his cover-to-cover Chinese Bible translation resulted solely from his habitus, the related fields and the fund supporting him. Morrison was to become a famous sinologist. He began learning Chinese early on in his schooling. As a grown-up, he became a member of the

Presbyterian Church and was sent to China for missionary work. Clearly, his education and his belief in doing service to God shaped the formation of his habitus as a translator. Before he went to China, he once asked somebody to copy French missionary Jean Basset's Chinese translation of the *Bible*, with which he continued to learn Chinese. This fact shows that he benefited from the Catholic field. Since the Qing government did not allow foreign missionaries to go to inland areas at that time, he had to dwell in Macao in order to undertake his great *Bible* translation project; (Macao was, at this time, under Portuguese administration and thus not subject to the Qing government's decrees, allowing it to have an unconfined religious field). His translation was published in Malacca and subsequently introduced into China. From then onwards, Chinese people could read the whole of the *Bible*.

A full set of Christian terms were created in Morrison's translation, which deeply influenced later generations. His translated version caused a sensation in Europe. Leading European libraries viewed it as an honour to possess his translated Bible (Tan, 2000). It is his translated version that established his status and honour, which can be considered as social capital, in Christian fields in China and even throughout the world. In turn, his social capital increased his cultural capital. Therefore, under the invitation of business circles, he opened the London Oriental Institution, in which Chinese lessons were provided (Ch'en & Hsiao, 1967, p.2). Consequently, in running this institution, which had resulted from the stimulation of economic capital in the commercial field, Morrison accumulated a lot of cultural capital for his sinological field in Britain.

Another aspect worthy of consideration is that foreign missionaries' habituses, embodied in their translation, played a role within the Chinese Christian field. In addition to early publishing, initiated by Morrison, a missionary conference held in 1877 gave birth to a commission on schooling and course books. This commission's goal was, initially, to compile course books for church-run schools. It subsequently developed to become the largest publisher in the country, named 'The Christian Literature Society for China', in which many Christian sects participated. This society published large quantities of Christian Gospel and Spirituality books, as well as books introducing Western science and technology. *Tian Feng*, the journal published by the National Committee of the Three-Self Patriotic Movement of the Protestant Churches in China ('National TSPM') was also issued by this society before May 1957.

B. Chinese People (Churchmen) Acting as Leading Translators (1920's --- Present Time): Systematic Chinese Translation after the Establishment of the Christian Field

The 20th century witnessed the overall localization of the Chinese Christian field. At the beginning of the 20th century, the Boxer Rebellion and the conflicts that emerged between China and foreign countries led to an upsurge of national pride among Chinese Christians. Accordingly, a self-governing church movement boomed (Zhang, 1998). Within this movement, the famous Chinese Presbyterian pastor Yu Guozhen (from Shanghai) founded the China Christian Independent Church. Notably, a talent pool for Chinese *Bible* translation projects appeared as a result.

1. Stage of transition (1920s --- late 1970s): Chinese translators starting their translation

During this period, changes began to manifest themselves in terms of the nationalities of translators. When Chinese *Bible* translation began, foreign missionaries played the leading role and their Chinese colleagues acted as assistants. Later on, they would reverse roles, with foreign missionaries assisting Chinese translators in the translation projects. Furthermore, Chinese translators eventually undertook this work on their own.

In 1935, Italian Rev. Gabriele Allegra began his Bible translation. He completed translating the *Old Testament* in 1944. However, he felt it necessary to modify his translation. So he founded an association, i.e. a branch of the Studium Biblicum Franciscanum in Peking in 1945 for the purpose of pooling translation talent to perfect the quality of the translated text. This association consisted of Chinese priests, among which were Rev. Li Shiyu and Rev. Li Zhixian as formal members and Rev. Wan Cizhang, Rev. Li Yutang and Rev. Liu Xutang as informal members. In 1948, with the increasingly tense situation of the Chinese civil war, the Chinese Christian field—in which foreigners participated—was confronted with negative factors. Therefore, this association transferred to Hong Kong and continued the translation project. In this project, the revision of the *New Testament* was in the charge of Rev. Li Shiyu. This revised version, known as the Studium Biblicum Version (Catholic), was finally published in 1968.

During this period, the translation that was carried out solely by a Chinese translator was Lu Zhenzhong (吕振中)'s *Bible* Translation. Lu Zhenzhong was born into a Christian family in Fujian Province, adopting Christianity during his childhood and attending Peiyuan Middle School, a church school. Subsequently, he obtained a Bachelor of Arts degree at the University of Hong Kong. Later, he studied at Yenching University, which was run by four American and British Christian churches, and obtained degree in theology. In 1940, he began translating the *Bible* at Yenching University's School of Religion. It is clear that Lu Zhenzhong's translator's habitus was heavily shaped by the fact that his family had been steeped in the Christian tradition throughout his formative years, and his education had an entirely Christian foundation. In order to prepare himself for translating the *Bible*, he went first to America and then to Britain in order to learn theology, Greek and Hebrew. During those years, he attained a Master of Divinity degree in America and was ordained a priest in Britain. Favourable Christian fields with abundant cultural capital in America and Britain immensely promoted his Bible translation. In March, 1949, Rev. Lu transferred to Hong Kong to continue his translating work with the financial aid of the British and Foreign Bible Society due to the fact that the field of power in the Chinese hinterland was becoming more and more unfavourable for the existence and development of the religious field. Rev. Lu's translation, the Lu Zhen Zhong Bible Translation, was finally published at the end of 1970. A great

30-year-long project was completed at last.

2. Stage of development (1980s --- Early 21st Century): systematic translation by Chinese people of different nationalities

At the beginning of the 1980s China began to get rid of the influence of the disastrous so-called Cultural Revolution; the field of power was no longer blatantly hostile towards Western countries, nor did it suppress different religions anymore. Instead, it began to implement a policy of openness and gradually developed a newly tolerant attitude towards foreign religions. With China's process of reform and opening up further developing, the relatively tolerant field of power made it possible for the Christian field to recover. Churches and other prayer meeting venues, which had once been unwillingly closed and forcibly occupied for other uses, eventually resumed their original functions. At the same time, mainland Chinese Christians regained opportunities to exchange and cooperate with other Christian workers from outside the Chinese mainland. Thus, the mainland Chinese Christian field regained access to the Christian fields beyond the Chinese mainland and could once again employ their rich cultural capital and economic capital for Chinese *Bible* translation. Over the past thirty years, Chinese *Bible* translation has been mainly carried out—on a systematic basis—by trans-national or trans-regional Chinese organizations. The United Bible Societies, Hong Kong Bible Society and Chinese Bible International LTD made outstanding contributions to these projects.

The United Bible Societies (UBS), composed of Bible societies of different countries, is responsible for coordinating Bible translations in different languages and different versions. In 1987, the UBS and the leaders of Chinese Christianity negotiated the setting up of a Bible printing house in Nanjing. In 1988, the UBS published the *Holy Bible Chinese Union Version with New Punctuation*. This new version is the revised edition based on the previous Chinese Union Version, with some expressions, paragraphs and punctuations having been modified. In addition, the Hong Kong Bible Society, affiliated with the International Bible Society, published the Chinese Union Version Bible 2010. This version was completed by a group composed of ethnic Chinese scholars and pastors from the Chinese mainland, Hong Kong, Macao and various Southeast Asian countries. The series of translations, which began in the 1980s, embraced previously published versions, i.e. *The New Testament (the Revised Chinese Union Version)* (2006) and *The Old and New Testaments (Revised Chinese Union Version)* (2011). This edition embodies the norms of the modern Chinese language, with a plainer and more natural-sounding vocabulary (Chinese Christianity Network, 2018).

III. CONCLUSION

This article has revealed the historical processes of Chinese Bible translation from the perspective of Socio-translation Studies. It is more than one thousand years since the *Bible* was translated into Chinese for the first time during the Tang Dynasty. The history of Chinese Bible translation manifests a number of changes. One is the change of key actors --- from foreign missionaries to Chinese disciples; the other is the change of organization forms --- from non-organized individuals to funded organizations. In his study on thinking and art works, Bourdieu points out that 'Research must relate the particular field of practices to the broader field of power' (Swartz, 1997, p. 142). These changes happening within the processes of Chinese Bible translation correspond to the ups and downs of the Chinese Christian field and reflect in particular the relationship between the religious field and the field of political power.

From the perspective of the theories on fields and translators' habitus, a translator's habitus results from the joint influence of different fields. In other words, a translator's ability in his/her mother language and one or more foreign language(s) determines his/her lingual habitus; in the case of translators who translated the *Bible* into Chinese, their religious habitus resulted from their original religious field and the subsequent Chinese religious field. The combination of these two habituses formed their translator's habitus vis-à-vis Chinese Bible translation.

Meanwhile, the translator's translating habitus, in turn, affects the fields with which he/she is associated. For example, Morrison's translation brought about striking changes in the Chinese Christian field by introducing a large quantity of Christian terms to fill the vacancies in this regard. Since the beginning of the 21st century, with their modern lingual norms featuring plain writings in the vernacular, new Chinese versions of the *Bible* have also changed the Chinese Christian field in terms of structure of membership, having absorbed more and more believers from poorly-educated strata.

APPENDIX

A. Habitus 'designates a way of being, a habitual state (especially of the body) and, in particular, a disposition, tendency, propensity, or inclination' (Bourdieu, 1977, p. 214). Bourdieu also uses the wording 'cultural unconscious', 'habit-forming force' and so on to designate its concept (Swartz, 1997, p. 101).

B. There are three forms of capital: economic capital, cultural capital and social capital. Economic capital can be directly converted into currency, including wealth, income, property, etc. Cultural capital includes culture, knowledge, educational credentials, etc. which can be converted into economic capital under certain conditions. Social capital is a 'capital of social connections, honourability and respectability' (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 122) that can also be converted into economic capital under certain conditions.

C. Field is 'a network, or configuration, of objective relations between positions' (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992, p. 97). The most important field is the field of power. On the one hand, it is a sort of 'meta-field that operates as an

organizing principle of differentiation and struggle throughout all fields'; on the other hand, the field of power can be regarded as 'the dominant social class' (Swartz, 1997, p. 136).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This paper results from the relevant research supported by the subprojects of 'The Training for China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters' and 'The Association Project of Comparative Study of English and Chinese in the New Era' (Ref: South China Business College 2017298), which belong to the project of Guangdong Key Characteristic Discipline (English Language and Culture) ([2017]No. 1), the Project of Guangdong University Students' Training in Entrepreneurship and Innovation: 'A Study of the Application of Trados, the Translation Software, for Cultivating Translation Professionals, Taking South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies for Example' (Ref: 201812620011), the Project of South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies: 'Adaptive study on reform in teaching undergraduate Students in the World-English Era' (Ref: 2017JG09) and A project authorized by School of English Language and Culture, South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies: 'An Empirical Study of Innovative Tactics of Computer Auxiliary Translation Technology for Training Professionals in the Translation Major in Undergraduate Education, Taking South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies for Example' (Ref: 201802).

The author wishes to thank Associate Professor Binghua Lv, Mr. Baoyu Zhang and Mr. Aidan Cowlard Joyce for their invaluable comments.

REFERENCES

- [1] Bourdieu, Pierre. (1984). *Distinction: A Social Critique of the Judgment of State*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- [2] Bourdieu, Pierre. (1992). *The Logic of Practice*. Chicago: Stanford University Press.
- [3] Bourdieu, Pierre & Wacquant, L. (1992). *An Invitation to Reflexive Sociology*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- [4] Bourdieu, Pierre. (1977). *Outline of a Theory of Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [5] Ch'en, Yao-sheng & Paul S. Y. Hsiao. (1967). *Sinology in the United Kingdom and Germany*. Honolulu: East-West Center.
- [6] Chinese Christianity Network. *The Revised Union Version*. (2010). <http://www.ccctspm.org/bookinfo/87> (accessed 26/05/2018).
- [7] Duan, Qi. (1998). A study of localisation of churches from perspective of the history of Christianity in China. *Studies in World Religions, 1*, 137-141.
- [8] Shang, Feng. (2017). The diffusion and influence of Catholicism in Vietnam in the 16th-19th centuries. *Southeast Asian and South Asian Studies, 1*, 80-85+110.
- [9] Swartz, David. (1997). *Culture and Power: The Sociology of Pierre Bourdieu*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- [10] Swartz, David. Tao, Dongfeng (Trans.). (2012). *Culture and Power: The Sociology of Pierre Bourdieu*. Shanghai: Shanghai Century Publishing Group.
- [11] Tan, Shulin. (2000). On Marrison's translation of Bible and its influence. *Journal of Shandong Normal University (Humanities and Social Sciences), 5*, 60-64.
- [12] Weng, Shaojun. (1996). *Explanatory Notes of Nestorianist Classics in Chinese*. Beijing: SDX Joint Publishing Company.
- [13] Wu, Baoluo. *Brief Biographies of Missionaries in North China* Olopen. The Gospel Times. <http://www.gospeltimes.cn/index.php/portal/article/index/id/34058> (accessed 16/06/2016).
- [14] Zhang, Hua. (1998). A review of China Christian Independent Church. *Hiastorical Review, 1*, 57-66.
- [15] Zhao, Weiben. (1993). *Tracing to the Source of the Bible Translation --- A History of the Five Major Modern Chinese Translations of the Bible*. Hong Kong: China Graduate School of Theology.

Xizhi Zhang is a lecturer at South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. Her research interests are translation and culture, translation methodology and practice.

Students' L2 Refusal Appropriateness and Accuracy

I Made Rai Jaya Widanta
Mechanical Engineering Department, Bali State Polytechnic, Bali, Indonesia

Ni Putu Somawati
Tourism Department, Bali State Polytechnic, Bali, Indonesia

I Wayan Dana Ardika
Civil Engineering Department, Bali State Polytechnic, Bali, Indonesia

Abstract—The study aimed at investigating refusal strategies performed by foreign learners of Indonesian language. Specifically, it was focused on researching strategies of refusal used by the participant, emerging frequency of each strategies, as well as appropriateness and accuracy of each strategy used. Sixty students majoring in Tourism were involved in the project. Discourse completion task (DCT) containing an invitation using three sociocultural aspects of low power (-P), low distance (-D), and low rank of imposition (-R) was used to elicit participants' refusal strategies. Taxonomy of refusal proposed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990) was applied to recognize refusal strategies used by participants. Result of the study revealed that there were three strategies of 'direct, indirect, and adjunct to refusal' used by participants in responding the invitation. However, two new sub-strategies found to enrich indirect strategies, they are 'alternative (change subject)' and 'telling wish'. Dealing with participants' appropriateness and accuracy, it could be concluded that their appropriateness in producing semantic formulas were higher than their accuracy (96,55% and 40,83%) respectively. In addition, there were two contradictive propositions finally underscored upon analysis of appropriateness and accuracy. In term of appropriateness, it is implied that L2 proficiency does not guarantee learners' high appropriateness, which is in contrast with the Cordina-Espurz's (2013) finding. However, in term of accuracy, it implied that the lower learners' L2 proficiency is the lower accuracy level they are in, which is in line with Cordina-Espurz's (2013) finding.

Index Term—proficiency, refusal strategies, appropriateness, accuracy

I. INTRODUCTION

Refusal is considered to be one of very challenging speech acts (SA) as it can threaten interlocutor's face, thus it requires high level of speakers' pragmatic competence (Ellis, 2008). According to Tian (2014), the success of a speaker in performing appropriate SA of refusal depends very much on his or her level of linguistic proficiency. The higher one's proficiency level of linguistic is, the more appropriate utterances of refusal he or she can perform. In order to be proficient he or she should learn pragmatics. One of effective methods for learning pragmatics is explicit and implicit learning (Widanta, 2017), i.e. the acquisition of pragmatics which is done by a real learning (with an instructor in class) or by non-class activity. The forms and function of pragmatic resources (pragmalinguistics) as well as the forms with their proper context (sociopragmatics) can be introduced explicitly to learners in order for them to be able to enhance their pragmatic awareness, and practice using and producing appropriate utterances sociocultural. In spite of pragmatic intervention, speakers' exposure to pragmatics by doing social interaction with speakers of the target language (implicitly) was also proved to be helpful (Widanta, 2018) to improve one's pragmatic competence.

There are a number of studies undertaken in refusal. Some refusal studies focused on investigating effect of L2 to L1 pragmatic (Aver & Brumberek-Dyzman, 2008), effectiveness of DCT and oral role play to trigger speakers' production of refusal (Martinez-Flor, 2013), speakers' politeness strategy (Felix-Brasdefer, 2004), cross-culture refusal (Lin, 2004), effect of proficiency to speakers' production (Cordina-Espurz, 2013), learners' pragmatic strategies (Tian, 2014), non-native speakers' production of speech acts of refusal (Satar, Lah, Sulaeman, 2011), effect of study abroad to learners' proficiency (Ren, 2012), and pragmatic transfer (Abed (2011).

Avet & Brumberek-Dyzman (2008) focused their study on effect of using L2 to L1 speaker. The research involved one hundred and six Polish students who learned English as a second language (L2). The participants were divided into two groups, 22 Polish students who learned English as L2 were grouped in group one and eighty four university students of Biology were grouped in group two. The study was aimed at investigating whether knowing and using other language will affect students' pragmalinguistic of first language (L1). In addition, the study was also in purpose to know similarities and differences of frequencies of use of semantic formulae of refusals of the two groups. By applying discourse completion task (DCT) containing situations on the basis of Brown & Levinson (1987), they were to complete

spaces provided in DCT. Result of analysis revealed that there was not a significant difference on pragmatic competence of both groups. It can be concluded that knowing and using L2 do not influence learners' L1 pragmalinguistic competence.

Martinez-Flor's (2013) work on refusal, on the other hand, was aimed to investigate variety of number and kinds of refusal. The main purpose of the research was to see effectiveness of two instruments (DCT and oral role play) to trigger participants to produce SA. Sixteen pairs of English majored students of advanced were given two instruments, written DCT and oral role play. Two hundred and eighty eight response samples obtained were compared to see effectiveness of both instruments. Result of analysis indicated that both instruments were effective.

Felix-Brasdefer (2004) investigated refusal SA to see politeness strategies used by Spanish native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) when performing refusal SA. In addition, the study was also aimed to see if length of stay abroad affected their production of refusal strategies. To elicit data of refusal SA, the study applied oral role play and verbal report (compared to Avert and Brumberek-Dyzman, 2008 and Martinez-Flor, 2013). Both instruments were utilized as they are easy to obtain complete verbal interaction. In addition, they ease researcher to control conversation and to reflect awareness on the use of refusal. By applying both instruments and involving sixty four participants (40 NS students and twenty four NNS students) it was obtained that there are three hundred and four refusal interactions done by research participants. The sequence of SA was made, starting from *head act*, *pre* and *post refusal* and *across conversational turn*. The result showed that participants were able to negotiate using lexical mitigation, syntagmatic, and higher solidarity and almost similar indirectness, which is almost similar to production of NS. It can be summarized that both speakers having experience to live in a native speakers' country and to live at home could show the same level of competence. Clearly, experience to study abroad is not visible to improve learners' pragmatic competence.

Study on refusal by utilizing written instrument was undertaken by Lin (2014). The study involved ninety participants, they are Mandarin language native speakers, Chinese EFL learners, English native speaker of American. The study was in purpose to see what cross culture refusal (Chinese and English) are they and how Chinese EFL learners of Chinese make refusal SA. The data raising instrument was DCT written in English and Chinese using three refusal situations in order to know participants' sociopragmatic participants. The participants were asked to read instruction and examples and complete the instruments for thirty minutes before the data was coded on the basis of Bebee's (1990) scheme. The data was analysed by using statistics. The result of analysis revealed that there was different strategies of refusal between three groups. Chinese EFL learners tended to make face threatening SA a lot higher than NS of China and English NS of America. In addition, there was similarity in refusal perception about face threatening acts of Chinese NS and English NS of American in terms of the way how they use 'indirectness' and 'adjunct'.

Research in L2 using written instrument was also undertaken by Cordina-Espurz (2013). Using one hundred and ninety two participants of master program students majoring in education and English language philology divided by four groups (*beginner*, *elementary*, *lower intermediate*, and *upper intermediate*), there were two purposes based on which it was carried out. First, to recognize whether or not high proficiency learners were able to produce more refusal strategies than students having lower competencies. Second, to see whether or not learners with high proficiencies were able to produce more refusal strategies than learners with lower competence level. Data were pursued by using DCT with some contexts, such as bank, university, bread fabric, book store, with some request situations with controlling variable, such as social status, social distance, and gender. Participants' responses were analysed using refusal taxonomy, number of strategy used, and their appropriateness. The data obtained were analysed using ANOVA to see difference significance among the groups. Result of analysis found that the most commonly used refusal strategies were used by 'beginner' followed by 'lower intermediate, elementary and upper intermediate'. Beginner level made the most direct strategy than other groups. However, 'adjunct' were mostly made by upper intermediate group. It implied that the lower proficient learners performed lower competence.

Tian (2014) studied refusal of Chinese EFL learners by applying oral role play with six scenarios. The scenarios were constructed on the basis of social variables of PDR (Brown and Levinson, 1987). The study was aimed at investigating learners pragmatic strategies applied in performing SA of refusal in English and factors influencing their choices of strategies as well as examining their pragmatic competences L2. In addition, it was also undertaken to find out pedagogical implication it could propose. Participants were given six situations before role play was administered. Participants' utterances of refusal SA were recorded. Its transcripts were analysed by using politeness theory (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Result of analysis showed that participants were motivated to use 'indirect strategies' in six situations. They used non performative expressions in the 'direct refusal', e.g. *Don't pay, I can't leave my family now, No, I don't want*". They also used reasons to complete their refusals, such as *"It's very cheap, I have a little child, I already borrow it to Li Mei. My tape recorder is broken"*. The result could prove that aspects of linguistics, pragmatics and sociocultural were factors which influence their strategy choices.

Sattar, Lah, dan Sulaeman (2011) also investigated refusals in English to see semantic formula mastered by Malay students in refusing a request in academic context. The study involved sixty students of undergraduate and post graduate program. The study used DCT with some situations. DCT was designed on the basis of two variables, i.e. 'relative power' and 'social distance'. They were given written situation in English and were requested to write what they would express for each situation. Data of DCT were then examined and categorized based on Bebee's taxonomy

(1990), particularly 'direct refusal, indirect refusal, and 'adjunct to refusal'. The data were analysed using semantic formula, such as 'a reason, an explanation, and 'an alternative' (Fraser, 1981; Olshtain and Cohen, 1983; Bebee, et.al. 1990). Analysis result obviously showed that Malay students prefer using 'indirect refusals', 'apology' and 'explaining'. That semantic formula was mostly used as the result of participants' culture influence. In direct strategy, they avoided using 'no', that they used negative ability instead. On direct strategy, they tended to use 'excuse' and 'explanation, and 'regret' followed by alternatives, wish, self-defence, and philosophy.

Ren (2012) also investigated development of learners' pragmatic particularly, SA of refusals. It was focused on investigating influence of learning environment to L2 pragmatic development of two groups of participants, group of participant with experience of study abroad and group of participants with experience of study in Indonesia. The study was also aimed at investigating to what extent study abroad influences their choice of pragmatic, their vocabulary and adjunct of refusals, and to what extent study abroad influence their refusal strategies. Research participants involved were twenty groups with study abroad experience and twenty groups of participant with study at home. The instrument used to pursue data was multimedia elicitation task (MET), i.e. computer multimedia-based DCT with eight scenarios. In its implementation, participants were given time to watch one slide in computer and listen to direction and start the utterance recorded and respond them orally. MET was given three times (pre-test, middle test and post-test). Data of test result with MET were grouped into three groups, 'direct refusal', 'indirect refusal' and 'adjunct to refusal'. Result of analysis revealed that study abroad group tended to do 'opt out' strategy consistently for the three tests, had pragmalinguistic vocabulary with significant development, doing *opt out* strategy as their new strategy. The 'at home' group also made *opt out* as a new strategy. They often used *opt out* to respond to friends' suggestions. Overall, study abroad influenced their sociopragmatic choice of SA.

Research on refusals was also carried out in term of language transfer (Abed (2011). Using instrument of written DCT, the research involved fifty five participants. The research was aimed at uncovering pragmatic transfer process on EFL learners of Iraq on refusal, their pragmatic awareness, differences between Iraqi speakers and American speakers in using refusal strategies and adjunct, as well as differences between female and male Iraqis speakers in using the strategy. The participants were given DCT via email. Data of semantic formula were classified based on Bebee et.al. (1990). Basically, the three groups of participant used indirect strategy more frequently than direct strategy. Iraqis more frequently used 'statement of excuse, reason, explanation, statement of regret, statement of wish', 'refusal adjunct'. American speakers tended to use 'statement of philosophy, statement of acceptance' as refusal and 'evidence' particularly 'silence'. Iraqi speakers are considered to be aware of pragmatic. They tended to adopt their L1 when they refused.

Studies on refusals SA varied in terms of instruments used, participants involved, as well as data analysing method applied. Of the studies related to refusals, some studies applied DCT as data collecting instrument (Avert, Brumberek, Dyzman (2008), Sattar, Lah, Sulaeman (2011), Abed (2011), Ren (2012), Cordina-Espuzs (2013), dan Lin (2014). This study also used DCT as the min instrument of data collecting. Some studies combined two instruments of DCT with multimedia elicitation task (MET) (Ren, 2012), or modified DCT with other situations, such as scale response questionnaire (Lin, 2014). Almost all studies used data analysing instrument of statistical tools. Tian's (2014) works used pure oral role play, Felix-Brasdefer's (2014) study combined *oral role play* with *verbal report*, and Martinez-Flor (2013) combined *oral role play* with DCT. Tian (2014) designed *oral role play* using politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), and the use of standard taxonomy or semantic formula (Beebe, 1990; Olshtain and Cohen, 1983) to analyse participants' production of refusal (Sattar, Lah, and Sulaeman, 2011; Lin, 2014, Abed, 2011).

Taguchi (2006) investigated students' ability to produce a speech act of request. Fifty-nine Japanese students of English were given oral role play to make request. The participants were divided into two proficiency levels based on their TOEFL scores, 29 students are for higher proficiency and 30 students are for lower proficiency level. The request realization performed by the participants were analysed quantitatively by rating performance on a six-point scale to recognize their appropriateness (5 = excellent, 4 = good, 3 = fair, 2 = poor, 1 = very poor, and 0 = no performance). Qualitative method was applied to measure their level of directness of every utterance. Oral role play card was developed to elicit students request production. To cards were made into two types by implementing three aspect, interlocutor power (P), distance (D), and rank of imposition (R), they are PDR-low and PDR high. Blum-Kulka's CCSARP framework (1998) was used to code students' performance before being analysed. The result revealed that L2 proficiency influence over all appropriateness. The presents study was done pursuant to three basic research questions, they are as follows.

1. What refusal strategies were used?
2. How frequently was each strategy used?
3. How appropriate and accurate were those strategies?

II. METHOD

The research participants were sixty students of semester three majoring in tourism, particularly in tour and travel study program. The involved participants consist of forty male and twenty female who were from two classes, class A and class B. Their ages ranged from nineteen until twenty years old. Based on curriculum implemented in this class, they had studied English for three semester, both general English and English for specific purposes (English for tour

and travel), but not English pragmatics. Special English proficiency test to recognize in what level of proficiency they have was not administered, however on the basis of their English lecturer’s observation, they were in elementary and pre-intermediate level.

DCT was applied to elicit participants’ refusals competence. DCT was designed with only one situation. It was designed by including only one aspect of sociology, i.e. minus power (-P) and minus distance (-D). The purpose of the card was to recognise students’ pragmatic competence particularly in refusal strategies using only one aspect of sociology, as the class has not been introduced with pragmatic matter in prior. This is a pilot project which can lead to a more complex research in the future. As they have not known pragmatic, only a simple case or situation using common level of English (English used commonly with friends which does not requires formal and polite form of sentences) was used. The situation requires that students have to refuse their friends’ invitation for a movie as they have to finish a house assignment. The situation was printed in a piece of paper which provides spaces beneath for participants to write their refusals to the invitation.

Prior to the test to elicit participants’ refusal strategies, they were informed about what the test was used for. They were simply informed that the activity was not having special purpose (e.g. having relation with their academic achievement in class). It was done to avoid their feeling worried or reluctance to answer the DCT. For its implementation, they were introduced with the instrument first. Furthermore, they were introduced with the purpose of the activity they will participated in. Mechanism of how to answer the DCT was also delivered to participants. They were showed the DCT sheet on which they had to write their response. To do so, it took about five until seven minutes to display them the sheet and how to feel it. Regulation was also explained to them that they were not allowed to open books or any other devices which can help they ease to their work. I addition, they were informed that this test took one of their in class meeting without providing its replacement upon the test.

The instrument to elicit their refusal SA performance was distributed at the end of the semester. This moment was taken without any special intention. It was decided since it was impossible to interrupt students’ learning activity before the semester ended. However, they students were not introduced or taught with materials and knowledge about pragmatic and its related materials. They took Intermediate English which was focused on general English. As the regular subject pursuant to curriculum, they had to study for a semester and take final test at the end of semester. The elicitation activity was undertaken on a meeting prior to the final test. Each class took twenty five until thirty minutes to do the test. Each student in class A was distributed the DCT and was given chance to complete the DCT directly without any permission to open the book or to use Google translate device. Upon thirty minutes, their work were collected and the test was continued for class B. Students work was then collected and explicated. Students’ refusal strategies used ware listed and grouped and compared to refusal taxonomy proposed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990) to see differences and similarities, frequency of each strategy emergence, and their refusal strategies’ level of appropriateness and accuracy.

TABLE 1.
REFUSAL TAXONOMY (BEEBE, TAKAHASHI, AND ULISS-WELTZ: 1990)

No	Strategies	Realization
1	Direct Strategies Bluntness Negation of Proposition	No/ I refuse I can’t, I don’t think so
2	Indirect Strategies Plain indirect Reason/ Explanation Regret/ Apology Alternative: - Change option - Change time Disagreement/Discussion/Criticism Statement of principle or philosophy Avoidance: - Non-verbal - Verbal - Change topic - Joking - Sarcasm	It look like I won’t be able to go I can’t, I have a doctor appointment I am so sorry, I can’t I would join you if you choose another restaurant I can’t go right now, but I could next week Under the current economic circumstances, you should not be asking for a rise right now I can’t. It goes against my beliefs Ignoring/silence Hedging : Well, I’ll see if I can
3.	Adjunct to Refusal Positive opinion Willingness Gratitude Agreement Solidarity/Empathy	That’s a great idea, but... I’d love to go, but... Thanks so much, but... Fine, but... I am sure you will understand

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Refusal Strategies and Their Frequency of Emergence

The following table introduces the global figure of refusal strategies used (pursuant to taxonomy proposed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz; 1990) and their emergence frequency.

TABLE 2.
EMERGING FREQUENCY OF EACH STRATEGY

No	Strategy Used	Frequency of Emergence
1	Direct Strategies	7,2%
2	Indirect Strategies	52,7%
3	Adjunct to Refusals	40,0%

Result of analysis showed that there were three types of strategies speakers used when refusing an invitation, i.e. 'direct strategy', 'indirect strategy' and 'adjunct to refusals'. However, some of realization patterns of each strategy were a bit different from those drawn by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz: (1990). Each strategies was used differently in frequency depending on speakers L2 proficiency and knowledge of pragmatics.

It can be clearly seen that 'indirect strategy' was the most frequently used strategy, followed by 'adjunct to refusals', and 'direct strategy' was the least, i.e. 52,7%, 40,0%, and 7,2% respectively. The presence of indirect strategies weighing out the rest strategies indicated that the participants were (if not very) competent pragmatically, as ability to perform indirect strategy requires speakers' better knowledge of pragmatic(both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics) rather than direct strategies. Ability to produce indirect refusals speech acts requires speakers' broader knowledge of politeness as well.

Although the emergence of 'adjunct to refusals' was less frequent than 'indirect strategies' (40% under 52,7%) the difference was not considered distinctive as adjunct to refusals are considered to be the most difficult of the three strategies. It requires that speakers are to be able to make rhetorical sentences. In addition to this, adjunct to refusals provides a lot more limited examples of realization patterns or semantic formulas which limits speakers' choice of sentences patterns to adopt. The table 2 beneath obviously shows how often each strategy was used by the speakers.

TABLE 3.
FREQUENCY AND SEMANTIC FORMULA OF DIRECT STRATEGY

Direct Strategies		
No	Semantic Formulas	Frequency of Emergence
1	Bluntness	75%
2	Negation of Proposition	25%

Direct strategy is the least strategy speakers used when producing refusals to an invitation. It only provides two semantic formulas, 'bluntness' and 'negation of proposition'. 'Bluntness' was delivered more frequently than 'negation of proposition'. It was used 75% between the two. 'Negation of proposition' was used only for 25% or one forth. This may be caused by the reason that 'bluntness' was in form of very short or simple utterance "no" or "I refuse" rather than the latter strategy using "I can't, I don't think so". However, the utterance "no" was used limitedly. One reason may be in line with the fact is the speakers' L2 proficiency level. Since the speakers are mostly from pre intermediate level, they were able to avoid to direct even though they were able to do so. Telling 'negation of proposition' of "I can't" and "I don't think so" was considered impolite even though the interlocutor is a person who has similar or -P, -D, and -R. The avoidance of uttering both types of utterance indicates that the speakers had knowledge of sufficient L2 pragmatics. This if proved by the fact that only less proficient participants produced these utterances. It indicated that the more sufficient the speakers are in L2, the less direct speech acts they produce. It is in line with the finding of Cordina-Espurz (2013).

Indirect strategies (Table 4) almost has similar feature with 'adjunct to refusal' strategy (Table 5), although indirect strategies were the most used strategy in the speakers' refusals production, in term of number of semantic formulas were used. There were ten semantic formulas of each used by speakers. However, their types and frequency of use were totally different. There were ten semantic formulas used to respond to the role play card of invitation. Of the ten semantic formulas, 'regret/apology' was the most formula in use (82,7%). The frequency was very extremely higher than the others. It was caused by the fact that speakers mostly used the expression 'I'm sorry' to initiate their refusals expressions. This clause seemed to be very common for them. The clause, as icon of refusal, was placed in various locations, i.e. at the front of sentence, in the middle, or sometimes at the end. One sentence mostly contained one expression of 'I'm sorry'. Some sentences even had two or more the expression containing 'sorry' even though it was used with less complete sentences. Some of them use e it in a correct pattern of sentence and some of them used it in non-correct sentence patterns, such as 'I'm sorry', 'Sorry', 'I'm sorry bro', 'I do apologize', and 'sorry I cannot'.

'Reason/Explanation with alternative (Change time)' was the second most frequently used refusal strategies. This type of utterance contains two main expressions, reason/explanation and alternative with expression of changing time. This expression occurred 13,7%, the second after 'regret/apology'. Basically, it is a speech having similar expression of saying sorry, however, it is added with clause telling reason why the speakers refuse the invitation and giving an alternative particularly change of time. The specific feature of this expression is the expression of telling reason indicated with the word "because" and expression of giving alternative, e.g. "I sorry Arik, I can not join because I have to do an English assignment with Astina. I can go to Concert with you may be next time". Even though the sentences

were made with incorrect grammatical aspects, such as the omission of verb ‘am’, the spelling of ‘cannot’, but this sentence is still accepted as it can successfully deliver meaning.

TABLE 4.
FREQUENCY AND SEMANTIC FORMULA OF INDIRECT STRATEGY

Indirect Strategies		
No	Semantic Formulas	Frequency
1	Regret/Apology	82,7%
2	Reason/Explanation with Alternative (Change Time)	13,7%
3	Regret / Apology With Telling Possibility	3,4%
4	Regret/Apology with Willingness, Alternative (Change Time)	10,3%
5	Regret/Apology with Willingness	6,89%
6	Regret/Apology with Telling a Wish	3,4%
7*	Telling Wish	3,4%
8*	Regret/Apology, Willingness, Alternative Change of Subject	3,4%
9	Regret/Apology, Gratitude, Willingness	3,4%
10	Willingness	3,4%

Two feasibly noted finding upon analysing data of indirect strategies was expression of ‘telling wish’ (7*) and ‘alternative (change subject)’ (8*). Although there were only two expressions containing ‘telling wish’ and was specially attached in an expression of telling regret or expressed individually, telling wish can be considered special. The expressions ‘I wish I can watch Lolot band concert because it is my favourite band’ and ‘Hallo, I wish I can, but next Saturday night I am really busy...’ were specially expressed with distinctive attempt. Thus, this strategy can be added exclusively (7*) as it cannot be included either strategy of indirect, direct or adjunct to refusal.

‘Alternative (Change subject)’ was also the possible nomenclature for the expression: ‘...I’d love to but I can’t, I’m sorry, because on Saturday night I should to do my English homework, may be you can invite Fedira or Iren for accompany you come to the concert’. Even though the expressions contains some grammar mistakes, let’s ignore it and focus our attention on the use of giving ‘alternative (with Change of subject)’ or person the speaker suggested the hearer to invite. This is excluded on taxonomy proposed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990) which exposes only two kinds of giving alternative, i.e. ‘change option’ and ‘change time’. However, it does not clearly advice where should the case of expression above be inserted.

In spite of similar number of semantic formulas, ‘adjunct to refusal’ (Table 5) differs from ‘indirect strategies’ in terms of kinds of semantic formulas they performed and frequency they were produced. On the basis of data, ‘willingness’ strategy was the most strategy used by the speakers. It was used 36.3% by the speakers. Willingness was quite simple to make. It is used to express speakers’ desire to do a thing or an activity. In its implementation, this strategy was placed at the beginning of sentence, in the middle or at the end of the sentence. However, the data shows that it is mostly used at the beginning of sentence. It was made in a number of different forms, patterns, depending on the topic where or when it is used. Some of willingness ware initiated with greeting, such as ‘Hey friend, actually I would like to join with you,...’ ‘Hai Adi, I’m fine thank you, oh I’d love to but...’, ‘“Oh men, I want to watch this but I can’t because...”’, ‘Hallo Riris, I’m very interested your invitation but I’m sorry...’’, ‘Hi, Andre, actually I want to go to the concert but...’’, ‘Hallo, aright, I want to join with you for see the concert, but...’’, ‘Hai, Recha, actually I want to see the concert with you but...’’, ‘Hallo Jul, actually I want to see the concert with you but...’’, ‘Wow, I really want to watch the concert but sorry...’’. Some of expressions of willingness were delivered with polite choice of expression, like ‘I would like to join with you...’, ‘Oh, I’d love to...’, but most willingness was expressed with less honorific expressions, such as ‘I want to watch this but...’, ‘I’m very interested your invitation...’, ‘I want to go to the concert...’, ‘I want to see the concert...’, ‘I really want to watch the concert...’.

Telling ‘gratitude’ and ‘positive opinion’ were similar in frequency of use. Both refusal strategies of adjunct were used 36.63%. Both strategies were used either individually or attached with other expressions. Expression of gratitude also varied either in its pattern or in words choices. The expressions are ‘I’m so happy you invite me for join concert’, ‘Thanks for the invitation’, ‘I would like to thank for invitation’, ‘Thank you very much for invited me’, ‘Your mother is very kind’. The embedded expression of gratitude were also produced by the speakers, such as ‘Hi friend, I am so happy you invite me for join the concert, but I’m sorry I’m busy because I have an appointment with my friends’, ‘Thank you very much for invited me to go to the concert and I also think it would be amazing and awesome if we go together, but I’m sorry, I couldn’t go because I have an English assignment and...’, ‘It was nice to hear you get a concert tickets from your old brother as a birthday gift and I’m so thank you to know you invited me, but I’m really-really sorry Delvi’. One expression to express gratitude even consisted of three different semantic formulas as the speaker had rich enough pragmatic treasure, by saying ‘Hey friend, I’m so happy you invite me for join concert, but I’m sorry, I’m busy because I have an appointment with my friend. May be next time we have look at concert together’. This expression even consists of three formulas, such as ‘gratitude’, ‘reason/explanation’, and ‘alternative: change time’.

Positive opinion was also delivered variously, either with single expression or embedded ones. The expression ‘It’s a great idea actually, but...’, ‘That sounds lives ouch fun..’ were expressed with only a single clause. The embedded semantic formula used to express positive opinion were: ‘Oh, this is good, I like that. But sorry, I can’t go there on Saturday night because...’, ‘Hi Alfa, That sounds great but I am sorry, I must finish my English assignment with my

team work at the same time..’. Positive opinion which consists of three semantic formulas was also found in the data: ‘Hi, Alfa, that sounds great but I am so sorry, I must finish my English assignment with my team work at the same time. But I can’t at the time, I’m so sorry Alfa, I hope we can do it some other time’.

The embedded expressions of telling ‘gratitude’ and ‘positive opinion’, although only one found’ indicates that speakers competent enough to perform refusal strategies, although grammatically less accurate. They were able to made up their mind to try constructing longer sentences to promote indirectness.

The rest formulas, including ‘willingness & promise’, Gratitude & regret/apology’, ‘gratitude & positive opinion’, ‘positive opinion & reason/explanation’ were delivered far less frequently, with more or less 4,5%. Willingness & promise was conveyed only one time. The expression says ‘Hallo, alright, I want to join you for see the concert, but I have to do an English assignment with my friend at the same time on next Saturday night. I do apologize for this, the next time I will join to see the concert’ was considered to be a remarkable elaboration as the speaker could produce a new supplement expression of ‘promise’. Promise is not included in the refusal taxonomy proposed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990). This semantic formula can be added to enrich the taxonomy that formula of giving promise: ‘I will’ can be used to refuse an invitation. However, ‘giving promise’ should be best inserted in the indirect strategies of refusal.

TABLE 5.
REQUENCY AND SEMANTIC FORMULA OF DIRECT STRATEGY

Adjunct to Refusals		
No	Semantic Formulas	Frequency of Emergence
1	Gratitude, Reason/Explanation, Alternative (Change time)	4,5%
2	Willingness	36,3%
3	Positive Opinion	13,63%
4	Positive Opinion, Reason/Explanation	4,5%
6	Gratitude	13,63%
7	Gratitude, Positive Opinion	4,5%
8	Gratitude, Regret/Apology	4,5%
9	Positive Opinion, Regret/Apology, Willingness	4,5%
10	Willingness, Promise	4,5%

The feasible findings upon analysis successfully added variation of refusal strategies proposed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990). The two new finding of indirect strategies, i.e. ‘telling wish’ and ‘alternative (change subject)’ are included in the following elaborated taxonomy.

TABLE 6.
ELABORATED REFUSAL TAXONOMY (BEEBE, TAKAHASHI, AND ULISS-WELTZ: 1990)

No	Strategies	Realization
1	Direct Strategies	No/ I refuse
	Bluntness	I can’t, I don’t think so
	Negation of Proposition	
2	Indirect Strategies	
	Plain indirect	It look like I won’t be able to go
	Reason/ Explanation	I can’t, I have a doctor appointment
	Regret/ Apology	I am so sorry, I can’t
	Alternative:	
	- Change option	I would join you if you choose another restaurant
	- Change time	I can’t go right now, but I could next week
	- Change subject*	May be you can invite Fedira and Iren to
	Disagreement/Discussion/Criticism	Under the current economic circumstances, you should not be asking for a rise right now
	Statement of principle or philosophy	I can’t. It goes against my beliefs
	Avoidance:	
	- Non-verbal	Ignoring/silence
	- Verbal	Hedging : Well, I’ll see if I can
- Change topic		
- Joking	I wish I can but.....	
- Sarcasm		
Telling wish*		
3.	Adjunct to Refusal	That’s a great idea, but...
	Positive opinion	I’d love to go, but....
	Willingness	Thanks so much, but...
	Gratitude	Fine, but....
	Agreement	I am sure you will understand
	Solidarity/Empathy	

B. Participants’ Appropriateness and Accuracy of Refusals

Speakers’ pragmatic competence can be drawn on the basis of their performance and production of semantic formulas they successfully made to respond to the invitation in DCT.

1. Participants’ Appropriateness

Appropriateness is achieved when speakers could produce utterance in line with hearers' sociocultural status. It is one of pragmatic competences (sociopragmatic) which rules that speakers have to produce utterances pursuant to their interlocutors' social status. This competence requires that speakers should be sensitive to hearers' personal data.

Data of participants' performance of refusal semantic formula indicates that they could produce appropriate utterances. They were able to produce utterances which are in line with the hearer's social aspects. According to DCT, speakers have to make refusal to hearer who has similar social aspects, such as low or similar power (-P), similar distance (-D), and similar rank of imposition (-R).

TABLE 6.
APPROPRIATENESS LEVEL

No	Strategies	Appropriate	Inappropriate
1	Direct Strategies	100%	0%
2	Indirect Strategies	100%	0%
3	Adjunct to Refusal	89,65%	10,3%

Data analysis draws that the participants' refusal semantic formulas are generally appropriate. Their appropriateness level was considered to be excellent. Of the three kinds of strategies implemented, only one strategy (i.e. adjunct to refusal) contained low level of inappropriateness. It was noted only 9% inappropriateness occurred. As they had to respond to an invitation to hearer having -P, -D, and -R, they had actually to use non honorific expressions in order to avoid hearer' losing face. However, they used, although in a single part of the whole expression, honorific expression using more polite choices of clause 'I would like to thanks for invitation', and 'I would be amazing and awesome...'. These expressions should be delivered to people they respect, who have higher power. In addition, the clauses are to be used to communicate with people who they are imposed as well as those who are not closed with the speakers (+D). The expressions were delivered in DCT by students who, according to researcher's observation during English lessons and special in depth interview to both participants, had the same proficiency level of English as other students. This can be proven that they both were able to construct even long sentences then the others and used more than one strategies in the refusal strategy. The fact implied that participants with high proficiency level did not necessarily make appropriate (apart from accurate) sentences. In another word, it can be concluded that this finding was not in line with that of Cordina-Espurz (2013) that lower proficient learners perform less competency.

2. Participants' Accuracy

Participants' accuracy seemed to be lower than their appropriateness. Participants seemed to have obstacles in performing the three strategies, however the obstacles varied depending on strategies level of complexity. Of the three strategies of refusal, direct strategies were the most difficult and indirect strategies were the least. Speakers produced 65,5% inaccuracy and only 34,4% accuracy. However, it cannot be generalized since limited number of formulas they could produce (4 semantic formulas). This number is considered not representative to indicate that direct strategies are the most difficult ones.

Indirect strategies were easier for the participants. They could produce 68,1% accurate sentences and 31,8% accurate sentences of refusal indirect strategies. Seeing from the fact that there were 29 expressions of indirect strategies, the result of analysis can be considered reliable. And, adjunct to refusal was the strategy which share same level of difficulty (50%).

TABLE 7.
ACCURACY LEVEL

No	Strategies	Number of Formulas	Accurate	Inaccurate
1	Direct Strategies	4	34,4%	65,5%
2	Indirect Strategies	29	68,1%	31,8%
3	Adjunct to Refusal	22	50%	50%

Inaccuracy of sentences produced by participant indicated incompetence of participants' pragmalinguistically. There are a number of pragmalinguistic or grammar errors found in the data. Pragmalinguistic errors comprised form and function errors of sentences. The grammatical errors included spelling, subject - verb agreement, modal verb - verb agreement, two words-verb, verb omission, verb form, and prepositional phrase.

In terms of spelling, they exposed some words which are meaningful on the bases of semantics and acceptable on the basis of structure but emerged with wrong spelling, for instance 'can not', 'frien to refer to friend', 'may to refer to my'. Some problems on the use of modal verbs also occurred, such as 'I must to finish', 'I must to do', 'I should to do', 'I can not watching', 'I can't to accompany', 'I am can not to company you'. Some inaccuracy was triggered by the inconsistency in using 'prepositions', for instances, 'at Saturday' or 'in Saturday' to refer to 'on Saturday', 'in next Saturday' which refers to 'on next Saturday'. In addition, the use of preposition to be added with verb was also found incorrect, suc as 'May be you can invite Fedira and Iren for accompany you come to the concert', and 'I am so happy you invite me for join concert'. The use of verb 'want' was incorrect grammatically, such as 'I want to coming', 'actually, we wnt to watching'. The use of personal pronoun was also found incorrect, for instance 'Me and my friend have to do an English assignment'.

It was obviously recognized that the errors were mostly made by participants having lower L2 competence. The case of inaccuracy which was found in participants' written expression in DCT implied that the lower proficient learners performed less competence of L2 (in this case, grammar competence). This finding is supportive to and consistent with that proposed by Cordina-Espurz (2013).

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it can be underlined that there were three main strategies used by participants, they are direct strategy, indirect strategy, and adjunct to refusals. It is in line with refusal taxonomy proposed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990), however, there were two point of new finding found to add the strategies in Beebe's et al. (1990) taxonomy, they are 'Alternative (change subject)', and 'telling wish', both of which were under indirect strategies. Of the three strategies, two strategies were used quite frequently, they were indirect strategy and adjunct to refusals, with percentage of use 52,7% and 40% respectively. However, direct strategy was used quite rarely (7,2%). Participants' appropriateness and accuracy were emerging a contradictive result. Their appropriateness of speech acts of refusal outweighed their accuracy. In terms of their appropriateness, their indirect strategies, direct strategies, and adjunct to refusals were 100%, 100%, and 89,65% appropriate respectively. This data implied that they could comprehend and construct sentences for correct context (-P,-D,-R). This fact of participant utterances appropriateness leads in to a proposition that higher level of L2 proficiency does not guarantee participants' high appropriateness, which is in contrast with the finding of Cordina-Espurz (2013).

In term of accuracy, they were able to produce sentences with lower accuracy level for the three strategies. They are 34,4%, 68,1%, and 50% accuracy for direct strategies, indirect strategies and adjunct to refusal respectively. This facts implied a proposition which is in line with Cordina-Espurz's (2013) idea that the lower the participants' proficiency, the lower accuracy level they are in.

The proposition needs to be further researched by undertaking studies on refusals or other speech acts considering that this study still has a number of limitation, such as instrument used to find data, number of participants involved, number of situation used to make DCT, and other aspect.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abed, Ahmed Qadoury. (2011). "Pragmatic Transfer in Iraqi EFL Learners' Refusals". ISSN 1923-869X E-ISSN 1923-8703. www.ccsenet.org/IJEL *International Journal of English Linguistics* Vol. 1, No. 2; September 2011. Department of Translation, Faculty of Arts, The University of Al-Mustansiriyah, Baghdad, Iraq. Pp.166-185.
- [2] Awert A. and Bromberek – Dyzman K. (2008). "Impossible requests: L2 users' sociopagmatics and pragmalinguistic choices in L1 acts of refusal". *Eurosla Yearbook* 8: 32-51.
- [3] Beebe, L.M., Takahashi, T., & Uliss-Weltz., R. (1990). Pragmatic Transfer in ESL refusals, In. R.C. Scarcella, E. Anderson and S.D. Krashen (Eds.) *on Development communicative competence in a second language*, Cambridge, M.A.: Newbury House Publishers. 55-77.
- [4] Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (Eds.). (1989). *Cross-cultural Pragmatics: Requests and apologies*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- [5] Blum-Kulka, S. & E. Olshtain. (1986). Too many words: Length of utterance and pragmatic failure. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 8, 165–180.
- [6] Brown, Penelope dan Steven Levinson. (1987). *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge university press.
- [7] Cordina-Espurz, Victòria. (2013). "The role of proficiency in the production of refusals in English in an instructed context". *Utrecht Studies in Language and Communication* 25 (2013): 121-146. (Universitat Jaume I).
- [8] Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press
- [9] Felix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2004). "Iterlanguage Refusals: Linguistic Politeness and Length of Residence in the Target Community". *Language Learning* 54(4): 587-653
- [10] Martínez-Flor, Alicia. (2013). "Learners' Production of Refusals: Interactive Written DCT Versus Oral Role-play". *Utrecht Studies in Language and Communication* 25 (2013): 175-211. (Universitat Jaume I).
- [11] Olshtain, E. and A. Cohen (1983). "Apology: a Speech Act Set' in N. Wolfson and J. Elliott" (eds.). *TESOL and Sociolinguistic Research*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- [12] Ren, Wei. (2012). "Pragmatic Development in Chinese Speakers' L2 English Refusals". *EUROSLA Yearbook* 12 (2012), 63–87. doi 10.1075/eurosla.12.05ren issn 1568–1491/e-issn 1569–9749 c John Benjamins Publishing Company University of Bristol / University of Chinese Academy of Sciences.
- [13] Tian, Xiufeng. (2014). "Investigating L2 Refusals: A Case Study of Chinese Native Speakers' L2 Pragmatic Competence". ISSN 1799-2591. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 212-216.
- [14] Taguchi, Naoko. (2006). Analysis of Appropriateness in a Speech Act of Request In L2 English Pragmatics. *International Pragmatics Association* 16:4.513-533. January 2014 © 2014 ACADEMY PUBLISHER Manufactured in Finland.
- [15] Widanta, I. M. R. J. (2017). How should pragmatic be taught? *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, Vol. 4, No. 2. www.ijlnet.com. June 2017, pp.110-115).
- [16] Widanta, I. M. R. J. et al. (2018). Iterlanguage request modification: a case in vocational college. *Journal of Physics: conference series*. 953 012095. iopscience.iop.org/issue/1742-6596/953/1/012095, 2018.



I Made Rai Jaya Widanta was born in Badung, Bali, Indonesia on 27th October 1973. He is a permanent lecturer of English at Mechanical Engineering Department, Bali State Polytechnic, Bali, Indonesia. He pursued bachelor degree (*Sarjana Sastra* or S.S.) in English literature at Warmadewa University in 1997. He completed his master program and pursued a degree of *Magister Humaniora* (M.Hum.) in linguistics in 2002 and doctorate program with *Doktor* (Dr.) degree in linguistics in 2017.

He has been teaching in both private and state universities as well as governmental and private companies. He has been teaching General English and English for Specific Purposes. In addition, he has also been administering English proficiency test, such as TOEFL, TOEIC, English Competence Test, and Proficiency Test of English. His research interests are developing learning model, first and second language acquisition, and interlanguage pragmatics.



Ni Putu Somawati was born in Denpasar on 27 May 1963. She completed her bachelor program in English literature in Udayana University and was awarded *Doctoranda* (Dra.) degree in 1987. She continued her study to master program in management and was awarded *Magister Manajemen* (M.M.) in Udayana University in 2005. She started her career as an English lecturer in Bali State Polytechnic in 1991. Her research interests includes development tourism, English literature, applied linguistics and English language teaching.



I Wayan Dana Ardika was born in Tabanan on 24 October 1984. He completed his bachelor program in English literature in Warmadewa University and was awarded *Sarjana Sastra* (S.S.) degree in 2006. He pursued his degree of *Magister Pendidikan* (M.Pd.) in Ganesha University of Education in 2008. He started his career as an English lecturer in Bali State Polytechnic in 2009. His research interests are both in English education and English literature, including designing learning model, designing engineering dictionary, and pragmatics.

The Application of Task-based Approach in English Grammar Teaching in Junior High Schools

Simin Wang

School of Foreign Languages, Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, 041000, China

Abstract—With the increasing of frequent international contact, people pay close attention to the cultivation of communicative competence in foreign language learning. Grammar course deserves a primary status on the curricula for English teaching reform. In order to improve students' grammar skills, the *National New English Curriculum Syllabus* advocates that Task-Based Language Approach should be adopted in English classroom, which has become popular since the mid-1980 in grammar teaching. When compared with traditional teaching method, TBLA could effectively settle the existing problems in grammar teaching. Therefore, this paper is to confirm that the application of Task-based Approach has a great impact on English language teaching and learning. Based on the theory of task-based approach, the paper summarizes the design principles of teaching tasks, teaching process and contexts. In the end, it encourages teachers to apply Task-based approach into English grammar teaching in junior high schools.

Index Terms—task-based approach, English grammar teaching, junior high school

I. INTRODUCTION

English is one of the most extensive languages in international exchange and cooperation. The task-based teaching theory has drawn abroad attention in language learning recently. As an important measure of evaluating teaching results, the productive and receptive abilities assign a position of special significance for English teaching. English grammar, as a basis of the speaking and writing ability, which plays a crucial role in communicating with other countries. Based on the second language acquisition theory, a foreign language learner must possess grammatical competence. This will allow students to convey accurate information using syntax structure. It is also vital for instructors to lead an effective teaching method into grammar teaching in junior high school. Three teaching approaches have been commonly applied in junior high school for the past few years, which are called as prescriptive and descriptive approach, transformational-generative approach and functional approach. They would be introduced in detail in the following.

To begin with, in 1982, prescriptive and descriptive grammars are distinguished by some grammarians. The prescriptive grammarian specifies what is right or wrong while descriptive grammarian tries to avoid making judgments about correctness and concentrates on describing and explaining the way people want to say. *Chomsky's Universal Grammar* in 1996 develops the Transformational Generative grammar. Chomsky believes that grammar is an abstract set of rules for specifying sentence. It relates to investigating the internal structure of human mind rather than with communication. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* in 2001, Larsen-Freeman puts forward that functional grammar is a certain kind of logical language. Those who subscribe to functional grammar, rejecting the separation of form and meaning. The aim of these grammarians is to demonstrate that form, meaning and use work together. With the progress of the teaching reform, some aspects of functional grammar is difficult to see teaching flexibility. That entails three approaches have their own shortcomings. In this case, it is urgent and necessary to discover a more suitable and effective method for English grammar teaching.

Since the mid-1980s when the Task-based approach (TBA) was carried out in the classroom in India, it has been used widely due to its maturity, ubiquity, and feasibility. Task-Based approach is a method of instruction under Communicative Approach, which emphasizes tasks as the center of language teaching. The *National New English Curriculum Syllabus* (2001) which advocates the development of students' integrated abilities. For example, students can write and say a coherent and well-organized short article. Their ideas should be expressed in correctly English grammar. Besides students can successfully express ideas smoothly and write standard articles in correctly grammar. After that, the *National New English Curriculum Syllabus* (2001) advocates the application of TBA, especially teachers apply TBA into classroom teaching. Yet, there are still seldom students who can meet the grammar requirements. A great many students in junior high school complained that they have few opportunities to express and discuss their ideas. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to give a clear illustration about the TBA theories.

II. THEORETICAL RESEARCHES ON TASK-BASED APPROACH

A. Definition of TBA

Under the guidance of TBA, one of teachers' task is to stimulate students' creative thinking rather than just learning language forms. Yet, owing to the difference in academic background, purposes and methods, scholars have given out different definition about teaching task. Some representative figures would be listed in the following sections:

Long (1985) suggests that task is to do something for themselves with paying or without paying, such as drawing pictures, building houses and playing balls. Richards (1986) defines that task is an activity or action which learners carry out in language cognition, for instance, drawing a map as to key point. The task requires teachers to give specific criterions which are used to judge whether students achieve the goal successfully. Willis (1996) defines that the task is an experience in which learners communicate in the target language with the purpose of achieving an outcome. Brown suggests that "a task usually refers to a specialized form of technique or series of techniques closely allied with communicative curricula, and as such must minimally have communicative goals" (Brown, 2001, p.129).

1. Components of a Task

Just as making definitions for tasks, scholars have made efforts to identify the elements of a task. Among the scholars, Nunan (1989) hold the view that a task in TBA is made up of five components. The goal of TBA is to develop students' communicative ability, including discourse analysis, sociolinguistics applications and strategic competence. Input refers to the material which learners deal with issues. Resource models include newspaper, magazines, novels, films, songs, student works and so on. Students and teachers organize the collective activity in the classroom under the guidance of TBA. As usual, teachers are facilitators, organizers and monitors. Classroom instruction context was designed for tasks. Teachers also should consider whether tasks are carried out in or out of the classroom, partly or wholly.

2. Types of Tasks

Tasks were classified into six main types by Willis (1996). They are listing, ordering and scoring, comparing, problem-solving, sharing personal experiences and creative tasks. For example, in listing tasks, activities are mainly brainstorming and fact-finding. And results are a completed list or a drafted mind map. While in creative tasks, activities are combination of listing, ordering and sorting, out-of-class research, comparing and problem solving. The study results are appreciated by a wide range of audience who participate in classroom teaching.

3. Components of the TBA Framework

Jane Willis (1996) divide TBA into three sections, which are the pre-task, the task cycle, and the language focus. Pre-task: In this stage, teachers introduce the topic to students and try to stimulate students' interest. They should highlight the key words and phrases. Task cycle can be further divided into three steps: task, planning and report. In task step, students try their best to complete the tasks under the monitoring of the teacher. Next, students make preparation in pairs or groups for the report so that they can present the procedure and conclusion of their tasks in oral or written form. Then, students are invited to talk about the objections in their reports. By this means, students are offered the opportunity to take the initiative on their own learning. During this step, as an evaluator, teachers can judge students' performance.

B. Principles of Designing Task

"Task-based Approach offers the opportunity for "natural" learning inside the classroom. It emphasizes meaning over form but can also cater for learning form" (Ellis, 2003, p.16). As we all know, TBA offers an authentic situation for students in which they can acquire the target language naturally. When teachers design tasks or activities, they can consider the characteristics of the learning process. Kumaravadivelu (1993) suggests that when teachers are designing learning tasks, they must follow some psycho-linguistic principles. According to the characteristics of the learning process and the language teaching, there are four basic principles of designing tasks that teachers need to follow.

1. The Principle of Authenticity

The authenticity is the essence of the Task-based language teaching. It indicates that materials, situations and activities are derived from real life. Of course, the authenticity is just a relative concept. For receiving authentic language information, teachers may arrange materials as real as possible.

2. The Form-Function Principle

Task-based language teaching emphasizes not only the language forms but also meaning. Students are required to complete the tasks in a communicative way. In this way, students have a deeper understanding for the linguistics function. With advocating the combination of language form and functions, TBA avoids deficiencies of the traditional grammar teaching methods. In the light of the rule of language acquisition, students cultivate their communicative ability consciously or unconsciously simultaneously. Those tasks which ensure students to follow language forms quickly. Students can communicate successfully in the real situations if they have a good grasp of language structures.

3. The Task-Dependency and Task-Chain Principle

Tasks designed for students should reflect the law of language acquisition. They supposed to be chain and hierarchy. According to Nunan (2001), the task-dependency and task-chain principle refers to the fact that it should be in-depth gradually, for instance, from easy to difficult and from simple to complex gradually and the latter task should be based on the former one. Besides, teachers should pay more attention to students' learning process, which has been discussed in the beginning of this section. From students' cognitive ability, the design of the tasks should follow the task-dependency and task-chain principle. They can obtain corresponding knowledge and skills. It is beneficial for students to understand language knowledge.

4. The Principle of Learning by Doing

Nunan (2001, p.25) proposes that "...learners must learn not only..., but also to develop the ability to use the language to get things done". What's more, the purpose of language teaching is to boost students' enthusiasm. During the learning process, students learn and practice grammar through continuous learning. In most cases, students are ready to communicate with partners for achieving their goals. Each of these principles is not isolated but connected. When teachers design tasks, they should follow each principle appropriately so that students' cognitive ability, language competence and communicative competence can be promoted and developed harmoniously.

III. COMPARISON BETWEEN THE TWO METHODS

Grammar is an effective means to realize the purposes of informing, persuading, expressing or entertaining. It is a linguistic device which reflects the author's social values and cultural beliefs. The good spoken and writing abilities depend on language grammar, which are structured coherently in an appropriate style.

A. *Difference in Teaching Objectives*

The prescriptive grammar specifies what is right and wrong while descriptive grammar attaches great importance to avoiding making judgments about correctness and concentrates on describing and explaining the way people really want to say. The Transformational-Generative Approach regards language as a psychological phenomenon, seeking to describe language in terms of mental rules that enables us to generate grammatically correct sentences. The Functional Approach focuses on the social identities of language. It shows how the communicative purposes and functions of language are reflected in grammar. Yet, TBA stresses not only language forms but also meanings. The final goal of TBA is the cultivation of integrating language abilities, such as communicative abilities, creative abilities, and cooperative abilities. It inspires students to communicate with each other by using the right target language in their real social life. In consequence, it aims at developing students' affect attitude and learning strategy and makes efforts to increase their desire for English.

B. *Difference in Teaching Organization Forms*

Traditionally, the teacher is the main body of class activities. The Prescriptive and Descriptive Approaches is to describe language at the level of the sentence. It makes no attempt to analyze grammar as a tool for communication. We need to study it in communicative contexts. For example, students go on working memory and do some consolidated exercises. In this way, teachers neglect students' self-awareness and students receive information passively. Of course, this way cannot attain good teaching effect. Nevertheless, TBLA proposes that students are the main body in the classroom. The teaching procedure is divided into three steps: In the pre-task step, teachers give introduction to tasks and lead students into the topic of the classroom teaching. In the task-cycle step, students do their best to complete tasks in groups or pairs, and then they report and evaluate their products. At the language focus stage, through the analysis results, teachers make comments on students' outcomes and behaviors. They help them learn to summarize important language forms and provide some oral or written exercises. That is, an excellent teacher who suggest rather than indicate.

C. *Difference in Teaching Context*

The traditional teaching methods don't care whether the materials are close to students' real life. In other words, they are unable to put their theories or knowledge into practice. TBA demands that teachers should provide authentic and natural materials for students and they need to acquire the target language in real and natural situations. The content, topic, and pair work should be associated with the reality of students and meet their practical needs.

D. *Difference in Evaluation*

The traditional teaching methods take score as the main criterion, evaluating students' English level. Therefore, it has a low credibility and can't reflect the true level of students' English. To a certain extent, students will have a negative effect on English learning because of the fears of making mistakes. What's worse, it also makes students lose confidence or heart for English. The worst result is that they dare not to use English or take part in the class activities negatively.

In contrast, the evaluation method of TBA follows the learner-centered model. Teachers lay emphasis on the meaning expressed by students and let minor mistakes alone. They guide students to find out and correct the mistakes they made by themselves. In this way, students are encouraged to participate not only in the classroom activities actively but also enjoy the success of correcting mistakes on their own. Consequently, learners gain self-confidence and develop their interests for English.

IV. APPLICATION OF TBA IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR TEACHING

A. *Teachers and Students in TBA*

1. The Role of the Teacher in TBA

In the traditional teaching methods, "teachers' pedagogical role was to evaluate all learners' performance according to clearly defined criteria" (Littlewood, 2000, p.91). Different from the traditional grammar teaching methods, TBA shifts

the center of teaching from teachers to students. Students master the target language through completing the pre-designed tasks under the help and guidance of teachers. Nunan (1989) suggests that teachers' main roles in TBA are task-designer, facilitators, and monitors and sometimes partners in their activities. According to Willis (1996), teachers have varied and dynamic roles in the TB language teaching process. The training of instructors' humanism spirit should be along with their moral construction, the pedagogical practice and campus construction.

In the pre-task stage, on the one hand, teachers are task-designers. The task should close to students' real life so that students can learn and use the target language naturally. Based on practical teaching, the assignment should accord with the condition of students and the culture goal of English project. That is, the task-dependency and task-chain principle, teachers should design different tasks or activities in different stages of the teaching process. Moreover, the difficulties of these tasks should be suitable to students' language competence. They achieve the aim of improving students' integrated language abilities, designing different types of tasks which correspond to students' English level. Furthermore, teachers who guide students into the topic of the class by creating related language situation. Teachers can make good use of modern multimedia provide vivid materials, such as diagram, words, sound, and video. By this means, students will be guided into the topic easily and quickly.

In the task cycle stage, teachers are organizers who arrange the tasks in an effective way and encourage students to participate in tasks actively. Then, teachers are monitors who remind students of complete the tasks as soon as possible. Despite of them, teachers also change their roles from one to another depending on the needs during this stage. The roles are:

Partner: As finishing all the tasks, teachers also take part in tasks as a partner of students.

Host: when students in groups or pairs to report their outcomes in turn or go on debating, teachers should perform as a host who create an active atmosphere and make sure the connection of each part is natural and smooth enough.

Observer: when students communicate with their classmates in target language, teachers should observe them carefully to find and correct these mistakes but avoid direct intervening too much.

Coordinator: in classroom settings, the teacher should always remind himself not to go over its time limit.

Instructor and helper: students run into problems which can't solve by themselves, teachers should give necessary help so that the activities can go on smoothly. In a word, during this stage, teachers change their roles from one to another frequently so that they can meet students' needs, helping students complete their tasks and achieve the goal of improving students' integrated language abilities.

In language focus stage, firstly, teachers are evaluator who give a summary and evaluate the products and students' behaviors after the report step of the task cycle stage. Secondly, teachers are language controllers who guide students to analyze and compare specific features of language form which have been used in tasks. In addition, teachers provide some oral or written exercises for students, consolidating new language knowledge. With analyzing the qualities of tasks and the performance of students, teachers are researchers who find their shortcomings and make progress in the coming teaching. With strategic planning, teachers start to focus on students and let students more active, student-oriented class has many advantages. Teachers' roles have a qualitative change, but their roles are still irreplaceable.

In the process of teaching organization, they have varied and dynamic roles. As allowing students to take part in class activities through designing effective tasks, teachers arise students' initiative and creative for English.

In the process of putting tasks into practice, teachers may build an academic environment that exploring the happiness of success and achieving the aim of learning and using language. That meets the needs of the students' study and development. As doing research constantly, they likely to improve teaching abilities and achieving more effective teaching results.

2. The Role of Students in TBA

Nunan (1989) puts forward that students are the center of TBA. They are participants and communicators who are to selected information in group activities. In terms of the *New English Curriculum Syllabus* which advocates TBA, students serve as many roles, such as participant, practitioner, discoverer, evaluator and reflector.

Each of those roles can be changed in teaching process and managed by learning assignment. Pre-task stage can often include playing a recording of student doing the task. Teacher introduces the topic and gives students clear instructions on content. The student finishes a task in pairs employing the language resources that they have as the teacher monitors and offers incentive. Students draw up a short oral or written article to represent the class what happen during the task cycle stage. That said, teachers' schedule has implications for students' progress. It is beneficial for the students to offer a proposal clearing up any language question. In other words, to figure out a new teaching method into the progress of modern education at this phase is the top priority. With supervising the teaching quality, we can get feedback for students. It is indispensable to spend a lot of time doing exercises. English practice is designed to improve the students' overall language capability. There is no doubt that TBA is a useful means for analyzing problems with others in target language. Such being the case, learners are enforced to summarize and write a reflection what they have gained from the task. As changing classroom management, students can easily seize the kernel points of a topic in the learning process.

B. Teachers' and Students' Abilities in TBA

The roles of teachers and students have a qualitative change in Task-based (TB) language teaching. Corresponding to

it, the *New National English Curriculum Syllabus* advocates new requirements for their abilities.

1. Teachers' Abilities in TBA

TBA trains students' integrated language abilities just by having students complete all kinds of authentic tasks, so there are high demands for teachers' abilities. Unlike traditional approach, teachers need to reinforce comprehensive abilities. There are three main abilities: the interpersonal ability, the ability of designing tasks and the creative ability.

The interpersonal ability refers to that teachers can create an innovative idea how teach the same thing in different way. A trained teacher can provide the lively discussion on any lesson. Instructors should make students understand the meaning of each task and motivate students to do well towards this goal. Nevertheless, we have seen that in TBL, there is a close attention paid to the grammar of the language being studied at the last stage. Few teachers have a good interpersonal ability, so they can communicate with students smoothly and successfully and reach an agreement with students on the arrangement of the class. Therefore, teachers must possess a good interpersonal ability. Considering TBA as the building unit of the syllabus, teachers also need to have an ideal about the objective as a targeted outcome throughout the lesson. TBL isn't necessarily a framework without any structure, but the attention is on completing the task rather than teaching a specific language point. If you teach predetermined language or grammar, then of course, this might not come up in the task. Many teachers would use TBL alongside other teaching approaches, and maybe those are better suited to introducing set language structures that need to be included in the course. They would use this method complying with school setting in a structured program. Namely, teaching model is designed to develop their ability of finding questions. They preload vocabulary first, then go over the targeted area content and in subsequent lesson teachers use a task to reinforce both my targeted language but also to judge how well each person has understood the target. It allows students to wander through language acquisition as well as to sustain creativity for a long time. Tasks take the most important position in the TB language teaching. It means that the quality of the tasks decides the teaching effects, and the designing of tasks has a direct influence on the cultivation of students' language competence. Therefore, the course is organized to help students learn language in the efficient way possible.

The New English Curriculum Criterion indicates that the general aim of tasks is to facilitate the students' integrative ability of using English. The arrangement of the classroom should reflect the concept of student-centered. To strengthen students' practical ability, the project adopts real examples to motivate their energy. The successful application of tasks enables students to discover and solve problems. With the centered of students, the teaching method makes students analysis course properly. It will contribute to our language acquisition and gain good score. Teaching competence which promotes the development of the students' critical thinking.

2. Students' Abilities in TBA

Differ from receiving language knowledge passively, students become the main body of the classroom teaching, which requires students possess some abilities. Briefly speaking, these abilities include the communicative ability, the cooperative ability, the creative ability and the evaluative ability.

TBA is mainly to develop students' communicative ability in target language. It requires students to express and receive some information so that they can complete tasks by themselves. TBL may be counterproductive in contexts where students are used to lecture-mode step and other traditional language clarification approaches. New learning approach should be student-centered, engaging students actively in classroom practices. Compared with the formerly course, it attaches greater significance on verbal communication. Self-directed learning is an essential ability that learners could master their course content and assimilate the new messages. The new curriculum design is to foster learners' cooperative consciousness and innovation capacity. High-self assessment stimulates students to set accurate goals and let them aware of personal growth. The establishment of their autonomous learning ability is a vital subject for the teaching reform. TBA is ready to develop the personality traits, integrating their talents in sports and entertainment. Students thinking abilities can be improved under the new course criterion. Likewise, the role of the student in the new situation is a dynamic process, which respect them subjectivity. The multimedia can be taken to enhance students' operative skills.

It is common that tasks or activities are completed in groups or in pairs. Students need to get well along with their partners and decide what to do after discussing and planning. That said, each member of the group needs to finish their tasks actively. They should follow teachers' instruction and do what they are asked. Only in this way can they accomplish the tasks successfully and improve their integrated language abilities. Therefore, students need to possess the cooperative ability. The paper provides that the realization of teaching reform exists in the physical interaction between teachers and students. The cooperative and relevance theory can be implemented in teaching process. With having a good academic performance, students should take an active part in social activities. Teaching practice is to foster students' imaginative power, active learning and innovatory consciousness. At present, students are required to ask questions and capable of reasoning. It is valuable to train students to be skilled in raising problems.

To discover and solve questions, students must possess creative abilities so that they can achieve the aims of tasks. Ultimately, students should have the ability of evaluation, because students also perform as evaluator in the task cycle stage of the TB language teaching. When one group is asked to report their products, the others need to find out the excellent points and the shortcomings and give their comments.

C. *The Process of TBA in English Grammar Application*

The process of TBA in teaching junior high school English grammar is based on the related theory proposed by Jane

Willis (1996) who presents that the framework of TBA teaching as following: “Pre-task (introduction to topic and task); Task cycle (task; planning; report); Language focus (analysis and practice)” (Willis, 1996, p.52). Willis’ framework of TBA links meanings and forms together effectively and favors the communicative task more than the language form. Therefore, corresponding to pre-task, the task cycle and the language focus, the grammar lesson is designed into three stages: pre-grammar, while-grammar, and post-grammar. The following teaching procedures of TBA in English grammar are applied.

Pre-grammar (pre-task): Lead-in the grammar task

It is the beginning of grammar lesson to introduce what would be done in the class. In this stage, students and teachers should do the following things:

- Teachers try their best to help students understand the grammar points and goals of the grammar task, so that all students are clear about what they are going to study and in which style.
- Teachers stress the important and useful words and phrases. But they don’t teach new vocabulary and grammar.
- Students do some warming-up exercises, for instance, listening to a record, so that they can recall relevant language knowledge learned before.
- Teachers leave students some time to think how deal with this grammar points.

While-grammar (the task cycle): Act grammar points and work out the outcomes. This is the most important stage which is made up of task, planning and report. The furthermore specific procedure is listed in the following:

In the task part, teachers and students should do the following things:

- Students try to complete the grammar points in pairs or groups and make best efforts to express themselves with target language.
- The teacher performs as a monitor and a supporter, walking around the classroom and helping students to express their ideas exactly.
- Teachers should lay emphasis on improving students’ communicative abilities, cultivating students’ confidence and stimulating students’ interest for English in small groups.

In the planning part, the follow things should be done:

- Students make preparation for the report part in which students are asked to present the process and product of the task.
- Students plan and discuss what they want to say and know in groups.
- The teacher performs as an adviser, providing language knowledge when it is need.
- Students should lay emphasis on working out an accurate and appropriate writing under a well-organized way.

In the report part, teachers and students should do the following things:

- Some groups of students are asked to present their products while the others make comments and add different ideas.
- Teachers organize and evaluate the reports, but don’t correct publicly.

Post-grammar (language focus): Review and consolidation

This stage can be divided into two steps, analyzing and practicing

In the analyzing step, teachers and students should do the following things:

- Students discuss and analyze the products which are presented in the report part of the while-grammar stage in pairs or groups. And they should not only stress the language forms but also the meanings of the outcomes.
- Teachers summarize the analysis made by students and make a final evaluation. At this time, teachers highlight the excellent points and correct some serious mistakes that students have made.
- Teachers provide a model, analyzing the features of the writing style and pointing out useful language forms. At the same time, students can take notes.

In the practice step, the following procedures should be finished.

- Teachers provide some consolidation exercises which tend be equivalent to our grammar tasks.
- Students do some exercises about useful language forms they have learned in the grammar tasks.

To summarize, these are our common procedures of grammar teaching under the guidance of the TBA. Teachers can also make some adjustments if it is necessary.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, the writer finds out the advantages of TBA and proves that it is a scientific teaching approach. Besides, the writer gives a clear illustration for teachers who are confused about TBA. Prescriptive and descriptive approach stresses language knowledge, but it neglects the cultivation of students’ self-awareness and it is against the people-oriented, student-centered concept. Transformational-Generative approach lays emphasis on the participation of students in class activities, while it is time consuming and students don’t have enough time to practice grammar of different types. Functional approach tends to train students’ social skill and promotes students’ potential for English. But it has strict rules, which lack of flexibility for language instruction.

TBA develops new teaching model for our class. It is still a convenient situation for managing students’ activity in real scene. The form-function principle means that teachers will take into full consideration professional writing. That will signify striking a balance between language form and meaning. This principle will urge students to apply language

form they learned in class into their real daily life. The task-dependency and task-chain principle claims that the tasks should be interrelated and get difficult gradually so that students find pleasure in enriching themselves. It will renew our method to foster well-balanced development and strive for progress on integrative competence. The principle of learning by doing has empowered students to bring out their best, enhancing them to think creatively and obtain good results. In the pre-task stage, the task holds the key to its teaching content. That entails students take part in the leading-in activities. Along with the increasing activities of teaching management, instructor's role has evolved from time to time. Meanwhile, the student's role under the combination of new assignment and teaching practice is a new subject. Teachers give a final evaluation and ask students to practice the language forms on the language focus stage. Students will advance the accumulation of knowledge and work together for a delicate atmosphere. As such, students reflect their behaviors in the classroom and find out the weakness so that they can accumulate experience for future. Overall, it is vital that there are various tasks for students to gain knowledge, broaden horizon and enrich their knowledge. The understanding of the teaching content also effects the legible and validity of teachers' teaching task design. Teachers treat several specific tasks as the kernel, guiding students to fulfil a task in the whole teaching process. In teaching the Advanced English, the task-based teaching allows learners to foster their language skills and make up for the lack of real condition in class.

The limitation of this paper is that it just illustrates the most confusing and important concepts about TBA. There still are other aspects which need to study in the future, for example, the ways to improve students' and teachers' abilities. The writer hopes others would do some researches in those aspects.

REFERENCES

- [1] Brown, H. Douglas. (2001). *Teaching by Principle: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [2] Corony Edwards and Jane Willis. (2009). *Teachers exploring tasks in English language teaching*. Beijing: Higher Education Press.
- [3] D Canale, M. & M. Swain. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- [4] David Nunan. (2007). *Practical English language teaching grammar*. Beijing: Higher Education Press.
- [5] Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [6] Graves, D. H. (1978). *Balance the basics: Let them write*. New York: Ford Foundation.
- [7] Kumaravivelu, B. (1993). Maximizing learning potential in the communicative classroom. *ELT Journal*, 47, 12-21.
- [8] Haozhi, Cao. (2011). A Brief Analysis on the Dynamic Role of English Teachers in Task-Based Language Teaching. *Science Technology Information*, 29, 640-641.
- [9] Kay, H. & T. Dudley-Evans. (1998). What teachers think. *ELTJ Journal*, 4, 308-314.
- [10] Littlewood, W. (2000). *Communicative language teaching*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [11] Long, M.H. (1985). A Role for instruction in second language acquisition: Task-based language teaching. England: *Multilingual Matters*.
- [12] Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- [13] Nunan, D. (1991). *Language Teaching Methodology*. London, UK: Prentice Hall International.
- [14] Nunan, D. (1993). *Design tasks for the communicative classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [15] Nunan, D. (2000). *Communicative classroom tasks design*. Beijing: People's Education Press.
- [16] Nunan, D. (2001). *Second Language Learning and Teaching*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [17] Pincas, A. (1982). *Teaching English Writing*. London: Macmillan.
- [18] Prabhu, N. S. (1987). *Second Language Pedagogy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [19] Richards, J. & Rodgers. T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [20] Tribble, C. (1996). *Writing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [21] Willis, J. A. (1996). *A Framework for Task-based Learning*. London: Longman.

Simin Wang was born in Changzhi, China in 1993. She is a post graduate student of Foreign Language in Shanxi Normal University. Her major field of study is Applied linguistics and Discourse analysis.

She currently works as a part-time translator and English teacher in language institutes, Linfen, China. Her research interests include second language acquisition, English language teaching and critical pedagogy.

A Contrastive Analysis of ESL and EFL Learning Strategies

Wafa Ismail Saud
King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This study examined language context effect on selecting language learning strategies. The participants were 150 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students, and 150 English as a Second Language (ESL) students. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was used for data collection. The data were analyzed quantitatively using Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS). At the individual strategy level, ESL and EFL students differed significantly in the use of 18 (36%) out of 50 strategies. There was also some agreement between them as both ESL and EFL students used 12 (24%) of individual strategies most often, 18 (36%) to a medium degree and 2 (4%) least often. At the category level both groups used the metacognitive strategy category “organizing and evaluating your learning” most frequently, and used both the affective category “managing your emotions”, and the memory category “remembering more effectively”, least frequently, with no significant differences. The overall strategy use for both groups was medium.

Index Terms—affective, cognitive, compensation, memory, social, achievement

I. INTRODUCTION

English is a global language. It is the language of technology, commerce and science. It is common that people learn a second or foreign language differently to succeed in learning it, and they also deploy different strategies that depend on its context. ESL students use the English language for social communication in an English speaking context; whereas EFL learners learn the English language in a non-English speaking context.

Strategies are effective for learning second or foreign languages. Teachers and researchers showed increased concern in the process of language learning more than in the product. They focused on the study of the influence of context on language learning strategies to inspire learners to use strategies to improve self-efficacy in their learning.

A. Background to Study

The Status of English Language in Malaysia Versus its Status in Saudi Arabia

B. First, the Status of English Language in Malaysia

In Peninsula Malaysia the Malay population forms the majority and they speak Bahasa Malaysia as their mother tongue. Although there are a number of dialects in Bahasa Malaysia, most of them are mutually intelligible. The Malaysian Chinese use many dialects such as Hokkien, Cantonese, Hakka, Foochow, Teochiu and Hainanese. Nearly, all Chinese in Kuala Lumpur speak the locally dominated dialect, Cantonese; even if they have different mother tongues. The majority of Malaysian Indians speak Tamil as their mother tongue. They also speak a variety of dialects such as Malayalam, Telegu, Punjabi, Urdu and Gujarati (Hirschman, 1984).

The government of Malaysia has set for itself year 2020 as a target known as Vision 2020 when Malaysia will become a fully developed country. As English is important for progress and international integration, this Vision cannot be achieved without improving the Malaysians' competence of the English language. Nowadays, English is considered as the second language in Malaysia. It is used for a variety of functions, such as everyday communication, trade and commerce, and for certain other professions. It is taught in both primary and secondary schools. (The Hurian Sukatan Pelajaran, 1995, cited in Chitravelu, Sithamparan, & Choon, 1995).

C. Second, the Status of English Language in Saudi Arabia

The largest ethnic group in Saudi Arabia is the Arabs and the official language is Arabic. English is considered as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia; it is included as a subject in the school curriculum. It is not used as a means of communication; the medium of instruction at the institutes of higher education is either Arabic or English.

D. Statement of the Problem

Language context of learner plays a great role in the choice of language learning strategies. Oxford (1990) states that “some learning strategies might be easier to use in second language contexts than in foreign language settings, or vice versa” (p.6). Several studies have been conducted to investigate the influence of second language context and foreign language context separately. There was a need to integrate the separate works conducted in each context in the analysis, in order to provide information to help adapt the findings into present teaching methods, in order to help provide students with successful foreign and second language contexts.

E. Objectives

This study proposes to examine whether the language learning strategies exhibited by Malay and Saudi undergraduate students vary according to context. The findings will be especially useful to lecturers and others who are interested or involved in the teaching ESL and EFL undergraduate students, particularly within Malay and Saudi populations.

The following major research questions are addressed specifically:

What are the similarities and differences in the use of English language learning strategies among ESL and EFL learners at the individual level?

What are the similarities and differences in the use of English language learning strategies among ESL and EFL learners at the category level?

What is the overall strategy use of ESL and EFL learners?

F. Hypotheses

The study proposes to evaluate the data obtained in the light of some confirmed conclusions reached by previous studies such as Oxford (1990). The following assumption can be made at this point: ESL and EFL students differ in the use of language learning strategies at the individual, category and overall levels.

G. Significance of the Study

El-Dib (2008) draws attention to the importance of context on the selection of strategies, and argues that the learning context of learners is the strongest variable that has an impact on the choice of their learning strategies.

This study is different from previous studies as it integrates the separate works performed in the second and foreign language contexts. It contributes to the body of research concerning the language learning strategies of both ESL and EFL learners. It identifies the English language learning strategies preferred by undergraduate ESL learners (i.e. Malays), and EFL learners (i.e. Saudis) in order to provide information that benefit English language learners, teachers and researchers.

The findings can be used in classroom instruction and delivery methods, and in the design of teaching and learning materials.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Different authors conceptualized language learning processes in many ways and gave different definitions to strategies used for them. Nisbet and Shucksmith (1986) view strategies as the steps taken in approaching any task that includes how a student chooses, coordinates and applies skills to suit the context. According to Mayer (1988), the term strategy refers to the learning behaviour that assists the students in the process of learning. Brown (1994) defines learning strategies as methods and plans used for language learning and used to aid language acquisition. Similarly, Griffiths (2013) points out the conscious nature of behaviours chosen by learners to manage language learning.

Horwitz (2013) also states that learning strategies are activities or techniques used to learn more effectively. Cohen (2014) views learning strategies as self-generated thoughts or actions taken by the learner consciously to improve language learning and assimilate new information. Similarly Oxford (2018) defines language learning strategies as planned mental actions used by a learner to self regulate his or her language learning. She classifies learning strategies into two categories, direct and indirect. Direct strategies include three subclasses: memory, cognitive and compensation. Indirect strategies involve metacognitive, affective and social strategies.

In general, all behaviours, methods, techniques and actions that are used to learn a language are all elements of language learning strategies as appear across the different definitions above. Understanding how students learn has attracted the attention of teachers and researchers. They are concerned about the actions taken by learners to achieve learning. They are interested in understanding the process of learning to encourage self awareness of the learners and enhance their autonomy.

It is also believed that the use of language learning strategies is influenced by contextual factors. Researchers find interest in investigating the use of language learning strategies in the field of second or foreign language teaching and learning.

The following studies address the impact of learning context and environment on the use of language learning strategies.

Shmais (2003) aimed to identify the language learning strategies of Palestinian EFL students majoring in English. The findings indicated that students are medium strategy users and that they use metacognitive strategies most frequently and compensation strategies least often.

On the other hand, Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) identified the language learning strategies used by 55 ESL students. They were enrolled in an intensive English language program at a Southwestern University. The results indicated that students used metacognitive strategies most often and affective and memory strategies least often.

Likewise, AbdulRazak, Ismail, AbdulAziz, and Babikkoi (2012) conducted a study to assess the use of English language learning strategies by ESL students. The participants were 180 Malaysian secondary school students. The tool

used to collect the data was SILL questionnaire. Results showed that affective strategies were the most popular and compensation as the least popular ones.

On the contrary, Javid, Al-thubaiti and Uthman (2013) investigated the use of language learning strategies and its relationship to proficiency level. The participants were 240 Saudi EFL undergraduate students majoring in English. Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning was used to collect the data. The findings indicated that metacognitive strategies had the highest frequency and memory strategies the lowest.

Likewise, Alhaysony (2017) examined the language learning strategies used by Saudi EFL students and to examine the use of language learning strategies in relation to the duration of English language study and gender. The participants were 134 students at Al-Jouf University. The tool used in the study was a questionnaire adapted from Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory of Language Learning. The findings showed that students used the strategies at a low and medium level in general. Furthermore, students used cognitive, metacognitive and compensation strategies most frequently, whereas memory and affective strategies were used least frequently.

Similarly, Alnujaidi (2017) investigated the use of language learning strategies by EFL students. The subjects were 178 students from different higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia. Strategy Inventory of language learning was used to collect the data. The results showed that the overall use of strategies was average (medium). In addition, students used the Metacognitive strategies most and the affective strategies least.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Research Design*

The educational research literature abounds with examples of a survey research. There are two types of survey designs, longitudinal and cross-sectional. Longitudinal design focuses on the collection of data over time and at specific points in time, while the cross-sectional design includes sampling two or more populations at one point in time.

This study is a survey research and follows the cross sectional design. Random samples were selected from two populations, Malay undergraduate students and Saudi undergraduate students. Every sample filled in the same questionnaire, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning. The results of the different samples were then compared. The data were analyzed by using SPSS as follows:

First, descriptive statistics were used such as frequencies and mean scores.

Second, comparing statistics were used such as Analysis of variance (ANOVA).

B. *Participants*

The sampling includes two populations, Malay and Saudi students.

C. *Malay Students*

The subjects participating in this study were from University Malaya, Malaysia. Their total number was 150 Malay undergraduate students.

D. *Saudi Students*

The subjects were from King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia. Their total number was 150 Saudi undergraduate students.

E. *Instruments*

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning self-report questionnaire designed by Oxford (1990) was administered to both the Malay and Saudi undergraduate students. It was used to assess the frequency of strategies used by ESL/EFL learners. SILL has been widely used in numerous studies that reported its reliability coefficients that ranges between .85 to .98 (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Bremner, 1998; Wharton, 2000). The questionnaires consisted of fifty items divided into six sections, each section focuses on a specific type, details given in Table 8.

Section one aims at investigating the memory strategies used by students. Section two specifies the cognitive strategies that take place in learning the English language. Section three focuses on the compensation for missing knowledge strategies used by students. Section four secures information about the metacognitive strategies students use to organize their learning. Section five examines the affective strategies and how students manage their emotions. Section six focuses on the social strategies that students use in learning with others.

IV. RESULTS

This section provides a holistic description of ESL and EFL learning strategies. Statistical procedures were employed for the data analysis by using SPSS (version 10). Descriptive statistics like mean scores were computed first.

Next ANOVA was used to test its significance from the multiple comparisons of means. The level of significance of 0.05 shows the probability of making the wrong decision when the null hypothesis is true. The keys that were given by Oxford (1990) in her SILL profile of results have been used in the analysis of data such as follows:

TABLE 1.
KEY TO UNDERSTAND AVERAGES ACCORDING TO OXFORD, 1990.

Average	How often the Strategy Used	Mean
High	Always or almost always used	4.5 to 5.0
	Usually used	3.5 to 4.4
Medium	Sometimes used	2.5 to 3.4
Low	Generally not used	1.5 to 2.4
	Never or almost never used	1.0 to 1.4

Thus, in the data analysis procedures, the findings from the questionnaires will provide answers to the research questions.

A. What Are the Similarities and Differences in the Use of English Language Learning Strategies Among ESL And EFL Learners at the Individual Level?

Results generated from the data analysis of the items of SILL at the individual level indicated that ESL and EFL students in this study tend to use a variety of language learning strategies with some variation in their use of several strategies.

ANOVA exhibited some significant differences in the use of language learning strategies at the individual level between Malay and Saudi students.

Table 2 shows the type, degree of freedom, mean score, F values, and Significance level for each strategy.

TABLE 2.
VARIATION IN THE INDIVIDUAL STRATEGY USE BY ESL AND EFL STUDENTS

ANOVA						
Strategy		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English	Between Groups	7.680	1	7.680	6.865	.009
	Within Groups	333.400	298	1.119		
	Total	341.080	299			
I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them	Between Groups	14.083	1	14.083	10.265	.002
	Within Groups	408.833	298	1.372		
	Total	422.917	299			
I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word	Between Groups	32.013	1	32.013	24.271	.000
	Within Groups	393.067	298	1.319		
	Total	425.080	299			
I use flashcards to remember new English words	Between Groups	22.413	1	22.413	24.185	.000
	Within Groups	276.173	298	.927		
	Total	298.587	299			
I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign	Between Groups	109.203	1	109.203	107.783	.000
	Within Groups	301.927	298	1.013		
	Total	411.130	299			
I say or write new English words several times	Between Groups	14.520	1	14.520	14.211	.000
	Within Groups	304.480	298	1.022		
	Total	319.000	299			
I try to talk like native English speakers	Between Groups	27.000	1	27.000	21.509	.000
	Within Groups	374.080	298	1.255		
	Total	401.080	299			
I practice the sounds of English.	Between Groups	4.813	1	4.813	4.045	.045
	Within Groups	354.573	298	1.190		
	Total	359.387	299			
I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English	Between Groups	43.320	1	43.320	29.428	.000
	Within Groups	438.680	298	1.472		
	Total	482.000	299			
I read for pleasure in English	Between Groups	144.213	1	144.213	117.377	.000
	Within Groups	366.133	298	1.229		
	Total	510.347	299			
I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English	Between Groups	66.270	1	66.270	52.443	.000
	Within Groups	376.567	298	1.264		
	Total	442.837	299			
I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully	Between Groups	15.413	1	15.413	12.179	.001
	Within Groups	377.133	298	1.266		
	Total	392.547	299			
I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English	Between Groups	61.653	1	61.653	60.039	.000
	Within Groups	306.013	298	1.027		
	Total	367.667	299			
I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand	Between Groups	55.470	1	55.470	43.130	.000
	Within Groups	383.260	298	1.286		
	Total	438.730	299			
I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English	Between Groups	44.083	1	44.083	32.255	.000
	Within Groups	407.287	298	1.367		

	Total	451.370	299			
When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures	Between Groups	7.053	1	7.053	5.210	.023
	Within Groups	403.467	298	1.354		
	Total	410.520	299			
If I cannot think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing	Between Groups	8.670	1	8.670	10.218	.002
	Within Groups	252.860	298	.849		
	Total	261.530	299			
I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better	Between Groups	7.363	1	7.363	8.585	.004
	Within Groups	255.607	298	.858		
	Total	262.970	299			
I pay attention when someone is speaking English	Between Groups	11.603	1	11.603	16.006	.000
	Within Groups	216.033	298	.725		
	Total	227.637	299			
I try to find out how to be a better learner of English	Between Groups	24.083	1	24.083	38.896	.000
	Within Groups	184.513	298	.619		
	Total	208.597	299			
I look for people I can talk to in English	Between Groups	8.003	1	8.003	5.403	.021
	Within Groups	441.393	298	1.481		
	Total	449.397	299			
I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English	Between Groups	62.563	1	62.563	55.024	.000
	Within Groups	338.833	298	1.137		
	Total	401.397	299			
I think about my progress in learning English	Between Groups	19.763	1	19.763	19.950	.000
	Within Groups	295.207	298	.991		
	Total	314.970	299			
I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English	Between Groups	7.363	1	7.363	4.530	.034
	Within Groups	484.433	298	1.626		
	Total	491.797	299			
I write down my feelings in a language learning diary	Between Groups	30.720	1	30.720	22.963	.000
	Within Groups	398.667	298	1.338		
	Total	429.387	299			
I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English	Between Groups	84.270	1	84.270	66.312	.000
	Within Groups	378.700	298	1.271		
	Total	462.970	299			
If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again	Between Groups	12.403	1	12.403	12.457	.000
	Within Groups	296.727	298	.996		
	Total	309.130	299			
I practice English with other students	Between Groups	28.830	1	28.830	24.587	.000
	Within Groups	349.420	298	1.173		
	Total	378.250	299			
I ask for help from English speakers	Between Groups	6.750	1	6.750	4.624	.032
	Within Groups	435.047	298	1.460		
	Total	441.797	299			
I try to learn about the culture of English speakers	Between Groups	12.403	1	12.403	8.039	.005
	Within Groups	459.793	298	1.543		
	Total	472.197	299			

Another analysis of the SILL at the individual item level using descriptive statistics is shown in the following tables. The results indicated that the ESL and EFL students in this study employed a variety of language learning strategies with some strategies receiving more frequent use than others.

Table 3 and 4 illustrate that there was no agreement between ESL and EFL students in the use of the following strategies:

TABLE 3.
THE MOST PREFERRED INDIVIDUAL STRATEGIES BY ESL STUDENTS THAT RECEIVED MEDIUM PREFERENCES BY EFL STUDENT

Type	Strategy	ESL students		EFL students	
		Mean Score	Level	Mean Score	Level
Cognitive	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	4.18	High	3.42	Medium
Cognitive	I read for pleasure in English.	3.91	High	2.52	Medium
Metacognitive	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	3.82	High	2.91	Medium
Memory	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	3.58	High	3.26	Medium
Metacognitive	I look for people I can talk to in English.	3.53	High	3.20	Medium
Cognitive	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	3.45	High	2.51	Medium
Social	I practice English with other students.	3.46	High	2.84	Medium

On the contrary, variation is apparent in the use of some strategies. Whereas ESL learners had medium use level of some strategies, EFL students had a high level of using the same strategies. Table 4 revealed such differences.

TABLE 4.
THE MOST PREFERRED INDIVIDUAL STRATEGIES BY EFL STUDENTS THAT RECEIVED MEDIUM PREFERENCES BY ESL STUDENTS

Type	Strategy	ESL students		EFL students	
		Mean Score	Level	Mean Score	Level
Memory	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	3.13	Medium	4.33	High
Cognitive	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	3.11	Medium	4.02	High
Cognitive	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	3.04	Medium	3.90	High
Affective	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	2.96	Medium	4.02	High
Cognitive	I try not to translate word-for-word.	3.43	Medium	3.65	High
Affective	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	3.38	Medium	3.49	High
Compensation	When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	3.31	Medium	3.61	High
Cognitive	I say or write new English words several times.	3.28	Medium	3.72	High
Cognitive	I try to talk like native English speakers.	3.28	Medium	3.88	High
Memory	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	3.25	Medium	3.91	High
Social	I ask for help from English speakers.	3.25	Medium	3.55	High

Although there were some differences in the use of some individual strategies, there was also some agreement. Table 5 illustrates the most frequent strategies that were used highly by both ESL and EFL students.

TABLE 5.
MEAN SCORE OF THE MOST FREQUENT STRATEGIES OF BOTH ESL AND EFL STUDENTS

Type	Strategy	ESL Students		EFL Students	
		Mean Score	Level	Mean Score	Level
Metacognitive	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English	4.01	High	4.58	High
Metacognitive	I pay attention when someone is speaking English	3.98	High	4.37	High
Metacognitive	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better	3.83	High	4.15	High
Compensation	If I cannot think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	3.76	High	4.10	High
Metacognitive	I think about my progress in learning English	3.73	High	4.25	High
Affective	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	3.74	High	3.61	High
Cognitive	I practice the sounds of English	3.70	High	3.45	High
Metacognitive	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English	3.69	High	3.49	High
Metacognitive	I have clear goals for improving my English skills	3.65	High	3.84	High
Social	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.	3.57	High	3.97	High
Compensation	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	3.56	High	3.53	High
Cognitive	I first skim an English passage then go back and read carefully.	3.46	High	3.91	High

Table 5 shows that the most frequent strategy that was always or almost always used by EFL students was a metacognitive one "I try to find out how to be a better learner of English" All of the rest of the strategies were usually used by both ESL and EFL students.

Medium use of some individual strategies by ESL and EFL students was reported in Table 6 as follows:

TABLE 6.
STRATEGIES THAT WERE ASSIGNED A MEAN VALUE OF MEDIUM BY BOTH ESL AND EFL STUDENTS

Type	Strategy	ESL Students		EFL Students	
		Mean Score	Level	Mean Score	Level
Compensation	I try to guess what the other persons will say next in English	3.01	Medium	3.24	Medium
Social	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	2.97	Medium	2.56	Medium
Compensation	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	2.95	Medium	3.05	Medium
Affective	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English	2.90	Medium	2.86	Medium
Cognitive	I try to find patterns in English	2.87	Medium	2.75	Medium
Metacognitive	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English	2.83	Medium	2.83	Medium
Memory	I physically act out new English words	2.81	Medium	2.96	Medium
Compensation	I read English without looking up every new word	2.75	Medium	2.61	Medium
Memory	I use rhymes to remember new English words.	2.73	Medium	2.76	Medium
Cognitive	I use the English words I know in different ways	3.35	Medium	3.11	Medium
Memory	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them	3.33	Medium	2.90	Medium
Social	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk	3.30	Medium	3.44	Medium
Cognitive	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English	3.27	Medium	2.51	Medium
Affective	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English	3.22	Medium	2.91	Medium
Social	I ask questions in English	3.20	Medium	3.43	Medium
Cognitive	I start conversations in English	3.17	Medium	2.92	Medium
Memory	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	3.13	Medium	3.29	Medium
Memory	I review English lessons often.	3.13	Medium	3.21	Medium

Table 6 shows that both ESL and EFL learners sometimes used the above strategies at a medium level; the most frequent ones were memory strategies and the least were metacognitive ones.

Likewise, the least frequent individual strategies used by both ESL and EFL students are displayed in Table 7 as follows:

TABLE 7.
MEAN SCORE OF THE LEAST USED INDIVIDUAL STRATEGIES BY ESL AND EFL STUDENTS

Type	Strategy	ESL Students		EFL Students	
		Mean Score	Level	Mean Score	Level
Affective	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary	2.41	low	1.77	low
Memory	I use flashcards to remember new English words	2.17	low	1.62	low

Table 7 shows that students were reluctant to use two strategies, affective and memory.

In sum, the findings indicated that out of 50 strategies that are included in SILL, EFL and ESL students used 12 (24%) strategies most frequently, 18 (36%) strategies were used at a medium level and 2 (4%) strategies were used least frequently. There were also some differences in the use of the rest of the strategies 18 (36%), where some ESL students use them at a high level whereas EFL students use them at a medium level and vice versa.

B. What Are the Similarities and Differences in the Use of English Language Learning Strategies Among ESL And EFL Learners at the Category Level?

Oxford (1990) divided the questionnaire into six types in her analysis of results of SILL, as illustrated in Table 8:

TABLE 8.
OXFORD (1990) QUESTIONNAIRE SECTIONS

Part	Strategies Covered	Strategy Type
A	Remembering more effectively.	Memory
B	Using all your mental processes.	Cognitive
C	Compensating for missing knowledge.	Compensation
D	Organizing and evaluating your learning.	Metacognitive
E	Managing your emotions.	Affective
F	Learning with others.	Social

Analysis using ANOVA as illustrated in Table 9 shows that there was no significant variation in the reported use of strategy categories for both Malays and Saudis.

TABLE 9.
EQUALITY OF MEANS FOR STRATEGY CATEGORIES OF BOTH ESL AND EFL LEARNERS

ANOVA						
Strategy		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Remembering more effectively	Between Groups	.877	1	.877	2.533	.113
	Within Groups	103.218	298	.346		
	Total	104.096	299			
Using all your mental process	Between Groups	.576	1	.576	1.903	.169
	Within Groups	90.188	298	.303		
	Total	90.764	299			
Compensation for missing knowledge	Between Groups	1.356	1	1.356	3.481	.063
	Within Groups	116.068	298	.389		
	Total	117.423	299			
Organizing and evaluating your learning	Between Groups	.263	1	.263	.569	.451
	Within Groups	137.950	298	.463		
	Total	138.214	299			
Managing your emotions	Between Groups	3.333E-03	1	3.333E-03	.007	.931
	Within Groups	132.487	298	.445		
	Total	132.491	299			
Learning with others	Between Groups	5.926E-03	1	5.926E-03	.012	.913
	Within Groups	149.263	298	.501		
	Total	149.269	299			

The analysis of the SILL categories used by ESL and EFL students indicated that students preferred to use some strategy categories more frequently than others.

Table 10 shows the mean score and ranking for each category used by ESL students.

TABLE 10.
MEAN SCORE AND RANKING OF STRATEGY CATEGORIES

Part	Strategy Category	Mean Score	Rank
D	Organizing and evaluating your learning	3.7	1
B	Using all your mental processes	3.4	2
F	Learning with others	3.3	3
C	Compensating for missing knowledge	3.2	4
E	Managing your emotions	3.1	5
A	Remembering more effectively	3	6

Table 10 shows that ESL students used all the strategy categories at a medium level except for the metacognitive strategy category that recorded a high level (mean 3.7). The table also illustrates that the most common category of strategies used by ESL students was the metacognitive one "Organizing and evaluating your learning". The least frequent use of categories was the affective one "managing your emotions" and finally, the memory category "remembering more effectively".

Likewise, Data analysis of the SILL categories on EFL students indicated that students use some categories more frequently than others. Table 11 shows the mean score and rank of each strategy category as follows:

TABLE 11.
MEAN SCORE AND RANKING OF STRATEGY CATEGORIES

Part	Strategy Category	Mean Score	Rank
D	Organizing and evaluating your learning	3.7	1
C	Compensating for missing knowledge	3.4	2
B	Using your mental processes	3.3	3
F	Learning with others	3.3	3
E	Managing your emotions	3.1	4
A	Remembering more effectively	3.1	4

Table 11 shows that EFL students are similar to ESL students as they learn best by organizing and evaluating their learning. The least used strategy categories were "Managing your emotions" and "Remembering more effectively".

C. What Is the Overall Strategy Use of ESL and EFL Learners?

To answer the final research question, ANOVA was applied to decide on the similarities and variation in the overall use of strategies between Malays and Saudis. Table 12 below summarizes the results of the analysis.

TABLE 12.
SIMILARITIES IN MEANS OF THE OVERALL STRATEGY USE BETWEEN MALAYS AND SAUDIS

ANOVA					
Overall	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.110	1	.110	.478	.490
Within Groups	68.526	298	.230		
Total	68.636	299			

Table 12 indicated that there were no statistically significant differences in the overall use of strategies between Malays (mean: 3.29) and Saudis (mean: 3.32). Thus, the significant level is insufficient to reject the hypothesis of no differences (null hypothesis).

On the other hand, both Malays and Saudis showed medium overall strategy use as their means are the same (mean: 3.3) which indicated that these strategies are used sometimes.

V. DISCUSSION

In answering the research questions of the study, the data drawn from the SILL revealed that there were similarities and variation in the use of individual language learning strategies. ESL learners used some strategies highly, while EFL students used them at a medium level.

EFL Saudi students who are not exposed to English outside the classroom reported medium level of using resources such as watching English films, or reading English books for pleasure, or writing notes and letters in English, or speaking English with others. This is probably due to their busy schedules and family commitments. Furthermore, it is difficult for them to watch English films while the other members of their family do not speak English. This situation may also refer to the students' instrumental motivation in learning English which is passing their exam. They are not so highly motivated to use English for communication outside class; whereas some strategies were dominant by EFL students, the same strategies on the contrary were used at a medium level by ESL students.

EFL Saudi students were also more visually-oriented than auditory, tactile or kinesthetic. They like to learn through visual communication. They also did not use word for word translations. However, in learning new vocabulary items, they link the familiar words in their first language that sound like the new words in English, or they break down the new words into parts they understand.

Furthermore, EFL learners know well how to control their emotions and lower their anxiety in their learning, by talking to their peers about their feelings, and by using relaxation. They also overcome limitation in speaking by using gestures in place of giving expressions to stay in a conversation.

Finally, EFL learners feel that practicing English like native speakers, and asking English speakers for help, are very challenging, and help them learn much more. So, they consider practicing English as one of the effective ways to learn.

Although there was a variation in the use of individual strategies between ESL and EFL learners, there were also similarities between them. This can be explained by both types of learners need to use some individual strategies for learning effectively, regardless of the status of their English language.

Most of the strategies used by both ESL and EFL students at a high level were metacognitive ones followed by cognitive ones, then compensation ones and finally the least types used were social and affective ones.

In addition, most of the strategies used by ESL and EFL students at a medium level were memory ones followed by cognitive, then social and compensation ones, then affective ones, and finally the least used type was the metacognitive one.

Likewise, the least popular strategies among ESL and EFL learners were "I write down my feelings in a language learning diary", and "I use flash cards to remember new English words". Students showed that they generally do not use these two strategies. Maybe they feel more comfortable in using their native language to express feelings, and they do not prefer using flashcards as they think that this technique suits children more than adults.

With regard to category level, the findings indicated that the dominant strategy category used by both ESL and EFL learners was the metacognitive one known as "organizing and evaluating your learning", and surprisingly both types of the students reported the same mean score (3.7). This finding is in harmony with the results of the studies by Javid, Al-thubaiti and Uthman (2013); Alnujaidi (2017) on foreign language learners and Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) on second language learners, which stated that both EFL and ESL students used metacognitive strategies most frequently. This result of preferences of metacognitive strategy category showed that students are aware that in order for them to learn a new language, they have to organize and plan their language learning. Teachers of these students can help their students organize their learning by giving them the course plan from the beginning of the semester. They can also help them by relating their prior knowledge to new one when teaching them. They can also teach new vocabulary in groups and categories based on a unifying concept for each group.

Another finding showed that ESL and EFL students used the affective strategy category "Managing your emotions" and the memory strategy category "Remembering more effectively", least often.

Similar results have been reported in a few studies on second and foreign language learners by Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), and by Alhaysony (2017), who stated that ESL and EFL students used affective and memory strategies least often.

The reason why the affective strategy category was used least often by both ESL and EFL students might be due to the fact that students are well organized. That is seen in the findings. Being well organized, they prepare for their lectures in advance. They plan for situations that may cause emotional pressure. It may have also used it least often because their exposure to the English language is increased with the development of new technology and the various types of social networks. Indirect online social contact probably helps them not to panic if they do not understand anything in a discussion. Social networks may have also helped them to have access to native English speakers and to have more chances of interacting with them.

The low frequency in the use of memory strategy category might be due to the fact that students are not familiar with some memory strategies mentioned such as “Using flashcards to remember new English words”, or “I physically act out new English words”.

Finally, with regard to the overall strategy use by both ESL and EFL learners, results showed that there were no significant differences between ESL and EFL learners, as both groups showed medium overall strategy use. This finding of a medium overall strategy use for EFL students were consistent with the findings obtained from the study of Shmais (2003) and Alnujaidi (2017).

VI. CONCLUSION

ESL and EFL learners were sufficiently dynamic in utilizing the language learning strategies. Although there was some agreement in the use of individual strategies, there was also some variation, i.e. ESL learners showed a high level of using some strategies, whereas EFL learners showed medium use of the same strategies and vice versa.

At the category level, the findings indicated that there was no significant variation in the use of strategies for both ESL and EFL learners. The most frequent strategy category used by both ESL and EFL learners was the metacognitive one “organizing and evaluating your learning”, and the least frequent ones were the affective one “managing your emotions”, and the memory category “remembering more effectively”.

With regard to overall strategy use, the findings showed that there was no significant differences in the overall strategy use as they both reported medium overall strategy use.

Thus, the findings of the study can provide an understanding of strategy use among ESL/EFL learners. Teachers can improve the quality of their teaching and their students learning by incorporating learning strategies into their teaching methods and into their course materials. They can raise learners ‘awareness of the variety of categories of strategies available to them to promote lifelong learning.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to the respondents of the questionnaires; I am also indebted to my editors for their useful comments and feedback.

REFERENCES

- [1] AbdulRazak, N. Z., Ismail, F., AbdulAziz, A., & Babikkoi, M. A. (2012). Assessing the use of English language learning strategies among secondary school students in Malaysia. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 66, 2040-246. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.11.266> (accessed 11/2/2018).
- [2] Alhaysony, M. (2017). Language learning strategies use by Saudi EFL students: The effect of duration of English language study and gender. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 7 (1), 18-28. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0701.03> (accessed 11/2/2018).
- [3] Alnujaidi, S. (2017). Factors influencing college level EFL students’ language learning strategies in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of English and Linguistics*, 7 (1), 69-84. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v7n1p69>.
- [4] Bremner, S. (1998). Language learning strategies and language proficiency: Investigating the relationship in Hong Kong. *Asian Pacific Journal of Language in Education*, 1 (2), 490-514.
- [5] Brown, H. D. (1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall Regents.
- [6] Chitravelu, N., Sithamparan, S., & Choon, T. S. (1995). *ELT methodology: Principles and practice*. Shah Alam: Penerbit Fajar Bakti.
- [7] Cohen, A. D. (2014). *Strategies in learning and using a second language* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- [8] El-Dib, M. (2008). Language learning strategies in Kuwait: Links to gender, language level, and culture in a hybrid context. *Foreign Language Annals*, 37 (1), 85-95. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2004.tb02176.x> (accessed 11/2/2018).
- [9] Griffiths, C. (2013). *The Strategy factor in successful language learning*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- [10] Horwitz, E. K. (2013). *Becoming a language teacher: A Practical guide to second language learning and teaching*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- [11] Hirschman, C. (1984). The Society and its environment. In F. M. Bunge (Ed.), *Malaysia a country study* (PP. 67-127). Washington: The American University.
- [12] Hong-Nam, K., & Leavell, A. G. (2006). Language learning strategy use of ESL students in an intensive English learning context. *System*, 34 (3), 399-415. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2006.02.002> (accessed 11/2/2018).
- [13] Javid, C. Z., Althubaiti, T. S., & Uthman, A. (2013). Effects of English language proficiency on the choice of language learning strategies by Saudi English major undergraduates. *English Language Teaching*, 6 (1), 35-47. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n1p35>.
- [14] Maer, R. E. (1988). Learning strategies: An overview. In C. E. Weinstein, E. T. Goetz & P. A. Alexander (Eds.) *Learning and study strategies: Issues in assessment, instruction, and evaluation* (PP. 11-22). San Diego: Academic Press.
- [15] Nisbet, J., & Shucksmith, J. (1986). *Learning strategies*. London: Routledge & Kegan pan Paul.
- [16] Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publications.
- [17] Oxford, R. L. (2018). Language learning strategies. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to learning English as a Second Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- [18] Oxford, R. L., & Burry-Stock, J. (1995). Assessing the use of language learning strategies worldwide with the ESL/EFL version of the strategy inventory of language learning (SILL). *System*, 23 (1), 1-23. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X\(94\)00047-A](https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(94)00047-A) (accessed 11/2/2018).
- [19] Shmais, W. A. (2003). Language learning strategy use in Palestine, *TESL-Ej*, 7 (2), 20-33.
- [20] Wharton, G. (2000). Language learning strategy use of bilingual foreign language learners in Singapore. *Language Learning*, 50 (2), 203-243.

Wafa Ismail Saud was born in Damascus, Syria, 1965. She holds a PhD in English from the Faculty of Language and Linguistics, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 2009. Her Master degree was in English as a second language, from the International Islamic University Malaysia, 2001. Her Bachelor degree was in English language, with honor, from the College of Education, Makkah, Saudi Arabia, 1987.

She is currently an Assistant Professor at the Department of English, Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia, and has been lecturing there since 2003. She started publishing in 2015 and currently has the following publications: [1] Saud, W.I. (2015). Cohesion in the descriptive writing of EFL undergraduates. *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies*, 2(2), 440-450. <http://www.ijhcs.com/index.php/ijhcs/article/view/503>. [2] Saud, W. (2018). Methods of scoring writing tests. *Mountain Top*, 4(1) Language Research Centre, King Khalid University. https://flt.kku.edu.sa/sites/flt.kku.edu.sa/files/general_files/files/1-Dr-Wafa-MT-V4-Issue-1-May-2018.pdf, [3] Saud, W.(2018). An analysis of collocation errors committed by EFL learners. Presentation. 13th Research Day, King Khalid University. [4] Saud, W.I. (2018). Lexical errors of third year undergraduate students. *English Language Teaching*, 11(11), 161-168. <http://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v11n11p161>. Her research interest is English language learning strategies.

Dr. Saud **headed** a number of academic committees at the Department of English, Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia including; Examination Committee, 4 years; Quality Assurance Criteria Committee for Teaching and Learning, 2 years; Quality Assurance Criteria Committee for Students Affairs and Supporting Service, 2 years. She was also a **member** of other boards and committees there including; Students' Rights and Obligations Committee, 1 year; Department Board, 6 years; Examination Review Committee, 5 years; Tally Committee, 2 years; and Academic Advisory Committee, 2 years.

A Survey of Practical Knowledge of Pre-service English Teachers in China

Mingmei Wang

Sichuan University of Arts and Science, Dazhou, China

Abstract—Based on interviews and questionnaires, this study investigates the current situation of practical knowledge of 96 senior normal English majors. Information to be gained includes the knowledge about self, discipline, students, educational situation and their beliefs in the essence of education. The results show that: 1) They have clear self-knowledge, but most of them lack teachers' professional identity. 2) Their disciplinary knowledge is generally limited, those with certain teaching experience are better off. 3) Their students' knowledge is seriously influenced by career hopes, those who are willing to be teachers are comparatively good at understanding their students. 4) Their perception of the educational situation of English is one-sided, social factors are totally ignored. 5) Their beliefs in the essence of English education are in the process of alternation between modern and traditional concepts. The findings of the survey are discussed and suggestions are made in this study.

Index Terms—pre-service English teachers, practical knowledge, current situation

I. INTRODUCTION

The quality of teaching and the success or failure of educational reform are closely related to teachers' professional quality. Teachers' practical knowledge is the knowledge that teachers actually use and display in the teaching practice. It is the knowledge base of teachers' professional development and the core of teachers' professional quality. It dominates teachers' teaching decisions and is the essential difference between excellent teachers, ordinary teachers and novice teachers. Teachers' practical knowledge is like the clearance node of teachers' professional development, which is a compulsory course for the future teachers who expect to do something great. English education in China, especially in the elementary education stage, is still dominated by classroom learning. Teachers are the main source of English input. Teachers' professional qualities directly affect the effectiveness of English teaching, thereby affecting the overall quality of English education in China. Normal college students are in the initial stage of the formation of teachers' professional quality. The practical knowledge they have acquired in the universities largely determines their future professional development and their ability to rapidly grow into expert teachers. Normal English majors will be the main force of English education. Therefore, to investigate the current situation of their practical knowledge, find out and solve the existing problems are of great significance for the sustainable improvement of English education.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The study of teacher's practical knowledge in the West begins in the 1980s. Based on a case study of an experienced secondary school teacher, Elbaz (1983) suggests that a teacher has a particular knowledge in a unique way, that is the practical knowledge. It is the integration of the teacher's professional theoretical knowledge, personal values and beliefs, characterized by specific practice situations and social environments, includes knowledge about the teacher himself, environment, subject content, curriculum and pedagogy. Her description of practical knowledge lays the foundation for the research in this field. From the mid-1980s to the mid-1990s, research is deepened. Connelly & Clandinin (1985) not only explores how teachers' practical knowledge works in a particular situation, but also creates a new approach of narrative research. In the Middle and late 1990s, Dutch Scholars Beijaard & Verloop (1999), Verloop & Meije (2001) begin to turn their sights on the specific subject teaching, teacher evaluation, teacher education and so on, which further expands the research in this field. The research on practical knowledge of foreign language teachers begin in the mid 90s. Borg's research on grammar knowledge and grammar teaching knowledge of ESL teachers proves that teachers' subject knowledge has important relation with subject teaching knowledge (1998, 1999). Adopting the narrative method and referring to Elbaz's analytical framework, Golombek (1998) makes a case study of two ESL teachers who are both teaching assistants while studying for master's degree in Teacher Education, revealing the personal practical knowledge constructed by the two teachers in the process of learning.

The study of teacher's practical knowledge in China begins in the 21st Century. In theoretical research, the team led by Professor Chen Xiangming (2011) has made a comprehensive and systematic local research. The definition of practical knowledge has been revised to read: "Teachers' understanding of education and teaching formed after reflecting and refining their own educational and teaching experience, and expressed through their own actions" (p. 64), and it includes five types of content: knowledge about self, subjects, students, educational situations and beliefs in the essence of education. Among them, self-knowledge refers to teachers' self-identity, self-understanding and self-

positioning, values and so on. Disciplinary knowledge refers to teachers' subject knowledge, curriculum knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. Knowledge of students refers to the teachers' understanding of the students' learning ability, motivation, cognitive form, etc.. Knowledge about educational situation refers to teachers' perception of social and cultural background, such as classroom situation, school atmosphere, cultural tradition, etc.. The belief in the essence of education refers to the teacher's cognition of the purpose of education and what is good education. Her monograph also elaborates in detail on the forms, elements and media of teachers' practical knowledge, which marks the beginning of the in-depth development of domestic research in this field. In practical research, the research focuses on demonstrating the role of teachers' practical knowledge, the relevance of practical knowledge to teaching situation and teaching experience, the effectiveness of solving practical problems in teaching and so on (Wang Yan, 2013). There have also been some qualitative studies in the field of foreign language education. By describing the development of an expert English teacher from novice to expert, Li Dehua (2005) reveals the factors and opportunities that affect the acquisition and updating of teachers' practical knowledge. Wang Yan (2011) reveals the composition, characteristics, sources and influencing factors of practical knowledge of excellent foreign language teachers.

Existing research has made people fully aware of the importance and uniqueness of teacher's practical knowledge, also provides theoretical basis for analyzing teachers' teaching behavior and how to optimize classroom teaching. However, there are the following limitations: First, the systematic study of foreign language teachers' practical knowledge is not rich enough. Foreign language teaching is different from other disciplines. Foreign language is not only the content of the subject, but also the teaching tool. It also lacks social culture, language environment and pragmatic significance. Therefore, it is theoretically necessary to study the practical knowledge of foreign language teachers on the basis of subject characteristics and unique curriculum situation. Second, research on the construction of pre-service teachers' practical knowledge is almost blank. Applying existing research results to teacher education is not only the expansion and deepening of research in this field, but also the full play of its practical value. In view of this, this paper will investigate the current situation of normal English majors' practical knowledge, and provide some reference for the effective English teacher training.

III. METHOD

A. Respondents

The respondents are 107 senior normal English majors from 3 comprehensive universities in Sichuan. They had just finished their two-month internship in the middle schools. The survey was conducted in the first week after they returned to the universities.

B. Survey Tools

Interviews and self-made questionnaires are used as the survey tools. The interview focuses on students' reflection on internships, lessons learned from teachers' learning process and so on. The questionnaire consists of two parts. The first part is the basic information of students. The second part includes 40 questions (30 multiple-choice questions, 10 short-answer questions), which are set up according to the content type of teachers' practical knowledge put forward by Chen Xiangming (2011). Questionnaires were distributed through professional survey software, and respondents answered online by mobile phone or computer. A total of 96 valid questionnaires were collected from the survey. The contents of the questionnaire are as follows.

1. Self-knowledge. Would you like to be an English teacher? Do you think it is meaningful to become an English teacher? What kind of job would you like to do? Do you think you are qualified to be an English teacher? Do you know your own character and teaching ability? Can you give full play to your strengths and avoid your weaknesses in the teaching? Are you willing to accept the feedback from students and other teachers? Can you learn from your mistakes and adjust your attitude and behavior in time?

2. Knowledge about the discipline. Do you think you have enough knowledge of English? Do you think you have enough knowledge in related fields? Do you understand the development process and principles of secondary school English curriculum? Do you know the criteria for selecting the content of secondary school English textbooks? Do you know the relationship between the knowledge points in secondary school English textbooks? Do you know how the progress of secondary school English in different grades is arranged?

3. Knowledge about the students. Do you think the statement that there are only teachers who can't teach well, no students who can't learn well is correct? Is there any possibility of counterattack for the students with learning difficulties? Do you think students can be judged by one or two things? What do you think are the factors that affect middle school students' English learning? How do you think the relationship between teachers and students should be handled? Do you know the motivation for most middle school students to learn English? Do you know the English learning strategies used by the middle school students?

4. Knowledge about the educational situations. Can you seize and make use of educational opportunities that arise occasionally in class? Do you know the current teaching methods used by middle school English teachers? Do middle school English teachers pay more attention to the memory of knowledge or the use of language? Do you know the major difficulties faced by middle school English teachers nowadays? What support does the local education bureau

have for English teaching? What impact will the National Matriculation English Test (NMET) reform bring to the middle school English teaching? Do you know the specific content of the new college entrance examination?

5. Beliefs in the essence of education. Do you know the purpose of English teaching? What do you think is the standard to measure the success of an English teacher? Is teaching vocabulary and grammar English teacher's sole job? The only characteristic of English is instrumentality, isn't it? If not, what else? Do you pay more attention to teachers' teaching or students' learning? When designing teaching plans, would you take students' response into consideration? What kind of relationship should be between English teachers and students in class? What do you think the middle school English teaching should be based on? What do you think the middle school English teaching should be centered on? How do you teach vocabulary? How do you teach the text?

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. *Self-knowledge*

Except 4% of the normal English majors admit that they are not sure what career they would take in the future, the others have clear self-knowledge and career hopes. Unfortunately, only 35% of them are willing to be English teachers, 61% of them are unwilling to engage in teaching profession. Those who are willing to be English teachers believe that teachers' work can not only bring them a sense of accomplishment, but also has the power to affect students' growth and even students' whole life. They believe that they will be able to guide and promote students to get progress in English learning. They also express their willingness to receive negative feedback from students and other colleagues and feel that negative feedback is like a mirror in which they could most directly and effectively see their teaching flaws. They also have a positive attitude toward mistakes in teaching. They regard mistakes as the only way for teachers to grow up and deem that only by constantly learning from mistakes can they improve their teaching ability faster and better. They believe that they can make full use of their strengths and avoid the weaknesses in teaching, but no one thinks that he has the ability to design a constructive lesson plan. It is acceptable. To design a constructive plan requires not only the ability to refine and grasp knowledge, to be familiar with the arrangement of textbooks, curriculum standards and knowledge in other fields, but also the ability to combine these knowledge with the actual needs of students. Normal students are still in the initial stage of teacher training, they need constant practice and reflection before they get to that height. Among those who are not willing to be teachers, a few are for their own defects. They consider that they lack patience and knowledge, do not like the noisy environment in the elementary and secondary schools. But more than half of them do not choose to be teachers because of their prejudice against teachers' profession. Some believe that first-class students learn science, second-class students learn arts, third-class students learn to be teachers, being a teacher means being a depised figure in their eyes. Others think that teachers' salaries are too low and teachers' work is quite boring and tiring. They tend to engage in jobs with high wages and good working conditions. Comparing the above figures, we can see that influenced by the unhealthy social atmosphere in the current society, the values of most normal students have become materialized. It also reflects that the environment in which the normal students live is not conducive to the formation of correct Three Outlooks. From the perspective of social environment, the pursuit of fame and fortune prevails. From the perspective of schools, more attention has been paid to the imparting of practical knowledge and skills, while the cultivation of spiritual culture has been neglected seriously. It is well known that learners' inner feelings, beliefs and values directly affect the quality and quantity of practical knowledge learning. If the values of normal students can not be corrected in time, even if they choose the teacher profession, they can only become teaching machines rather than educators, which is contrary to the purpose of our teacher education. Therefore, how to make normal students correctly view the profession of teachers and correctly measure the value and significance of being a teacher should be the primary issue for teachers' educators to consider.

B. *Knowledge about the Discipline*

The disciplinary knowledge of the normal English majors is very scarce. Those who have a good grasp of English knowledge account for 48%, but self-examination shows that 17% of them have mastered the relevant knowledge. That is to say, only 17% of the students are qualified to become English teachers from the point of view of knowledge. The fact is that all the 17% have teaching experience in tutoring or training classes and have a deep understanding of the importance of practical knowledge. While the rest generally have the following ideological errors: "As long as I have a solid knowledge of English, I can become good English teachers." "Teaching knowledge is very simple, it won't be late to learn when I start teaching". "Courses such as pedagogy are boring and I do not want to learn". No matter whether they have part-time teaching experience or only internship experience, they do not understand the process and principle of English curriculum development, nor the schedule of teaching in different grades. However, among the normal students who have done part-time teaching, 3% know the selection criteria of textbook content and 5% know the relationship between knowledge points. These figures show that the current construction of English teacher education is weak, and the teacher education curriculum is not comprehensive. Normal students do not have the opportunity to conduct a comprehensive understanding and systematic analysis of secondary school English textbooks. Even though some students have some familiarity with the textbooks in the process of tutoring or teaching in training classes, they are still limited to the textbooks or contents they have been exposed to, and fail to have an in-depth understanding of the arrangement and compiling principles of English textbooks in secondary schools. This phenomenon also reflects the

stubborn disease in teacher education: The theory is divorced from practice and lacks the situational characteristics, which makes the theory teaching empty and abstract. Consequently, the normal school students have no interest in the theory study. The solution of the above problem depends on the following two aspects of the work of teacher educators. First, exploring the teaching mode of combining theoretical knowledge with practical knowledge, so as to promote normal students to realize teachers' learning and professional development by studying their own practical experience and improving teaching behavior. Second, improving the curriculum system to make it closely related to the reality of basic education and enhance the practicability of the courses offered so as to arouse students' interest in learning, thereby increasing the knowledge reserve of normal students.

C. *Knowledge about the Students*

The data from this section shows that career hopes of normal students affect their understanding of students. Those who are unwilling to be teachers have a one-sided and passive view of students. They think that "There are students who can't learn anything well." "It's hard for the students with learning difficulties to have an opportunity to counterattack because of the weak foundation of English." "Behavior is the embodiment of thought, and contingency can reflect the mind of students." "Teachers' authority should be maintained in teacher-student relationship." "Nearly all the middle school students' motivation is to get higher scores." "I don't know students' learning strategies." Those who are willing to teach are more comprehensive and active in their understanding of students. It is believed that "genuine love for students and appropriate teaching methods will benefit all students." "Students with learning difficulties are likely to counterattack if they find the right learning method." "It is a continuous process to recognize students". "It is necessary to observe for a long time to get a relatively objective evaluation of students." "There are many factors that affect English learning, such as scores, interests, family education, personality, etc." "The relationship between teachers and students should be mutual respect, democratic and equal." "Different students have different motivations." "Students with different academic achievements have different English learning strategies." These completely different answers show that professional identity determines work attitude. The normal majors who are willing to teach think it is a happy and meaningful thing to get along with students. They spend a lot of time talking, communicating and doing sports with the students after class, so that they can get to know students more truly and comprehensively. At the same time, their love for their careers also enables them to take a positive view of their students. Normal students who are unwilling to teach hold the attitude of fulfilling the task and have little communication with students in their free time, which definitely leads to their prejudices and lopsided views. Love is the motive force of doing everything well. Without love, there is no intention and dedication. Teachers are faced with students, in addition to knowledge imparting, more emotional input is needed. Love and other non-academic factors are an important factor restricting a teacher to become a real teacher. Therefore, the first and most important step in teacher education should be to make normal students view the profession of teachers positively and correctly, cultivate their sense of professional identity and pride, and stimulate their inner love for the profession.

D. *Knowledge about the Educational Situation*

Answers to this part of questions indicate that normal students have not got an overall view of the educational situation of English. Only 8% of the normal majors think that they have the ability to seize and utilize occasional educational opportunities in class. The interview and basic information prove that language proficiency of these students is high. To seize and utilize occasional educational opportunities in class is an instant generating ability (Wang Qiang, 2009), it needs not only teacher's wisdom and solid subject knowledge, but also a deep cultural literacy. This is an acceptable result since it is a high requirement for the in-service teachers, let alone the pre-service teachers who haven't teaching experience. After self-examination, all the respondents think that they know the teaching methods and focus of middle school English teachers and nearly half know the main problems faced by middle school English teachers. But almost no one has paid any attention to the social and school environment in which English teaching is conducted. Only three normal students think that they probably know a little about the new policy of the college entrance examination of English, but they are not clear about its impact. It can be seen from the above data that normal students lack the awareness of paying attention to the educational situation from the macro level. They only notice the most intuitive part of the teacher and lack understanding of the general environment of education, which shows that normal school students do not have the ability to fully understand things. This defect is closely related to their learning habits. The spoon feeding education mode has been in our country for a long time. Until now, it is still the norm of primary and secondary education. In this way, students are only good at memorizing textbook knowledge mechanically, and lack the most precious independent thinking ability and critical thinking. At the same time, in the eyes of parents and teachers, academic achievement is the only criterion to measure children. Under the influence of this idea, children have gradually become indifferent to the things which are not directly related to them. Do not keep your ears out of the window, just concentrate on the books of the sages and thus to pursue higher scores has become the only major event in their students' lives. This severely limits children's vision, imagination and thinking. As a result, they believe that teaching is a very simple matter, involving only teachers and students, while fail to take into account the impact of politics and social environment such as policies and guidelines on teaching. Social culture theory, the main theory of second language teacher education, holds that teacher learning is a process of continuous dialogue between teachers and social environment so as to acquire self-knowledge, student knowledge, subject knowledge, curriculum knowledge and

environmental knowledge (Johnson, 2006). In this process, the interaction of internal and external factors affects the process and results of teachers' learning and development. Without dialogue with the environment, how can the teacher get the proper cognition and growth? Foreign language teaching is a process composed of many factors, involving not only teachers and students, but also foreign language education policies and their implementation. The purpose of education, educational policy and training objectives affect English teaching in a big way, and the opening, opening hours, purposes and requirements of English classes are all subject to them (He Guangzheng, 2011). How to perceive and interpret the educational situation is bound to affect teachers' teaching strategies. The cultivation of thinking ability is a long process. This work should be started from the initial stage of education. However, the current normal school students are already in a state of lack of this ability. What the teacher education can do is to make every effort to make up for it.

E. Beliefs in the Essence of English Education

The results of this section reflect that the majority of normal students' understanding of the essence of English education is vague, even contradictory. For example, although 98% of the respondents believe that students' learning is more important than teachers' teaching, 62% of them usually do not consider students' needs and possible reactions when designing teaching plans. Although 69% know that English has both instrumental characteristics and cultural factors, 76% still believe that to memorize the language points is the central task of English learning in middle schools, even more than 79% think that the job of English teachers is only to teach language knowledge. More than 82% of the respondents surveyed know the purpose of English teaching, but 92% believe that students' test scores are the only criterion for teachers' success. When answering the question of how they teach words, more than half of the normal students say that they would ask their students to read the new words repeatedly, only a small number of normal students choose to use word-formation to split words to help students understand and remember. In dealing with the text, 69% of the students adopt the grammar-translation method, explaining the meaning and grammatical phenomena of the text word by word, sentence by sentence. Only 25% of the students deal with the text by asking questions, discussing and so on. When asked why they taught words and texts in this way, they answer that they themselves were taught like this. These normal students have received the traditional teaching methods since they began to learn English in junior middle school. During the six years of English learning, their cognition of teaching has been deeply rooted in the traditional educational ideas. In the meantime, the advanced educational concepts on foreign language teaching have not been involved in their professional learning in universities. This phenomenon is worthy of careful consideration. Currently, many teachers' colleges use large amounts of resources in the course of general teacher education, but many courses are not closely related to the specialty of foreign language teachers (such as how to teach listening, reading, writing, oral English and other specialized skills), which surely leads to the vague belief of normal students in the nature of foreign language education. What is worth paying attention to is that in recent years, great changes have taken place in basic English education and foreign language education policies. If we still stay in generalizing education instead of carrying out some targeted courses, the future English teachers are very likely to continue to transplant their learning experience into their future teaching, which is not conducive to helping them face new challenges of the new era and meet new needs of society. From these contradictory data, we can see that the normal English majors are still in the process of alternation between modern and traditional concepts. Their belief in the nature of English education has not yet been formed. Teacher educators should seize the last opportunity to make normal students correctly understand the nature of English education, so as to assist them to form a correct view of teaching and better guide their teaching practice.

V. SUGGESTIONS

From the above survey data, a conclusion can be drawn that there is a big gap between the practical knowledge of the normal English majors and the actual needs, which shows that there are still great defects in our teacher education. There are two most prominent problems. One is the misunderstanding and prejudice towards teachers' profession caused by incorrect values, the other is teacher training is seriously divorced from the reality of basic teaching. Based on the conclusions and discussions, the following suggestions are made:

First, attach importance to guiding normal students to establish correct values. A remarkable new trend has emerged in education around the world: from ability-oriented to values-oriented. Values are the criteria for people to analyze and measure the world, also the criteria and norms for group members or social members to consciously regulate social behavior and social life. The purpose of education is not only to impart knowledge and skills training, but also to help students set up correct values, pay attention to the inner feelings and personality, achieve the harmony of human spirit and material unity. Foreign language education in our country emphasizes more on basic knowledge and basic skills training. Schools are filled with an atmosphere of eagerness for quick success and instant benefit. Students lack humanistic care, correct values for the development of the world, concern and reflection on the things around them. Although professional knowledge education can be provided, it will only make people a useful tool, not a person with harmonious development. Teachers are the disseminators of advanced ideas and the guidance of students' healthy growth. Only when teachers themselves have the correct values can they bear the epochal responsibility of spreading ideas, shaping souls, shaping lives and shaping new people. Therefore, the author suggests that normal universities can

help students establish correct values from various aspects. For the university management staff, they should work under the guidance of the philosophy of people-oriented education and try to construct a campus culture with humanistic spirit. For the teaching staff, it is an unshakable duty to shoulder the responsibility of educating students in the process of imparting knowledge. At the same time, the undergraduate tutorial system can be implemented to increase the connection between teachers and students. As the relationship between teachers and students draws closer, students will learn how to appreciate and give the warmth and love from and to others.

Second, keep intimate links with basic education. For normal school students, maintaining close contact with basic education is a feasible way to combine educational practice with educational theory, which helps them form educational beliefs and have a deep understanding and grasp of education and teaching. Teacher learning is not a simple linear process from learning theoretical knowledge to learning practical knowledge (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005; Black & Halliwell, 2000), but a gradual process based on the experience gained in practice and effective reflection on the memory of theoretical knowledge (Avalos, 2011). There are usually two ways to acquire practical knowledge: teachers' individual educational practice activities and others' educational and teaching practice or experience. Therefore, in addition to the most commonly used probation and internship, the opportunities ought to be increased for normal school students to contact the reality of basic education by means of high-quality class observation and case analysis etc., which can not only make normal students realize the gap between their own ability and the actual needs, but also arouse their consciousness of combining practice with theory.

Third, perfect the curriculum. The importance of curriculum is self-evident. It is not only related to whether it is conducive to helping students establish an accurate outlook on life, whether they have access to the reality of basic education, but also related to the integrity of teachers' knowledge, the teaching decision-making and teaching effect. The curriculum system usually consists of three parts: knowledge, skills and attitudes. How to arrange the order of the three and what courses to offer determine the focus of teacher education and the quality of teachers. Influenced by traditional educational ideas, the courses currently offered attach more importance to knowledge than skills, to skills than attitudes. In the Internet age, teachers are no longer the only possessors and providers of knowledge, but the organizers and guiders of classroom learning. A positive attitude is the key to a better life and a worthwhile career. Therefore, knowledge should no longer occupy the first place in curriculum in this learning society. Accordingly, attention should be paid to the following three points in the course design. First, make the emphasis of curriculum be in line with the changes and demands of the times. Namely, attitude should go first, then skill and knowledge. Given the lack of Three Outlooks construction, courses that can cultivate humanistic quality, such as historical research, social analysis, foreign culture, moral rationality should be offered. Second, courses such as English subject standard and the analysis of middle school English textbooks should be added in order to help the normal students get familiar with the new curriculum reform of basic education and deepen their understanding of subject curriculum standards and textbooks. Third, increase the credits in practice appropriately and set up more forms of practice, for example, the simulation teaching in microteaching, being substitute teachers or tutors, comparison and simulation on the information network, etc. to assist normal students acquire practical knowledge in the process of doing.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work is supported by the ninth China Foreign Language Education Fund. (Project No.: ZGWYJYJJ2018B100)

REFERENCES

- [1] Avalos, B. (2011). Teacher professional development in teaching and teacher education over ten years. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27.1, 10-20.
- [2] Beijjaard, D., Driel, J. V. & Verloop, N. (1999). Evaluation of Story-line Methodology in Research on Teachers' Practical Knowledge. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 25.1, 47-62.
- [3] Black, A. I. & Hailliwell, G. (2000). Accessing practical knowledge: How? Why? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16.1, 103-115.
- [4] Borg, S. (1998). Teachers' pedagogical systems and grammar teaching: A qualitative study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32.1, 9-37.
- [5] Borg, S. (1999). The use of grammatical terminology in the second language classroom: a qualitative study of teachers' practice and cognitions. *Applied Linguistics*, 20.1, 95-126.
- [6] Brouwer, N. & Korthagen, F. (2005). Can teacher education make a difference? *American Educational Research Journal* 42.1, 153-224.
- [7] Connelly, F. M., & D. J. Clandinin. (1985). Personal practical knowledge and the modes knowledge: Relevance in teaching learning. In E. Eisener (Ed.), *Learning and Teaching the Ways of Knowing*. Chicago: University of Chicago press, 174-198.
- [8] Cheng Xiangming. (2011). *Bridging Praxis and Theory: A Study of Teachers' Practical Knowledge*. Beijing: Educational Science Publishing House.
- [9] Elbaz, F. (1983). *Teacher Thinking: A Study of Practical Knowledge*. New York: Nichols Publishing Company.
- [10] Golombek, P. R. (1998). A study of language teachers' personal practical knowledge. *Modern Language Journal*, 83.3, 35-50.
- [11] He Guangzheng. (2011). *Theory and practice of English Teaching Methodology*. Guang Zhou: Jinan University Press.
- [12] Johnson, K.E. (2006). The sociocultural turn and its challenges for second language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40.1, 235-257.

- [13] Li Dehua. (2005). The construction of novice teachers' practical knowledge: Analysis of teachers' life history. *Education Story*, 12, 26-30.
- [14] Verloop, N., J. V. Dreil & P. Meijer. (2001). Teacher knowledge and the knowledge base of teaching. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 35.5, 441-461.
- [15] Wang Qiang. (2009). Presupposition and generation in English Classroom Teaching. *English Teachers*, 8, 18-21.
- [16] Wang Yan. (2011). A case study of practical knowledge of excellent foreign language teachers. *Theory and practice of foreign language teaching* 1, 68-76.
- [17] Wang Yan. (2013). Review and Prospect of Foreign Language Teachers' Practical Knowledge Research. *Development and Assessment of Higher Education*, 29.6, 87-104.

Mingmei Wang was born in Dazhou, China in 1976. She received her M.A. in linguistics and applied linguistics from Chongqing University, China in 2008.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Arts and Science, Dazhou, China. Her research interests include applied linguistics and teacher education.

The Terms of Address of *Abung* Lampungese Language as a Local Wisdom in Its Multicultural Society

Iing Sunarti

Universitas Lampung, Bandar Lampung, Indonesia

Sumarti

Universitas Lampung, Bandar Lampung, Indonesia

Bambang Riadi

Universitas Lampung, Bandar Lampung, Indonesia

Abstract—As a multiethnic and multilingual population, Lampung province can be broadly divided into two groups; the indigenous population (Lampung ethnic) and immigrant population. *Abung* Lampungese community, as one of Lampung ethnic, has a unique and varied terms of address, and it also has a rule of use. This study aims to investigate the forms and the rules of terms of address used in *Abung* Lampungese by using qualitative descriptive design, observation and interview as the data collection techniques. There are ten terms of address and twelve factors of the terms of address rules and norms in Lampungese found in this study, each of which portrays the relationship between the speaker and the interlocutor.

Index Terms—terms of address, kinds of terms of address, norms in using the terms of address

I. INTRODUCTION

Language and cultures are related to each other; 1) language expresses cultural reality, 2) language embodies cultural realities, 2) language embodies cultural reality, 3) language symbolizes cultural reality. Those relations are the most preserved treasures of local wisdoms in Lampungese society. The ethnic of Lampungese society has an ethic or a norm which becomes the guideline in managing behavior when they communicate and interact between ethnic groups and other ethnic groups, both are those who have family relations, and those who are not relatives

As a multiethnics and multilingual province, Lampung is inhabited by various ethnics broadly divided into two groups; indigeneous population (Lampungese ethnic) and immigrant population. Based on their customs, the people of Lampung are distinguished into *Saibatin* and *Pepadun* people. *Saibatin* people live in coastal area, while *Pepadun* people live alongside the river empties into the Java Sea in the rural areas. Therefore, the symbol of Lampung Province is known as *Sang Bumi Ruwa Jurai* which means the noble residence of two different origin and different customs group of people.

Both *Saibatin* and *Pepadun* have the same character traits as their life philosophy known as *Pi-il Pesenggiri*. *Abung* Lampungese people as one of *Pepadun* ethnics also has *Pi-il Pesenggiri* as their life philosophy. This *Pi-il Pesenggiri* reflects the characters of *Abung* Lampungese society in these features (1) *Pi-il Pesenggiri* (pride). This *Pi-il Pesenggiri* is seen in their behavior, they feel they have pride. Every Lampungese acts as if he is a great person, and each relative is greater than other relatives. (2) *Juluk Adek* (having title). In this *pi-il*, they show their desire to be respected. Though they are still young, they use *nama besar* (great name) called *Juluk/jejuluk* to fulfil their desire. After getting married, they will use *nama tua* (old name) or courtesy title called *adok/adek*. (3) *Nemui Nyimah* (open arms). They love getting praise, this is a part of their *pi-il*. They love having guests, giving things and sending gifts to certain people, especially to those bounded in kinship, to get praises. Besides, this *pi-il* reflects that Lampungese People easily forgive others' mistakes. (4) *Nengah Nyapur* (socialization). Lampungese people love visiting, making new friends, having chit chat and discussion. (5) *Sakai Sambayan* (help each other). Lampungese people love helping each other. They also love helping others in preparing and finishing a heavy work, such as building a house, opening forest, and holding a custom party. (Hadikusuma: 1988).

Related to those five *pi-il* above, the terms of address are closely related to *Pi-il Juluk Adek* (titled name). In this *pi-il*, it is crystal clear that Lampungese ethnic love giving courtesy title which used as a term of address. Since the first day of birth, children are already given courtesy titles called *Juluk/Jejuluk* such as *Darmawan*, *Bangsa Ratu*, *Abdullah*, *Sitti*, *Permai*. *Juluk* is used as long as this person is single/unmarried. When the person gets married, he or she will be addressed *Adek/Adok* as his or her courtesy title, for example *Suntan Pukuk*, *Pengiran Permai*, *Sutan Darmawan*, *Ratu Mahkota*.

Language is closely related to culture of speaker's social life. Kramch (1998) states that there are three connections between language and culture. First, language expresses cultural reality. The language or words expressed by the speakers refer to the experience the speaker has experienced. They express facts, ideas, or events that can be communicated, because they refer to knowledge about the world that other people also understand. In addition, Wijana, I Dewa Putu and Rohmadi (2006) also stated that words can also reflect the speaker's attitude, beliefs, and views of life.

Second, language embodies cultural reality. In addition to expressing the experience, the community members or social groups creates the experiences through language. They give meaning to create their experiences through language media, choose language media to communicate with others. As the example, when talking through phone, writing letter through e-mail, reading newspaper or interpreting a graphic or chart. The ways people communicate through talking, reading or visual media create understandable meaning, such as speaker tone, accent, conversation style, conversation style, gesture and facial expression. Soepomo (2009) also stated that verbal and nonverbal aspects show language as an incarnation of cultural reality. Third, language symbolizes cultural reality. Language is a sign system that reflects the cultural value of its people. The identity of the speakers can be seen from the language they are used. Language is a symbol of social identity of the community.

Koentjaraningrat (1990) also stated the connection of language and culture by elaborating the elements of cultural universals. The elements of cultural universals are (1) language, (2) knowledge system, (3) social organization, (4) daily equipment and technology system, (5) livelihood system, (6) religious system, and (7) art.

Sapir—Whorf postulated the theory of connection between language and culture of the societies. This theory is known as Sapir—Whorf hypothesis or Linguistic Relativity theory. This theory is quoted by Poedjosoedarmo (1968), Wardhaugh (1986), Trudgil (1995), Lyons (1995), Sibarani (2004) and Wijana and I Dewa Putu (2010). Sapir—Whorf stated that the relation between language and certain society is an integral part of its culture and the lexical distinction made by each language tend to reflect the characteristics of objects, institutions, and activities which culturally important in that society.

Abung Lampungese ethnic society has Lampungese language as the embodiment of the culture of Lampungese people. The linguistic terms used in addressing someone is called *tutugh/tutur/tutor*. *Tutugh/tutur/tutor* is a term of address, the way of addressing or addressing a member of one relative with another relative (Hadikusuma, Arifin, Barusman: 1966). *Kiai, niay, apak, bati, abati, bak, ama, akan, Ayah, Apak Hou, Apak Ngah, Om, Abati, Menak, and Kholi* are the examples of *tutugh/tutur/tutor*.

Lampungese people has mores and norms in communicating, the way of addressing someone is part of it. Younger people should lower the intonation when speaking to the elder or respected people, between in-law (*sabai*) both male and female should use the terms of address *saya* (I) and *puskam* (sir), between daughter in-law/son in-law (*anak mattuw*) and mother/father in-law (*mintuha, metohou*), daughter in-law/son in-law should show respect to the father/mother in law by addressing him/herself as *hikam* (I) and *puskam* (sir/madam). On the contrary, father/mother in-law address *nikam, metei, kuti* (You) to his/her daughter/son in-law and it is inappropriate to address *niku* (you) to his/her daughter/son in-law. Those who can not address his opponent's speech correctly is considered as less civilized. (Hadikusuma, Arifin, & Barusman: 1996).

The uniqueness, roles, and norms contained in the terms of address in *Abung* Lampungese Language need to be studied further. As an asset of regional and national culture, it needs attention, protection and development, therefore further research and description are needed descriptively, this research informs the reader about the terms of address in *Abung* Lampungese Language and the rules and norms of the use of terms of address of *Abung* Lampungese Language.

II. METHOD

The researchers use observation and interview in collecting the data in this descriptive research. Observation is used when the researchers observes the utterances produced by the informant when they communicate with others. Interview is used to seeking the information related to the terms of address (the terms of address, factors considered in determining and using terms of address, and the traditional authority of giving and using the terms of address).

The data sources in this research are the spoken utterances as a primary data. These utterances are used by the native speakers of Lampungese language in their daily life communication. To determine that the spoken utterances as the sources of the data, the utterances should meet these criteria: (1) spoken utterances are actual language (*parole*) as individual system realization; (2) spoken utterances descriptively and empirically fulfill the language; (3) oral utterances of Lampungese language are still used as a means of communication and interaction of native speakers of Lampungese in their daily life. In collecting the data, the researchers determine some criteria of the native speakers of Lampungese; (1) the speaker is old enough and healthy (not senile) (2) the speaker is native speaker of Lampungese language; (3) the speaker has a good language ability; (4) the speaker is an indigeneous resident in the target research location. The selected informants consist of two groups; a group of traditional authority leaders and a group of ordinary community. Both groups use Lampungese language. A group of traditional authority leaders is selected based on the assumption that they have insight, know the terms of address, traditional authority in addressing someone, and rules of giving and using the terms of address in Lampungese language. Lampungese community groups are assumed as a real user of terms of address in Lampungese language in their daily communication. The total number of informants interviewed are 100 persons.

The research was conducted in the area where the native speakers of *Abung* Lampungese people live, Kota Madya Bandar Lampung, Lampung Province. Bandar Lampung is the capital city of Lampung province. It is quite representative for the research since it is a miniature of Lampung. The research took place in five sub-districts; Kedaton, Rajabasa, Kemiling, Teluk Betung Selatan and Sukabumi. The researchers used participant-observation technique and questionnaire as data collection method.

Furthermore, in data analysis technique, componential analysis was used. The data of terms of address collected were compared one to another, and the results of the comparison became the *distinctive feature*. This semantic distinctive features are the speech components which become the external and social factors that underlie the emergence of terms of address. Those factors also become the distinctive feature of each term of address used by the speaker. Factors are adjusted to determined factors in Lampung community culture. Those factors are gender (male/female), age (older younger, same age (1, 2, 3, 4, etc.)), courtesy title (customary institutions, marital status, birth order), family descent (ordinary family, religious family, noble family, or non noble family), level of formalities (intimate or regular), situation of conversation (formal atau informal), the purpose of conversation, intimate, and spiritual.

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. The Form of Terms of Address in *Abung* Lampungese Language

Based on the data of the research, the *Abung* Lampungese Language speakers groups are part of Lampung society who use *Abung* Lampungese Language. This group has unique and varied terms of address compared to others Lampungese speakers. It is classified into kinship's terms of address and non kinship's terms of address. The rules of using the terms of address are varied. They depend on gender, generation, family's environment, level of relationship, situation of conversation, the origin of title, the differences in courtesy title degree, differences of birth order, spiritual, and intimate terms of addressing someone. The following explanations are the term of address used in *Abung* Lampungese society.

Kinship's Terms of Address

In the terms of address, these terms are classified into kinship's terms of address caused by blood and marriage.

The Form of Kinship's Terms of Address Caused by Blood/Descent

The kinship's terms of address used for interlocutor who have blood relations *Abung* Lampungese society are adjusted according to gender, generation level, origin of family environment, level of relationship, situation of conversation, origin of term, origin of title, differences in traditional authority levels, differences in birth order, differences of age level, terms of address in religious stuff, and intimate terms of addressing someone, as shown in the following table.

TABLE I
EGO TERMS OF ADDRESS (0) TO FATHER AND MOTHER (GENERATION +I)

No.	Terms of Address in Indonesian	No.	Terms of Address in <i>Abung</i> Lampungese Language	Gender	
				Male	Female
1.	Bapak (father)	1.	<i>Abah</i>	√	–
		2.	<i>Abi</i>	√	–
		3.	<i>Abuya</i>	√	–
		4.	<i>Ayah</i>	√	–
		5.	<i>Bapak</i>	√	–
		6.	<i>Buya</i>	√	–
		7.	<i>Buyah</i>	√	–
		8.	<i>Papa</i>	√	–
		9.	<i>Papah</i>	√	–
		10.	<i>Papi</i>	√	–
		11.	<i>Pak</i>	√	–
		12.	<i>Pah</i>	√	–
		13.	<i>Ubak</i>	√	–
		14.	<i>Walid</i>	√	–
		15.	<i>Yah</i>	√	–
2.	Ibu (mother)	1.	<i>Bunda</i>	–	√
		2.	<i>Ebok</i>	–	√
		3.	<i>Emak</i>	–	√
		4.	<i>Mak</i>	–	√
		5.	<i>Ibeu</i>	–	√
		6.	<i>Ibu</i>	–	√
		7.	<i>Buk</i>	–	√
		8.	<i>Ina</i>	–	√
		9.	<i>Mama</i>	–	√
		10.	<i>Mamah</i>	–	√
		11.	<i>Mami</i>	–	√
		12.	<i>Ummei</i>	–	√
		13.	<i>Umni</i>	–	√

Note: √ = Yes/ used
– = No/unused

The terms of address used by the ego (speaker), the generation 0 to the parents (father), male, and generation +1 (above ego) are *Abah, Abi, Abuya, Ayah, Bapak, Buya, Buyah, Papa, Papah, Papi, Pak, Pah, Ubak, Walid, and Yah*. The terms of address used by the ego (speaker), generation 0 to the parents (mother), female, generation +1 (above ego) are *Bunda, Ebok, Emak, Mak, Ibeu, Ibu, Buk, Ina, Mama, Mamah, Mami, Ummei, dan Ummi*. The terms of address *Pak, Pah, Yah, Mak, dan Buk* are the shorten terms from *Bapak, Papah, Ayah, Emak, dan Ibu*. The terms of address to father and mother are determined by the gender differentiation, everyone is able to use those terms of addresses, in accordance with family's agreement.

The terms of address used by Ego to grandfather, generation +2 (above ego), male, are *Ateu, Atu, Atu Ama, Atu Ayah, Atu', Datuk, Sidei, Sidi, Ya'i, and Yayik*. The terms of address used by Ego to grandmother, generation +2 (above ego), female, are *Ateu, Atu, Atu Inak, Atu Umik, Ambai, Andung, Inak, Nenek, Nyaik, Sitei, and Siti*.

The terms of address used by ego to great grandfather, generation +3 (above ego), male or female, are *Buyut, Teludan, Tuyuk. Tuyuk Ragah* can be the alternative to address the great grandfather while to address great grandmother, *Tuyuk Sebai* can also be used. The terms of address used by the ego to the great-great grandfather, generation +4 (above ego), for both male and female are the same; *Canggah dan Taring*.

The terms of address used by ego to uncle and aunt, generation +1 (equal to father and mother) are determined by gender. To address male, they use *Abah, Abuya, Adèk, Adin Pesirah, Apak Adin, Ayah, Ayah Suttan, Ayah Pengiran, Ayah Rajo, Ayah Rateu, Ayah Atu, Jejuluk, Manda, Minak, Om, Opa, Pak Adin, Pak Atu, Pak Minak, Pak Dalom, Pak Odo, Pak Cik, Pak Su, Pak Tut, Papah, Papi, Puan, Uwak, Wan + Nama, and Walid*. The term of address used by ego to aunt, generation +1 (equal to father/mother), are *Bunda, Cik Ngah, Halati, Ibeu, Ibu, Ibeu Suttan, Ibeu Tuan, Ibeu Pengiran, Ibeu Rajo, Ibeu Ratu, Ina, Mami, Mak Wan, Mak Ngah, Mak Seu, Mak Su, Mak Tut, Mak Cik, Mak Wo, Minan, Nama diri* (proper name), *Puan, Puan + Adèk, Tante, Tut, Umei, Uncu, Umi, Uwak, Wan + Nama, and Walida*.

The terms of address based on birth order of parents' (father/mother) brothers are *Pak Adin (6th/7th in birth order), Pak Minak, Minak (5th in birth order), Pak Dalom (6th in birth order), Uwak, Pak Odo (born before father/mother), Pak Ngah (birth order in the middle), Pak Cik (born after father/mother), Pak Seu, Pak Su, dan Pak Tut (the youngest)*. The terms of address to father/mother's sisters are *Wo, Uwak, Puan, Mak Ngah, Cik Ngah, Mak Cik, Mak Seu, Mak Su, Mak Tut, Minan, and Uncu*. *Uwak* is used to address father/mother's sibling whose age are older than them while *Om* and *Tante* are used to address father/mother's younger siblings.

Terms of address to siblings are determined by gender, birth order, age status, and marital status. To address brothers, the terms of address used are *Abang, Adèk, Adin, Ajo, Ayng, Bang, Batin, Dayng, Jejuluk, Kanjeng, Kiai, Minak, Tihang Ratu, Tuan, Kakak, Tuanda, Uhta, and Nama diri* (proper name). While for addressing sister, the terms of address used are *Acik, Adèk, Atin, Ateu, Atu, Ayng, Batin, Dayng, Gusti, Jejuluk, Kakak, Kak Atu, Kanjeng, Kiai, Suhun, Susi, Tati, Titah, Tuanda, Uhti, Uni, dan Nama diri* (proper name). The terms of address distinguished by the age status are *Uni* (older than ego) and *Nama diri* (younger than ego).

Based on marital status, the terms of address used are *Jejuluk* (single) and *Adèk* (married). The terms of address to siblings used based on birth order are *Kanjeng, Gusti, Ateu, Atu, Adin, Ajo, Kiai, Ayng/Dayng, Atin/Batin, dan Minak*. Further explanation of terms of address used based on birth order are on the table below.

TABLE II
TERMS OF ADDRESS TO NIECE AND NEPHEW (EQUAL TO OWN CHILDREN/-1)

No.	Terms of address in Indonesian	No.	Terms of address in Abung Lampungese Language	Gender		Marital Status	
				Male	Female	Single	Married
3	Keponakan (Niece/Nephew)	1.	<i>Adèk</i>	√	√	–	√
		2.	<i>Jejuluk</i>	√	√	√	–
		3.	<i>Nakan</i>	√	√	–	–
		4.	<i>Naken</i>	√	√	–	–
		5.	<i>Nama diri</i>	√	√	–	–

To address both niece and nephew, the terms of address used are *Adèk, Jejuluk, Nakan, Naken, and Nama diri*. *Adèk* is used to address married nephew/niece, while *Jejuluk* is used to address single nephew/niece. *Nakan* and *Naken* means niece or nephew. *Nama diri* is the niece/nephew's own name. as an example, if the nephew's name is *Nurdin*, he then will be addressed as *Nurdin*.

The terms of address used by the ego to cousins (children from father/mother's siblings) are *Adèk, Abang Acik, Adik, Adin, Gusti, jejuluk, Kiay, Kanjeng, Patih, Rateu, Ratu, Ses, Nama diri* (proper name). The way they address cousins are similar to when they address siblings and it should be based on birth order. It is determined by gender, age status, marital status.

The terms of address to cousins are determined by male gender are *adèk, Abang, Adik, Adin, Jejuluk, Kanjeng, Kiay, Patih, Rateu, Ratu, Nama diri* (proper name), and similar to addressing siblings. The terms of address to female cousins are *Adèk, Adik, Acik, Gusti, Jejuluk, Kanjeng, Kiay, Rateu, Ratu, Ses, Nama diri* (proper name), and similar to addressing siblings.

The terms of address to cousins determined by age status are distinguished into younger than ego, older than ego, same age with ego. Those terms of address are *Abang* (older than ego), *Adik* (younger than ego), and *Nama diri/ proper name* (same age with ego).

The terms of address used by ego to his children are *Adèk*, *Anak*, *Bagus*, *jejuluk*, *Nak*, *Nama diri* (proper name), *Nduk*, *Sayang*, and based on the order of birth. The terms of address to the children are determined by the birth order, marital status, and intimate terms of address. For example, the terms of address *Abang*, *Kanjeng*, *Kiay* are used based on the birth order.

Jejuluk dan *Adèk* are determined based on the marital status. *Bagus* is the intimate terms of address for boy and *Nduk* is the intimate terms of address for girl. *Sayang* is the intimate terms of address for both boy and girl.

Terms of address used by ego to address grandson or granddaughter are *Adèk*, *Jejuluk*, *Nama diri* (proper name), *Sayang*, dan *Uppu*. Those terms of address are determined by the marital status and intimate terms of address. *Jejuluk* is used to address unmarried/single grandson/granddaughter and *Adèk* to address married grandchildren. The term of address used for intimate terms is *Sayang*.

Kinship's Terms of Address Due to Marriage

The terms of address used by the ego to her husband are *Abang*, *Adèk*, *Ajo*, *Ayah*, *Bang*, *Kanjeng*, *Kiay*, *Papah*, similar to the terms of address used in the husband's family, similar to the terms of address used by their children, and *Sayang*. The terms of address to husband are determined by the traditional authority terms of address. It depends on their fondness as a couple. Some will address their husband similarly to the terms of address used in the husband's family and others will address their husband similarly to the terms of address used by their children. Besides, some will address their husband *sayang* as the intimate terms of address.

Terms of address used by ego to address wife are *Adek*, *Adèk*, *Adik*, *Dek*, *Mamah*, *Ibu*, proper name (*nama diri*), similar to the terms of address used in the wife's family, similar to the terms of address used by their children and *Sayang* (dear/honey, etc). The terms of address used for wife are usually determined by traditional authority terms of address.

The terms of address used by ego to address father and mother in-laws are similar to the terms of address used in the husband/wife's family. For example, when the children of father and mother in-law address their parents *Abah/Papah/Ayah/Ibeu/Umi*, then the ego will address his/her father/mother in-law the same way.

Besan means people whose children are married to each other. The terms of address used by ego to address his/her *besan* are *Sabai*, *Sada*, *Adèk*, and based on the level of courtesy title. *Sabai* is used to address to male *besan*, while *Sada* is used to address female *besan*. Beside *Sabai* dan *Sada*, *Adèk* and *gelar jenjang adat* also can be used to address both male and female *besan*. As the example, *Adèk besan* whose title is *Ratu Syah Alam*, then the ego will address his *besan*, *Ratu syah Alam*.

The proper terms of address based on birth order is used to address both brother-in-law and sister-in-law. *Kanjeng*, *Gusti*, *Rateu* (the first in birth order), *Kiay* (the second in birth order), *Daying* (the third in birth order) etc are the terms of address used based on birth order. The terms of address used to address brother-in-law and sister-in-law should be based on the traditional authority level; *Suttan* (1st level), *Tuan* (2nd level), *Pengiran* (3rd level), etc.

In determining the terms of address, the status of both speakers should be appropriate. For example, the younger one will address the older addressee with *Kiay* atau *Kanjeng*. The older one will address the younger addressee with *Adik* or proper name.

The terms of address used to address son-in-law or daughter-in-law are *Adèk*, *Matew*, proper name, based on the level of courtesy title and based on the name of first son-in-law (the name of first grandchild from father/mother-in-law). The term of address *Adèk* is owned by the son-in-law after he get the courtesy title since he is already married. For example, his previous proper name is *Zainudin*, after he get married, he becomes *Pengiran Sakti*, then he will be addressed *Pengiran Sakti*. Sapaan *Matew* berarti *Menantu*. This term of address can be used for son-in-law and daughter-in-law.

Non-Kinship Term of Address

Non-kinship terms of address are classified into non-kinship same ethnic and non-kinship different ethnic. The terms of address in these two groups are also classified into stranger interlocutor and familiar interlocutor.

Terms of Address to the Same Ethnic Interlocutor

The terms of address to the same ethnic interlocutor are divided into a stranger interlocutor and familiar interlocutor from the same ethnic.

(1) Stranger Interlocutor from the same ethnic

In general, the terms of address used to the stranger interlocutor with same ethnic depend on the gender and the age of interlocutor. The common terms of address used are *Buya*, (bapak), *Ibeu* (ibu), *Datuk/Atu'* (kakek), *Nyaik/Atu* (nenek), *Kiay* (the interlocutors are the same age or little bit older than the speaker), *Adik/Adek* (the interlocutors are younger than the speaker), and *Nak/Anak* (child).

(2) Familiar Interlocutor from the same ethnic

To address familiar interlocutor from the same ethnic, the speaker will use the same terms of address as used in addressing relatives. (See the previous terms of address)

The Non-Kinship Terms of Address to Interlocutor from Different Ethnic

Non-kinship terms of address are classified into non-kinship different ethnic and non-kinship different ethnic. The terms of address in these two groups are also classified into stranger interlocutor and familiar interlocutor.

(1) *Stranger interlocutor from different ethnic*

The speaker will consider the gender and the age of the stranger interlocutor from different ethnic by using common terms of address such as *Bapak, Pak, Ibu, Bu, Kakek, Kek, Nenek, Nek, Kakak, Kak, Adik, Dik, Abang, Bang, Mbak, Mas, dll.*

(2) *Familiar interlocutor from different ethnic*

To address familiar interlocutor from different ethnic, the speaker will use common terms of address or without the mentioning the profession such as *Pak Guru, Bu Guru, Mas, Mbak, Mbah, Nenek, Mang, Uda, Encik, Uni, Babah, Pak Ustad, dll.*

Intimate Terms of Address

This termsae used to express deep love and care to the interlocutor. The Abung Lampungese society use *Bagus, Nduk*, and *Sayang*. *Bagus* is used by the parents to son and by the grandparents to grandson or great-grandson. *Nduk* is used by the parents to daughter and by the grandparents to granddaughter or great-granddaughter. *Sayang* is used by the parents and grandparents to son and daughter, grandchildren, and great-grandchildren. *Sayang* is also used by the husband to wife or vice versa.

The Form of Term of Reference

The Form of Term of Reference is used to address blood-related relative interlocutors.

Terms of Reference based on Types Pronoun

TABLE III
TERMS OF REFERENCE BASED ON TYPES PRONOUN

No.	Terms of Reference in Indonesian	No.	Terms of Reference in Abung Lampungese Language	Types of Pronoun					
				Singular			Plural		
				1 st	Or 2 nd	Or 3 rd	Or 1 st	Or 2 nd	O 3 rd
1.	Saya/Aku (I)	1.	<i>Nyak</i>	√	–	–	–	–	–
		2.	<i>Ekam</i>	√	–	–	–	–	–
		3.	<i>Hikam</i>	√	–	–	–	–	–
2.	Kamu (You)	1.	<i>Nikeu</i>	–	√	–	–	–	–
		2.	<i>Nikew</i>	–	√	–	–	–	–
3.	Anda (You)	1.	<i>Metei</i>	–	√	–	–	–	–
4.	Dia (She/He)	1.	<i>Yo</i>	–	–	√	–	–	–
		2.	<i>Diya</i>	–	–	√	–	–	–
		3.	<i>Yow</i>	–	–	√	–	–	–
		4.	<i>Yew</i>	–	–	√	–	–	–
5.	Kami (We)	1.	<i>Ekam</i>	–	–	–	√	–	–
		2.	<i>Hikam</i>	–	–	–	√	–	–
		3.	<i>Sikam</i>	–	–	–	√	–	–
6.	Kalian (You)	1.	<i>Kuti</i>	–	–	–	–	√	–
		2.	<i>Kuti Ghumpok</i>	–	–	–	–	√	–
7.	Mereka (They)	1.	<i>Tiyan</i>	–	–	–	–	–	√
8.	Beliau (He/She) (polite)	1.	<i>Beliaw</i>	–	–	√	–	–	–

The term of address determined by pronouns are *Nyak, ekam, Hikam, Nikeu, Nikew, Metei, Yo, Diya, Yow, Yew, Ekam, Hikam, Sikam, Kuti, Kuti Ghumpok, Tiyan*, and *Beliaw*. *Nyak/Ekam/Hikam* (I) is used for first person-singular pronoun. *Nikeu/Nikew* (you) is used for second person-singular pronoun. *Metei* (You) is used for second person-singular pronoun. *Yo/Diya/Ypw/yew* (she/he) is used for third person-singular pronoun. *Ekam/Hikam/Sikam* (we) is used for first person-plural pronoun. *Kuti dan Kuti Ghumpok* (You) are used for second person-plural pronoun. *Tiyan* (They) is used for third person-plural pronoun. *Beliaw* (He/she) is used for third person-singular pronoun.

The Terms of Address in Courtesy Title

The terms of address in courtesy title of Abung Lampungese language are distinguished into courtesy title of terms of address based on traditional authority institution, terms of address based on marital status and terms of address based on birth order.

(1) Courtesy title of terms of address based on traditional authority institution

Abung Lampungese speaker society has traditional authority institution called *Kepenyimbangan*. The officers in *Kepenyimbangan* are classified based on level/stratification, role, and responsibilities in the institution. Each group has different terms of address. The table below explains the stratification of terms of address.

TABLE IV
TRADITIONAL AUTHORITY TERMS OF ADDRESS STRATIFICATION

No.	Traditional Authority Terms of Address Stratification	Stratification				
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	<i>Suttan</i>	√	-	-	-	-
2.	<i>Tuan</i>	-	√	-	-	-
3.	<i>Pengiran</i>	-	-	√	-	-
4.	<i>Rajo</i>	-	-	-	√	-
5.	<i>Rateu/Batin/Dalem/Minak/Radin</i>	-	-	-	-	√

Abung Lampungese society follows a traditional authority called *Pepadun*. There is social stratification which will determine the responsibilities, functions, and roles of given courtesy title *ad&* in Abung Lampungese society. This courtesy title is given to married person who is able to hold special ceremonial called *gawei mepadun* (the highest ceremonial in Lampungese traditional Authority). This *ad&* courtesy title determines the term address used. This courtesy title applies to both male and female. The terms of address stratification in courtesy title are *Suttan* (*jenjang 1*), *Tuan* (*jenjang 2*), *Pengiran* (*jenjang 3*), *Rajo* (*jenjang 4*), *Rateu/Batin/Dalem/Minak/Radin* (*jenjang 5*),

Terms of Address based on Marital Status

Based on marital status, terms of address are divided into *Jejuluk* and *Ad&ek*. *Jejuluk* is the traditional authority terms of address to address newly born child. *Jejuluk* is given at the thanksgiving ceremonial and *akikahan* once at the same time by cutting the baby’s hair called *Marhabanan*. In *akikahan*, the parent will slaughter two lambs for baby boy and a lamb for baby girl. Only the grandparents and the uncles/aunts who have the rights to give courtesy title *Jejuluk* to the baby. The baby will bear the title until he or she gets married. The example of *Jejuluk*:

Name: Regina Zarifa; Courtesy title *Jejuluk*: Pengiran Juwita

Ad&ek is the traditional authority term of address based on marital status. This term of address is used to someone who has already married. The title of *Ad&ek* is announced on the wedding ceremony and given by *Penyimbang Adat* (traditional authority leader). To give this courtesy title, the parents’ ancestry (father) should be considered. Contoh:

Proper name: Ahmad Effendy Sanusi; title *Ad&ek*: *Suttan Siwo Mego*

Terms of Address of Proper Name

Similar to other ethnics, Abung Lampungese people has a traditional authority to give name as an identity. The proper names used in Abung ethnic can also be found in other Lampungese society. Those names are taken from Arabic language, common name or western name. Example: Wan Abas, Muhammad Idris, Komarudin, Evi Saputra, Hesti, Sherly.

Term of Names in Religious/Spiritual Matter

The religious terms of address are commonly used in Abung Lampungese language speakers. Religious terms of address are used to address the spoken opponents who work in spiritual area or those who have been to Mecca as pilgrims. Religious terms of address are *Pak Aji, Mak Aji, Nyaik Aji, Pak Ustad, Mrs. Ustadzah, Pak Imam, and Pak Penghulu*.

B. The Rules for the Use of Terms of Address of Lampungese Language Speaker

The use of terms of address in Lampungese language is based on its rules. Those rules includes gender, origin of the family environment, origin of heredity, birth order, courtesy title, age status, religious title, situation of conversation, and purpose of using terms of address factors. The following is a description of each of the rules.

a) The gender factor of the speech actor will determine the use of the terms of address. The terms of address to address male may be different with female. For example, the only term used to address the eldest brother is *Kanjeng*, while the terms of address used to address the eldest sister are *Kanjeng, Gusti, or Ratu*.

b) The origin of the family environment must be considered by the speech participants. The noble family environment will use different term sof address compared to ordinary or non noble family; asal lingkungan keluarga *Penyimbang* family will use different terms of address compared to non *Penyimbang* (the traditional authority leader) family, the origin of the family who has been to Mecca as pilgrims will be different compared to the family who has not been to Mecca as pilgrims, etc.

c) In determining the terms of address in Lampungese traditional authority, the origin of descent should be carefully noticed. The speakers from noble class *Penyimbang Adat* will use different terms of address to ordinary descent people. The origin of parents will also determine the usage of terms of address. For example, the siblings from father’s line will be called *Lebew/Lebu*, while the siblings from mother’s line will be called *Batangan*.

d) The birth order will determine the terms of address used, role, right, obligation and responsibilities to the one who use that term of address. The terms of address used for the first child will be different to the terms of address used for the second child, etc. The eldest boy will be addressed *Kanjeng*. *Kanjeng* will play a role as the replacement/representative of father in deciding things or making decision in the family when the father is absent. Besides, he has the right to stay in his parents’ house forever and get all of the inheritance of the parents. *Kanjeng* must protect and help his younger siblings both in household and his siblings’ needs. *Kanjeng* are responsible of his siblings’ welfare, harmony and survival.

e) In using the terms of address, the courtesy title determines the status, role, right, and responsibilities possessed by the person concerned. The courtesy title from marital status (married or not) will have different rules in its use. The courtesy title for unmarried/single person is called *Juluk/Jejuluk*, while the title for married person is called *Adék/Adok*. There is another courtesy titles of traditional authority institution which has different stages, these stages will determine the terms of address.

f) Age will determine the terms of address. Older people will have different terms of address from younger or of the same age people.

g) Religious title must be considered since it is used to respect, it also distinguishes one's status in the conversation and it gives roles to the speech actor. Those who has been to Mecca as pilgrims are highly respected, they are called *jaji* to show the respect. Those who work in religious sector (Qur'an teacher, imam in mosque, and chief) will be addressed with certain terms of address to distinguish them from others. It also shows the respect.

h) In using the terms of address, the situation of the conversation should be considered. In formal situation, especially in traditional ceremony, the use of terms of address in courtesy title, both *Adék/adok* from marital status and *Adék/adok* from institution of traditional authority, must be prioritized. While in informal situation, the term of address is adjusted to the habits occurred in the family or the society concerned.

i) The function or the purpose of the using of terms of address must be taken into account. The term of address used to respect someone is different from the term of address used to express love, etc.

IV. CONCLUSION

The terms of address of Lampungese Language includes 1) the terms of address in kinship, based on the relationship and descent of the marriage bond; 2) non-kinship terms of address, interlocutor from same ethnic, stranger from same ethnic, new people from same ethnics, colleagues from same ethnic, other ethnicities, new people from other ethnic groups, colleagues from other ethnicities; 3) terms of address from family's environment; religious family, ordinary family, noble family; 4) intimate terms of address; 5) terms of address of saying something; 6) terms of address in birth order; 7) term of address in courtesy title, includes level or the stage in traditional authority, term of address in marital status (*Jejuluk/Juluk, Adék/Adok*); 8) religious/ spiritual terms of address; 9) terms of address in pronouns; and 10) terms of address in proper name.

The factors of the terms of address rules and norms in Lampungese are 1) relative or non relative, 2) generation, 3) sex and gender, 4) age, 5) birth order, 6) the origin of family's environment, 7) marital status, 8) the level or the stage of traditional authority, 9) religious or spiritual, 10) ethnic, 11) situation of conversation, 12) the purpose of the conversation.

REFERENCES

- [1] Hadikusumah, Hilman. (1988). Bahasa lampung. Jakarta: Fajar Agung.
- [2] Hadikusuma Hilman, Razi Arifin, RM. Barusman. (1996). Adat istiadat daerah lampung. Bandar Lampung: CV. Arian Jaya.
- [3] Koentjaraningrat. (1990). Pengantar ilmu antropologi. Jakarta: PT Rineka Cipta.
- [4] Kramsch, Claire. (1998). Language and culture. New York: Oxford University Press
- [5] Lyons, John. (1995). Linguistic semantics: An introduction. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [6] Poedjosoedarmo, Soepomo. (1968). Javanese speech level. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.
- [7] Poedjosoedarmo, Soepomo. (2009). Sociolinguistik. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- [8] Sibarani, R. (2004). Antropologi linguistik. Medan: Penerbit Poda.
- [9] Trudgill, P. (1995). Sociolinguistics: An introduction to language and society. Harmondsworth, England: Penguin Books.
- [10] Wardaugh, Ronald. (1986). An introduction to sociolinguistics. Oxford: Blackwell.
- [11] Wijana, I Dewa Putu, & Muhammad Rohmadi. (2006). Sociolinguistik kajian teori dan analisis. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.
- [12] Wijana, I Dewa Putu. (2010). Pengantar semantik bahasa indonesia. Yogyakarta: Universitas Gadjah Mada and Pustaka Pelajar.

Ing Sunarti, M.Pd. was born in Sukabumi, West Java, Indonesia, on November 16th 1958. She earned her undergraduate degree in Indonesian language and literature education of faculty of teacher training and education, University of Lampung. She then continued her master in same program in Indonesian Education University and her post graduate degree in Gajah Mada University in 2016

Ing has become a lecturer in Indonesian language and literature education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training, University of Lampung for undergraduate students since 1987, she then starts teaching master program of Indonesian language and literature education and master program in Lampungese Language and Literature Education. She teaches linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, semantics, language research methods and speaking class. She interested in Indonesian language and literature education.

Ing Sunarti joins Indonesian Linguistics Society (Masyarakat Linguistik Indonesia/MLI), Organisasi profesional yang diikutinya ialah Masyarakat Linguistik Indonesia (MLI), Indonesian Regional Culture Lecturer Association (Ikatan Dosen Budaya Daerah Indonesia/ IKADBUDI), and Association of Indonesian Cultural Scholars (Himpunan Sarjana Kebudayaan Indonesia/ HISKI). She has published some articles such as (1) Tutur/Tutor Bahasa Lampung (International Conference Proceeding IKADBUDI, 2016), (2) Etika Budaya Bertutur Sapa Masyarakat Etnis Lampung (National Seminar Proceeding, 2017), (3) Faktor-Faktor yang Menentukan

Pemilihan Bentuk Sapaan Bahasa Lampung Pubian (International Seminar Proceeding, 2018), (4) Bahasa Cirebon di Pulau Pasaran Bandar Lampung (International Seminar, 2018), and (5) (6) *The Fulfilment Of Student's Deficiency Need By Teacher' S Directive Speech Act Strategy Which Get Positive Affective Color Response (Thomson Reuters, 2018).*

Sumarti, M. Hum. was born in Cirebon. West Java, Indonesia, on March 18th, 1970. She completed her undergraduate degree at the Indonesian Language and Literature Study Program IKIP Bandung in 1992. In 1998, she earned her master program in the Literature Study Program with Linguistics concentration in Padjadjaran University Bandung. She continued her post doctoral degree the Program Indonesian Language Education in Indonesia Indonesia Education University Bandung. Her field of specialization is Indonesian Language Education.

Since 1994, Sumarti has become a lecturer in Indonesian language and literature education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training, University of Lampung for undergraduate students. In 2015, she started teaching in master program of Indonesian language and literature education and master program in Lampungese Language and Literature Education. She teaches linguistics, phonology, syntax, Indonesian structure, semantics, journal review, Problematic Learning of Indonesian Language and Literature and Learning Indonesian Speaking Skills for speakers from other language. Her focus and interest of research is linguistics and its application in Indonesian language learning

She joins Indonesian Language and Literature Lecturer Association (Asosiasi Dosen Bahasa dan Sastra Indonesia/ADOBSI), Indonesian Linguistics Society (Masyarakat Linguistik Indonesia/MLI), Indonesian Regional Culture Lecturer Association (Ikatan Dosen Budaya Daerah Indonesia/ IKADBUDI), and Association of Indonesian Cultural Scholars (Himpunan Sarjana Kebudayaan Indonesia/ HISKI). She has published several publications; (1) Strategi Tindak Tutur Direktif Guru dan Respons Warna Afektif Siswa (UPI Educational Research Journal, 2015), (2) Prinsip Tenggang Rasa Masyarakat Etnis Cirebon di Pulau Pasaran Bandar Lampung (IKADBUDI International Conference Proceeding, 2016), (3) Pembelajaran Berbicara Berbasis Tipologi Bahasa dan Kearifan Lokas bagi Penutur Asing di Universitas Lampung (International Conference Proceeding of Teaching Indonesian to speakers of other languages KIPBIPA X, 2017), (4) Bahasa Cirebon di Pulau Pasaran Bandar Lampung (International Conference Proceeding, 2017), (5) Faktor-Faktor yang Menentukan Pemilihan Bentuk Sapaan Bahasa Lampung Pubian (International Conference Proceeding, 2018), dan (6) *The Fulfilment Of Student's Deficiency Need By Teacher' S Directive Speech Act Strategy Which Get Positive Affective Color Response (Thomson Reuters, 2018).*

Bambang Riadi, S.Pd., M.Pd. was born in West Lampung on June 30th, 1984. He earned his undergraduate degree at the Indonesian Language and Literature Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, University of Lampung. He completed his master degree at the Indonesian Language and Literature Study Program at the same university in 2013.

Since 2014, Bambang has become a lecturer in Indonesian language and literature education, Faculty of Education and Teacher Training, University of Lampung for undergraduate students. he teaches reading, problematic learning of Indonesian Language and Literature, syntax, and morphology. His focus and interest of research is Indonesian Language Education.

He joins Indonesian Linguistics Society (Masyarakat Linguistik Indonesia/MLI), Indonesian Regional Culture Lecturer Association (Ikatan Dosen Budaya Daerah Indonesia/ IKADBUDI), and Association of Indonesian Cultural Scholars (Himpunan Sarjana Kebudayaan Indonesia/ HISKI). He has published several publications; (1) Kemampuan membaca kritis dengan teknik SQ3R Mahasiswa Prodi Pend. Bahasa dan Sastra Indonesia (Aksara Journal, 2015), (2) Variasi Kode dalam Tuturan Masyarakat Jawa di Gedongtataan (Aksara Journal, 2017), dan (3) Faktor-Faktor yang Menentukan Pemilihan Bentuk Sapaan Bahasa Lampung Pubian (International Seminar Proceedings, 2018).

Translation and Dissemination of Chinese Dietary Culture with the Belt and Road Initiative

Yan Miao
Shanxi Normal University, China

Abstract—Based on ancient Silk Road, China President Xi Jinping has proposed the Belt and Road Initiative, which is related to the dietary culture closely. Dietary culture translation is a necessary way to disseminate culture, becoming more and more important. Proper translations will show foreigners profound cultural connotation about China dietary. The author will adopt the methods of literature review and comparative, and point out translation difficulties and strategies for the cultural communication and transmission in the paper. The paper is divided into four parts. Firstly, the author will introduce the Belt and Road Initiative and China dietary culture. Secondly, the author will point out its status and difficulties under the background of the Belt and Road Initiative. Thirdly, the author will put forward some translation strategies about Chinese dietetic culture. Finally, the author will summarize the passage and the limitations of paper.

Index Terms—the Belt and Road Initiative, dietetic culture, cultural transmission, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

The Belt and Road Initiative is a necessary way of culture exchange, shifting China's situation from the passive adaptation to the active guidance in the tide of globalization. But its developmental process is not plain sailing, Chinese confronted with many risks and challenges at home and aboard. So, the topic about how to carry out the Belt and Road Initiative and explore a new global path with Chinese characters is vital to China. The author will focus on the translation difficulties that Chinese dietary culture 'going out' in the paper. With the development of the Belt and Road Initiative, more and more foreigners pay attention to the Chinese culture, promoting external exchange of Chinese dietary culture. So the proper translation of Chinese food names will help foreigners understand Chinese food culture. The English translation of Chinese food names have been studied in recent years, but present situation is still unsatisfactory for the learners do not explore deeply in this field. Translators must take on the responsibility to introduce and disseminate Chinese dietary culture. Only in this way, can the foreigners understand the connotation of Chinese dietary culture accurately. Based on the summary about translation difficulties of Chinese dietary culture, the author will point out its present situation, analyze the feasibility of optimizing translation and provide some translation strategies in this paper.

II. RESEARCH SIGNIFICANCE

With the development of the Belt and Road Initiative, the Chinese dietary culture stepping out of China gradually and attracting more and more foreign learners to research, providing a valuable opportunity for disseminating Chinese food culture. Therefore, the proper translation about the Chinese food name becomes more necessary and important. The translation of Chinese dietary names not only help foreigners understand Chinese food better, but also disseminate Chinese food culture. Although many scholars have studied translation on Chinese dish names in recent years, its present situation is still unsatisfactory and confusing. Therefore, researching and studying the translation principles and strategies about Chinese dietary culture is necessary and vital.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

The Researches about translation on Chinese dietary culture are numerous and multiple, but the learners do not have an agreement on this topic, yet. Viewpoints in present situation are roughly divided into the following parts: literal translation or paraphrase, domestication or foreignization, source-oriented or target-oriented, author-centered or translator-centered, reader-centered on the source language or the target language, form or content, functional equivalence or formal equivalence. To some extent, these foreign translation theories have broadened horizons of domestic scholars. Zhao Jingchen (1984) advocated that expressiveness is better than faithfulness in the translation process. He argued that translation makes the target readers understand the original text and acquire certain knowledge and entertainment from it (Zhao, 1984). In the 1960s, Qian Zhongshu (1960) put forward the sublimation theory in *Lin Shu's Translation*; he advocated that the translators should not pursue the faithfulness of original text blindly, because this translation method may reduce the readability of articles (Qian, 1960).

With the development of foreign translation theories, Eugene A. Naida (1986), J. C. Catford (1965), Peter Newmark (1988) and George Steiner (1975) all put forward their different viewpoints on translation in the 1980s. For example,

Steiner George (1975) thought that translation should be centered on the ideological meaning expressed by the original author; the translators should not tamper with the original author's intention (George, 1975). Peter Newmark (1988) put forward the semantic translation and communicative translation in *Approaches to Translation* (Newmark, 1988). Then, Eugene A. Nida (1986) proposed Functional Equivalence based on the predecessor's researches in *From One Language to Another* (Nida, 1986). These theories have triggered the fourth translation climax in China. A large number of outstanding translators have emerged in China. For example, Gu Zhengkun (1989) has proposed that translation criteria are pluralistic and complementary in *the pluralistic and complementary translation criteria* (Gu, 1989).

The core idea of Functional Equivalence is functional equivalence between the source and target language. Eugene A. Nida (1982) advocated that translators should not only consider information transfer, but also the cultural difference, social value and readerships in *The Theory and Practice of Translation* (Nida & Taber, 1982). In intercultural translation, the most important thing is to make the translation reproduce the intrinsic information and basic connotation of the source text effectively. The translators should focus on the writing styles of source and target language, avoiding translationese in the process of translation.

IV. CHINESE DIETARY CULTURE WITH "ONE BELT AND ONE ROAD" INITIATIVES

Xi Jinping put forward the concept of the Belt and Road Initiative in 2013. Then the National Development and Reform Commission and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs jointly issued of *Building the Silk Road Economic Belt and 21st Century Maritime Silk Road*. The Belt and Road Initiative is the inevitable requirement of realizing the comprehensive rejuvenation of China, shifting China's situation from the passive adaptation to the active guidance in the tide of globalization. However, its construction process was not smooth sailing, and China will encounter with various risks and crisis at home and aboard inevitably. Based on the descriptions above, the author will discuss the difficulties and challenges about the translation on Chinese dietary culture in this paper.

The Belt and Road Initiative with dietary culture refers to material and spiritual wealth created by people along Silk Road in the process of food production and consumption. It includes the local diet culture along Silk Road and the new culture produced in the process of cultural exchange and integration. The ancient Silk Road is a trade way between China and foreign countries, the major imported and exported trade products along the ancient Silk Road were related to the dietary culture. The Belt and Road Initiative is related to the exchange and dissemination of Chinese dietary culture closely too.

All in all, the Belt and Road Initiative promotes the external exchange and dissemination of Chinese dietary culture. On the contrary, its external communication and dissemination promotes the construction and implementation of the Belt and Road Initiative, enhances the national cultural soft power and strengthens national cultural self-confidence.,

V. THE TRANSLATION OF CHINESE DIETARY CULTURE WITH THE BELT AND ROAD INITIATIVE

A. Characters of Chinese Dietary Culture

China is an ancient civilization, dietary culture is enhanced. Chinese dietary culture has the following characteristics: firstly, various flavors; secondly, seasonal foods; thirdly, aesthetic sense on the dishes; fourthly, moral tales on the foods; finally, the combination of medicine and foods. Due to the dishes are named after materials and cooking methods in Western, translators should combine Chinese dishes characters with thinking habits of Westerners in the translation process.

B. Differences in Dietary Culture between China and Western Countries

1. Lexical Vacancy

Lexical vacancy refers to a cultural phenomenon that there is no corresponding words in target culture to express the unique object (physical or spiritual, concrete or abstract) in original culture, such as, steamed bun, dumpling, and rice noodles, which all are unique foods in Chinese dietary culture and there is no corresponding foods in Western countries. And, some Chinese dishes contain specific connotation, such as Soysauced Dongpo Pork and Dragon's Beard Noodles, Westerners cannot understand what these two dishes mean if they do not familiar with Chinese dietary culture, they just understand the two dishes according to the literal meaning.

2. Differences in cultural background

Diet is more important for Chinese; a lot of Chinese idioms are related to dietary culture. For example, “吃……饭” in Chinese is translated “make a living” in English. However, its translation is different in the specific cultural background. For example, the equivalent translation of “吃政治饭” is “to make a living by going for politics”; “吃算盘子” should be translated into “to make a living by doing business”.

C. The Current Situation of English Translation of Chinese Dietary Culture

China National Knowledge Infrastructure has collected 682 relevant domestic literature by searching for the English translation of dietary culture. Among them, there are 224 papers on language strategy, 164 papers on language theory, and 8 papers on cultural turn. China National Knowledge Infrastructure has collected 39 relevant foreign language

literature, including the study about dietary culture translation based on functional strategy.

Domestic studies are centred on the topic: how to translate Chinese dish names into English effectively, so that Westerners can understand the profound cultural connotations of Chinese dietary culture. Foreign scholars focus on the topic: how to learn traditional Chinese food culture. At present, there are many studies about Chinese traditional dish names at home and abroad, but those articles only discussed this topic in general, providing a practical basis and research space for this study.

The author found many problems about Chinese dietary culture translation in the process external exchange. The first problem is excessive literal translation. If translators do not consider the cultural connotations of the original texts, the English translation cannot represent the aesthetic sense of dish names. Secondly, the translation fails to express the meaning of original words. Some translators do not consider cultural factors in the process of translation, causing difficulties for foreign readers to understand Chinese dishes. Thirdly, cultural blanks lead to misunderstanding. Due to the different culture, translators often fail to look for the corresponding items in the English and translate objects with their own understanding, making the foreigners difficult to understand the emotion expressed by the original author. Abdel Lefevere (1996) proposed the cultural turn in *Translation – History, culture*; He thought that translators not only pay attention on language conversion, but also its role and influence in the process of translation (Lefevere, 1996). In other words, translators should learn and understand the deep relationship between source and the target language from aspect of culture.

D. Main Problems in Translation about Chinese Dietary Culture

To some extent, the phenomenon of cultural discount is main problems in the process of dissemination on Chinese dietary culture. He Jianping and Zhao Yigang said: “Cultural discount is a value discount phenomenon of cultural products for cultural differences in international trade” in *The Research on Cultural Discount in Chinese and Western Documentary Films* (He & Zhao, 2007, P.103). The different cultural structures make China’s cultural products difficult to export to the Western countries. How to eliminate these obstacles is the main problem discussed in this paper. So the author will discuss further this topic according to three questions mentioned above.

1. Overliteral translation

Lefevere (1996) thought that there was no translation strategy can achieve complete equivalence in translation (Lefevere, 1996). Translators adopt word-for-word translation strategy to translate characteristic culture-loaded words, which will influence the expression of original connotation. For example, Li Na (2016) pointed out that flexible translation methods, techniques and strategies are adopted for highlighting the overlapping parts of the two cultures in subtitle translation of *A Bite of China* and reducing cultural discounts effectively (Li, 2016).

Example 1:

ST: 舌尖上的中国

TT1: Tip of Tongue/Eating in China/The Chinese Cui-sine

TT2: A Bite of China

The translation of Tip of Tongue will confuse western readers, because Tongue means speaking a language when it used as a noun. The “cultural turn” strategy emphasizes transcending the formal scope of pure language into a broader and deeper cultural level. The translation of *Eating in China* and *The Chinese Cuisine* reaches the equivalence with original text but lost the rhetorical effect of the original.

2. Improper meaning

Each national culture formed a certain style and tradition in the course of historical development. English and Chinese are different language in grammatical structure and ways of expressing ideas. The translation texts must be faithful to the original text and the expression habits of the target language. Therefore, translators should avoid the phenomenon of improper meanings caused by cultural blanks, analyze the original text from various angles and look for the deep cultural connotation.

Example 2:

ST: (人的迁徙促成了食物的相逢, 食物的离合见证了人聚散。然而究竟是人改变了食物, 还是食物改变了人?) 餐桌边的一蔬一饭, 舌尖上的一饮一啄, 总会为我们津津有味地, 一一道来。

TT: The meals on the table / and the taste on the tip of the tongue / will always racially tell us / everything.

Through the literal meaning of the words or phrases, even the whole sentence, the translator extended the meaning of the diet culture in daily life appropriately. “一蔬一饭” is the most common foods on the table, “一饮一啄” represents the taste of foods; two both are four-character idiom that represents the relationship between human and daily foods in a quiet, simple intonation, improving the quality of original articles. On the contrary, these two four-character words are difficult to understand for the target readers, translators should translate them properly for foreigners.

3. Cultural blanks

Language is a reflection of culture. The differences in the linguistic expressions result in cultural vacancies which are an important to the researches about translation strategies on traditional Chinese dietary culture and reflected in grammar, semantics and culture.

Example 3:

ST: 交通不便的年代, 人们远行时, 会携带能长期保存的食物, 它们被统称为路菜。

TT: Transportation was inconvenient in the old days. When people travel, they will bring long-term preservation of food. Those foods are known as “road dishes”.

In order to disseminate Chinese dietary culture in process of cultural self-confidence construction, the “road dishes” in the examples conforms to the English expression habits but lost cultural connotation, which can not realize true cultural dissemination and communication. For example, “饅” was translated into Nang, “泡饅” was translated into steamed bun, and “肉夹饅” translated into Chinese Hamburger in English. Those translation examples cannot convey the connotation of Chinese food culture fully.

VI. THE TRANSLATION STRATEGIES AND SKILLS OF CHINESE DIETARY CULTURE

As the saying goes, “Food is the paramount necessity of the people”. Although foods are important for Chinese and Westerners, there are also great differences about dietary culture between China and western countries for different dietary patterns and cooking methods. In the current trend of global economic and cultural exchange, cross-cultural communication has become a hot topic in the world. For foreign language learners, it is necessary to understand the differences between China and Western culture. The author will elaborate the translation strategies and skills of dietary culture based on cultural difference between China and Western countries.

A. Translation Strategies about Chinese Dietary Culture

According to the different orientations of translators, Xiong Bing (2014) divided translation strategies into foreignization strategy and domestication strategy. (Xiong, 2014). After analyzing the three major translation problem of Chinese traditional dietary culture, the translators should combine the “cultural turn” theory with the background of Chinese culture ‘going out’.

1. Application of domestication strategy

The value of the source language culture should not be imposed on the target language excessively in the process of translation, and the translation should be conformed to English expression habits for avoiding the problem of “out of context, and over-literal translation” in translation. For example, 《舌尖上的中国》 is translated into *A Bite of China* by adopting the free translation strategy and domestication strategy, this translation example not only retain the semantics and rhetoric forms of the source language, but also help the target language readers to understand what the source language want to express deeply. Domestication strategy is often adopted in translation for avoiding cultural conflicts. But, cultural background should not be taken into account in the translation on Chinese dish names for different associative effects overly.

2. Application of Foreignization Strategy

Translators should have a through comprehension about the four-character idioms and other words with profound connotation used commonly by Chinese, and try best to retain the original artistic conception and resonates with target language readers. According to the core idea of cultural turn, the translation of the source language is guided by the linguistic habits and cultural traditions of the target language. Liu Caixia (2015) proposed that translators should not decay the Chinese culture for catering to the interests of foreigners; Chinese traditional dietary culture and customs is root, all translation should be based on this original culture. (Liu, 2015)

B. Translation Skills

Based on the analysis above, there are many differences between Chinese and Western culture. Therefore, translators must master certain translation skills when recommend Chinese dishes to foreign guests in English. According to different dish names, translators should grasp certain emphasis in dish names so that foreign guests can not only learn the dishes, but also understand its special connotation as much as possible.

1. Name after lucky name

There are many Chinese dishes named after allusions or lucky names. When translate these dishes names, translators should try best to show the main materials or cooking methods of dishes for foreigners, and take account of rhetoric of original text as much as possible rather than be restricted by the original name. Chinese often quote inedible items or animals that are forbidden to eat in Western countries to express good fortune in dish names, for example, “红烧狮子头”, “翡翠菜心”. Of course, the lion's head is a Chinese food that Westerners will never eat. Chinese quote majestic head of lion to metaphor round and solid meatballs. And Jadeite is artistic symbol rather than jadeite in reality. Therefore, it is better to translate them according to their deep cultural meaning, so that Westerners can understand the cultural connotation of the dishes. As for the Chinese dish Mapo Tofu, it is a famous dish circulated in Sichuan Province widely and is famous for its color, aroma and taste. It is said that this dish was cooked by an old woman with many pockmarks on her face. However, Westerners do not know the allusions and cultural background when they taste this dish, so translators cannot translate it as a pock-marked woman's bean curd literally. On the country, they should focus on the description of the special taste of this dish for helping Westerners to understand the cultural connotation of the dish.

2. Name after cooking methods

As one of the most core elements of dietary culture, the translation and expression about cooking methods could help Westerners understand the Chinese dishes easily. However, many cooking methods of Chinese foods are not applied in

Western cuisine commonly for different food habits. For example, “dry fried” is a cooking method that fries foods with little oil slowly. So in terms of the translation of “干煸牛肉丝”, translators should look for similar cooking methods in Western dietary culture and pick out the most proper method among them. After researching cooking methods in Western dietary culture, the author found that there are two kinds of similar methods as “dry fried” in Western. The first kind cooking methods contain baking, basting and roasting; the second kind of cooking methods include deep-frying, pan-frying and saut. From the cooking process of the dish, “saut” is more appropriate than those methods, it means that foods are fried quickly in a pan with a little hot butter or other fat in Western dietary culture. So, “煸牛肉丝” should be translated as sauted beef shreds.

3. Name after special flavors

Flavor dishes are widely spread and possess its greatest attraction in Chinese dietary culture. Therefore, in terms of the translation of dishes named for special flavor, translators not only show the original materials, but also its flavor characters in translation as far as possible. For example, as a kind of unique flavor, the translation of “鱼香肉丝” is very important and necessary. “鱼香肉丝” refers to a dish was made similar flavor as fishes by matching the changeless raw materials. Therefore, the name of this dish should not be translated into fish-flavor shred-deed pork but fried pork with garlic sauce or stir-fried pork shred in garlic sauce. Similarly, “糖醋排骨” should be translated as fried pork chop in sweet-sour sauce by similar translation strategy.

4. Name after national characters

China has a long history of cuisine culture, raw materials and cooking methods are various. Some Chinese dishes are unique in their names and have very strong national characters. Therefore, translators should adopt transliteration strategy and show the local characters of the target language from the perspective of cross-cultural communication. So the words or phrases in these dishes can be transliterated directly, helping foreign guests understand those dishes and retaining the cultural connotation of Chinese traditional dietary culture. For example, “炒面” should be translated directly as Chow Mein, “汤圆” can be translated directly as Tang Yuan, “馄饨” can be translated as Won Ton, “锅贴” can be translated as Kuo Tieh.

VII. CONCLUSION

A. Summary

Chinese dietary culture is unique and charming in the world. It is incomparable with any other dietary culture for its profound cultural background and connotation. With the development of external cultural and economic exchange, it is more important to introduce Chinese dietary culture to the world. Although it is a great and arduous task, all Chinese should make joint efforts to disseminate the unique Chinese dietary culture to Western countries.

Under the background of cultural exchange between China and Western countries, the president Xi Jinping put forward the Belt and Road Initiative which shows the new characters of Chinese dietary culture for foreigners. But it is difficult to make foreigners understand the Chinese dishes by adopting translation strategies. The author analyzed the main problems and the possibility of translating Chinese traditional dietary culture in the paper. Chinese dietary culture need to be recognized by different readers who do not familiar with Chinese culture. Therefore, it is necessary to study the translation strategies on Chinese traditional food culture. Based on the cultural difference between China and Western countries, translators should not only learn the Chinese dietary culture sufficiently, but also choose the appropriate translation strategies according to different ways of naming dishes, so that foreign guests can taste Chinese cuisine and understand the cultural connotation contained in the Chinese dishes, which is the ultimate goal of translation in cross-cultural communication.

B. Limitations of the Study

Due to the limited times and knowledge shortage of the author, this paper is far away from being perfect. There are still limitations which should be noticed.

There are inadequate understandings of the translation strategies in the paper for the hasty research time. The practical translation strategies are proved to be theoretical for translation practices. There is still a long process to discuss the applicability of those translation strategies about Chinese dietary culture. There are still derivative theories being used for such researches.

Many translation strategies and skills about Chinese dietary culture discussed by the author just touch the tip in this filed. There are still many other translation methods are not discussed in this paper. Therefore, the author will try best to research and study on the topic that how to convey cultural connotation in the process of translation and contribute to the dissemination of Chinese dietary culture in the future.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdel Lefevre. (1996). Translation - History, culture: A Sourcebook. London: Continuum International Publishing Group Ltd (New edition).
- [2] Eugene A. Nida. (1986). From One Language to Another. N.Y: Thomas Nelson Inc.
- [3] Eugene A. Nida & Charles R. Taber. (1982). The Theory and Practice of Translation. Leiden: E.J. Brill.

- [4] George Steiner. (1975). *After Babel*. London: Oxford University Press
- [5] Gu Zhengkun. (1989). The Pluralistic and Complementary Translation Criteria. *Chinese Translation*. 1, 16-20.
- [6] He Jianpin & Zhao Yigang. (2007). The Research on Cultural Discount in Chinese and Western Documentary Films. *Modern communication*. 146(3), 100-104.
- [7] Liu Caixia. (2015). A Research on the Translation of National Characteristic Dishes. *Chinese Translation*. 1, 110-113.
- [8] Li Na. (2016). Cultural Discount Phenomenon and Its Countermeasure. *Social Sciences Review*. 1, 118-122.
- [9] Peter Newmark. (1988). *Approaches to Translation*. N.Y: Prentice Hall Inc.
- [10] Qian Zhongshu. (1960). *Lin Shu's Translation*. Beijing: Higher Education Press.
- [11] Xiong Bing. (2014). The Confused Concept in Translation-Cases in Translation Strategy, Method and Skills. *Chinese Translation*. 4, 82-88.
- [12] Zhao Jingchen. (1984). *The Collection on Translation Studies*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Yan Miao was born in Shanxi, China in 1990. She graduated from North University of China in 2001. She is currently a postgraduate in Shanxi Normal University, China. Her major is English Translation.

Integrated Curriculum for a Saudi University EAP Class

Sami Al-wossabi

English Department, Faculty of Arts and Humanities, Jazan University, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—In the present paper an integrated curriculum project is developed specifically for Saudi EFL students enrolled in an EAP course with the goal of pursuing their higher studies of English major at an American university. The purpose is to provide a comprehensive description of the proposed integrated curriculum with an aim for enabling the targeted Saudi students get a true picture of English as a unified whole rather than segregated skills. Being exposed to authentic language, Saudi students are challenged to act, think and react naturally in the language while developing self-awareness on how to meaningfully and purposefully interact with others. The proposed curriculum is, therefore, designed to teach the four skills in a coherent way and to be practiced together with no clear preference of one skill upon the other. Further, the instructor of the course is involved in the process of collecting necessary information via surveys, questionnaires and interviews, stating goals and objectives and selecting appropriate authentic materials.

Index Terms—EAP class, integrated curriculum, authentic materials, needs analysis, thematic content

I. INTRODUCTION

Of late, integrated curricula following an integrated teaching approach has been the focus in the acquisition of knowledge of foreign languages (Drake & Burns, 2004; Fogarty & Stoehr, 1995; MacMath, Wallace & Chi, 2009; Paterson, 2003; Pring, 2006). The tendency is to enable foreign learners of English understand the richness and complexity of language and that it is a medium of thoughts, feelings and communication rather than isolated discrete items (Oxford, 2001).

EFL situation in Saudi Arabia is not far from the rest of the world where English is mostly perceived and taught as separate chunks of linguistic and grammatical knowledge. A classic example of the segregation of language can be seen in the distribution of language skill courses at the university level for students majoring in English (e.g., writing 1 & 2, reading 1 & 2, listening and speaking 1 & 2, etc.).

The researcher observed that many EFL Saudi students perceive these skills as separate entities and as such cannot easily process related information holistically in their spoken or written discourse. This is probably why EFL Saudi students when sent abroad to pursue their higher studies are required to study one year in an intensive English program ahead of their degree course.

Although the proposed curriculum is set to be taught within a short period of time, it is hoped that it will enable students understand the mechanisms underlying the proper use of the naturally occurring speech of everyday life situations. Further, the instructor selected for this course is a Saudi native like speaker of English who have completed his MA in English studies from an American university. This will provide more credibility to the course and expectantly instigate higher motivation on the part of the students.

II. STEPS FOR DEVELOPING EAP CURRICULUM

A. Parameters for the Teaching Situations

This proposed curriculum is designed for EFL Saudi teaching assistants who are enrolled in a language class ahead of studying in the US. Based on the administration nominations, teaching assistants are selected to pursue higher studies at American universities. Over a period of one month, the class will meet every day, Sunday through Thursday, for two hours duration. Most of the students are at the end of their twenty years of age. All have graduated with a bachelor's degree from different fields of study and are classified as having higher intermediate level.

Despite the fact that for many students the ability to communicate in English is somehow limited, they are able to read or write fairly well. However, some have better speaking and listening skills than others. They are all highly motivated, and enthusiastic about the class. The classroom has a board, general English textbooks, supplementary materials for all the students, and a special material providing interactive extracurricular activities for the instructor. There is a language lab with a television, headphones, and 10 computers with English learning software.

B. Needs Analysis

A thorough needs analysis is to be carried out to determine students' needs, desires, lacks, and the amount of exposure they have had to English language. As the students will be in an academic setting, their university needs are

likely to be the most important. They will need a wide collection of skills to excel in their new learning environment. A needs analysis is set to speculate on how to teach and learn these necessary skills. It is also an on-going process that is subjected to change and reevaluation during the course in case that some skills are misidentified or underrepresented. As Kumaravadivelu (2001) suggested, trialing is a fundamental part of teaching if teachers lack the means to use their classroom experiences for curriculum development.

Obtaining samples of students current writing composition, test data, or examples of the kind of writing assignments is a more concrete way to find out more about students' problems and needs (Richards, 2001). A corpus analysis of language in use at American Universities, would be extremely helpful to familiarize Saudi EFL students with everyday occurring speech among American university students. Having access to data of real-life, on-campus language use, would help the instructor in planning exercises designed to imitate the types of naturally occurring exchanges. The types of information obtained via corpus analysis will reflect actual language used by actual people inside and outside the classroom. This can provide a rich context of real English to the instructor while preparing students for the new experience of studying abroad.

Saudi students before sent abroad usually contacted other Saudis' with the intention to accompany them upon arrival and stay with them at least for the first three months if not more. This is because of their attempt to avoid any inconveniences and embarrassments that could result from their lacking of communication skills necessary to survive in a new community. Therefore, off-campus experiences need to be integrated in the proposed curriculum in this project. Everyday tasks such as service encounters are key to their success and happiness in the new environment.

Other procedures that can be used to identify the students' needs, and lacks may include questionnaires, interviews, and self-analyses. Questionnaires and interviews are effective sources of eliciting information about student experiences with language use, perceptions and attitudes of the learning processes (Tarone, 1989; West, 1997). Interviews, for example, may allow for clarification and more details in case some areas are not covered in the questionnaire. Self-analyses can be used to define how students view their proficiency in L2 skills and subskills.

This project develops mainly two different surveys (See Appendices A and B) to obtain information from two different sources and ensure valid and precise responses elicited from students. The first survey (Appendix A) is designed for international Saudi students who are currently studying in the United States, or who have recently been there. This survey needs to be done prior to the course. The information obtained will purposefully be manifested in devising extracurricular activities as supplementary materials. The aim is to detect the skills and/or tasks these students found they were well-prepared for, somewhat prepared for, or under-prepared for upon their enrollment in language classes. The survey has a box to tick for each of these three choices next to each skill/task. The survey statements include skills such as listening to American pronunciation, writing essays, and communicating effectively with peers outside the class.

One limitation to this survey is the difficulty of obtaining responses from students currently studying in the United States considering that the researcher resides in Saudi Arabia. It is also possible that respondents may fill out the survey without much thought as they are not part of the present learning situation. To minimize such effect, the survey is to be handed to a trusted friend or teacher in the USA to carry out the survey.

Further, the process of obtaining information from international Saudi students can be viewed as an ongoing process and as such it would rather be more methodical to utilize such information in devising extracurricular activities. This type of survey can truly be a good sustainable source for backing up the existing activities for this proposed curriculum.

The second survey featuring self-rating questions is meant for the targeted students of the present class project. It addresses previous and current experiences with English, inside and outside the classroom. It asks questions such as how long they have been studying English, how many hours of instruction given per week, what skills were taught, and what skills they are good at the most. To lessen the ambiguity that may arise while filling out the survey and to get more precise answers, students will check the line below the question that most closely answers the question. There is also an open-ended question at the end of the survey which is designed to report on any previous studying or travelling experiences to an English-speaking country.

Such survey is designed to elicit more precise account of what experiences the students have had with English, and to appraise their further language needs. Richards (2001) claimed that self-rating can be imprecise since students might rate themselves impressionistically as high or low in their current state of language skills proficiency. Thus, short interviews with students are to be conducted to compensate for any undetermined responses and to help identify students' language abilities. Other practices to be added are reflective observations which can be manifested throughout the course (Richards 1990; Farrell 2012).

As stated above, the information obtained from needs analyses is an ongoing processes that could be supplemented before, during or after the course. Such processes are necessary for the sustainable improvement of the syllabus as no one knows what could be changed or need to be changed when the instructor begins teaching the language class.

C. Situation Analysis

In Saudi Arabia, EFL students might either be skeptical or/and cautious of any approaches that drifts them away from traditional approaches of learning. Students may not feel comfortable being asked to engage in communicative tasks with peers as most of them are used to be passive in traditional classrooms that mostly feature teachers' centeredness.

Despite these dogmas, the students are expected to be very motivated since they view studying in an English speaking country as a venerable and valuable opportunity.

Yet, the administration might question the advantages of incorporating student one to one interaction approach while underrepresenting the teaching of grammar in the present project. Some faculty members' views, those in favor of grammar oriented approaches, may also pose a threat towards the incorporation of such communicative tasks. Overall, it is indeed the responsibility of the researcher to explain his stance to all those concerned in the learning situation where the present EAP curriculum is to be implemented. Explaining, to administrators and faculty members, the advantages of integrating the teaching of language skills, and the learning goals and outcomes of the proposed course should rather bring about a vision not a threat. Meeting with those concerned above should change the assumed status quo, ease the administrative and academic issues that may arise, and serve the ultimate goal of enhancing Saudi students' language abilities.

It is worth mentioning here that Jazan University does have many utilities and resources, though somehow, not as those available in American universities. For instance, the library is relatively small and does not include particular communicative language texts. However, upon request, the administration can equip a particular class with all necessary equipment needed for this particular interactive class, such as, computers, data show, textbooks etc. This is a privilege that is much more than many institutions around could handle. Thus, we can safely acclaim that with regard to the situational factors the positive factors outweigh the negative ones in this EFL context.

D. Goals and Objectives

As mentioned above, Saudi students preparing to study in American universities are in great need to be equipped with an array of academic as well as social skills to survive in and off campus. As a result for these basic needs, the goals and objectives for this EAP course are divided into separate categories for academic reading and writing, academic speaking and listening, social speaking and listening, content, strategy, and study skills.

The following are general goals and objectives that are basic and should be addressed at any EAP language course preparing L2 students for their future academic endeavor. Besides, the sustainable information supplemented by the needs analysis will reinforce and support the accomplishment of the proposed goals.

1. Academic Reading and Writing

Goal: Understanding key ideas and details of academic texts, newspaper, magazine articles, and website texts.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

- demonstrate comprehension of academic texts
- summarize, explain, or paraphrase academic texts.
- skim and scan academic texts for main ideas.
- understand vocabulary items while reading
- use contextual clues to facilitate comprehension.

Goal: Reading beyond word-level meanings.

Objective: Students will be able to:

- Interpret indirect meanings mentioned in the text.

Goal: Communicating ideas and information via writing.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

- compose and organize written composition and convey information properly and intelligibly.
- use a variety of vocabulary items.
- use complex grammatical structures required in academic writing.

2. Academic Speaking and Listening

Goal: Understanding lectures.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

- follow up topics, arguments, and other issues of lectures.
- extract important information and ideas.

Goal: Participating intelligibly in class, group discussions and presentations.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

- express their thoughts and ideas
- summarize, rephrase, or explain a particular concept verbally
- understand what others are saying.
- use clarification strategies to communicate more effectively.

3. Social speaking and listening

Goal: Communicating competently in everyday real life situations in the target culture.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

- understand and participate in everyday conversations in English using language functions such as requests, complaints, greeting, and giving/following directions.
- understand the language used in service encounters and other common situations (e.g., at the cafeteria, bookstore, bank).
- understand a casual conversation between two native-speakers.

- use clarification strategies to communicate more effectively.

4. Content

Goal: Understanding different aspects of American history and culture.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

- read, write, and talk about famous American characters, customs, and social activities.
- locate major regions, states, and cities in the United States using maps.
- read, write, listen and talk about aspects of American movies and music.
- read, write, listen and talk about aspects of American universities such as programs, classes, and extra-curricular activities.

5. Strategy

Goal: Negotiating learning goals and evaluating learning progress.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

- recognize success or failure in their subsequent learning,
- find out what they need to improve.

Goal: Using a variety of strategies to facilitate learning.

Objectives: Students will be able to:

- use cognitive, metacognitive, and social affective strategies.
- use clarification strategies to communicate more effectively.

Goal: Using a bilingual and an English-to-English dictionary efficiently.

Objective: Students will be able to:

- recognize headwords in bilingual and English-to-English dictionaries to help them in reading articles and writing papers.

Goal: Using resources to facilitate the composition processes.

Objective: Students will be able to:

- use resources such as dictionaries, encyclopedia, and other reference guides to write compositions.

6. Study skills

Goal: Reading and understanding graphs, maps, and charts

Objective: Students will be able to:

- summarize the main points of a diagram, graph, table or chart.

Goal: Understanding how to take different types of objective and subjective testing items

Objectives: Students will be able to:

- respond to multiple-choice, short answer, and true-false items in a timely manner.
- understand rubrics and prompts in a test.

Goal: Using PCs, laptops, and mobile technologies for academic purposes.

Objective: Students will be able to

- use word processing, e-mail, and other computer programs to complete class assignments.

The above goals and objectives are also subjected to change and adjustment in response to the students' needs in case some skills are underrepresented or misidentified.

III. SPECIFICATION OF SYLLABUS FRAMEWORK AND COURSE CONTENT

The syllabus framework chosen for this EAP course will be built around a thematic content featuring skills-based emphasis with a lexical component. A content-based syllabus will lend itself easily to the integrated teaching of the four traditional language skills (Brinton, 2007; Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 1989; Mohan, 1986; Reynolds, 2015; Valeo, 2013). As Stoller (2002) suggested, "In a content-based approach, the activities of the language class are specific to the subject matter being taught, and are geared to stimulate students to think and learn through the use of the target language" (P.2). The main principle of such approach is that instructed language classroom should lead to natural use of language based on collaborative knowledge building (Ellis, 2003; Pawan, & Ortloff, 2011; Swan, 2005; Wesche, 2010; Wesche & Skehan, 2002)

This type of syllabus provides a scope for students to listen to and speak about the content and read and write assignments related to the content. The topics covered in this content based syllabus will address aspects of the American culture and university life which will ease their learning and residency in the new environment. Thus, the emphasis is to expose students to a "highly contextualized" second language environment by using the subject matter as the content of language learning" (Wesche & Skehan, 2002, p. 220). Another reason for selecting content-based instruction is that it embraces the use of authentic materials, which is highly expected to prepare students for their future "real-life" experiences (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche, 1989; Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010; Early, 2001; Mohan, 1986; Valeo, 2013).

In this syllabus, the skills will be embedded in the content. For example, students will be taught important reading skills necessary at the university such as, selecting relevant information, finding main ideas, and identifying the meaning relationships between the words and ideas. Writing skills and subskills will involve activities such as, creating a topic sentence, taking notes, summarizing, and reflective writing. Listening involves listening for essential factual

information, listening for association and evaluation in the lecture, and reprocessing information from a lecture using notes. Using clarification strategies, recognizing turn-taking signals, participating in seminars, giving academic presentations are among many speaking tasks designed to foster students produce oral output. All the language skills will mostly be presented through subskills to lessen the cognitive load on the part of the students so that the tasks in hands are more achievable and can be successfully accomplished.

The building of vocabulary repertoire is critical and necessary for students preferably before joining a foreign university. Thus, a subdivision of the content based syllabus will entail a lexical component which is to be used as an aspect of a more comprehensive syllabus (Richards, 2001). Through introducing students to multiple genres, students will be exposed to a variety of vocabulary items specific for academic lectures and writing, as well as that of other less-formal registers such as service encounters and study groups. The use of corpus of naturally occurring speech used on and off campus would facilitate this purpose and would rather eliminate chances of wasting time while teaching less frequent words to students.

The course thematic content aims at familiarizing the students with their future host country and social and academic life abroad through the use of related social and cultural topics. Such topics are thought to keep students motivated throughout the course as they are useful and more importantly relevant to their needs and desires. Richards and Rodgers (2001) stated that the more interesting and useful the information presented in the course content, the better and faster the processes of acquisition would be. Liuliene and Metiuniene (2006) considered that learners' needs are essential "driving force" in the acquisition of L2.

Hence, the thematic content of the course is to be presented through topics about studying at American universities and American social and cultural life. The American university part in the proposed syllabus will include topics about American campus life, covering issues such as classes, sports, teachers and other events along with extra-curricular activities. The material for this section will in part incorporate information from university web pages used for international students. Saudi graduate students' experiences at American universities will also be a part of this section. The American life subdivision of the content will focus on aspects such as music, movies, history, and U.S-Saudi relations.

IV. MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT/SAMPLE LESSON PLAN

All lesson plans in this language course will address the students' needs, and aim to carry out the course's goals and objectives. They also follow the content-based syllabus as the predominant syllabus along with skills and the lexical components for the course (See Appendix C). The lesson plan in appendix C is a sample plan that represents the types of lesson plans and activities to be used in this course. All the activities devised for the lesson plan will interactively address the four language skills. The lesson plan is a topic chosen from the American university subdivision of the course, which educates the students about their future environments.

The sample lesson plan is structured around an authentic university text from an American University's "International students" website. The type of discourse in this text is chosen to familiarize students with the type of expository written information offered by the office of international students. The warm up activity will ask students to think of the types of university-provided services or tasks that they might need to perform before and after joining an American university.

In the first activity, students will be trained on reading and interpreting different texts. Speaking skills is manifested through the discussion of these different issues where students are given chances to reflect upon their understanding of these expository texts.

The characteristics of the organization of expository texts will also be discussed (e.g. introduction, body of the text, conclusion, main ideas, etc.) which will in turn help them compose written information appropriately and comprehensibly.

Activity two employs the same text. Yet the focus is on paraphrasing where students will read and use the explanatory text as a resource to facilitate the learning and composition processes. This activity is part of the skills-based component of the syllabus as students will be using the specific writing subskill of paraphrasing. Furthermore, working in pairs/group discussion while using the target language allows the students to practice speaking and listening intelligibly in class. Thus, this activity allows for the integration of all four skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The lesson ends with a closure activity that reviews the processes of organization and paraphrasing of expository prose.

V. CONCLUSION

The present project develops an integrated language syllabus at the level of whole language development and all-skills integration and at the level of interdisciplinary content-based instruction.

However, a potential concern for the present project is the adequacy of the time given for practicing the four skills. Students are supposed to practice these skills on a daily basis as they are integrated into all the lessons. Yet, the question that poses itself here is whether or not this practice is enough for students. This issue can be a diagnostic area for continuous research during the teaching and learning of this course. A formative type of evaluation could be conducted

to speculate on students' progress in language skills. Diagnostic quizzes can provide a good sampling of the problematic aspects of concern. Interviews could be an informative resource that could reflect back the amount of improvement on the part of students language abilities. The instructor of the course, therefore, needs to adapt and modify course components and mechanisms accordingly via reassessing the types of activities used, the amount of practice and skills that should be addressed more, pair/group work configurations, etc.

To conclude, it is the responsibility of all concerned to support and appreciate the use of preliminary academic training for Saudi students who are to be sent abroad to pursue their higher studies. Such communicative language preparation would result in lesser expected fears and/ or inconveniences in the new environment that Saudi students might have experienced. Reflecting on the experiences of current Saudi students' enrolled in American universities would also help find out the obstacles that hinder students' academic learning and any potential risks that might cause a withdrawal from social and cultural life on and off campus.

APPENDIX A. SURVEY FOR SAUDI INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS STUDYING IN THE UNITED STATES

How prepared did you feel for the following tasks upon arrival to the U.S.?

Please check the box on the right that most appropriately answers the statements on the left.

	Under-prepared	Somewhat prepared	Well-prepared
1. Understanding American English pronunciation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. General listening comprehension.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Note-taking.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Participating in class discussions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Communicating with classmates outside of class	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Communicating with professors in or	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Communicating with others in service encounters (for example, at the supermarket, cafeteria, etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Giving directions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Writing paragraphs and essays.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Writing introductions and conclusions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Synthesizing information from different one source.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. knowledge of Vocabulary.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Expressing your views in writing.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Expressing your views in speech.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Reading quickly.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Reading comprehension.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Grammar in general	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Other, please specify	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX B. SURVEY OF ENGLISH KNOWLEDGE, EXPERIENCES, AND PREFERENCES

Please check the appropriate choice in response to the question.

- How long have you been studying English?
 Less than a year _____ 1-2 years _____
 2-4 years _____ More than 4 years _____
- Where did you study English language? (Check all that apply)
 In high school _____ With a private tutor _____
 In a private institute _____ At the university _____
 Abroad _____ Other, please specify _____
- How many hours per week of study were there?
 1-2 hours _____ 2-4 hours _____ 4-6 hours _____
 6-8 hours _____ 8-10 hours _____ More than 10 _____
- What type of instructions did your English courses include? (Check all that apply)
 Grammar _____ Reading _____ Writing _____
 Speaking _____ Listening _____
 Teacher to student interaction _____
 Student to student activities _____
- In what areas do you feel most confident in using English? (Check all that apply)
 Grammar _____ Reading _____ Writing _____

Speaking _____ Listening _____

6. What skills of English would you like to concentrate on in this language class? (Check all that apply)

Grammar _____ Reading _____ Writing _____

Speaking _____ Listening _____

Please rate on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 meaning not very good and 5 being very good).

7. How good do you feel at doing the following activities in English?

Reading a popular magazine _____ Reading a textbook _____

Writing a letter to a friend _____ Understanding a movie _____

Holding a conversation with and understanding native speakers _____

Answer the following question as thoroughly as possible.

8. Have you ever studied or traveled in an English speaking country before? If so, where and for how long?

APPENDIX C. SAMPLE LESSON PLAN

Brief description of classroom setting: An EAP Language classroom at Jazan university in Saudi Arabia. Content/skills-based/lexical syllabus. Intermediate-level students.

Pre-lesson description

Overview of lesson goals: By the end of this lesson, students will...

- become familiar with authentic university website discourse;
- learn about the organization of expository text
- learn to paraphrase material they have read.

Materials to take to class: Example of “office of International students” university website prose (see Appendix D).

Equipment needed for class: none

Assignments to collect from students: none

Warm-up: (5-7 minutes)

Purpose: To foster students think about the types of tasks they will need to accomplish at the university setting abroad;

To prepare the students for the upcoming activity;

To practice necessary skills for classroom discussion.

Procedures:

1. Ask students to name different daily tasks that they may need to accomplish when studying abroad. Write the tasks on the board.
2. Ask students how they feel about doing these tasks in an unfamiliar environment, and why.
3. Ask students how could these tasks be made easier.

Activity 1: Sequencing activity (25 minutes)

Purpose: To introduce students to an example of the organizational structure of expository prose in a university website.

To improve students' reading skills by making them aware of this kind of organization

To expose students to a type of discourse that they will need to use in their English writing assignments

To give students the opportunity to interact orally in English while discussing the activity.

Procedures:

1. Ask students to organize themselves in groups of two.
2. Hand in the university website prose clippings.
3. Give students time to read over all the clippings.
4. Ask students to sequence the clippings in the appropriate order.
5. Ask for two or three volunteer groups to read their sequences to the class.
6. Hand out the original website prose and ask for volunteer to read aloud.
 - a. Identify the group that had correct sequencing, and ask them why they arranged it the way they did.
 - b. Discuss structures of organization (e.g., intro., body, conclusion)

Activity 2: Paraphrasing (20-25 minutes)

Purpose: To practice paraphrasing

To interact orally in English as they explain their reasons for paraphrasing as they did.

To practice using a thesaurus.

Procedures:

1. Teacher writes few examples of paraphrasing on the board.
 - a. Ask if there are any questions.
 - b. Show how a thesaurus can be used for this task.
2. Ask students to continue with the same text, in the same groups.

3. Ask students to discuss paraphrasing options with partners.
4. Ask students to present their examples of paraphrasing to the class.
 - a. Write good examples of paraphrasing on board.

Closure (4-5 minutes)

Purpose: To review aspects of the organization of expository prose

To review aspects of paraphrasing;

1. Ask students what the organization of the website prose was. (Try to elicit ideas using the following patterns)
 - a. Brief introduction which frames topic.
 - b. Body with specific details.
 - c. Conclusion to some up main points of prose.
2. Ask students: "Why do we need to learn to paraphrase?"

HW assignment: Think of 10 words from the texts you studied in class and find synonyms for them in the thesaurus.

APPENDIX D

CISP provides services to international students through International Orientation, International Student Services, as well as domestic and international students through Education Abroad and the National Student Exchange. The Center also provides support and guidance to faculty and staff in their CSU-related international endeavors. The Center is also the administrative home of the University's Fulbright Program and the starting point for all CSU international agreements, linkages, and partnerships.

It also provides international students with an American partner who acts as a contact person. This person is someone who can offer international students help with opening bank accounts, buying used bicycles, finding inexpensive restaurants, registering for courses and assisting with school work to name a few. It's a great way to make friends with Americans and members of the Flagstaff community.

International students have many opportunities for both academic and personal growth at Cleveland State University. Whether you are looking for an undergraduate (freshman, transfer), graduate or doctoral degree, or for English language courses, CSU offers a wide range of resources and opportunities, as well as an ideal environment to help you succeed and achieve your academic goals.

International students may also become involved in campus life through a variety of student organizations and university programs that include cultural activities, sports, the arts and social events. Our staff is especially qualified to meet the varied needs of all international students at the undergraduate and graduate level.

Contact us or visit us in Main Classroom #412

Our office hours are Monday - Friday, 8:00am - 5:00pm (EST).

REFERENCES

- [1] Brinton, D. M., Snow, M. A. and Wesche, M. B. (1989). Content-based second language instruction. Boston: Heinle and Heinle Publishers.
- [2] Brinton, D. M. (2007). Two for one—Language-enhanced content instruction in English for academic purposes. In *Teaching English for specific purposes: Meeting our learners' needs* (pp. 1–16). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- [3] Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). CLIL: Content and language integrated learning. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- [4] Drake, S. M., Burns, R. C. (2004). Meeting standards through integrated curriculum. Alexandria, VA. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- [5] Early, M. (2001). Language and content in social practice: A case study. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 58(1), 156-179
- [6] Ellis, R., (2003). Task-based language learning and teaching, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [7] Farrell, T. S. C. (2012). Reflecting on reflective practice: (Re)Visiting Dewey and Schön. *TESOL Journal* 3 (1): 7–16.
- [8] Fogarty, R. & Stoehr, J. (1995). Integrating curricula with multiple intelligences: Teams, themes, and threads. Palatine, IL: Skylight.
- [9] Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a postmethod pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly* 35 (4): 537–560.
- [10] Liuoliene, A. and Metiuniene, R. (2006). Second Language Learning Motivation. *Santalka, Filologija, Edukologija* 14 (2):93-98.
- [11] MacMath, S., Wallace, J., & Chi, X. (2009). Curriculum integration: Opportunities to maximize assessment as, of, and for learning. *McGill Journal of Education*, 44, 451-466.
- [12] Mohan, B. (1986). Language and content. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- [13] Oxford, R.L. (2001). "Language learning strategies" in R. Carter & D. Nunan. (Eds.). *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp.166-172). UK: Cambridge University Press
- [14] Paterson, J. (2003). Curriculum integration in a standards-based world. *Middle ground: The Magazine of Middle Education*, 7(1), 10–12.
- [15] Pawan, F., & Ortloff, J. H. (2011). Sustaining collaboration: English-as-a-second-language, and content-area teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, 463–471.
- [16] Pring, R. (2006). Curriculum integration. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 5(2), 170–200.

- [17] Reynolds, K. M. (2015). *Approaches to inclusive English classrooms: A teacher's handbook for content-based instruction*. Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.
- [18] Richards, J. C. (1990). *The language teaching matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- [19] Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press: New York.
- [20] Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- [21] Stoller, F. (1999). Time for change: a hybrid curriculum for EAP programs. *TESOL Journal*, 8(10), 9-13.
- [22] Swan, M., (2005). Legislation by hypothesis: The case of task-based instruction, *Applied Linguistics*, 26(3), 376-401.
- [23] Tarone, E. (1989). Teacher-executed needs assessment: Some suggestions for teachers and program administrators. *MinneTESOL Journal* 7: 39-48.
- [24] Valeo, A. (2013). The integration of language and content: Form-focused instruction in a content based language program. *The Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 16(1), 25-50
- [25] Wesche, M. B., & Skehan, P. (2002). Communicative, task-based, and content-based language instruction. In R. B. Kaplan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 207-228). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- [26] Wesche, M. B. (2010). Content-based second language instruction. In R. Kaplan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of applied linguistics* (2nd ed., pp. 275-293). Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- [27] West, R. (1997). Needs analysis: State of the Art. In Howard, R., & Brown, G. (Eds.), *Teacher education for LSP* (pp. 68-79). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Sami Ali Al-wossabi is an associate professor of Applied Linguistics at the English department, Jazan University, Saudi Arabia. He is currently teaching English language courses in Applied Linguistics, Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition. He has also written articles on different research topics. His main areas of interest include Task-based language teaching (TBLT), communicative language teaching (CLT), computer assisted language learning (CALL) and second language acquisition (SLA).

Effect of Topic-prominent Features of Mandarin Chinese on English Writing

Haiyan Han

School of Foreign Languages, University of Ji'nan, Ji'nan, Shandong, China

Abstract—Mandarin Chinese features a subject-verb-object word order and lacks grammatical agreement of any sort. It is basically a head-last language with the modifiers preceding the head word. Other prominent grammatical features include serial verb construction, resultative complement and the double nominative constructions. My paper focuses on the role of topic and subject in Mandarin, drawing on three views on Chinese syntactic structures, namely, SVO approach, topic-comment approach, and topic-prominence approach. A comparison is made among the different views and a conclusion is drawn that topic-prominent approach may better capture the complexities of Chinese syntax, which definitely contributes to English writing.

Index Terms—Mandarin Chinese, grammatical features, topic-prominence, English writing

Mandarin Chinese is a branch of the Sino-Tibetan language family. It consists of a large varieties of dialects, some of which are mutually unintelligible. But they share the logogrammic writing system. My paper is focused on the Standardized Chinese (also called *Putonghua*) which is based on the Beijing dialect of Mandarin. Chinese is an analytic language, which means that the words' function is marked syntactically rather than morphologically. In other words, Chinese possesses no grammatical inflections. Categories such as tense, voice, gender, or number (though there are a few plural markers in pronouns and nouns) are not expressed morphologically. It has serval participles to denote aspect (like *zhe1* indicating the continuous aspect, *guo4* indicating past perfective), voice (*bei4* construction) and to some extent mood (*a4*, *ya4*).

Chinese features a subject-verb-object (SVO) word order and lacks grammatical agreement of any sort. It has a rich system of classifiers. It is basically a head-last language meaning that the modifiers precede the head words. Unlike English which is a grammatically driven language, Mandarin is a semantically driven language. Elements which are presumed to be inferable from the immediate context are optionally dropped, especially the objects of transitive verbs. Other prominent grammatical features include serial verb construction, resultative complement and the double nominative construction.

I. BASIC SYNTACTIC FEATURES OF CHINESE

A. Tenses and Aspects

Tenses in Chinese are not grammaticalized but indicated by expressions of time ('today', 'yesterday', etc.) or simply embedded in context. But aspectual participles are required such as, *zhe1* (imperfective), *le1* (perfective) or *guo4* (experiential), to mark the temporal flow of action or events (Zhao1968, p. 60). For example,

(1) ni3 chi2 le0 me0
 you eat ASP Q
 'Have you eaten dinner?'

B. Voice

Chinese verbs do not express voice morphologically. The passive particle *bei4* 'by' is used before the verb to indicate passive voice. For example,

(2) gong1chang3 bei4 shao1hui3 le0
 factory BEI burn down ASP
 'The factory has been burn down.'

The agent is placed after *bei* as its object if it is required in the context, as shown below.

(3) gong1chang3 bei4 da4 huo3 shao1-hui3 le0
 factory BEI big fire burn down ASP
 'The factory has been burn down by the big fire.'

C. Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs in Mandarin, such as *neng2* 'can', *dei3* 'must', *ke3neng2* or *hui4* 'may', take substantive verbs as objects and *bu* 'no' for a negative. Auxiliary verbs usually express the semantic moods of the following verbs. Auxiliary verbs can occur in successive, for example

(4) ta1 ke3neng2 hui4 lai2 me0

he/she may may come Q
 'Will he/she be able to come?'

D. Pronouns

Pronouns mainly consist of personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, reflexive pronouns, and possessive pronouns. *wo3* 'I' refers to the speaker, *ni3* 'you' to the person addressed, and *ta1* 'he/she/it' to the person pointed, either male or female, human or nonhuman. The plural forms of personal pronouns are formed by suffixing *men1*, resulting in *wo3men0* 'we/us', *ni3men0* 'you (plural)' and *ta1men0* 'they/them'. Mandarin does not distinguish subjective personal pronouns and objective personal pronouns. Demonstrative pronouns are *zhe4* 'this', *na4* 'that' and *na3* 'which'. Reflexive pronouns are formed by attaching *zi4ji3* 'self' to personal pronouns, such as *wo3zi4ji3* 'myself'. The addition of possessive maker *de* after personal pronouns makes possessive pronouns, such as *wo3de0* 'my', *ni3de0* 'your'. Possessive pronouns can be dispensed with altogether if the possessor is obvious to the hearer in the context. In this respect Chinese is different from English. For example,

- (5) *ni3 dei3 bi4zhe0 yan3jing1 xi3 lian3, ke3shi4 dei3*
 you must close eye wash face, but must
zhang1zhe0 zui3 shua1 ya2
 open mouth brush tooth
 'You must wash your face with your eyes closed, but brush your teeth with your mouth open'.

E. Prepositions

Basically, prepositions precede subordinated substantive, such as:

- (6) *zai4 mei3guo2*
 in America
 'in America'
 (7) *cong2 qu4nian2*
 since last year
 'since last year'

Prepositions can also take a postposition, or both. For example:

- (8) *fang2jian1 li3*
 room in
 'in the room',
 (9) *zhuo1zi0 shang4*
 table on
 'on the table'.
 (10) *zai4 zhuo1zi0 shang4*
 on table above
 'on the table'

F. Classifier

Individual nouns are modified with specific classifiers. For example,

- (11) *yi1 tou2 lv2*
 one CL donkey
 'a donkey'
 (12) *yi1 tiao2 gou3*
 one CL dog
 'a dog'
 (13) *yi1 zhi1 niao3*
 one CL bird
 'a bird'
 (14) *yi1 pi3 ma3*
 one CL horse
 'a horse'

Note that grammatical classifiers are a matter of words and not of things. For example, if a person is referred to as *xian1sheng0* 'gentlemen', classifier *wei4* is preferred, *yi1wei4 xian1sheng0*, but if as *ren2* 'person', classifier *ge4* is preferred, *yi1ge4 ren2*. Some nouns take more than one type of classifiers and there are usually slight differences in meaning. Some nouns have no specific classifiers and take only the general classifier *ge4*, for example, *yi1ge4 wen4ti2* 'a question', and *yi1ge4 xiao3toul* 'a thief'. Semantically proper names denote unique individual and require no classifiers.

II. IS CHINESE A SVO, TOPIC-COMMENT, OR TOPIC-PROMINENT LANGUAGE

Traditionally, many linguists held that Mandarin Chinese has grammatical relations like subjects and objects which appear in fixed positions. Nonetheless, this traditional view that Chinese has the same grammatical features as Indo-European languages (like English) failed to consider the differences in the two languages: subject is a syntactic and semantic element obligatory in English with the exception of imperatives, while it may be optional in Chinese. The notion of Chinese *topic* was first put forward in Zhao (1968). He argued that the conception of *topic* and *comment* is much more appropriate in Chinese than the conception of actor and action. Since then, the two constructions, namely subject-predicate (SVO) and topic-comment, have been the focus of discussion among many researchers. This approach was strongly supported in LaPolla (2009). LaPolla argued for a discourse-based analysis of grammatical relations in Chinese and noted that in Chinese there has been no grammaticalization of syntactic function such as subject or object (p. 29).

In contrast to the foregoing approaches to Chinese grammatical relations, Li & Thompson (1975) argued that some languages can be more insightfully described by taking the concepts of topic to be basic, while others by taking the notion of subject as basic due to many structural phenomena. They classified world languages into four types, and two major types are subject-prominent language and topic-prominent language with English and Chinese as their respective representatives. A subject-prominent language is a language in which the grammatical units of subject and predicate are basic to the structure of sentences. A topic-prominent language is one in which the information units of topic and comment are basic to the structure of sentence. The following section is devoted to the comparison of the three approaches.

A. Subject-verb-object Approach

Traditional Chinese linguists held that subject-object is a clear actor-action relation. Subject is the performer of the action while object is the receiver of the action. A verb-object construction is an endocentric construction in which the verb governs the object. For example, *he1cha2* 'drink tea', *mai3mi3* 'buy rice', and *kan4 dian4ying3* 'see (a) movie'. Besides nouns and pronouns, verbs and adjectives can function as subjects.

(15) da3 shi4 teng2, ma4 shi4 ai4
spank COPULAR care scold COPULAR love
'To spank is to care, to scold is to love.'

The common types of predicate can be verb, adjective, and even nouns. Nominal predicates usually 'represent a class to which the subject is subsumed or expresses a process or event' (Zhao 1968, p. 90). For example,

(16) ta1 tai4tai0 ying1guo2 ren2.
he wife Britain person
'His wife is a British.'

In this example, *ta1tai4tai0* 'his wife', as a member, is subsumed under a class *ying1guo2ren2* 'British'.

(17) ta1 gan3mao4 le0
he (have a) cold ASP
'He caught a cold.'

In this example, the nominal predicate *gan3mao4le0* expresses a fact or event about his health condition.

The approach of subject-verb-object can offer explanation to complex structures. A complex sentence can thus be treated as a complex of two or more minor sentences. It has to be noted that there is no complementizer (like 'that' in English) in Mandarin Chinese.

The subject can also be a full sentence with subject and predicate.

(18) wo3 ren4wei2 ni3 cuo4 le0
I think you wrong ASP
'I think that you are wrong.'

A full sentence can be seen as a clause predicate. For example,

(19) wu3 ge4 ping2guo3 san1 ge4 lan4 le0
five CL apple three CL spoil ASP
'Three of the five apples have spoiled.'

The clause in (19) "san1 ge4 lan4 le0" is seen as the predicate of the sentence which takes "wu3 ge4 ping2guo3" as its subject.

It is noticeable that the clause predicates more commonly describe the state or characteristics of the main subject.

(20) ta1 xing4 zi0 man4
he temperament patient
'His is patient.'

The argument that the direction of action in a predicate need go outward from subject to object can not always be supported in actual language production. For example,

(21) jiu3 bu4 neng2 he1, yan1 ke3yi3 chou1
wine not can drink, tobacco may smoke
'(You) cannot drink, but (you) can smoke tobacco.'

In Chinese, the verbs *he1* 'drink' and *chou1* 'smoke' generally have a direction of actions from subject to object. But that outward direction is not obligatorily observed as shown in the preceding example. In other words, an object in

Mandarin is less grammatically governed by the verb.

B. Topic and Comment

According to Zhao (1968), the grammatical meaning of subject and predicate in a Chinese sentence is topic and comment, rather than actor and action (p. 69). Chinese has a low proportion of applicability of the actor-action meanings and the conception of topic and comment is more appropriate. Topic is literally the subject matter to talk about and the comment is what the speaker comments on the topic. There does not need to be an actor-action relationship between the subject and object, as long as “there is some general relationship of topic and comment between subject and predicate” (p. 70). For example,

- (22) zhe4 ben3 shu1 chu1ban3 le0.
 this CL book publish ASP
 ‘This book was published.’

Passive voice is used in the literary translation into English but no passive marker (like *bei4* ‘by’) is used in this Chinese example. The use of passive markers would not be appropriate here.

Xu & Langendoen (1985) specified the topic structure in Chinese, claiming that “topic structure refers to any grammatical configuration consisting of two part: the topic, which invariably occurs first, and the comment, a clause which follows the topic and says something about it” (p. 1). The topic tends to have a definite reference and the comment has an indefinite reference, as shown in the following example:

- (23) shu1 wo3 mai3 le0
 book I buy ASP
 ‘I have bought the book.’

The definiteness of topic can also be marked by pronouns, like *zhe4ge4* ‘this’, *na4ge4* ‘that’, *zhe4xie1* ‘these’, and *na4xie1* ‘those’.

The looseness of subject-predicate relations can be found in ellipsis in Chinese. Verbs and co-referential nouns phrases can often be omitted in context. For example,

- (24) -ni3 xi3huan1 kan4 dian4shi4 me0
 You like watch TV Q
 ‘Do you like watching TV?’
 -xi3huan1
 Like
 ‘Yes, I like watching TV.’

- (25) zhe4 jian4 yi1fu0 tai4 gui4, suo3yi3 wo3 mei2 mai3
 this CL clothes too expensive so I not buy.
 ‘This article of clothes was so expensive so I did not buy it.’

The looseness of subject-predicate relation as shown above would be ungrammatical in English. There are cases in which the relation between subject and predicate is so loose that no specific elements can be considered omitted. Topic-comment approach provides explanation for the unique grammatical structures. The topic-comment relations are often met with in Chinese classics. Following is a line of a poem by Li Bai in Tang Dynasty (as cited in Zhao, 1968, p. 71):

- (26) yun2 xiang3 yi1shang0 hua1 xiang3 rong2
 cloud think garment flower think face
 ‘Clouds remind one of her garments and flowers remind one of her face.’

What is noticeable in this example is the causative use of the word ‘think’ and it is seldom used anywhere else.

According to Xu & Langendoen (1985), some topic structures are formed by movement of a phrase from the comment into the topic node, while some are base-generated without movement. For example,

- (27) shui3guo3 wo3 zui4 xi3huan1 ping2guo3
 fruit I most like apple
 ‘As for fruit, i like apples most’ (p. 27).

In this based-generated construction of (27), the structure would be ungrammatical no matter where the topic originate within the comment clause.

LaPolla (2009) generalized that the structure of the Chinese clause is based on the pragmatic relations of topical vs. focal material with topical elements preceding the verb and focal elements following the verb. There is no need to posit any grammaticalized notions, like ‘subject’ or ‘object’ to explain the structure of the clause in Chinese.

C. Chinese as a Topic-prominent Language

The topic-comment approach, an information structure analysis, seems to elegantly explain the majority of Chinese clauses but fails to capture the intricacies or nuances of the structural/semantic relations between verbs and the following noun phrases in comment clause. This theory said a lot about topic but little of the internal structure of comment.

The majority of Chinese linguistics tend to support the third view that both topic and subject as different grammatical notions exist in Chinese (Li & Thompson, 1976, Huang, 1982, Li 1990, Ning 1993).

The topic-prominent approach claims that Mandarin does have subject-predicate structures. The word order parallels its English translation. Topics, if present in a structure, can be distinguished from the subject: topics are systematically codified by participles like *ne0*, *a0*, *ya4*; topic does not control reflexivization. However, there is no consensus on the definition of the notions. Shi (2000) defined topic and comment on the basis of its structural position, structural relationship with the verb and its course function:

(28) A topic is an unmarked NP (or its equivalent) that precedes a clause and is related to a position inside the clause; a topic represents an entity that has been mentioned in the previous discourse and is being discussed again in the current sentence, namely, topic is what the current sentence is set up to add new information to. The clause related to the topic in such as way is the comment (p. 386).

A serious weakness of this claim, however, is that the concept of aboutness cannot explain some of the well-formed topic-comment constructions as (29) (Li & Thompson, 1976).

(29) zhe4-jian4 shi4qing0 ni3 bu4 neng2 guang1 ma2fan2
 this-CL matter you not can only bother
 yi2-ge4 ren2
 yi-CL person
 ‘(As for) this matter, you can’t just bother one person’.

The topic *zhe4jian4shi4qing0* ‘this matter’ bears no subject-predicate relation with any position inside the comment.

This type of topic-comment construction is called a dangling topic. Dangling topics are not subcategorized by the verb in the comment and therefore have no relation to any position inside the comment. It can be seen from this case that subject and object are not the only positions for nominal topics to occupy. The positions for topics include the oblique object of invisible adjunct adverbial PPs (Lv, 1986). Pan & Hu (2002) contested the problems of Shi (2000) and argued that topics in Chinese can be licensed not only by a syntactic gap or resumptive pronouns, but also by a semantic variable which does not have an explicit corresponding syntactic position (p. 382).

The topic-prominent approach met with much criticism that Li and Thompson’s taxonomy confuses two levels of linguistic analysis, namely grammatical analysis and the actual division of the sentence. In other words, the approach inconsistently uses subject as a syntactic notion while topic as a pragmatic notion. In response, Her (1991) argued that topic has a grammatical function, in parallel to the syntactic notions of ‘subject’ and ‘object’. Her further proposed the term ‘frame’ to refer to the semantic or discoursal function encoded by the syntactic topic. Huang (retrieved online) held that there is a set of Mandarin verbs that subcategorize for a topic in addition to a subject and suggested that the thematic roles of the subcategorized topics are goals and the subjects agents. Some verbs (like *na2shou3* ‘be good at’, *zuo4zhu3* ‘take charge of’) are identified which semantically select topic NPs as the arguments. For example,

(30) a. zhong1guo2 cai4 wo3 na2 shou3
 China cuisine I take hand
 ‘I am good at Chinese cuisine.’
 b. *wo3 na2 shou3 zhong1guo2 cai4
 I take hand China cuisine

The contrast between grammatical (a) and ungrammatical (b) shows that the topic-position NPs are semantically restricted by the verbs. This restriction can only be contributed to the lexical items (Huang, online source).

Topic is a significant issue in the research of Chinese linguistics. The typological approach initiated by Li and Thompson and developed by many other linguists captures the complexities of the grammar of Chinese and parses the relationship between sentence structure and function. It offers several syntactic and semantic generalizations across languages.

III. PS-RULES OF TP CHINESE

The basic phrase-structure rules of Chinese can be tentatively presented as follows:

$$S \rightarrow \{NP^*, S^*, PP^*\} \quad NP^* \quad (Aux) \quad (PP) \quad VP^* \quad (Adv)$$

$$NP \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\uparrow TOPIC)=\downarrow \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Det (CL)} \\ \text{Num CL} \\ \text{AP} \\ \text{PP} \end{array} \right\} \\ \uparrow=\downarrow \end{array} \right. N$$

$$VP \rightarrow \text{AdvP} \quad V \quad \text{AdvP} \quad (NP) \quad (NP)$$

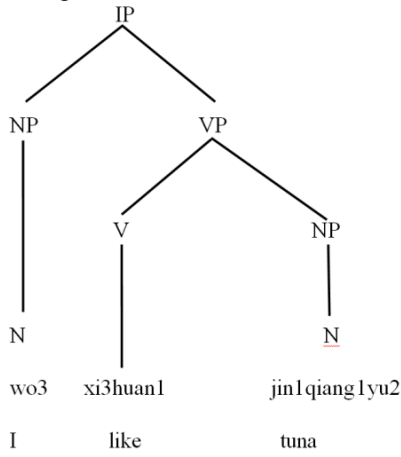
$$\downarrow \varepsilon (\uparrow ADJUNCT) \quad \uparrow=\downarrow \quad \downarrow \varepsilon (\uparrow ADJUNCT) \quad (\uparrow OBJ)=\downarrow \quad (\uparrow OBJ2)=\downarrow$$

PP → (P) NP P
 ↑=↓ (↑GF)=↓ ↑=↓

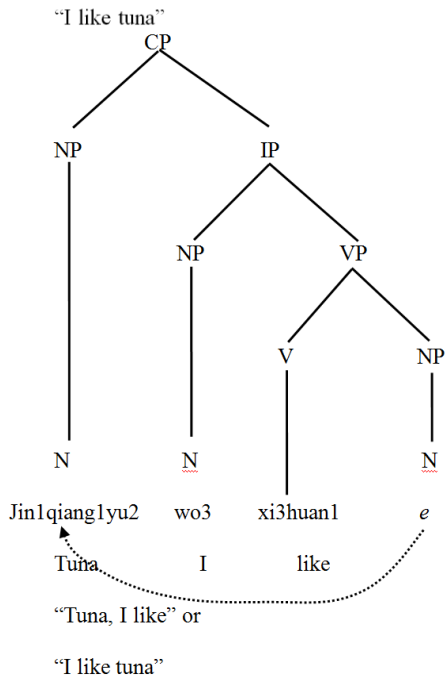
AP → Adj N
 ↑(ADJUNCT)=↓ ↑=↓

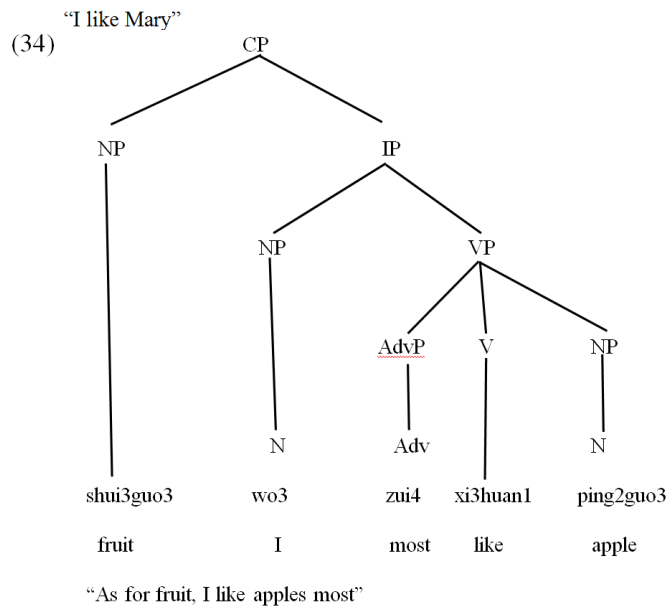
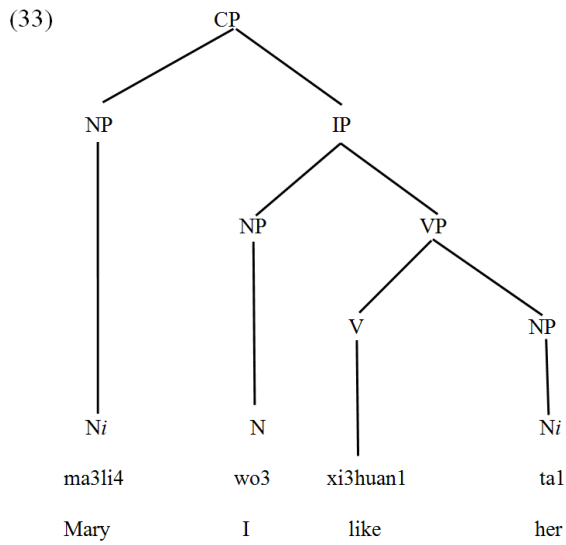
AdvP → Adv*
 ↑=↓

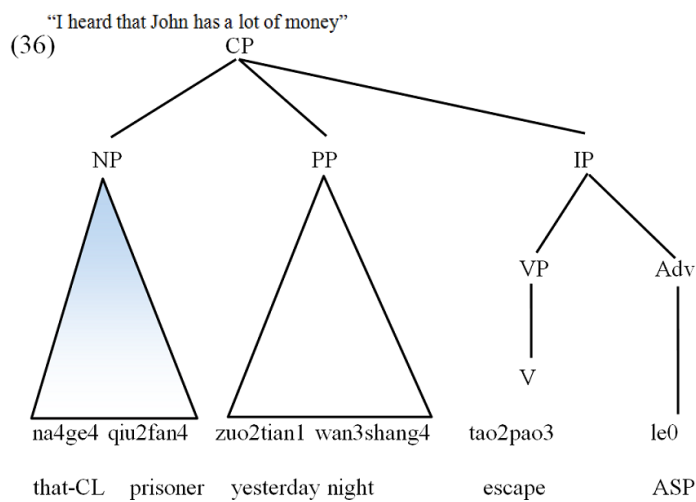
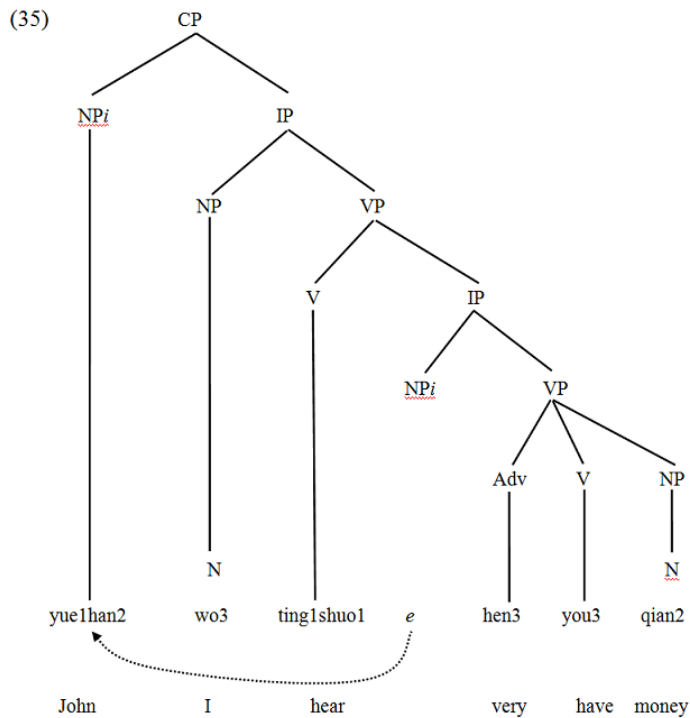
Examples are given below to demonstrate the applicability of these rules in Chinese.
 (31)



(32)





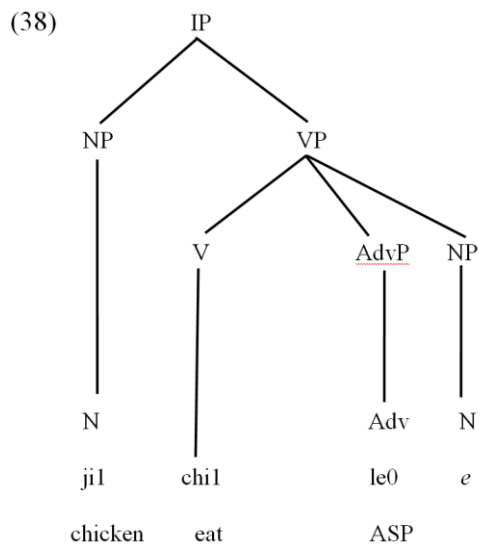


“That prisoner escaped last night”

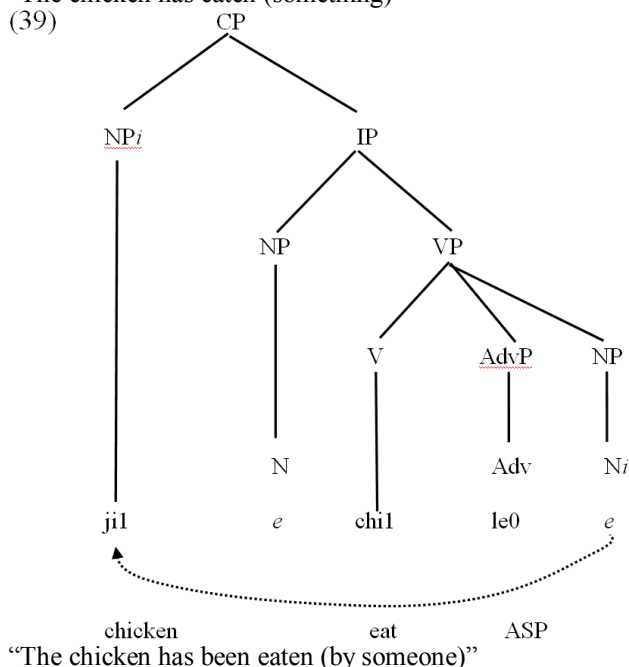
There is a special topic construction in Chinese called “patient-subject sentence”. The property of free argument drop of Chinese is the root of the ambiguity in this construction. For example,

- (37) Ji1 chi1 le0
 chicken eat ASP
 “The chicken has eaten (something)” or
 “The chicken has been eaten”

The two readings can be represented in the c-structures as follows:



“The chicken has eaten (something)”



“The chicken has been eaten (by someone)”

IV. APPLICATION OF TOPIC-PROMINENT FEATURES OF MANDARIN CHINESE TO ENGLISH WRITING

As the paper has presented the topic-prominent features of Mandarin Chinese, it has great effect on the English writing. Conventionally, many linguists cling to the belief that Mandarin Chinese has grammatical relations like subjects and objects which emerge in fixed positions. However, this conventional viewpoint that Chinese has the same grammatical features as Indo-European languages (like English) doesn't succeed to think about the distinction in the two languages: subject is a syntactic and semantic element obligatory in English with the exception of imperatives, while it may be selective in Chinese. The conception of Chinese *topic* was first come up with in Zhao(1968), who argued that the definition of *topic* and *comment* is much more appropriate in Chinese than the definition of actor and action. Since then, the two constructions, namely subject-predicate (SVO) and topic-comment, have been the concentration of discussion among many researchers. This approach was strongly advocated in LaPolla (2009), who put forward a discourse-based analysis of grammatical relations in Chinese and noted that in Chinese there has been no grammaticalization of syntactic function such as subject or object (p. 29).

Compared with the foregoing approaches to Chinese grammatical relations, Li & Thompson (1975) posed that some languages can be more insightfully depicted by taking the concepts of topic to be basic, however others by taking the notion of subject as basic due to many structural phenomena. They classified world languages into four types, and two major types are subject-prominent language and topic-prominent language with English and Chinese as their respective representatives. A subject-prominent language is a language in which the grammatical units of subject and predicate are the basis to the structure of sentences. A topic-prominent language is one in which the information units of topic and comment are basic to the structure of sentence.

Therefore, since the paper has analyzed the topic-prominent features of Mandarin Chinese, we are supposed to apply it to the English writing. The following are the details: practise your English writing skills at your level. Writing different types of texts, like emails, text messages, essays and letters, is a very important skill for many learners of English, especially those who are learning English for their work or studies.

Choose your level, from beginner to advanced, and start learning today by reading model texts and doing the exercises. Whether you need to improve your English writing skills for work, for studying or to be able to communicate effectively with friends, you'll find practical writing lessons and activities to help you.

Decide how much time you have for your English today and choose a writing activity that you will be able to do from start to finish. When you do the interactive exercises, you can see how well you've done.

To conclude, Mandarin Chinese features a subject-verb-object word order and lacks grammatical agreement of any sort. It is basically a head-last language with the modifiers preceding the head word. Other prominent grammatical features include serial verb construction, resultative complement and the double nominative constructions. My paper focuses on the role of topic and subject in Mandarin, drawing on three views on Chinese syntactic structures, namely, SVO approach, topic-comment approach, and topic-prominence approach. A comparison is made among the different views and a conclusion is drawn that topic-prominent approach may better capture the complexities of Chinese syntax, which definitely contributes to English writing.

APPENDIX. ABBREVIATIONS

ASP	Aspectual particle
Bei	Passive marker
CL	Classifier
De	Possessive marker
Q	Interrogative marker

REFERENCES

- [1] Huang, C. R. Subcategorized topics in Mandarin Chinese. Retrieved on April 10, 2014 from <http://cwn.ling.sinica.edu.tw/churen/SubcategorizedTOPICinMandarinChinese.pdf>.
- [2] Huang, C. T. (1982). Logic relations in Chinese and the theory of grammar. Cambridge, MA: MIT dissertation.
- [3] LaPolla, J. (2009). Chinese as a topic-comment language. In *Studies of Chinese Linguistics: Functional approaches*, Xing J (ed.), 9-22. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- [4] Li, A. (1990). Order and constituency in Mandarin Chinese. Dordrecht: Kluwer.
- [5] Li C. N. and Thompson, A. S. (1975). Subject and topic: A new typology of language. In *Subject and Topic*, Li. C. N. (ed.), 457-490. New York: Academic Press.
- [6] Lv, S. X. (1986). The flexibility of Chinese syntax. *Chinese Linguistics*. 1: 1-9.
- [7] Ning, C. (1993). The overt syntax of relativization and topicalization in Chinese. Irvine, CA: University of California, Irvine dissertation.
- [8] Pan, H. H & Hu, J. H. (2002). Representing topic-comment structures in Chinese. *Language, Information, and Computation: Proceedings of the 16th Pacific Asia Conference*, 382-390. The Korean Society for Language and Information.
- [9] Shi, D. X. (2000). Topic and topic-comment constructions in Mandarin Chinese. *Language*, 76.2: 383-408.
- [10] Xu, L. J. & Langendoen, D. T. (1985). Topic structures in Chinese, *Language*, 61.1: 1-27.
- [11] Zhao, Y. R. (1968). *Grammar of Spoken Chinese*. Berkeley: University of California.

Haiyan Han was born in Qitaihe, China in 1976. She received her Master's degree in linguistics from University of Jinan, China in 2007.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, University of Jinan, Jinan, China. Her research interests include applied linguistics and college English teaching methods.

The Design of Local Culture-based Indonesian Language Teaching Materials

Kartini

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

Achmad Tolla

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

Jasruddin

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

Juanda

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

Abstract—This research and development aims to test the validity and effectiveness of Indonesian Language Teaching Materials Based on Local Culture of Luwu, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. This research and development is at level two; the researchers only conducted validity testing and effectiveness testing of existing teaching materials. Both types of testing were conducted at Cokroaminoto University of Palopo. The validity testing was done through Focus Group Discussion. The components of teaching materials of which validity are tested include content, presentation, graphics, and language use. Meanwhile, the effectiveness testing was done by employing one-group pretest-posttest pre-experimental design. The results of data analysis reveal that the Indonesian language teaching materials based on local culture of Luwu meet the standards of validity and effectiveness.

Index Terms—local culture, teaching materials, focus group discussion, design

I. INTRODUCTION

In the national education curriculum of Indonesia, Indonesian language is taught from elementary school level to university level. Referring to the Decree of the Director General of Higher Education, Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Indonesia No. 43/DIKTI/Kep/2006, Indonesia language in universities belongs to a group of personality development courses with competency standards to be mastered by students including knowledge of religion, cultural, and citizenship values, and ability to apply these values in everyday life; having a solid personality; critical thinking: being rational, ethical, aesthetic, and dynamic; being broad-minded; and being democratic. The basic competences of Indonesian language teaching in universities prepare students to become scientists and professionals who possess a positive knowledge and attitude towards the Indonesian language as the national language and who are able to use it correctly and properly to express understanding, sense of nationality, love of the homeland, and for various necessities in the fields of science, technology and art, and in their respective professions.

In relation to the competency standard of knowledge of cultural values, the Indonesian language learning should be synergistic and integrated with cultural learning as an effort to preserve and develop national and local culture. Susanto (2014) argues that the current education curriculum is oriented towards building a better image of the nation's character and the preservation of local culture. Synergy and integration between Indonesian language and cultural learning can be realized through various learning tools such as teaching materials.

Teaching materials are an important tool that must exist in a lesson. These become an indicator of the successful achievement of desired learning objectives. Therefore, teaching materials to be used must meet several requirements, two of which are validity and effectiveness. The validity testing in question is the examination of the validity of teaching materials components; content (material), presentation, graphics, and language use. Meanwhile, the effectiveness testing of teaching materials involves the use of teaching materials to determine the level of learning success provided by the teaching materials. This can be done by comparing students' learning outcomes before and after the teaching materials are used.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Seels & Richey (1994), development is a process of translating or describing design specifications into physical features. Development specifically means the process of producing instructional materials. Meanwhile, according to Tessmer and Richey (1997), development focuses not only on needs analysis, but also on broad issues

regarding front-end analysis, such as contextual analysis. Rohmat (2011) explains that teaching materials are a set of materials designed systematically both written and unwritten so as to create an environment or atmosphere that allows learners to learn. Then, Wright (Trianto, 2009) adds that teaching materials can help achieve the goals of the syllabus and help the roles of educators and learners in the teaching and learning process. Tomlinson (1998) remarks that teaching materials are those used by lecturers or learners to facilitate language learning, improve knowledge, and enrich language experience.

The main aspects of instruction can be applied in the development process of teaching materials (Shulman, in Trianto, 2009). Furthermore, Jolly and Bolitho (Tomlinson, 1998) propose the steps of teaching materials development, namely: (1) identification of the needs of lecturers and learners; (2) determination of exploration activities of material needs; (3) contextual realization by proposing ideas appropriate to the selection of texts and the context of teaching materials; (4) pedagogical realization through task and practice; (5) production of teaching materials; (6) the use of teaching materials by learners; and (7) evaluation of the teaching materials.

Richards (2002) proposed the design of teaching materials that include: (1) development of objectives; (2) development of syllabus; (3) organization of teaching materials into instruction units; (4) development of structure per unit; and (5) units sorting (in Trianto, 2009). According to Tomlinson (1998), the development of teaching materials refers to something done by writers, teachers, lecturers, and learners to provide input resources with various experiences designed to improve language learning. The development of Indonesian teaching materials is based on the indicator of achievement of basic competencies by taking into account the potential of learners, the actual benefits for learners, the depth and breadth of materials, the relevance for the needs of learners, in accordance with the environment and available time allocation (MoNE 2007).

Good teaching materials are teaching materials that have gone through a series of validity testing processes. Good teaching materials must pass the validity testing stage of some components such as content, materials presentation, graphics, language use, and media or technology used (BSNP, 2006). The validity of a teaching material can be investigated through a process called validation. Validation is a process or activity to test whether an instrument is valid or invalid. Validation of instructional materials is measured using validation sheets. The validation sheet contains the components of the instructional material of which validity is measured. This validation sheet is filled by a competent person selected to validate the material that has been created. Akker (1999: 10) states, "Validity refers to the extent that the design of the intervention is based on the state of the art knowledge ('content validity') and that the various components of the intervention are consistently linked to each other ('construct validity')". Akker (1999: 10) remarks, "Effectiveness refers to the extent that the experiences and outcomes with the intervention are consistent with the intended aims".

III. RESEARCH METHOD

This research and development is at level two; testing existing products. Two types of testing conducted are validity testing and effectiveness testing. The validity testing was done on four components of teaching materials including content, presentation, graphics, and language use through *focus group discussion* involving two experts. Meanwhile, the effectiveness testing was done by employing one-group pretest-posttest pre-experimental design. The technique of data analysis used is descriptive statistical analysis.

IV. RESULTS

1. Validity Testing Results from Expert 1

a. Content

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF CONTENT VALIDITY

Interval	Category	Frequency	Percentage
5	Very Valid	6	35.3
4	Valid	11	64.7
3	Quite Valid	0	0
2	Less Valid	0	0
1	Invalid	0	0
Total		17	100

Table 4.1 shows the results of the content validity testing that is divided into 17 points. As illustrated, 6 points are considered "very valid" and 11 other points are considered "Valid". In other words, none of the points are considered "quite valid", "less valid", and "invalid".

The total score of the content validity by expert 1 is 74 or 87.06%. The score is then assumed in the classification interval table below to determine the tendency of the content validity results from expert 1.

TABLE 2
CLASSIFICATION INTERVAL OF THE TENDENCY OF THE CONTENT VALIDITY RESULTS FROM EXPERT 1

Interval	Percentage Interval	Category
72 – 85	85% - 100%	Very Valid
58 – 71	69% - 84%	Valid
44 – 57	53% - 68%	Quite Valid
30 – 43	37% - 52%	Less Valid
17 – 29	20% - 36%	Invalid

Based on table 2, it is seen that the score 74 is at the interval of 72-85 (85% -100%) under the category of "very valid".

b. Presentation

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF PRESENTATION VALIDITY

Interval	Category	Frequency	Percentage
5	Very Valid	5	38.5
4	Valid	8	61.5
3	Quite Valid	0	0
2	Less Valid	0	0
1	Invalid	0	0
Total		13	100

Table 3 illustrates the results of the validity testing of the presentation of the teaching materials, which is divided into 13 points. In this case, 5 points are considered "very valid" and 8 other points are considered "valid". Hence, no points are considered "quite valid", "less valid", or "invalid".

The total score of the presentation validity by expert 1 is 57 or 87.70%. The score is then compared with the following classification interval table to determine the tendency of the results of the presentation validity from expert 1.

TABLE 4
CLASSIFICATION INTERVAL OF THE TENDENCY OF THE PRESENTATION VALIDITY RESULTS FROM EXPERT 1

Interval	Percentage Interval	Category
56 – 65	86% - 100%	Very Valid
46 – 55	71% - 85%	Valid
36 – 45	55% - 70%	Quite Valid
26 – 35	40% - 54%	Less Valid
13 – 25	20% - 39%	Invalid

Table 4.8 shows that the score 57 is at the interval of 56-65 (86% -100%) categorized as "very valid".

c. Graphics Validity

TABLE 5
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF GRAPHICS VALIDITY

Interval	Category	Frequency	Percentage
5	Very Valid	5	17.9
4	Valid	23	82.1
3	Quite Valid	0	0
2	Less Valid	0	0
1	Invalid	0	0
Total		28	100

Table 5 shows the results of the graphics validity of the teaching materials, divided into 28 points. 5 points are rated as "very valid" and 23 other points are rated as "valid". Thus, no indicator is considered "quite valid", "less valid", and "invalid".

The total score of the graphics validity by expert 1 is 117 or 83.57%. The score is then assumed in the following classification interval table to determine the tendency of the results of the graphics validity from expert 1.

TABLE 6
CLASSIFICATION INTERVAL OF THE TENDENCY OF THE GRAPHICS VALIDITY RESULTS FROM EXPERT 1

Interval	Percentage Interval	Category
119 – 140	85% - 100%	Very Valid
97 – 118	69% - 84%	Valid
75 – 96	54% - 68%	Quite Valid
53 – 74	38% - 53%	Less Valid
28 – 52	20% - 37%	Invalid

The score 117 is at the interval of 97-118 (69% -84%) under "valid" category.

d. Language Use

TABLE 7
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF LANGUAGE USE VALIDITY

Interval	Category	Frequency	Percentage
5	Very Valid	2	16.7
4	Valid	10	83.3
3	Quite Valid	0	0
2	Less Valid	0	0
1	Invalid	0	0
Total		12	100

Table 7 reveals the results of the language use validity of the teaching materials, divided into 12 points. In this case, 2 points are categorized as "very valid" and the other 10 points are rated as "valid". In other words, no points are rated as "quite valid", "less valid", and "invalid".

The total score of the language use validity by expert 1 is 50 or 83.33%. This score is then assumed in the classification interval table below to determine the tendency of language use validity results from expert 1.

TABLE 8
CLASSIFICATION INTERVAL OF THE TENDENCY OF THE LANGUAGE USE VALIDITY RESULTS FROM EXPERT 1

Interval	Percentage Interval	Category
51 – 60	85% - 100%	Very Valid
41 – 50	68% - 84%	Valid
31 – 40	52% - 67%	Quite Valid
21 – 30	35% - 51%	Less Valid
12 – 20	20% - 34%	Invalid

Looking at table 8, the score 50 is at 41-50 interval (68% -84%) categorized as "valid".

2. Validity Testing Results from Expert 2

a. Content

TABLE 9
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF CONTENT VALIDITY

Interval	Category	Frequency	Percentage
5	Very Valid	11	65
4	Valid	6	35
3	Quite Valid	0	0
2	Less Valid	0	0
1	Invalid	0	0
Total		17	100

Table 9 presents the results of the content validity, which includes 17 points of which validity were tested. As we can see, 11 points fall into "very valid" category and 6 other points are categorized as "valid". No indicator is considered "quite valid", "less valid", and "invalid".

The total score of the content validity by expert 2 is 79 or 92.94%. The score is then compared with the classification interval table to determine the tendency of the content validity results from expert 2.

TABLE 10
CLASSIFICATION INTERVAL OF THE TENDENCY OF THE CONTENT VALIDITY RESULTS FROM EXPERT 2

Interval	Percentage Interval	Category
72 – 85	85% - 100%	Very Valid
58 – 71	69% - 84%	Valid
44 – 57	53% - 68%	Quite Valid
30 – 43	37% - 52%	Less Valid
17 – 29	20% - 36%	Invalid

Table 10 shows that the score 79 is at the interval of 72-85 (85% -100%) in the "very valid" category.

b. Presentation

TABLE 11
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF PRESENTATION VALIDITY

Interval	Category	Frequency	Percentage
5	Very Valid	0	0
4	Valid	13	100
3	Quite Valid	0	0
2	Less Valid	0	0
1	Invalid	0	0
Total		13	100

Table 11 shows the results of the presentation validity, which is divided into 13 points. These results indicate that all points are rated as "valid" by expert 2. In other words, no indicator is categorized as "very valid", "quite valid", "less valid", and "invalid".

The total score of the presentation validity by expert 2 is 52 or 80.00%. The score is then assumed in the following classification interval table to find out the tendency of the presentation validity results from expert 2.

TABLE 12
CLASSIFICATION INTERVAL OF THE TENDENCY OF THE PRESENTATION VALIDITY RESULTS FROM EXPERT 2

Interval	Percentage Interval	Category
56 – 65	86% - 100%	Very Valid
46 – 55	71% - 85%	Valid
36 – 45	55% - 70%	Quite Valid
26 – 35	40% - 54%	Less Valid
13 – 25	20% - 39%	Invalid

Based on table 12, the score 52 is at the interval of 46-55 (71% -85%) falling into "valid" category.

c. Graphics

TABLE 13
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF GRAPHICS VALIDITY

Interval	Category	Frequency	Percentage
5	Very Valid	13	46
4	Valid	13	46
3	Quite Valid	2	8
2	Less Valid	0	0
1	Invalid	0	0
Total		28	100

Table 13 shows the results of the graphics validity, which is divided into 28 points. 13 points are rated as "very valid", 13 points as "valid", and 2 other points as "quite valid". In this case, no indicator is rated as "less valid", and "invalid".

The total score of the graphics validity by expert 2 is 123 or 87.86%. The score is assumed in the classification interval table below to determine the tendency of the graphics validity results from expert 2.

TABLE 14
CLASSIFICATION INTERVAL OF THE TENDENCY OF THE GRAPHICS VALIDITY RESULTS FROM EXPERT 2

Interval	Percentage Interval	Category
119 – 140	85% - 100%	Very Valid
97 – 118	69% - 84%	Valid
75 – 96	54% - 68%	Quite Valid
53 – 74	38% - 53%	Less Valid
28 – 52	20% - 37%	Invalid

Referring to table 14, the score 123 is at the interval of 119-140 (85% -100%) under "very valid" category.

d. Language Use

TABLE 15
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF LANGUAGE USE VALIDITY (VALIDITY TESTING 2)

Interval	Category	Frequency	Percentage
5	Very Valid	7	58,3
4	Valid	5	41,7
3	Quite Valid	0	0
2	Less Valid	0	0
1	Invalid	0	0
Total		12	100

Table 15 deals with the results of the language use validity, consisting of 12 points. In this case, 7 points are rated as "very valid" and 5 other points are considered "valid". In other words, no indicator falls into "quite valid", "less valid", and "invalid" categories.

The total score of the language use validity by expert 2 is 55 or 91.67%. The score is then assumed in the classification interval table below to determine the tendency of the language use validity results from expert 2.

TABLE 16
CLASSIFICATION INTERVAL OF THE TENDENCY OF THE LANGUAGE USE VALIDITY RESULTS FROM EXPERT 2 (TESTING 2)

Interval	Percentage Interval	Category
51 – 60	85% - 100%	Very Valid
41 – 50	68% - 84%	Valid
31 – 40	52% - 67%	Quite Valid
21 – 30	35% - 51%	Less Valid
12 – 20	20% - 34%	Invalid

From table 4.32, it is seen that the score 55 is at the interval of 51-60 (85%-100%) in the category "very valid".

3. Effectiveness Testing Results of Indonesian Language Teaching Materials

a. Learning Outcomes prior to the Treatment (Pretest)

TABLE 17
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNING OUTCOMES PRIOR TO THE TREATMENT (PRETEST)

Interval	Frequency	Cumulative Fr.	Percentage	Cumulative Per.
6 – 8	1	1	1.5	1.5
9 – 11	10	11	14.9	16.4
12 – 14	21	32	31.3	47.7
15 – 17	13	45	19.4	67.1
18 – 20	15	60	22.4	89.5
21 – 23	6	66	9.0	98.5
24 – 26	1	67	1.5	100
Total	67		100	

Table 17 above shows the frequency distribution of learning outcomes of 67 students before the treatment. The interval tells the number of questions correctly answered by the students. In this case, 1 student is at 6-8 interval, 10 students are at 9-11 interval, 21 students are at 12-14 interval, 13 students are at 15-17 interval, 15 students are at 18-20 interval, 6 students are at 21-23 interval, and 1 student is at 24-26 interval. In other words, no student could answer all the questions (35 items) given correctly.

The data of learning outcomes prior to the treatment above is presented in the following classification interval table to see the tendency.

TABLE 18
CLASSIFICATION INTERVAL OF LEARNING OUTCOMES (PRETEST)

Interval	Category	Frequency	Percentage
≥ 28	Very High	0	0
21 – 27	High	7	10
15 – 20	Moderate	28	42
8 – 14	Low	32	49
≤ 7	Very Low	0	0
Total		67	100

Table 18 above shows the tendency of the pretest learning outcomes of 67 students. From the table, there are no students whose learning outcomes fall into "very high" category, 7 students (10%) whose learning outcomes are categorized as "high", 28 students (42%) whose learning outcomes are in the category "moderate", 32 students (49%) with learning outcomes falling into "low" category, and no students whose learning outcomes are categorized as "very low".

b. Learning Outcomes after the Treatment (Pretest)

TABLE 19
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNING OUTCOMES AFTER THE TREATMENT (POSTTEST)

Data	Frequency	Cumulative Fr.	Percentage	Cumulative Per.
15 – 17	1	1	1.5	1.5
18 – 20	2	3	3.0	4.5
21 – 23	4	7	6.0	10.5
24 – 26	10	17	14.9	25.4
27 – 29	37	54	55.2	80.6
30 – 32	13	67	19.4	100
33 – 35	0	67	0	0
Total	67		100	

Table 19 above presents the frequency distribution of learning outcomes of 67 students after the treatment. In this case, there is 1 student whose correct answers are at the interval of 15-17, 2 students at the interval of 18-20, 4 students at the interval of 21-23, 10 students at the interval of 24-26, 37 students at the interval of 27-29, 13 students at 30-32 interval, and no students at the interval of 33-35. Thus, no student could answer correctly all the questions (35 items) given.

The data of learning results before the treatment above is presented in the following classification interval table to see the tendency.

TABLE 20
CLASSIFICATION INTERVAL OF LEARNING OUTCOMES (POSTTEST)

Interval	Category	Frequency	Percentage
≥28	Very High	40	60
21 – 27	High	24	36
15 – 20	Moderate	3	4
8 – 14	Low	0	0
≤7	Very Low	0	0
Total		67	100

Table 20 above reveals the tendency of the posttest learning outcomes of 67 students. By looking at the table, it was found that there are 40 students (60%) with learning outcomes categorized as "very high", 24 students (36%) with learning outcomes in "high" category, 3 students (4%) with learning outcomes in "moderate" category, and none of the learning outcomes are categorized as "low" and "very low".

V. DISCUSSION

Based on the findings and the results of the analysis, local culture-based Indonesian language teaching materials in South Sulawesi, Indonesia, have met two of the three standards of good teaching materials according to BSNP or National Education Standards Agency (2006). These include (1) content and construct validity of teaching materials; content, presentation, graphics, and language use, and (2) the effectiveness of teaching materials seen from students' learning outcomes. The results of the validity testing of the learning materials in line with Akker (1999) that the validity of teaching materials can be seen from two components; product content and construct developed by involving some experts or practitioners who interpret the validity results. Akker (1999) adds that one way to measure the effectiveness of teaching materials is to review the results, achievements, or impacts of teaching materials on the target users of the developed products. In this case, the target users of the Indonesian language teaching materials are the first semester students of the Indonesian Language Education and Literature Study Program of Cokroaminoto University of Palopo. The effectiveness of the teaching materials, in terms of their impact on the target users, is characterized by the improvement in the students' learning outcomes as indicated by the pretest and posttest results.

The results of the validity testing of the teaching materials are also in line with the results of validity testing by some researchers. Haslinda et al. (2017) develop teaching materials of "Fictional Prose Appreciation" showing average score of 4.32 (very valid) for content, average score of 4.07 (valid) for presentation, average score of 4.33 (very valid) for graphics, average score of 4.19 (valid) for language use, and average of 4.19 (valid) for media or technology. The average of one-to-one testing is 3.75 (valid), the field test is 4.38 (very valid), and the operational field test is 4.38 (very valid). Furthermore, teaching materials developed by Haslinda et al. effectively improve students' learning outcomes and understanding of the values of Makassar local wisdom. The test results prove that there is an increase in students' learning outcomes: 22% of students passed the initial test and, however, 76% of them passed the final test. Furthermore, the test results related to understanding of the values of Makassar local wisdom show that 91% of students are able to find these values and describe it based on the reality.

In addition, Rukayah et al. (2017) reveal the same process and results with this research. Rukayah et al. developed teaching materials for poetry writing based on audiovisual multimedia for elementary school students. The results of validity testing of the teaching materials includes the average of 3.30 for content categorized as "valid", the average of 3.60 for presentation categorized as "very valid", the average of 3.71 for graphics categorized as "very valid", and the average of 3.66 for language use categorized as "very valid". Teaching materials for poetry writing based on audiovisual multimedia are effective in learning. This is indicated by the response of teachers, students and the results of students' achievement tests. The average response of 4 teachers is 3.88 in the "very good" category. Furthermore, from 80 students, 73 or 91.25% of them responded "good" and "very good". The test results show that after students were taught by using the developed teaching materials, there is an increase in their learning mastery by 71.43%. Compared with the product specifications set by the researchers before the test was conducted, the Indonesian language teaching materials based on local culture are in accordance with the standards that their components including content and construct are valid and effective. This is because the main goal of the development of teaching materials is to improve students' learning outcomes.

VI. CONCLUSION

After conducting validity testing of local culture-based Indonesian language teaching materials in South Sulawesi, Indonesia, it can be concluded that the teaching materials specifications are proven to be valid and effective based on the established standards. These standards include: (1) teaching materials are valid based on expert judgments on their components; content and construct, divided into four, namely content, presentation, graphics, and language use. Furthermore, the effectiveness of the teaching materials is indicated by the positive impact they have on the students' learning achievement and outcomes.

REFERENCES

- [1] Akker, J. Van den. (1999). Principles and Method of Development Research. London. Dlm.
- [2] Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan (BSNP). (2006). Instrumen Penilaian Tahap I BukuTeks Pelajaran Pendidikan Dasar Dan Menengah. Jakarta: BSNP.
- [3] Departemen Pendidikan Nasional. (2007). Pedoman Pembelajaran Bidang Pengembangan Berbahasadi Taman Kanak-Kanak. Jakarta: Depdiknas.
- [4] Dick, Carey & Carey. (2009). The Systematic Design Of Instruction. Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data. Addison–Welswey Educational Publisher Inc.
- [5] Haslinda, dkk. (2017). “The Improvement of Fiction Prose Study as a Teaching Material Based on Makassar Local Wisdom Integrated with Mobile Learning at FKIP Universitas Muhammadiyah Makassar”. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*. Vol 8 (5) (2017), p.915-921.
- [6] Majid, Abdul. (2013). Strategi Pembelajaran. Bandung : Remaja Rosdakarya
- [7] Richard, Jack C. (2002). The Language Teaching Matrix. New York: Cambridge.
- [8] Rochmat. (2011). Model Pengembangan Perangkat Pembelajaran Matematika. Semarang: FMIPA Universitas Negeri Semarang.
- [9] Rukayah, dkk. (2018). “The Development of Writing Poetry Teaching Material Based on Audiovisual Media of Fifth Grade Elementary School Bone Regency”. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*. Vol. 9 (2), p. 358-366.
- [10] Surat Keputusan Direktur Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi tentang *Kedudukan dan Fungsi Mata Kuliah Bahasa Indonesia*. Departemen Pendidikan Nasional Republik Indonesia Nomor 43/DIKTI/Kep/2006.
- [11] Seels Barbara B, Rita C. Richey. (1994). Instructional Technology: The Definition and Domain of the Field. Washington DC: AECT.
- [12] Susanto, Ahmad. (2014). Pengembangan Pembelajaran IPS di Sekolah Dasar. Jakarta: Prenadamedia Gorup.
- [13] Tessmer, M., and Richey, R. C. (1997). The Role of Context in Learning and Instructional Design. *International Journal of Educational Technology Research and Development*. Vol 45(2), p.85–115.
- [14] Tomlinson, Brian. (1998). Introduction. In *Materials Development in Language Teaching* ed. Brian Tomlinson, p.1-24. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [15] Trianto, (2009). Mendesain Model Pembelajaran Inovatif-Progresif. Jakarta: Kencana Prenada Group.
- [16] Trianto. (2009). Media Pembelajaran. Jakarta: Raja Grafindo.

Kartini was born on January 26, 1984, in the hamlet of Massaile Village, district of Uranga Sinjai Selatan. the ninth child of nine siblings. Attended elementary, junior high, and high school in the County of his birth. Education diploma (DII) PGSDU traveled on the University of Muhammadiyah Makassar completed in 2005, was followed in the same year the S-1 education of language and literature of Indonesia and was completed in 2007. In 2008 continued S-2 education of language and literature of Indonesia and in the University of Muhammadiyah Makassar and completed in 2010.

Year 2010, writer on set became a lecturer at the University of Tjokroaminoto in action until now, and as a lecturer at the College of nursing with the Indonesia language courses. Currently a doctoral candidate in Indonesian Language education State University of Makassar.

Achmad Tolla, Lecturer of the Faculty of language and literature of IKIP/Makassar State University year 1982 till now, born in Leling Mamuju Regency, March 21, 1949. Completed primary school education Affairs Leling year 1966, the first State secondary school of the year 1968, Mamuju, Mamuju Sman 1970, B.a. IKIP Ujung Pandang years 1979, S-1 IKIP Ujung Pandang year 1981, Then completed S-2 FPs IKIP Malang 1991. Won a doctorate FPs Ikip Malang in 1996.

The experience of the Office, the head of the laboratory of FBS IKIP Ujung Pandang years 1996-1997, Secretary of the Program S-2 PPs IKIP Ujung Pandang years 1997-2001, Assistant Dean UNM FBs year 2001-2004 III, Chairman of the Indonesian Language Education 2004-2005 years, UNM Head UPBJJ UT West Sulawesi years 2005-2008, Chairman of the Doctoral Program of the science of language education PPs UNM year 2009 s. d now, Presiding Professor State University of Makassar.

Jasruddin, Lecturer in the Department of physics at the State University of Makassar. Place date of birth, Matano 22 Desember 1964, the formal State primary school biennial donations Matano 1973-1975. 220 Sorowako Lands elementary school 1975-1979. Middle School State Nuha 1982. Inco mine Soroako middle school, 1985. Then continue on S-1 physics education IKIP Ujung Pandang years 1990, S-2 physics education Bandung Institute of technology of the year 1996, the S-3 (Ph.d.) major in physics education Bandung Institute of technology of the year 2002.

The experience of the Office of the Director of the Graduate School of the State University of Makassar (UNM), Coordinator of the South Sulawesi Region X Kopertis year 2017 s. d now. Areas of expertise namely physics semiconductor materials especially amorphous silicon (a-Si) Thin Film Transistor for manufacturing (TFT), Thin Film Light Emitting Diode (TFLED), and a Solar Cell (solar cell).

Juanda. Professor of language and literature faculty of Indonesia University Makassar State language education field of expertise. Place date of birth, Wajo, March 10, 1968. Education elementary school 195 Tanete Country year 1980 First State secondary school, Keera, Wajo year 1983 high school 226 Sengkang Wajo year 1986. S-1 Makassar Hasanuddin University Department of Linguistics

of the Faculty of literature in 1990. S-2 University of Hasanuddin Makassar Indonesian Language year 1994. S-3 Jakarta State University (UNJ) Indonesian Language Education year 2010.

Teaching experience: the Jakarta State University 2008-2011. Bina Nusantara University 2008-2011. 2008-2011 Pancasila University. The Makassar State University 2011-now. The post of Chairman, language courses and literature Makassar State University year 2017 until now.

Problems in and Solutions to Oral English Teaching in Rural Middle School—A Case Study in ZhaoCheng Middle School

Yayan Yu
Shanxi Normal University, China

Abstract—As a key skill for language learners, oral communication ability is one of the most important factors to measure one person's overall quality. Being a widely used language, English has become an important communicative medium between countries. However, the purpose of learning English is to communicate. One can really master the language only by putting it into flexible use. However, English teaching in our country has been the problem of “dumb English” for a long time, especially oral English teaching in rural middle school. Due to the various constraints, oral English teaching still takes the traditional teaching methods. Students have no necessary English environment to exercise English. This kind of “dumb English” makes students lack language communicative ability. So it is urgent to improve the oral English teaching in rural school. In this paper, the investigation and questionnaire survey were aimed at investigating students' oral English in the Middle School of Zhaocheng Town in Linfen, Shanxi Province, in order to find out the insufficiency of spoken language and give the recommendations, so as to improve the interest of speaking English for rural students and cultivate their communicative competence in spoken English. Finally, it can promote the students' overall quality and overall performance for our society.

Index Terms—oral English, rural middle school, teaching strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

With the development of economy and technology, the pace of globalization is very fast and the communication with foreign countries grows frequently. So the oral English becomes more and more important. Only when we communicate frequently with others in English, can we really master English well. But in many Chinese rural places, students in middle schools have a poor oral practice, and most of them cannot speak standard English, though they are taught English in class. The reasons why students in rural middle school are poor in oral English are as follows: the traditional teaching method of English, such as, in order to get higher scores, teachers just want students remember words, sentences and passages without their correct pronunciation; some rural middle schools are short of necessary teaching equipment that can show standard oral English, for example multi-media and English radio. So teachers without standard pronunciation cannot help their student improve oral English; students in rural middle school hardly have opportunities to practice oral English except in class, the limited time. The environment of English is very necessary, but for them, it is very difficult to open mouth.

As an international language, English plays a more and more important role. The central part of learning a language is to communicate, so oral English received more and more attention in China. Thus, the effective approaches to improve oral English for English learners are in urgent need. For example, the government should arrange specialized training for teachers to improve their professional skill, including listening, speaking, reading and writing; it should offer money and equipment to supporting counties' oral English training to make students live in a necessary English environment; and it can appoint some excellent urban teachers to rural middle schools for guiding.

This paper takes one rural middle school for example and another city middle school as contrast, and it is aimed at finding out the insufficiency of spoken language teaching through test, investigation and questionnaire survey and giving the recommendations, so as to improve level of oral English teaching and the interest of speaking English for rural students and cultivate their communicative competence in spoken English. More importantly, it can promote the students' overall quality and overall performance for our society.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. An Overview of Oral English in Rural Middle Schools

The purpose of foreign language learning is to make students have the ability to use language flexibly. Along with the deep development of the curriculum reform, the importance of spoken English is highlighted. The use of oral English is not only an important purpose of learning English, but also the incentive and fun for students to learn English. However, the development of China's urban and rural education is out-of-balanced, and there is a significant gap in the spoken English.

In terms of hardware and software, there is a gap that cannot be ignored between rural middle school and city middle school. Although students' oral English is being widely concerned in middle school, at present English teaching in rural schools is not paying attention to spoken language training, which lags behind the common level of spoken English. Many students have learned English for many years but they still cannot use English to make a brief conversation. "Dumb English" still exist at a large scale, and in rural middle school, the level of oral English cannot reach to the English teaching goal for communicating and obtaining information. The students' oral English communicative ability in rural middle school overall is poor. From the aspect of teachers, the quality of them in rural middle school is inferior, and there are quite a number of teachers without good oral English and the creative teaching method. In terms of students, students have psychological barrier in the process of learning oral English, and they are not interested in English at all. The problem of rural oral English has drawn much attention to many researchers.

B. Related Research at Home and Abroad

1. Studies Abroad

The famous English linguist L.G. Alexander (1996) thought: "nothing should be spoken before it has been heard. Nothing should be read before it has been spoken. Nothing should be written before it has been read." (p.92). Thus we can see the importance of spoken English. And oral English teaching is to cultivate students to exchange language knowledge into language ability. The purpose of it is to make students gain access to knowledge, information and language by reading and listening, and to process and restructure what have been gained on the basis of prior knowledge and language. Then we can endow new content and output language. Completing the whole process of communication is the final goal (Brown, 2000).

Jeremy hammer (2000) pointed out: the purpose of oral activities is to impart the application competence of language, rather than study a specific part of a language. He thinks students should be able to use it flexibly and complete the task of spoken language. And oral activities can build a platform for students to make students have the practical feeling by communicating with English. At the same time, the oral English learning activities provide feedback to both teachers and students. Many tasks of oral English have high-interest, which helps to stimulate students' interest and enthusiasm and enhance students' self-confidence. All along, foreign language teaching has been biased in favor of "textbook English". The fact is that such a language ability does not achieve the real purpose of communication. Paulson and Bruder (1992) believe that language ability is a part of communicative competence, which is the ultimate goal of learning a language. Students should first master the basic knowledge of language form, but good pronunciation and form does not mean that they have the ability to use them. So it is necessary for students to use appropriate language to cope with the different social environment.

According to Hymes (1972), Communicative language teaching is considered to play a vital role in developing student's communicative competence. It is the communicative language approach that leads to the English teaching methodology.

From those views about oral English at abroad, the author can conclude that the research on oral English and oral English teaching is gradually increasing. And there are many views of research, such as factors of oral English, testing, efficient teaching and so on. But as for the subject, university students are mainly focused.

2. Studies at Home

Over the years, the domestic research on oral English teaching has been increasing. Research has also made great theoretical results and practical results, which are helpful for the improvement of spoken English teaching. Domestic research for spoken language teaching mainly focuses on the oral English teaching methods, English environment and strategies.

Under the influence of traditional English teaching method and so on, at present, there are many problems in the process of oral English teaching in China, especially in rural areas. Sun Lifan (2008) investigates the current situation of oral English teaching in rural high school of Hu Bei Province through a questionnaire survey, experiment and interview, and the results demonstrated the feasibility of offering oral English class in rural middle schools after a semester's experiment. This is the creative view for related researches. In this method, a certain amount of repetitions and mechanical practices are emphasized in oral English teaching. In the process of looking for the new method of spoken English teaching, Wen Qiufang tries spoken English teaching through speech laboratory, which shows that when students studies oral English in speech laboratory, students show a higher degree of enthusiasm, but tension and anxiety has been reduced. They are more willing to open mouth to practice English and their oral expressive abilities progress faster (Wen, 1998).

Gao Haihong (2000) studies the relationship between communicative methods and the level of spoken English. The result shows that most of Chinese students rarely use effective strategies in oral English. Huang Biwen (2011) points out "along with the new curriculum reform, comprehensive ability, including, listening, speaking, reading and writing is took seriously. However, there are many problems in rural middle school, we should pay much attention to it" (p.50).

Liu Runqing and Han Baocheng (2008) believe that "in the four language skills, listening, speaking, reading, writing, no matter how stressed the importance of speaking skill is not too much, because one of the purposes of learning language is to communicate. As for social demand for talents, oral English is very important" (p. 150).

Through the analysis of the domestic and foreign related researches on oral English teaching, the author found that the view of domestic and foreign experts and teachers for oral English teaching constantly changes and develops in the

teaching process. Foreign scholars have accumulated a lot of experience in oral English teaching, and it is clear that the teaching and learning of language cannot be separated from communication and the related English environment. They pointed out that the key of language teaching and learning is to use. The study of oral English education is divided into two directions at home, one is to pay attention to students' integrated development of listening and speaking, reading, writing and translating, but this affects the teaching result, because it involves too widely. The other one is regarding a strategy as a universal method to use in all teaching process, in order to improve the students' oral English ability. The traditional teaching mode of foreign language is just to pay much more attention to language knowledge as much as possible rather than students' oral ability. The scholars of Chinese focus on students' unconscious state of learning English, and it is not mechanical, conscious English knowledge. At the same time, they emphasize the importance of creating English teaching situations.

In this paper, the author adopts the method of comparative study to contrast students' oral English level between a rural middle school and a city middle school, then she draws a conclusion that students' oral English in rural middle school is poorer than students' in city middle school. After this, the author takes the method of questionnaire and interview from the aspects of teachers and students to analyze the problem. The reasons of that can ascribe to the teachers' poor ability, the traditional teaching method and the lack of teaching equipment. Lastly, the author puts forwards related efficient solution to enhance the student' oral English level in rural middle schools.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions

Based on the theories of Input Hypothesis, the paper makes an empirical research on oral English teaching in rural middle school and city middle school by questionnaire and interview. The study aims to find the problems of oral English teaching in those schools and the proper countermeasures.

This thesis investigates the oral English teaching and analyses the reasons, and then gives some suggestions for the poor oral English teaching in rural middle school. In order to understand the situation of oral teaching in rural places area, this paper tries to find the problems and countermeasures of oral English teaching in rural places through investigation and questionnaire survey. The author tries to answer the following research questions.

- (1) What problems exist in oral English teaching in rural middle schools?
- (2) Why is oral English teaching poor in rural middle school?
- (3) What effective suggestions can help improve the level of oral English teaching in rural middle school?

B. Subjects

In order to get a convincing result, this paper made contrastive researches, which are from the Second Middle school in Zhaocheng Rural and Xinli Middle School in Linfen City. The experiment is conducted from September 2015 to December 2015, and the participants of research are from two classes of Grade Seven (Class 52 and Class 47) of Zhaocheng Middle School in Zhaocheng Rural and Xinli Middle School in Linfen City. The two classes are parallel classes of similar level. All of them come from different family and schooling backgrounds. One class (Class 52) is designed as the experimental class, and the other class (Class 47) is the controlled class. These two classes are in different places, one is in the rural, and the other is in the city. The author made a contrastive investigation about oral English in the two places and got the insufficiency of oral English and the reasons in rural middle school.

TABLE 3.2.1
INFORMATION ABOUT THE SUBJECTS

Schools	Class	Number	Male	Female
Xinli	Grade 7, 47	50	24	26
Zhaocheng	Grade7, 52	54	28	26

TABLE 3.2.2
INFORMATION ABOUT THE SUBJECTS

Schools	Teachers	Number
Xinli	Grade 7	10
Zhaocheng	Grade 7	10

C. Instruments

The author takes effort to make the experiment as practical and persuasive as possible, so the instruments used in the research are: two tests, two questionnaires and two open interviews. The test mainly estimates oral English level of students and teachers (See Appendix I). The questionnaires in this paper are divided into teachers' and students' questionnaires (See Appendix II and Appendix III). The interviews are also divided into teachers' interview, which is called interview A (See Appendix IV), and students' interview named interview B (See Appendix V).

D. Procedures

1. Preparation

At the beginning of last semester, the author had a practice in Second Middle School in Zhaocheng Town. In the process of practice, the author found the problems of oral English teaching and thinks that whether the same problems exist in city middle schools. So the author gained an opportunity to participate in one middle school in Linfen City. It is concluded that there are some differences between middle schools in counties and cities, including oral English teaching methods, teaching equipment and some factors of students.

2. Questionnaires and Interviews

According to the observation in both two schools, the author made a spoken English test firstly, and then kept record relatively. Secondly, under that record about the oral English level, she made two questionnaires and two interviews. Thirdly, distribute the questionnaires to 104 students and 20 teachers in two different schools and collect the questionnaires. Later, 10 typical students and 5 teachers were chosen randomly from each school to finish the questions in the interview. Finally, the author made different forms to take contrastive experiment.

IV. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

A. Data Collection

In the investigation, 104 students participated in oral English test, 50 students from Xinli Middle School in Linfen City and 54 students from the Second Middle School of Zhaocheng in Zhaocheng Town. Students who got scores (100-80) are good spoken learners, and if students got scores (80-60), they are common spoken learners, and students whose scores are below 60, they are poor spoken learners. Students in city do better in oral English than students in rural, including listening and speaking. For the questionnaires and interview, 104 students and 20 teachers in different schools finished them.

B. Data Analysis

1. Analysis of Tests

In the test, the researcher collected the data of students' listening and speaking scores to analyze the differences between two classes. The result is shown in the following table.

The data are collected as follows: (Spoken English = SE)

TABLE 4.2.1.1
DATA COLLECTION OF THE TESTS FOR STUDENTS

Students	Good SE	Common SE	Poor SE
Xinli	34	17	3
Zhaocheng	2	15	33

TABLE 4.2.1.2
ANALYSIS OF THE LISTENING AND SPEAKING TEST

Students	Good SE (%)	Common SE (%)	Poor SE (%)
Xinli	60	34	6
Zhaochen	4	30	66

TABLE 4.2.1.3
DATA COLLECTION OF THE TESTS FOR TEACHERS

Teachers	Good SE	Common SE	Poor SE
Xinli	13	5	2
Zhaocheng	4	8	8

TABLE 4.2.1.4
ANALYSIS OF THE LISTENING AND SPEAKING TEST

Students	Good SE (%)	Common SE (%)	Poor SE (%)
Xinli	65	25	10
Zhaochen	20	40	40

From Tables, we can see that there was obvious difference between the two schools. Students and teachers in Xinli Middle School have better oral English than students and teachers in Zhaocheng Middle School. 60% students in city have good oral English, however, students having good oral English in rural account for 4% and 66% students have bad oral English. 65% teachers in Xinli have good spoken English, and just 10% teachers got bad scores. But in Zhaocheng, teachers who are good at spoken English account for 20%. This result proves students and teachers in rural school have relatively poor oral English.

2. Analysis of Questionnaires

At the beginning of the experiment, 104 students are asked to fill out questionnaire, and they must be honest and careful to finish it. They can choose the suitable choice for themselves from the 10 items in the questionnaire. The following table displays the outcome of the questionnaire.

TABLE 4.2.2.1
THE RESULT OF QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS
(EC=experimental class; CC=control class; A, B, C choice items)

Item	Class	A(%)	B(%)	C(%)
1	EC	3.5	20.5	76
	CC	70.3	22.8	6.9
2	EC	56.8	20.6	22.6
	CC	21.6	57.6	20.8
3	EC	4.1	30.5	65.4
	CC	68.4	25.2	6.4
4	EC	3.3	25	71.7
	CC	69.1	20.9	10
5	EC	11.2	33.5	55.3
	CC	56.2	33.7	10.1
6	EC	10.5	50.4	39.1
	CC	68.7	24.7	6.6
7	EC	11.5	29.3	59.2
	CC	69.4	20.8	9.8
8	EC	2.8	25.5	71.7
	CC	50.6	36.7	12.7
9	EC	3.5	20.7	75.8
	CC	49.7	45.1	5.2
10	EC	2.1	24.1	73.8
	CC	53.6	32.7	13.7

From the Table 4.2.2.1, the result of the two classes was very different. And the questions 1 to 10 are intended to know students' oral English learning. Obviously in item 1, nearly 3.5% of the students in rural middle school often do oral exercise, but 70.3% of the students in city middle school do it often; as far as result of item 2, approximately 56.8% of students think they have spent much time in memorizing words and reciting grammar in EC, however, 57.6% of students in CC spent much more time on oral English exercise; from question 3, more than half of the students in EC considered that communicating with English is a very difficult task, in CC, 68.4% student regard oral English as an easy task; 71.7% of them think their oral English level is low in item 4; item 5 revealed that 55.3% of students think they do not like English class in EC, but in CC, most of students like attending English class. Obviously in item 6, the above analyses show that nearly half of the students cannot participate in English class actively; item 7 exposed that in English class or their spare time, more than half of students in EC had no or little confidence in English listening, and they do not want to listen to English tapes; the account can be up to 90%; item 8 is designed to know how most students spend their free time, most of them do not watch English movies, TV and animation, and the account can be up to 90%; from the item 9, only 3.5% of student in EC often use equipment to exercise oral English, in CC, nearly half of students use them; item 10 revealed that only 2.1% of students are willing to participate in the English activities, most of them are afraid of speaking English in public, but students in CC enjoy becoming the numbers of English speech contest. The above analyses show that most of students do not have much interest and enough confidence in speaking English, and students' oral English in rural middle school is worse than students in city. In many times, they are not willing to participate in the English class and activities

The different questionnaire was conducted in teachers of Grade 7 in both schools, and the following data were collected from the teachers' answers to the 10 items in the questionnaire.

TABLE 4.2.2.2
THE RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN FOR TEACHERS
(XL=Xibnli middle school; ZC=Zhaocheng middle school; A, B, C choice items)

Item	Class	A(%)	B(%)	C(%)
1	ZC	3.5	40.5	56
	XL	60.3	22.8	16.9
2	ZC	4.2	20.6	75.2
	XL	51.6	35.6	12.8
3	ZC	4.1	30.5	65.4
	XL	64.4	29.2	6.4
4	ZC	5.3	25.6	69.1
	XL	69.1	24.7	6.2
5	ZC	10.6	34.5	54.9
	XL	67.3	23.5	9.2
6	ZC	9.7	36.9	53.4
	XL	67.4	24.4	8.2
7	ZC	70.6	10.3	19.1
	XL	9.3	76.2	14.5
8	ZC	50.1	25.5	24.4
	XL	16.8	46.7	36.5
9	ZC	3.4	30.1	66.5
	XL	49.7	35.2	15.1
10	ZC	3.1	24.9	72
	XL	60.4	29.6	10

Table 4.2.2.2 shows that oral English teaching is obviously different in the two schools. Item 1 reveals that 56% of teachers think that their oral English level is low, but most of the teacher in XL think they are good at oral English; and 88% of them hardly speak English in class; in item 3, only 4.1% of teachers often exercise oral English by English taps and English movies, however, in XL, more than half of teachers do that; they considered oral English a unnecessary part in the process of learning English and it account up to 69.1%; item 5 revealed that just 10.6% of teachers will encourage their students to exercise oral English, however, 67.3% of teachers in XL think it is very important to improve oral English; for the item 6, nearly half of teachers do not arrange listening and speaking exercise in English class, differently, most of teachers in XL usually put them in English class and practice more; and from item 7, compared with the teachers in XL, in ZC, many teachers often pay more attention to making great progress and want their students to get higher scores; a majority of the teachers in ZC claimed that the knowledge of grammar is much more significant than oral English for students in item 8; only 3.4% of teachers think that students with good oral English will perform much better than other students, but nearly half of teachers in XL regard oral English as an effective method to improve students' real ability; from the item 9, when asked whether English speech contests will be held in class or school, most teachers said they prefer to let students remember words or passages rather than hold the activities. Comparing Table4.2 with Table4.3, it is obvious that in rural places, oral English teaching has some problems, including external and internal factors, such as teachers' teaching level, students' psychological aspects and the environment around rural places.

3. Analysis of the Interview

When asked how you evaluate your Oral English Teaching, one teacher in Zhaocheng Middle School said "I am not good at oral English teaching, and I think the traditional method can improve scores". However, a teacher in Xinli Middle School said "I think this is a good way to have a try". Another question is about what you do in Oral English Teaching. One teacher of Zhaocheng Middle School told "I hardly have special part in class to train oral English". On the contrary, one teacher in Xinli answered this question "I always spent much time on oral English training". How about students' attitude towards Oral English Learning? Students of the two schools have different views. One in Zhaocheng thought "I am very afraid of speaking English in class, because my oral English is poor". One student in another school believed "Oral English is very important for us to improve English ability".

From the interview, the students in the experimental class are afraid of speaking English, and they think that oral English is not much more important than English words and grammar. The time that they contribute to oral English learning is limited, even in English class. In the school, a small number students speak English, and not often. Students cannot hear normative oral English, because they do not have necessary equipment and their teachers are not able to speak English well. So the campus environment of oral English learning is insufficient. Moreover, students do not like their teachers' traditional teaching method, and they are willing to learn English by watching English movies, TV and cartoon. More importantly, they think that learning English by the traditional method is very boring and cannot really improve their English ability.

In the interview, 10 teachers of Grade 7 in the Second Middle School of Zhaocheng think that their oral English level is a little low, they admit that they are not able to speak English well. And in addition to that, teachers always pay much more attention to students' scores, so they just want students to memorize mechanically the grammar and sentences. In class, they neither speak English, nor encourage students to speak English as much as possible. What's more, in school, there are no multi-media or English equipment even they intend to help students exercise oral English.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *The Analysis of Factors Influencing Oral English Level*

Based on the Input Hypothesis, the author found that Xinli Middle School has many effective ways to learn oral English. Teachers will speak English in class and they will pay much attention to the listening and exercise parts; teachers and students may use multimedia and speech classrooms to listen standard oral English; in addition, after class, they will take part in some English activities, English speech, contest and so on. According to the Input Hypothesis, for students in city middle school, they accept much more information when they learn English. But in rural middle school, students have no necessary equipment to learn standard English, and teachers with poor oral English cannot teach right pronunciation to students. Students cannot input adequate information to their minds. Thus, there are some differences between them.

1. **Despising the Oral English Training**

Affected by the traditional teaching mode and influence of exam oriented education, there has been a phenomenon that much attention has been paid by writing rather than listening and speaking. The motivation of English learning for many students is to cope with the high school and college entrance examinations. However, those kind of English tests are mainly check students' English reading ability, but the listening part of the total score accounts for 10%, which makes teachers and students pay little attention to listening and speaking.

Through the actual research survey, there are quite a number of teachers who still use the traditional English teaching mode in English teaching. They just focuses on imparting knowledge of English grammar in class, and students just passively accept what the teacher taught, so they recite the text, remember words and sentences and take notes in class. Students and teachers just pay much attention to reading and writing skills, but ignored the importance of oral English exercise. This will make English teaching so dull and students have no interest while learning English.

2. **The Limitation of Teachers' Quality**

Through the oral English test, the author found that most of English teachers in rural middle school have poor oral English, and their professional skill is insufficient. They cannot speak fluent English in class, even the pronunciation. The wrong pronunciation that has taught in class will produce deep influence for students. It is very difficult for them to correct the wrong pronunciation. The questionnaire and interview show that most of teachers teach class in Chinese. Furthermore, they just pay much attention to grammar, words and sentences and they did not encourage students to speak English, even in class. Besides, though the new curriculum reform requires that teachers and students should take oral English seriously, they hardly introspected themselves.

3. **The Lack of English Environment**

Language learning cannot leave the language environment, but most rural middle school students in most rural area only learn English in the classroom. After English class, they rarely have time to review the knowledge what have learned. Thus, students cannot fully exercise their oral English. According to the survey, the author found that students have few opportunities to participate in English practice, such as English debate, English contest or English corner. In English class, teachers just focus on the grammatical emphasis and ignore the oral English parts. There is no listening exercise in class, so students cannot hear standard English.

However, the improvement of spoken English needs much more exercise. For them, it is very difficult to open mouth. In addition, local government pays a little attention to the oral English teaching, so the investment to oral English teaching is far more adequate. The school is not equipped with English teaching resources, such as multimedia, speech classrooms and so on. Thus, students cannot accept standard oral English. From the view of the students, most of the villages and rurals school students have formed a psychological disorder due to the few opportunities to exercise oral English, and they also dare not to or be willing to speak English.

B. *Suggestions to Improve Oral English Ability*

1. **Taking the New Method of Teaching English**

Importantly, teachers and students should pay much attention to oral English.

As for students, they should spend much more time in listening and speaking English. At spare time, students can listen to English taps and imitate the pronunciation in taps. Exercise is the best way to improve spoken English. In order to improve the courage of speaking English, they may chat with others as much as possible by simple conversations.

As for teachers, firstly, they should try their best to speak English in class and pay much attention exercise conversations and listening parts in textbook. Secondly, teachers are supposed to encourage students speak English in class as much as possible. For example, they can ask students to talk English conversations in groups and correct their wrong pronunciation. Thirdly, teachers can organize oral English activities and encourage students to take part in, such as, English contest, English corner and English debate, which can stimulate their interests for learning English and help them overcome the psychological disorder. Lastly, there should be spoken English test system in schools. Teachers should test students' oral English and make students take oral English seriously. Through this test system, students will try their best to practice spoken English.

2. **Improve the Professional Quality of English Teachers**

The role of teachers in the teaching process is mainly to lead the road of education, in another words, they pass basic knowledge to students, which requires teachers to have a certain professional skills and ability. English teacher is the

developer and designer of the English curriculum, and they play an important role in the way of improving students' quality. The professional quality of English teachers has a direct impact on the English teaching effect.

First of all, English teachers should have good professional quality, especially the ability of spoken English teaching. So schools provide opportunities for English to re-education and regular oral English training and arrange English teachers to listen lessons thought by excellent English teachers. They need read a large number of books and attend lectures about English teaching to develop themselves.

3. Support from the Government and the Education Institution

The problem of spoken English teaching has existed for a long time, but this cannot draw enough attention for English teachers to improve themselves. In order to completely solve the problem, it also needs the strong support of the government and the society. They can formulate relevant policies to encourage a higher quality of English major students to go to the countryside and select good spoken English teachers to the schools and give them suggestions, which can promote the exchange English teaching activities for the urban and rural schools. In addition, the government should organize regular oral training and encourage teachers in rural schools take part in phonetic learning.

Besides, the government should solve the problem of teaching conditions and outdated equipment, improve the teaching facilities, increase rural teachers' personal income and provide more infrastructures for these schools, such as, multimedia, speech classrooms and so on. On the other hand, education institution should encourage college graduates to develop in counties and promote their living conditions, making the structure of teaching more reasonable.

VI. CONCLUSION

In middle schools, oral English teaching is an important part in the whole process of the English teaching and is generally a developing topic for education circle. Because of the influence of several factors in oral teaching environment, for example, the English teachers' professional qualities and the students themselves, oral English teaching in rural middle school cannot always get great progress. With the development of new curriculum reform, what the rural middle school should do is an urgent task. In addition, how to deal with the problems in oral English teaching and to seek the breakthrough and innovation in spoken English teaching is a question that needs us to think seriously.

This paper investigates oral English teaching in rural middle school and gets conclusion as follows: Rural oral English teaching is mainly affected by the external teaching environment, limitation of the traditional mode and professional quality of English teachers. In view of the existing problems, the author lists the related English teaching strategies and suggestions in this paper. Through the analysis of the survey results, this paper puts forward to the feasible solutions. On the one hand, the most fundamental way is to resolve teachers' own development in rural and to improve their teaching qualities. On the other hand, the improvement of oral English teaching in rural middle schools also needs support of manpower and material from the government and the department of education. With the support of the government and the society, the communication between urban and rural schools will increase, and gradually, the oral English teaching in rural places will become better and better.

APPENDIX I

The Listening Test of the First Term Exam in Zhaocheng Middle School

A. Listen and choose what you hear.

- () 1. A raining B watching C playing
- () 2. A Toronto B Moscow C Cairo
- () 3. A weather B windy C wearing
- () 4. A I'm thing B I'm drinking C I'm looking
- () 5. A between B behind C before

B. Listen to dialogues and write down the right answers.

- () 1. What day is it today?
A Friday B Saturday C Sunday
- () 2. Where is the pay phone?
A It's next to the library B It's next to the supermarket.
C It's across from the supermarket.
- () 3. What's Jim doing?
A He's reading B He's watching TV. C He's playing computer game.
- () 4. What does Bill want to be in the future?
A teacher B An actor C A driver
- () 5. Where are they talking?
A In the library B on the street
C across from the school D Listen and choose
- () 6. What does John do?
A He is a teacher B He's a cook. C He is a worker.
- () 7. What does he speak?

- A Chinese B English C A and B
- () 8. How does he think about his work?
A It's exciting B It's interesting. C It's delicious.
- () 9. Does he like people to eat his food?
A Yes, he does B No, he doesn't C Sorry, we don't know.
- () 10. How do you think of his food?
A It's delicious B It's interesting C It's cold.
- C. Listen and repeat
- apple banana orange grape lemon mango
dog pig rat snake cat bird
- Good morning everyone, my name is Jiming.
I often go to school on foot.
My favorite subject is English, and you?
I want to be a great teacher in the future.

APPENDIX II

The questionnaire for teachers

1. What do you think of your ability of the spoken English?
A great B so-so C bad
2. Do you speak English in your class?
A always B sometimes C hardly
3. Do you exercise your spoken English?
A always B sometimes C hardly
4. Do you think it is important to learn spoken English?
A yes B so-so C no
5. Do you encourage your students to exercise spoken English?
A always B sometimes C hardly
6. Is there any part about listening and speaking in your English class?
A always B sometimes C hardly
7. What do you think the purpose of learning English?
A make good grades B communicate in English C broaden horizons
8. Do you think which one is more important? Grammar or oral?
A grammar B oral C both
9. Do you think the spoken English is helpful to the study of English?
A yes B a little C no
10. Will you hold English speech contest regularly?
A yes B sometimes C no

APPENDIX III

The questionnaire for students

1. Do you usually speak English?
A yes B sometimes C hardly
2. Do you spend much time remembering words and grammar?
A yes B sometimes C no
3. Can you communicate in English?
A yes B sometimes C no
4. What do you think oral English proficiency?
A great B so-so C bad
5. Do you enjoy your English class?
A yes B so-so C no
6. Do you usually take part in English class positively?
A yes B sometimes C no
7. Do you usually exercise listening?
A yes B sometimes C no
8. Do you usually watch English movies or cartoons?
A yes B sometimes C hardly
9. Do you exercise oral English equipped in schools?
A yes B sometimes C hardly
10. Do you usually take part in English speech contest or debate?

A yes B sometimes C hardly

APPENDIX IV

The interview for teachers

1. How do you evaluate your general situation about oral English teaching?
2. What's your attitude of Oral English Teaching
3. What do you do in oral English teaching?
4. What's your campus environment of teaching oral English?

APPENDIX V

The interview for students

1. What's your attitude of Oral English Learning?
2. What do you do in Oral English Learning?
3. What's your campus environment of learning oral English?
4. What's your favorite Oral English Learning method?

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The four-year college will be finished, and I have a happy and substantial life in Yuncheng University. Here I want to take this opportunity to thank those who give me much help in the process of writing the paper.

At First, I would like to show my gratitude to all of my teachers over these four years, but especially to my adviser Zhi Weihua, for his professional help and instructions. Without his help, I would not finish the thesis favorably. In the process of writing thesis, he gave me much help in studies and life and taught me something important. I will never forget all of those.

Secondly, I want to express my appreciation to all of teachers and students who help me to finish the questionnaires and interviews in Zhaocheng Rural and Linfen City, especially to Wang Haiyan, my middle school English teacher. She tried his best to help me contact interviewees.

Thirdly, I want to express my gratitude to all my friends here especially to classmates, for their guidance in the process of literature review and data analysis.

And finally, I want to thank my parents for their supporting and kindness. There are too many people I should express my gratitude and I will never forget them. I will keep my passion for studies and make much progress in the future.

REFERENCES

- [1] Alexander, L.G. (1996). An Attempted Murder. *English Language Learning*, (6):92-93.
- [2] Cheng, R.R. (2012). A Study on the Present Situation and Countermeasures of Oral English Teaching in Rural Primary and Middle Schools. Chongqing Normal University.
- [3] Gao, H.H. (2006). How to Develop Oral English Teaching for College Students. *Audio-visual Foreign Language Teaching*, (76):3-6.
- [4] Gillian Brown. (2001). The Future of English. *English Language Learning*, 2001(01):29-30.
- [5] Hu, Q.H. (2012). The Exploration of Oral English Teaching in Rural Middle School. *Academic Research*, (5):40-42.
- [6] Huang, B.W. (2011). Problems and Solutions of Spoken English in Rural Middle Schools. *Success (Education)*, (5):50-51.
- [7] Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In *J.B. Pride and J. Holmes*, (4):110-114.
- [8] Jeremy Harmer. (2000). How to Be a Good Teacher. *Basic Educational Research on Foreign Language Teaching*, (5): 46-49.
- [9] Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implication*. London: Longman.
- [10] Krashen, S. D. (1989). *Language Acquisition and Language Education*. Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd.
- [11] Liu, R.Q., & Han, B.C. (2008). Review and Reflection on English Education in Basic Education in China. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, (2):150-156.
- [12] Nunan, D. (1999). *Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- [13] Paulston, C. B. & Bruder, M. N. (1992). *Teaching English as a Second Language: Techniques and Procedures*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [14] Sun, L.F. (2008). A feasible Experiment on Improving Students' Oral Ability in Rural High Schools in Hebei Province. Huazhong Normal University.
- [15] Thomas S. Ellis. (1985). The Effects of Irradiation on the Thermal Properties of Semi-crystalline Polyamides. *Chinese Journal of Polymer Science*, (3):127-129.
- [16] Wang, L.F. (2000). *Modern Foreign Language Teaching Theory*. Shandong: Shandong University.
- [17] Wen, Q.F. (1998). Evaluation of Oral Language Teaching in Language Laboratory. *Foreign Language World*, (1):30-33.
- [18] Zhang, M.Y. (2015). Problems and Countermeasures in Oral English Teaching in Rural Middle Schools. Northeast Normal University.
- [19] Zhang, Z.Y. (2006). The Cultivation of Students' Oral Communicative Competence. *Educational and Scientific Research Forum*, (6):50-51.

Yayan Yu was born in Linfen, China in 1992. She received her bachelor's degree in English teaching from Yuncheng University, China in 2016.

She is currently an assistant in Modern College of Humanities and Sciences of Shanxi Normal University, Linfen, China. Her research interests include English teaching and linguistics.

Ms. Yu got a second prize scholarship and a prize of excellent student during the study for a master degree.

Foreignising versus Domesticating Translations of Arabic Colour-related Expressions

Amal Abdelsattar Metwally

English Department, Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—The present study attempts to focus on the translation of colour-related idioms and binomials as culture-specific expressions and questions the validity of the notions of foreignisation and domestication brought to the fore of translation studies by Venuti (1995). However, it is not intended here to question the quality of Venuti's advocacy of foreignising translation, but rather to apply the notions of foreignisation and domestication, as well as paraphrase as one mode of domestication in translating colour-related expressions. More particularly, the study examines whether it is possible to observe any form of consistency in the strategies used for the translation of such culturally-bound expressions. This is attempted under the framework of the skopos theory and Berlin/Key studies on colours (1969). The paper describes already-existing translations in order to make generalizations about translation methods. Such generalization may be taken as guidelines for the translation of culture-bound expressions in general. The present study explores the translation of 84 Arabic colour-related expressions, and reaches the conclusion that “paraphrase” is a significant strategy for translating Arabic colour-related expressions into English due to the distant cultural backgrounds and the divergent historical affiliations of the two languages.

Index Terms—colour-related expressions, idioms, binomials, Skopos theory, foreignisation, Domestication

I. INTRODUCTION

Languages may differ from one another to a great degree, but this does not mean that translation is not possible. Translation does not only involve giving the equivalent meaning in the target language (TL), rather it involves considering the values of the (TL). Some translators prefer changing the source language (SL) values and bringing them ‘closer’ for the (TL) receivers. This translation strategy is termed *domestication*. Other translators, on the other hand, prefer preserving the values of the (SL) as well as exposing them to (TL) receivers. This translation strategy is termed *foreignisation* (Domestication and Foreignization in Translation, 2011).

Idioms are linguistic clichés which use frozen expressions. *Longman Idioms Dictionary* (1998) defines the term idiom as “a sequence of words which has a different meaning as a group from the meaning it would have if you understand each word separately” (p. vii). Lewis provides another concise dictionary-like definition: an idiom, he states, is “a multi-word lexical item where the meaning of the whole is not directly related to the meanings of the individual words” (1998, p. 217). Cowie and Mackin (1975) also emphasise the multi-word nature and semantic opacity of idiom (p. viii). An idiom, they write, “is a combination of two or more words which function as a unit of meaning”. With idioms, then, we cannot look at the individual words of the expression and describe the meaning that each makes to overall meaning. Idioms are considered one form of fixed expressions. We can, for example, say *الأبيض والأحمر* /ʔalʔbjad wal ʔhmar/ (i.e. money) but never **الأحمر والأبيض* /ʔlʔhmarwalʔbjad/. According to Crystal (1988) an idiom is “a sequence of words which is semantically and often syntactically restricted, so that they function as a single unit” (p. 189). From a semantic viewpoint, the meanings of the individual words cannot be summed to produce the meaning of the idiomatic expression as a whole.

Colours have received much attention in linguistics because of their apparently universal character. All humans with normal vision can see colours and names are given in order to make reference to them. But not all cultures name all colours, and colours realization differs from language to language, culture to culture (Philip, 2006). As such, despite recent developments in the field of translation theory, idioms, especially such culture-bound expressions as colour-related idioms, still cause problems that relate to two main areas: recognising and interpreting them properly and rendering the ‘intended’ meaning into the target language (Baker, 1992, p. 68). For such culturally-bound expressions, the study proposes the adoption of the foreignisation strategy of translation along with a paraphrase of the expression or domestication depending on the idiom transparency and the possibility of rendering it to an equivalent in the (TL).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review explores the notions of foreignisation and domestication and their application to translations of Arabic colour-related expressions. “Paraphrase”, as a domestication-biased technique is explored as well to verify that it is a powerful strategy to be adopted in handling such culture-specific expressions.

Translation of Culture-bound Expressions

Many studies have been conducted on cross-cultural differences and the translation of idioms as culture-specific expressions. Su-Ju (2006), for example, discusses how to apply the functional equivalence model to English and Chinese translation. Guntathong (2006) analyses English love-related idioms, and Hongxiang (2005) investigates the translation of idioms between English and Chinese. Moreover, Colin (2006) carries out a study in which English and Swedish animal idioms were contrasted and translated.

Most significantly, many studies have been carried out on the translation of English and Arabic idioms. For example, Mahmoud (2004) examines the interlingual transfer of idioms by Arab learners of English; while Homeidi (2007) deals mainly with some of the difficulties the translator might encounter when translating some culturally bound expressions. Awwad (1990) analyses the equivalence and translatability of English and Arabic idioms; while Abu-Ssaydeh (2004) focuses on the translation of English idioms into Arabic. Abdullah and Jackson (1998) investigate what types of Syrian Arabic idioms are most likely to be transferred while learning a second language. Zughoul and Hussein (2001) examine Arabic-speaking learners' ability to provide translations of idiomatic expressions and collocations. Moreover, Al-Hasnawi et al. (2007) investigates the 'untranslatability' of some Arabic metaphors into English and finds that most metaphors are shaped by the socio-cultural beliefs and attitudes of a specific culture.

In the light of the aforementioned review, culture-bound expressions and translation strategies can be conceptualised as follows: culture bound expressions are unique to a language and cannot be understood simply from the meaning of their individual words and they require an adequate cultural awareness of the (SL) and the (TL) (Badawi, 2008). In this study, cultural expressions are limited to Arabic colour-related idioms.

Colour-related Idioms

Because of its thorough scope, Berlin/Kay's (1969) survey of colour terms provides a platform for most linguistic and translation research involving colours. The aim of studying them is to identify the basic colour terms for each of the languages studied, and the order in which these come into use, with a view to identify a mechanism towards the acquisition of colour terms in languages as a whole (Berlin/Kay 1969, p. 5ff).

When dealing with colour-related idioms, the notion of literal meaning is very problematic, as the only true literal meaning of a colour-related expression is found in its popular capacity; the sun is *yellow*, the sky is *blue* or *grey*, blood is *red*. When used in this way, colour terms carry no meaning other than the representation of hue. Instead of *literal*, it is helpful to speak of colour as having *prototypical* meaning (Philip, 2006, p. 1). One way of identifying the range of shades to which the prototypical colour can be extended is to study structures in which a real-world object is compared to a colour. For example, the English idiomatic expression *whiter than white* شديداً النقاء /*adiidul-naqaaʔ* refers specifically to moral purity through the connotative values of 'white' in religion. Semi-opaque expressions require more effort in order to access the meaning: *whiter than an alpine meadow in December* أشد بيضاء من مروج جبال الألب الخضراء في ديسمبر /*adu-bajaḍan-min-murudʒi-dʒibalu-ʔiʔbi ʔlxadraʔ-fi disambir/* requires a degree of semantic elaboration before the oblique references to *snow* is identified, i.e. that a mountain region in mid-winter is assumed to be covered with snow and therefore white (Philip, 2006).

Colour-related Binomials

Binomials are defined as a term to refer to conjoined pairs that are unrestricted to certain word classes. However, they occur in fixed 'frozen' order as idiomatic expressions (Moon 1998 as cited in Malkiel 1959; Makkai 1972). In fact, some binomials are not irreversible but still demonstrate clear tendencies for preferred ordering. For example, in Arabic the binomial expression أسود وأبيض /*ʔbjaḍ-wa-ʔswad/* (i.e. white and black) is preferred to أبيض وأسود /*ʔswad wa-ʔbjaḍ/* (i.e. black and white), and vice versa in English.

Like idioms, translating binomials could be problematic. The Arabic binomial الموت الأحمر /*lmawtu-ʔiʔḥmar/* is usually used to refer to patience in confronting life's hardships. Instead of translating it into *Red death*, paraphrase could be adopted to get, for example, the English rendering '*patience in hardships*'. Actually, the choice of this translation is due to the fact that *Red death* is differently used in the English culture. In English, *Red death* comes from "The Masque of the Red Death", originally published as "The Mask of the Red Death" (1842), a short story by Edgar Allan Poe. In this story, *Red death* is used as a symbol of the inevitability of death. However, it is not the meaning intended in the Arabic expression الموت الأحمر /*lmawtu-ʔiʔḥmar/*.

The Relationship between Translation and Culture

Languages do not operate in isolation; they are linguistic reorientations of cultures. Hence, translation adopts a significant role in bringing cultures closer through the appropriate rendering of (SL) into the (TL). In essence, translation has often been thought of as a source of cultural renaissance. This view is explained by Delille:

I have always thought of translation as a way to enrich a language. If you write an original work in a particular language you are likely to exhaust that language's own resources, if I may say so. If you translate, you import the riches contained in foreign languages into your own, by means of felicitous commerce (as cited in Lefevere, 1992, p. 37).

Such kinds of views support the idea that translation has the potential to promote intercultural communication. Translating into a (TL) in a meaningful sense requires understanding the cultural context of that target language. According to Nida (1964), "differences between cultures may cause more serious problems for the translator than do differences in language structure" (p. 130). As such, both language and culture should be highly considered in the act of translation especially in the process of translating culturally-bound expressions.

Translation of culture-bound expressions

According to Newmark (1988), multi-word expressions as idioms are some of the most challenging translation difficulties (p. 104). Translating idioms is difficult, since idioms are frozen chunks of words whose overall meaning differ from the meanings of the words involved. Cultural expressions are a crucial translation problem, especially when translating between two distinct languages that are spoken by two distant nations (Balfaqeeh, 2009).

Reviewing literature pertinent to translation reveals that the difficulty of translating cultural aspects has led to 'culture marginalisation' during the 1960s and 1970s. It has been long taken for granted that translation deals only with linguistic aspects. However, cultural elements have never been brought into discussion. For Nida and Taber (1969) the process of translation consists of reproducing the closest equivalent of the (SL).

Foreignisation versus Domestication

One of the main notions on which the present study is based is Venuti's notion of the translator's invisibility. The terms 'foreignisation' and 'domestication' have been coined by Venuti (1995) as a means of providing a classification of translation strategies. Venuti (1995) indicates that translation strategies "involve the basic tasks of choosing the foreign text to be translated and developing a method to translate it" (p. 240). He employs the concepts of domesticating and foreignising to refer to translation strategies (1998, p. 67). To Venuti, domestication, or translator invisibility, consists in translating in a clear and intelligible way which erases the foreignness of the source text in order to meet the needs and values of the target culture (Ramiere, 2006). Similarly, paraphrase, as a domestication-biased technique tends to restate the meaning in a clearer form in order to smoothly transfer the embedded message from the (SL) to the (TL). By adopting 'paraphrase', a translator is free from abiding by the grammatical structures of the (SL). As such, a translator can produce more accurate renderings owing to the freedom given to him/ her from being committed to certain idiomatic structures.

The Skopos Theory

In the process of translation, an appropriate strategy should be mainly determined by *the skopos*, or purpose of the translation. If a translation is intended to widen the target addressees' visions and to introduce the source culture to the target audience, the translator may choose to adopt the foreignisation strategy in rendering the equivalent meaning. On the other hand, if the skopos is to provide a clear-cut translation for common readers, the domesticating method may be adopted (Zhao, 2008). In other words, the end justifies the means.

It follows that a gap in the literature that this paper is intended to fill is how to translate such culturally-bound expressions as colour-related idioms and binomials.

III. METHODOLOGY

The study relies on Venuti's (1995) distinction between foreignisation (SL-oriented translation) and domestication (TL-oriented translation) towards translating colour-related expressions. The former is a parallel word-for-word translation that aims at rendering the form of the (SL) into the (TL) and the latter is a 'facilitated' translation that aims at conveying the meaning of the (SL) rather than the form. "Paraphrase" is presented as a powerful tool that is used in translating such culturally-bound expressions to the effect of creating a liberal, approximate translation of the (SL).

To address the gap in the literature (i.e. how to translate such culturally-bound expressions as colour-related idioms and binomials), the present paper employs the two modes of translation distinguished by Venuti (1995); foreignisation and domestication. Moreover, paraphrase is explored as a successful TL-biased technique. To this effect, the theoretical framework makes use of the skopos theory, which incorporates strategies ranging from the most literal (i.e. foreignising) to the freest (i.e. domesticating and particularly paraphrasing).

Employing the Skopos Theory

According to the functional approaches to translation, there are three vital rules in the skopos theory, namely, the *skopos rule*, *coherence rule* and *loyalty rule*. In the functionalist theory of translation, the best rule for any translation is the "skopos rule", which says that a translational action is determined by its Skopos. Skopos rule is to translate in a way which helps the translation to function in an appropriate way for the people who will use it (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984). The translator is the one who will determine as for which particular skopos (i.e. purpose) should be the one to carry out in a translation process.

The *coherence rule* implies that the translated text should make sense in the communicative situation in which it is delivered (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984, p. 113). Therefore, the translator should consider the target culture and apply any needed changes in order to make the translation comprehensible.

The third principle of the skopos theory is *loyalty principle*. It refers to the responsibility the translator has toward the source text, target audience and other agents in the translational environment. This principle demands the translator to be loyal to the source text writer and the target readers, but this does not mean that the translator has always to follow (TL) receivers' expectations (Nord, 2001, p. 125).

Under the framework of skopos theory, foreignisation and domestication may not contradict with each other. Since any translation generally involves various purposes, different strategies have to be taken in order to achieve each of them. The two strategies can be combined by adopting *paraphrase*; a domestication-biased technique. It is to render the meaning of the expression clearly and intelligibly in the target language.

The corpus data consists of a list of 84 Arabic colour-related expressions collected mainly from *Almawrid English Dictionary*, *Hans Wehr's, A Dictionary of Modern Written Arabic*, and the Arabic lexicon *Almujam Alwaseet*.

Foreignisation (SL-oriented translation):

The term foreignisation (*SL-oriented translation*) can be translated into (إضفاء الطابع الأجنبي). This strategy, which translates an idiom by the nearest equivalent idiom in the target language, works in two modes: a mode in which there happens to be a (TL) replica of a (SL) idiom and a mode in which the (SL) idiom is translated literally without being unintelligible. Occasionally, one might encounter an Arabic idiom that is a replica of an English idiom. Arabic and English have the idiom *white lie* أكذوبة بيضاء /ʔuk ʔubah-bajidaaʔ/ (lit. a lie told to be polite or to stop someone from being upset by telling him the truth). The effect of this strategy, when applicable, is to preserve the impact of the (SL) idiom since the translation maintains the lexical constituents, the semantic content and most importantly the effect of the source text (Abu-Ssaydeh, 2004) (See Table 1.1)

TABLE 1.1
COLOUR-RELATED IDIOMS OF ARABIC ORIGIN THAT ARE FOREIGNISED:

1. أكذوبة بيضاء /ʔuk ʔubah-bajidaaʔ/ is translated into <i>white lie</i> .
2. الصليب الأحمر /ʔssalib-ʔlʔhmar/ is translated into <i>the Red Cross</i> .
3. الحمراء /ʔlʔhamraaʔ/ is translated into <i>Alhambra</i> (the Citadel of Granada).
4. الحمى الصفراوية /ʔlʔhummaḥ-ʔssaḥraawijjah/ is translated into <i>yellow fever</i> .
5. أسود فاحم /ʔswad-fahim/ is translated into <i>coal-black, jet black</i> .
6. شاب أخضر /ʔab-ʔxdar/ is translated into <i>green</i> (informal: inexperienced)
7. الأصفران /ʔlʔsfaraan/ is used to refer to (الذهب والزعفران) and is translated into ' <i>the two yellow ones</i> ': <i>Gold and Saffron</i> .
8. الأحمران /ʔlʔhmaraan/ <i>the two red ones</i> is translated into ' <i>gold and saffron</i> ', ' <i>meat and wine</i> ', or ' <i>bread and meat</i> '.
9. اصفر الزرع /ʔisfara-ʔzzarʔu/ is used to refer to the withering process of plants, and is translated into <i>turned into yellow</i> .
10. ارتدى البيضاء /ʔirtadah-ʔlbajaaḍ/ translated into <i>to dress in white</i> .
11. البيض /ʔlbjiid/ is translated into <i>the white race</i> .
12. الأبيضان /ʔlʔbjaḍaan/ is used to refer to اللبن والماء and so that it is translated into ' <i>the two white ones: milk and water</i> '.
13. الأسودان /ʔlʔswadaan/ is translated into ' <i>the two black ones</i> ' to refer to <i>date and water, water and milk, or the serpent and the scorpion</i> '.

Domestication (TL-oriented translation):

Although idioms are thought of as being bound to cultures, many idioms have equivalents across many different languages. However, cultural differences and the various historical backgrounds make the number of Arabic idioms that are of complete equivalence to English idioms very limited. In many cases, the semantic content is the same but the linguistic realization is totally different. In such types of idiomatic expressions, domestication can provide an appropriate translation (Abu-Ssaydeh, 2004).

The term domestication (*TL-oriented translation*) can be translated into (التوطين (إضفاء الطابع المحلي). Like foreignisation, the domestication strategy works in two modes: a mode in which there is an equivalent idiom in the TL and a mode which provides a paraphrase of the expression. For example, when the English idiom *Purple Heart* (i.e. American medal given to soldiers who have been injured in war) is translated into Arabic using the foreignisation strategy it will produce القلب الأرجواني /ʔlqalbu-ʔlʔurdzuwanii/, which will be unintelligible to the Arabic-speaking receiver. In its first model, the domestication strategy will, however, produce وسام جرحى الحرب /wisam-dʒarḥa-ʔlḥarb/, which is more appropriate. In such cases an English idiom can be translated by applying the domestication strategy, i.e. finding an idiom in the (TL) which is semantically equivalent to the English idiom (Abu-Ssaydeh, 2004) (See Table 1.2)

TABLE. 1.2
COLOUR-RELATED IDIOMS OF ARABIC ORIGIN THAT ARE DOMESTICATED:

1. سود وجهه /sawwada-wadʒhahu/ is translated into <i>to disgrace</i> .
2. سواد العراق /sawad-ʔlʔiraq/ is translated into <i>the rural area of Iraq</i> .
3. سواد العين /sawad-ʔlʔjin/ is translated into <i>eyeball</i> .
4. سواد المدينة /sawad-ʔlmadiinah/ is translated into <i>suburb or outskirts of the city</i> .
5. بيض الله وجهه /bajjaada-ʔallahu-wadʒhahu/ is translated into <i>May God make him happy</i> .
6. بياض النهار /bajaaḍ-ʔnahaar/ is translated into <i>during day time</i> .
7. بياض ليله وسواد ليله /jawmuhuu-wasawadu-lajlihi-bajaaḍh/ is translated into <i>by day and by night</i> .
8. بياض الوجه /bajaaḍul-wadʒh/ is translated into <i>good reputation</i> .
9. أرض بيضاء /ʔrd-bajidaaʔ/ is translated into <i>barren, uncultivated land</i> .
10. الذهب الأبيض /ʔl ɖahabul-ʔbjaḍ/ is translated into <i>platinum</i> .
11. بالسلاح الأبيض /bissilahi-ʔlʔbjaḍ/ is translated into <i>with cold steel</i> .
12. بياض البشرة /bajaaḍul-baʔrah/ is translated into <i>fair complexion</i> .
13. الليالي البيضاء /ʔllajali-ʔlbjiiḍ/ is translated into <i>moonlight nights</i> .
14. زرقت عينه نحو /zaruqat-ʔajnuhu-nahwa/ is translated into <i>to stare at</i> .
15. أتى على الأخضر واليابس /ʔta-ʔala-ʔlʔxḍar-wal-jabis/ is translated into <i>(wreak havoc), to destroy everything</i> .
16. الخضراء /ʔlxaḍraaʔ/ is translated into <i>'the Verdant'; the sky</i> .
17. الخضيراء /ʔlxuḍajraaʔ/ is translated into <i>Paradise</i> .
18. مخضرة /muxḍarraḥ/ is translated into <i>verdant land</i> .
19. حميرة /humajrah/ is translated into <i>Red star</i> .
20. الأسود والأحمر /ʔlʔswad-wal-ʔhmar/ is translated into <i>all mankind</i> .
21. اصفر وجهه /ʔiʔsfaarah-wadʒhahu/ is translated into <i>to become pale or turned white</i> .
21. صفرة /ʔufraḥ/ is translated into <i>paleness (of the face)</i> .
22. ضحكة صفراء /ḍaḥikah-ʔsfaaraʔ/ is translated into <i>forced laugh</i> .
23. نحاس أصفر /niḥas-ʔʔsfaʔ/ is translated into <i>brass</i> .
24. صفراء /ʔsfaaraʔ/ is translated into <i>bile</i> .
25. ضحكة صفراوية /ḍaḥikah-ʔsfaʔrawijjah/ is translated into <i>bitter laugh</i> .
26. الحبة السوداء /ʔlḥabbah-ʔlʔsawdaaʔ/ which is used to describe حبة البركة /ḥabatul-barakah/ is translated into <i>black cumin</i> .
27. فلان أخضر /fulan-ʔxḍar/ (كثير الخير) is translated into <i>beneficent person</i> .
28. خضاره /xuḍarraḥ/ is used to refer to the 'greenness of sea water', thus it is translated into <i>the sea</i> .
29. الذهب الأصفر /ʔl ɖahabu-ʔlʔʔsfaʔ/ is translated into <i>Gold</i> .
30. بنو الأصفر /banul-ʔʔsfaʔ/ is used to refer to <i>the East Asian race</i> and it could be translated into <i>yellow race</i> .

Paraphrase (domestication-biased strategy)

The second mode of domestication, “paraphrase”, is defined by Baker (1992) as “expressing the meaning of an item in other words because no match can be found in the (TL) or because of differences in stylistic preferences of the (SL) and (TL)” (p. 71-78). This is by far the most common way of translating idioms when a match cannot be found in the target language or when it seems inappropriate to use idiomatic language in the target text because of differences in stylistic preferences of the source and the target languages (Baker, 1992, p. 74-75).

Among the advantages of this method is producing more accurate renderings due to the freedom allowed to the translator from being committed to idiomatic structures. Thus, whenever the two cultures and the languages in question are very different, paraphrasing tends to be the most acceptable strategy (Abu-Ssaydeh, 2004, p. 6) (See Table 1.3).

TABLE 1.3

COLOUR-RELATED IDIOMS OF ARABIC ORIGIN THAT ARE TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH USING THE PARAPHRASE STRATEGY:

1. سواد الليل /sawadu-?lajil/ is translated into <i>long dark night</i> .
2. شتائم سوداء /ataa?im-sawdaa?/ is translated into <i>severest reproaches</i> .
3. سويداء القلب /suwajdaa?u-?lqalbi/ is translated into <i>the deepest folds of the heart</i> .
4. سوداوي /sawdawii/ is translated into <i>depressed or melancholic</i> .
5. بيض وجهه /bajjaada-wadzhahuu/ is translated into <i>to honour</i> .
6. لا يبيض من صحيفته /la-jubajjid-min-?ahifatahu/ is translated into <i>this doesn't show him in a favourable light</i> .
7. بياض العين /bajaaðu-?l?ajin/ is translated into <i>the white of the eye</i> .
8. على بياض /?ala-bajaaðu/ is translated into <i>blank or free from writing</i> .
9. ثورة بيضاء /?awrah-bajdaa?/ is translated into <i>peaceful, bloodless revolution</i> .
10. الخيط الأبيض /?lxaqitu-?labjaaðu/ is translated into <i>first light of dawn</i> .
11. صحيفته بيضاء /?ahifatahu-bajdaa?/ is translated into <i>of good reputation</i> .
12. صحف بيضاء /?uhuf-bajdaa?/ is translated into <i>glorious deeds</i> .
13. ليلة بيضاء /?ajlah-bajdaa?/ is translated into <i>a sleepless night</i> .
14. يد بيضاء /?adun-bajdaa?/ is translated into <i>beneficent hand</i> .
15. بيض البلد /bajd-?lbalad/ is translated into <i>the main part</i> .
16. بيض الحضر /bajd-?lxiðr/ is translated into <i>a chaste, respectable woman</i> .
17. بيض الديك /bajd-?ldiik/ is translated into <i>an impossible extraordinary thing</i> .
18. بيض الإسلام /bajd-?l?islam/ is translated into <i>the territory of Islam</i> .
19. بيض الصيف /bajd-?l?ajif/ is translated into <i>the hottest part of the summer</i> .
20. في بيض النهار /fi-bajd-?lnahaar/ is translated into <i>in broad daylight</i> .
21. الأيام البيضاء /?l?jaam-?lbajdaa?/ is translated into <i>happy days</i> .
22. الموت الأبيض /?lmawtu-?l?bjaaðu/ is translated into <i>natural death</i> .
23. الموت الأزرق /?lmawtu-?l?zraqh/ is translated into <i>sudden death</i> .
24. الموت الأحمر /?lmawtu-?l?hmar/ is translated into <i>violent death</i> .
25. خضر الأرض /xadðara-?l?rd/ is translated into <i>to sow the land</i> .
26. الزرقاء /?lzarqaa?/ is translated into <i>the blue sky</i> .
27. أسود الكيد /?swad-?lkabid/ is translated into <i>real enemy</i> .
28. عدو أزرق /?adwwun-?zraqh/ is translated into <i>real enemy</i> .
29. سواد من القلب /sawadun-mina-?lqalb/ is translated into <i>the inner most of the heart</i> .
30. سواد من العين /sawadun-mina-?l?ajin/ is translated into <i>'the iris': the pupil of the eye</i> .
31. سواد من البطن /sawadun-mina-?lbatn/ is translated into <i>the liver</i> .
32. سواد من النخل والشجر والنبات /sawadun-mina-?lnaxli-wal?adðari-walnabat/ is translated into <i>a cluster of trees, palm trees or plants</i> by adopting paraphrase. It is so called in Arabic because the deep green colour of plants is near to black.
33. لا يفارق سوادي سواده /lah-jufariq-sawadji-sawaduh/ and لا يزال سوادي بياضك /lah-juzajil-sawadji-bajaaðuðuk/ are both used to describe a strong relationship and are paraphrased into <i>deeply attached to each other</i> .
34. السواد /?lswad/ could be used to refer to اللباس الرسمي /?l?libas-?lrasmi/. For example, يُقال جاء الوزير وعليه سواده. This is translated into <i>formally dressed</i> .
35. ابضت العين /?ibjadt-?l?ajin/ means فقدت الإبصار /faqqat-?l?ibðar/ and is translated into <i>loss of eyesight</i> .
36. الأبيض /?l?bjaaðu/ (المتصف بالبياض والفضة والسياف) is translated into <i>of fair complexion, silver or the sword</i> according to the context.
37. الحجّة البيضاء /?lhudðah-?lbajdaa?/ is translated into <i>clear evidence</i> .
38. ما رأيته مذ ابضان /ma-ra?tahu-mu ð-?bjaaðuam/ (مذ يومان أو شهران) is translated into <i>I have not seen him for two days or two months</i> .
39. ماء أزرق /maa?un-?azraq/ and ماء أخضر /maa?un-?xðar/ means شديد الصفاء /?adiidul-?safaa?/ and is paraphrased into <i>pure water</i> .
40. الأمر بيننا أخضر /?l?mru-bajnanah-?xðar/ (جديد) /dðadiid/ is translated into <i>in a new relationship</i> .
41. الغنم سود البطون /?l?anam-swuuðu-?lbu?wuun/ is translated into <i>weak and skinny sheep</i> .

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The above analysis thus shows that such complex and culture-specific multi-word units as colour-related idioms and binomials can be translated through a variety of strategies, depending on the idiom itself, its cultural background and the relationship between the (SL) and the (TL). Long debates have been held to discuss when to paraphrase, when to use the nearest local equivalent by adopting domestication and when to translate literally by adopting foreignisation. However, the above analysis has shown that along with foreignisation and domestication, culture-bound expressions as colour-related idioms are smoothly translatable by adopting "Paraphrase". The translator is allowed to stand in a middle- position between foreignisation and domestication by applying paraphrase.

The results of this data analysis show that:

1. *Thirteen* Arabic colour-related expressions of the total corpus of *eighty four* expressions have been translated into English by using foreignisation as in the translation of أسود فاحم /?swad-faðim/ into 'coal black' or 'jet black', and /?l?hmaraan/, into 'gold and saffron', 'meat and wine', or 'bread and meat'. By applying this strategy, a (SL) idiom is replaced by a (TL) idiom or replica that serves the same purpose in the target language culture.

2. *Thirty* Arabic colour-related expressions have been translated by adopting the domestication strategy as in translating ضحكة صفراء /ðahikah-?safraa?/ into 'forced laugh' and أتى على الأخضر واليابس /?ta-?ala-?l?xðar-wal-jabis/ into 'wreak havoc'.

3. *Forty one* Arabic colour-related expression have been translated by adopting the paraphrase approach as in translating الموت الأبيض /?lmawtu-?l?bjaaðu/ into 'natural death', and سويداء القلب /suwajdaa?u-?lqalbi/ into 'the deepest fold of the heart'.

Based on the above findings, the field of translation studies should not be rent by dichotomies of the nature of domestication and foreignisation. Foreignisation and domestication along with paraphrase complement each other. However, these strategies of translation cannot always be used interchangeably.

V. CONCLUSION

The difficulty of translating culturally-bound expression as colour-related idioms and binomials lies in the fact that they can be quite different across cultures and languages. This study has explored the translation of a number of Arabic colour-related idioms within the overall context of Venuti's domestication and foreignisation dichotomy. It is a practical attempt to demonstrate that different modes of translation complement each other. "Paraphrase" as a mode of *domestication* is a powerful strategy in translating Arabic colour-related expressions that can be applied when no equivalent is found in the (TL) because of cultural divergences. Colours, as culture-bound terms were used to verify that different translation strategies should be adopted in the process of translating between two distinct cultures. It can be inferred from this study that domestication strategies, including paraphrasing and translation using equivalents, were more favourably practice than foreignisation which results sometimes in literal translation. Some of the foreignised translation choices of colour-related idioms in the corpus data were accompanied with explanations. In other words, if an expression does not have a replica in the (TL), or direct equivalents for idioms as cultural expressions are not available, paraphrasing would be sufficient and acceptable to the target audience.

REFERENCES

- [1] Abdullah, K., & Jackson, H. (1998). Idioms and the language learner: Contrasting English and Syrian Arabic Languages in contrast, vol. 1, 83-107. Retrieved August 13, 2010, from: <[http://www. cat.inist.fr/? A aModele= afficheN &cpsidt =1554850/](http://www.cat.inist.fr/?AaModele=afficheN&cpsidt=1554850)>.
- [2] Abu-Ssaydeh, A. (2004). Translation of English idioms into Arabic. Retrieved August 15, 2010, from: <http://www.benjamins.com/cgi-bin/t_articles.cgi?bookid=Babel50:2&artid=237052692>.
- [3] Al-Hasnawi, R., Mohammada, Q., & Mohammed, N. (2007). Cogno-Cultural Issues in Translating Metaphors, Jordan University of Science and Technology. Retrieved July 21, 2010 from: <<http://www.informaworld.com/smpp/title~content=t794297831>>.
- [4] Al-Mawrid English Dictionary, R Baalbaki - Beirut (Lebanon): Dar El-Ilm Lil-Malayin, (1990).
- [5] Almuja Alwaseet [Alwaseet Lexicon] (1972). Publisher: Majmaa Allugha AlArabiya, third edition. Egypt: Cairo.
- [6] Awwad, M. (1990). Equivalence and translatability of English and Arabic idioms, Yarmouk University, Irbid. Retrieved February 18, 2011 from:<[http:// www.lib.umich.edu/area/Near.East/ALSLING .html - 374k](http://www.lib.umich.edu/area/Near.East/ALSLING.html-374k)>
- [7] Badawi, M. (2008). Investigating EFL Prospective Teachers' Ability to Translate Culture-Bound Expressions (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Tabuk, KSA). Retrieved on September 15, 2018 from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED503396.pdf>
- [8] Baker, M. (1992). In Other Words. London and New York: Routledge.
- [9] Balfaqeeh, N. (2009). Strategies for Translating Idioms and Culturally-bound Expressions within The Human Development Genre, MA thesis, The University of Birmingham.
- [10] Berlin, B. & Kay, P. (1969). Basic Colour Terms: Their Universality and Evolution. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- [11] Colin, N. (2006). The Translation of English and Swedish Animal Idioms. Karlstad University, Division for Culture and Communication.
- [12] Cowie, A. & Mackin, R. (1975). Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English, Vol. 1, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [13] Crystal, D. (1988). The English language, Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- [14] Domestication and Foreignization in Translation. (2011). Retrieved on September 27, 2018 from <https://www.studymode.com/essays/Domestication-And-Foreignization-In-Translation-676278.html>.
- [15] Guntathong, W. (2006). An Analysis of English Love Idioms and their Translation into Thai. A term paper presented to the faculty of Liberal Arts Retrieved February 21, 2011 from: <[http://www.rsu.ac.th/libarts/new/ English/ Program%20IS/ 141-160/00141.pdf](http://www.rsu.ac.th/libarts/new/English/Program%20IS/141-160/00141.pdf)>.
- [16] Hans Wehr's. (1976). A Dictionary of Modern Written Arabic. London: Harrap [etc.].
- [17] Homeidi, M. (2007). Arabic Translation across Cultures, John Benjamins Publishing Company. Retrieved March 16, 2011 from: <[http://www.writing.com/main/view_item/item_id/1346384- 98k](http://www.writing.com/main/view_item/item_id/1346384-98k)>.
- [18] Hongxiang, O. (2005). Culture differences and the translation of idioms between English and Chinese: MA thesis, Guizhou University for Nationalities.
- [19] Lefevere, A. (1992). Translation/ History/ Culture: a Sourcebook. New York: Routledge.
- [20] Lewis, M. (1998). Implementing the lexical approach. London: Language Teaching Publications.
- [21] Longman Idioms Dictionary. (1998). Longman, Harlow, England, ISBN.
- [22] Mahmoud, A. (2004). Interlingual Transfer of Idioms by Arab Learners of English. Sultan Qaboos University, Sultanate of Oman. Retrieved March 26, 2011 from:< [http://www.teslj.org/Articles/Mahmoud -Idioms.html - 18k/](http://www.teslj.org/Articles/Mahmoud-Idioms.html-18k/)>.
- [23] Malkiel, Y. (1959). "Studies in Irreversible Binominals". *Lingua* (8): 113-160.
- [24] Newmark, P. (1988). A textbook of Translation, New York: Prentice- Hall.
- [25] Nida, A. & Taber, C. (1969). The Theory and Practice of Translation, Leiden, Brill.
- [26] Nida, E. (1964). Toward a Science of Translating - Leiden; ej *Brill*.
- [27] Nord, C. (2001). Translation as a Purposeful Activity: Functionalist Approaches Explained. Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press. China: Shanghai.
- [28] Ordudari, M. (2007). Translation procedures, strategies and methods, *Translation Journal*, (11), 3-4.
- [29] Philip, G. (2006). Connotative Meaning in English and Italian Colour-Word Metaphors. *Metaphorik* (10), 59-61.

- [30] Ramiere, N. (2006). Reaching a Foreign Audience: Cultural Transfers in Audiovisual Translation. *Retrieved August 20, 2010 from: http://www.jostrans.or/issue06/art_ramiere.pdf.*
- [31] Reiss, K. & Vermeer, H. (1984). *Groundwork for a General Theory of Translation*. Tübingen: Niemeyer. Retrieved March 13, 2011 from: <http://books.google.com/books?id=qD9dKScSOhEC&printsec=frontcover&dq=culture+and+translation#v=onepage&q=&f=false>.
- [32] Su-Ju, L. (2006). On How to Achieve Functional Equivalence in Translation between Chinese and English. Retrieved October 27, 2011 from: <http://www.linguist.org.cn/doc/su200612/su20061215.pdf/>.
- [33] Venuti, L. (1995). *The Translator's Invisibility: A History of Translation*. London and New York: Routledge.
- [34] Venuti, L. (1998). *The Scandals of Translation: Towards an Ethics of Difference*. London and New York: Routledge.
- [35] Zhao, N. (2008). *Domestication and Foreignisation*, School of Interpretation and Translation, Shandong University, Weihai, Shandong.
- [36] Zughoul, M. & Abdul-Fattah, H. (2001). Collocational Competence of Arabic Speaking Learners of English: A Study in Lexical Semantics. Retrieved April 23, 2011 from: <http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=ED479650-29k/>.

Amal A. Metwally is a lecturer of linguistics and translation at faculty of languages and translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia. Her main area of interest is translation and culture, technology in foreign language instruction and computational linguistics. She got her MA in translation and she is currently a PhD researcher. She is affiliated to King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia. She is a certified TOFEL and IELTS Trainer. She is also a member of KSAALT TESOL (Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Association of English Language Teachers).

Supernatural Elements in Shakespeare's Plays

Liwei Zhu
Tianjin Polytechnic University, China

Abstract—This paper analyzes the supernatural elements of Shakespeare's plays from several aspects. It first introduces the historical background of Shakespeare's writing career. Then, it analyzes supernatural elements in three of his great plays and introduces how the supernatural elements are represented on stage in old Elizabethan period and in modern times. Last, it provides the modern implications to the 21st century viewers of Shakespeare's plays.

Index Terms—the supernatural elements, ghosts, Elizabethan period

I. INTRODUCTION

Modern humans find it difficult to believe in ghosts, witches or other supernatural beings. They couldn't understand why people in the Elizabethan period can be so serious about these things. People's intense fear towards the supernatural elements is probably due to the lack of physical knowledge about world they were living in. Shakespeare introduced many supernatural elements into his plays. Without looking at the reasons and motivations behind them, we wouldn't be able to detect the plays' underlied meanings and implications.

Shakespeare's plays are always considered to be the greatest plays in the world literary history, not only because of the beautiful language, the complex plot construction and the modern implication of their universal themes, but also because of the breathtaking literary skills applied and mysterious elements in these plays.

The supernatural elements constitute a significant part of Shakespeare's plays, whether in the romantic comedies in the early period---*A Midsummer Night's Dream* (1596) or in the tragedies of the second period---*Hamlet* (1601), *Othello* (1606), *Mac Beth* (1606), *Romeo and Juliet* (1607) or in his later romance---*The Tempest* (1611). All of these plays contain the supernatural elements.

II. SOME HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

It is impossible to interpret Shakespeare's plays without looking at the time he lived in. In the second half of the 14th century, the cloth industry in England grew first to rival and finally to overshadow every branch of English trade and industry. The rapid growth of English textile manufacturing in the 15th century revolutionized the character of the bulk of the county's export trade. More merchants were engaged in foreign trade. Yet, when the Turks captured Constantinople in the eastern Mediterranean, the overland route was shut off. To find a sea route to the Orient became a very important goal. Thus the business relationship with other European and Asian countries provided a good opportunity for the English people to absorb their cultures and ideas. Although the economy developed at speed, there were still some mysterious things that couldn't be explained by science at that time, so people explain the weird phenomena with their rich imagination.

England of the 17th century is a country where religion holds a dominant position in people's daily life. There are Anglicans and Catholics as well as other kinds of religion. In the Elizabethan period, despite the day-by-day development of economy, most of the peasants were still under miserable condition. They had to work hard for the landowners; because of the Enclosure Movement, they had no home to live in; the food was scarce and many people starved to death. Under such severe circumstances, they tried to resort to mysterious power for relief. They believed that people would have another life after they died.

People's belief in the superstition also has some the philosophical reasons. In 16th century England, physical science was not developed enough. There appeared a group of astrologers. As W.R Elton puts it "...although controversial, beliefs in the influence of the stars upon man's life were held by a majority of Shakespeare's audience. Indeed great astronomers such as Tycho Brade (1546---1601) and Johannes Kepler (1571---1670) were practicing astrology, and the eminent physicist, William Gilbert (1540---1603), physician to Queen Elizabeth maintained astrology views. Natural astrology (useful for metrological predictions governing such matters as the influence of planets on crops) was widely credited, but different from judicial astrology. Astrologers agreed that man's fate was determined by his planetary conjunctions.....They continued to dispute whether the determining moment was that of conceptions or that of birth. (Elton, 1986, p17).

Some literary traditions at that time can also explain the supernatural elements in Shakespeare's plays. First, Shakespeare's plays then were influenced a lot by the Greek and Roman mythology as well as the Greek dramas centuries ago. Most of the gods, goddesses, and heroes in these stories have superpowers. It is not difficult to find some traces among Shakespeare's plays the inspirations he'd got from them. The Bible, which a great part of western culture

is based on, is another source of inspiration. Early English dramas can also offer some hints to the understanding of Shakespeare's plays. In the 12th century, there appeared a new kind of play, in which many supernatural elements are presented to prove God's almighty power. It is called the miracle play. The whole performances for the presentation of the episodes from the Bible became more fully developed and lengthened and were linked together to form more continuous stories. It is extremely popular in London. Gradually, miracle plays were replaced by mystery play which tells the stories in the Bible. The heroes in the New Testament and Old Testament seemed to be more attractive to the English people at that time. In France, the mystery plays were rather sharply distinguished from the miracle plays, but in England, the terms were used almost interchangeably, though strictly speaking, the former refers to dramas based directly on stories from the Bible, whereas the latter deal with the legends of the Christian saints. "The mystery or miracle plays were written in cycles, consisting of a whole series of plays covering biblical stories from the creation of world through the life and passion of Christ down to the last judgment." (Chen, 1981, p74)

Finally, Shakespeare's perspective and religious belief affects the usage of some supernatural elements in the plays. Take his religious belief for instance, as a child, Shakespeare received educations on religion. When Sunday came, all the pubs and shops fairs and markets of Stratford—upon—Avon were closed. People went to the religious service. Anyone who didn't obey the rules would be severely punished. The family of Shakespeare believed in Anglican religion, however, his father might have been a puritan. His maternal grandfather's family believed in Catholicism, so probably his mother was a Catholic. Whether his parents are pious religious followers or not there is not enough evidence. There are various sayings as to Shakespeare's own religious conviction. When Shakespeare was baptized, he was Anglican (maybe it refers to the fact that he was baptized by the ritual of Anglican). But some scholars maintain that Shakespeare obeyed the Anglican service. This is probably because of the fact that if he didn't, he would have attracted the attention of the municipal government, which always treated dramas with certain hostility. Other scholars say that he was a Catholic. No matter what kinds of religion he believed in, there is no doubt that he was very religious.

III. THE SUPERNATURAL ELEMENTS IN HIS PLAYS

In his early romantic comedy---*A Midsummer Night's Dream*, the author presents the readers a wonderland full of magic and enchantment: the beautiful scenery of the forests and the rejoiced fairies and spirits in a summer night. *Mid-Summer Night's Dream* tells a story between two Athen couples---Hermia and Lysander, Helena and Demetrius. At beginning, both Lysander and Demetrius fell in love with the same girl, Hermia. Despite Helena's intense affection for Demetrius, he refused her courting. Oberon, the king of the fairies, out of sympathy, instructed one of his fairies Puck to apply love potion on Demetrius eyelids in order for him to fall in love with the next person he saw. However, Puck's mis-application of his enchantment led to both Lysander and Demetrius falling for Helena. After a series of bizarre and hilarious situations, the enchantment was reversed and things were set right again. The supernatural elements in this play reflect the writer's optimism towards love and human morality. The little spirit---Puck, serves as a main thread in this play, by using his magic power; he brings the relations between three pairs of lovers into a series of changes. From time to time, the play arouses among the audience great astonishment and confusion as well as laughter. Because of the naughty spirit and their magical power, the plot always takes sudden turns which one would never expect and it is full of situational irony. Shakespeare in this play uses magic to embody supernatural power of love to create a surreal world. Unlike his latter tragedies, the supernatural figures are benign characters who tried to help human being. Their meddling with human's love affair is out of good will rather than wishing them harm. Plus, the supernatural characters are more humane. The fairies bear great resemblance to humans in terms of their emotions. The bickering between the fairy king Oberon and fairy queen Titania are somewhat like the ones among human couples.

Oberon: Ill met by moonlight, proud Titania.

Titania: What! Jealous Oberon. Fairies, skip hence: I have forsworn his bed and company.

Oberon: Tarry, rash wanton! Am not I thy lord?

Titania: Then, I must be thy lady; but I know....

Oberon: How canst thou thus for shame, Titania,

Glance at my credit with Hippolyta? (Act 2, Scene 1)

Despite a series of torments and inflictions, the tension of the play is ultimately resolved which probably manifests Shakespeare's optimism toward the world and human nature. Puck is kind of protagonist in the play who is depicted as extremely lovely though a little bit mischievous. He brings a lot of laughter to the audience and is considered one of the favorite characters in Shakespeare's comedies.

Different from the first period of his plays, in his second writing period---the period of great tragedies, there is no longer merriness and laughter. The appearance of the ghost in *Hamlet* leads to the prince's revenge. The three witches' prophecy in *Macbeth* results in the murder of the king. Here, *Hamlet* is taken as an example.

The Ghost in *Hamlet* is perhaps one of the most fascinating and enigmatic characters in Shakespeare's plays. In *Hamlet*, the Ghost appeared 3 times. It made its first appearance in front of two soldiers---Bernardo and Marcellus and Hamlet's good friend Horatio who told about its existence to Hamlet. Through talking with the Ghost, Hamlet was told that the Ghost was his deceased father and was also informed about the truth of his father's death. It turned out that Hamlet's uncle--- Claudius poisoned his father, married his mother and became the king. The Ghost made its third appearance in Gertrude's closet. He rebuked Hamlet for not carrying the revenge. In this play, the Ghost is subjected to

many interpretations by the scholars. While the Ghost's first two appearances were proved by different people, the third appearance is considered by some experts merely a hallucination of Hamlet. In Act 3, Scene 4, when Hamlet came to confront his mother, he saw his father's ghost in the queen's closet who urged him to speak to his mother. Gertrude, the queen, on the other hand could neither hear the Ghost nor see him as Hamlet claimed.

Queen: *To whom did you speak this?*

Hamlet: *Do you see nothing there?*

Queen: *Nothing at all, yet all that is I see.*

Hamlet: *Nor did you nothing I hear?*

Queen: *No, nothing but ourselves.*

Hamlet: *Why, you look there! Look how it steals away!*

My father in his habit as he lived...

Queen: *This is the very coinage of your brain!*

This bodiless creation ecstasy is very cunning in. (Act 3, Scene 4)

The Ghost in the play can neither be labeled as evil nor good. When Hamlet was first told about the existence of the Ghost, he doubted his honesty and quite suspicious of his intention.

My father's spiritual arms! All is not well;

I doubt some foul play; Would the night were come!

Till then sit still, my soul: foul deeds with rise,

Though all the earth o'erwhelm them, to men's eyes (Act 1, Scene 2)

Is it what it appears to be or is it a misleading friend? The appearance of the Ghost and what he pushed Hamlet to do partly drove Hamlet mad or as some scholars explained, the Ghost is nothing but a hallucination of Hamlet. The Ghost also foreshadowed Claudio's death and Hamlet's madness. He told Hamlet that Claudius killed him by putting poison into his ears and urged him to take revenge and kill Claudius who was indeed killed by his own nephew. What's more, in his conversation with Hamlet, he warned Hamlet of the possible madness "But howsoever thou pursue this act, Taint not thy mind or let thy soul against thy mother aught" (Act 1, Scene 5). The existence of the Ghost has added a tune of sadness and sorrow in the play.

If in the first two periods, the supernatural serves as a thread to link the plot together, the supernatural elements in *The Tempest* have become the main content of the story. The play is different from all other dramas of his. It resembles *A Midsummer Night's Dream* in having a supernatural atmosphere and presence of many supernatural beings (Ariel resembling Puck) but it has a much more serious theme than that in the earlier play where we find nothing but "cross purpose in love". There is the idealized figure of Prospero---the duke-turned-philosopher-magician, plus the Utopian dreams of Gonzalo and running through all is the presence of magic employed everywhere by Prospero until he breaks the wand and dismisses Ariel towards the end of the drama. "There is not only the mixture of the comic with the tragic, the farcical (particularly in the episodes involving Stephano and Trinaldo) with what is downright serious (the plot for murder), but there is a hotchpotch of gods and goddesses, all made possible by magic." (Chen, 1981, p169) In *The Tempest*, the supernatural power lied in the hands of a human being. The protagonist---Prospero, the Duke of Milan, was obsessed with sorcery and neglected daily matters. After his brother's attempted murder of him, he escaped to an island and sought revenge twelve years later. He conjured up a big storm and caused the ship carrying his brother to wreck on the island he was living. He then separated his brother---Antonio and his fellowman to different groups, each one cutting off from their loved ones. Because of his manipulation, the situation descended into chaos. His enemies suffered the similar torments and inflictions he used to have. Prospero ask his servant Ariel---a spirit to guide his groups to him. The conflict was finally resolved through his forgiveness. Unlike *Hamlet* and *A Mid-Summer Night's Dream* whose human characters have to leave up their fate in the hands of ghost and fairies, the human being in *The Tempest* seized control of everything. Throughout the play, Prospero used magic to manipulate other characters both human and non-human. Even though Ariel is a spirit who possessed many forms of supernatural abilities, he was nothing but a slave who must carry out what Prospero needed him to accomplish, as can be seen in Act 1, Scene 2.

Prospero: *Dull thing, I say so!*

When I arrived and hear thee, that made gape

The pine and let thee out.

Ariel: *I thank thee, master.*

Prospero: *If thou more murmur'st, I will rend an oak*

And peg thee in his knotty entrails, till

Thou hast howled away twelve winers.

Ariel: *Pardon, master;*

I will be correspondent to command,

And do my spriting gently. (Act 1, Scene 2)

Shakespeare wrote this play at the end of his career. His reflection on supernatural powers and supernatural being perhaps had changed along with his perspectives toward the world. During the time he wrote his tragedies, the supernatural being are something untouchable, terrifying and beyond human's knowledge, as can be seen in Hamlet's famous soliloquy wondering about the aftermath of death. In *The Tempest*, Shakespeare showed human's capability of

mastering super power and using of it to their own ends. Shakespeare's belief in what human beings are capable of is clearly manifested in this play.

IV. THE SUPERNATURAL ELEMENTS ON STAGE IN OLD ELIZABETHAN PERIOD AND IN MODERN TIMES

Shakespeare's plays whether in modern times or in ancient times are frequently staged and televised because of their popularity.

The staging method in the Elizabethan theatre is very simple and interesting. The stages were in the center of the audience, when the actors were acting; the audience crowded the stage from the front and two sideways. So the actors were very close to the audience. The stage was about 5 or 6 feet high. The floor of the stage can be opened; the actors who played the ghost or spirits would appear and disappear through this door. When the door was open, it could also serve as a grave. It maybe seems to be too simple for the modern audience to believe, but that's how the play was acted at that time. As Russel Jackson puts it "*The Tempest* has many dreadful objects in it as several spirits in horrid shapes flying down from the sailors, then rising and crossing in the air. And when the ship is sinking, the whole house is darkened and shower of fireballs upon'em. Lightening, and several claps of thunder, to the end of the storm, accompanies this. Subsequent producers of *The Tempest* would also find the storm an irresistible challenge to the skill of the scenic artist. With the attraction of music, song and scenery, it must have been a splendid show, but it lacks the ambiguities and mystery of the original play" (Jackson, 1986, p25). With the coming of the 21st century, as the technology develops, more and more modern equipments, costumes have been applied on the stage, so what seems to be impossible to achieve in the Elizabethan period can now be easily achieved. People don't have to worry about scene of "flying witches" any more. Audience can get much more visual enjoyment than before.

V. THE MODERN IMPLICATIONS FOR THE 21ST CENTURY VIEWERS OF SHAKESPEARE'S PLAYS

As modern human beings, it's very difficult to believe in the witches or ghost in Shakespeare's plays. However, it doesn't mean people don't have tendency to believe it.

When human beings are in danger, they tend to resort to some kind of supernatural power for help. Even if a person is not a religious believer, he or she when encountering difficulty, would say, "God, please help me!" or similar appealing to the divined power. So being superstitious is reckoned to be a natural tendency for human beings. When people are traumatized, they tend to comfort themselves by saying "It's fate!" If people don't believe in the supernatural power, there wouldn't be so many expressions related to "bad luck" in almost all languages. If people don't believe in the supernatural power, astrology wouldn't be in nowadays the most popular branch of science. Many people believe "certain future events must occur regardless of our present actions or choices...for fate indifferently assign each person to the predetermined course of events." (Elton, 1986, p22)

Shakespeare implied fatalism in *Romeo and Juliet*. The main reason of this love tragedy is the feud between families, but the direct reason is still a series of accidental events. In the play, fate, as a kind of supernatural power plays a significant role. If the man who carried the letter wasn't delayed, if Juliet woke up half an hour earlier, or if Romeo arrived half an hour late, things would totally change. After finish reading or watching the play, people couldn't help feeling a great sympathy for the tragic fate of these two young lovers.

Prescience also plays an important part in the play. It is a feeling of knowing what will happen in the future. Romeo's dream is a prescience of the image of Juliet, dead in her tomb, that Romeo will see later on for real. There is a lot in the play which looks forward or foreshadows events to come; it all bounces back to the introduction, the prologue sonnet which tell us of the "star-crossed lovers".

The prologue

From forth the fatal loins of these two foes

A pair of star-cross'd lovers take their life;

Whose misadventur'd piteous overshadows

Doth with their death bury their parents' strife. (Prologue, line 6,7,8)

It is probably from here that you would begin your investigation of supernatural elements in the play. There is one thing about Mercutio's curse: Mercutio says "A plague on both your houses". This "plague" is foreshowed in the scene where Friar John was prevented from delivering the letter to Romeo because he ended up quarantined in a plague house. He did foreshow events. And those events fall into the category of fate, hinted at the initial line, "a pair of star-crossed lovers..." indeed; Romeo and Juliet are destined for a certain fate, because they are "star-crossed". But no one can predict anything, except Shakespeare.

Besides Shakespeare, two other famous writers believe in the supernatural power. Hardy is a fatalist; Emerson is a transcendentalist who believes in nature as symbolic of the spirit of God. They have a large group of followers, and their works deserves researching even today. Whether people believe in the supernatural or not, it is something very enigmatic. Plus, there is a question worth discussing that if people don't believe in ghost, why should they believe in God?

In short, metaphysical things that haven't been explained by science yet will always be appealing to human beings. That is one of the reasons why the supernatural elements in Shakespeare's plays have enduring charm and can give

some implications to modern people.

VI. CONCLUSION

Looking back the literary history in Britain, there is no other English writers who can combine the history with the supernatural elements so skillfully than William Shakespeare did. The cultural and ideological mixtures of different European countries as well as the ancient heritage from Greek and Roman dramas are the breeding ground for his plays. The ghosts, fairies and fatalism implied in his plays push the plot steadily to climax, and every turning point takes the audience and readers by surprise. The supernatural elements in his plays pose great controversy and provide a ground for debating for many literary critics for centuries. Whether modern man believes in these supernatural elements or not, Shakespeare's plays are still packing a large number of audiences into theatres today. Without the witches, the ghosts, the visions and apparitions, they might have been dull and tiresome. Even today's readers need some motivations to read, and these ancient superstitions of spirits enhance the play drastically.

REFERENCES

- [1] Elton, W.R. (2000). Shakespeare and the thought of his age. In Stanley Wells (eds.) *The Cambridge Companion to Shakespeare Studies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 17-34.
- [2] Hapgood, Robert. (2000). Shakespeare on film and television. In Stanley Wells (eds.) *The Cambridge Companion to Shakespeare Studies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 173-286.
- [3] Jackson, Russell. (2000). Shakespeare on the stage from 1600 to 1900. In Stanley Wells (eds.) *The Cambridge Companion to Shakespeare Studies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 187-212.
- [4] Shakespeare, William. (2002). A Mid-Summer Night's Dream in Liang Shiqiu (Trans) *the Four Great Comedies*. Beijing: China Radio and Television Publishing House.16-195.
- [5] Shakespeare, William. (2009). Hamlet. Guangdong: World Publishing Corp.
- [6] Shakespeare, William. (2009). Romeo and Juliet. Guangdong: World Publishing Corp.
- [7] Shakespeare, William. (2014). The Tempest. Beijing: The Commercial Press.
- [8] Wang Jianhui. (2001). A Handbook to English and American Literature. Shenyang: Liaoning People's Publishing House.
- [9] Yang Guiqing. (1996). Shakespeare: The Giant of Stratford-upon-Avon. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Education Press.
- [10] Zhang Kuiwu. (1994). Survey of Great Britain and American. Changchun: Jilin Science and Technology Press.
- [11] Zhang Shouying. (1999). A History of 20th Century Western Literature Criticism. Beijing: Beijing University Press.

Liwei Zhu was born in Jilin, China in 1981. She received her M.D. in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics in Beihua University, China in 2006. Her research interests include applied linguistics, TESOL and English literature.

The Representation of The *Tri Hita Karana* Ecosophy in The *Awig-awig* (Customary Law) Text of Tenganan Pegringsingan Village: Critical Ecolinguistics Perspective

I Gede Astawa

Denpasar Academy of Tourism, Bali, Indonesia

Made Budiarsa

Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia

I Wayan Simpen

Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia

Abstract—The *awig-awig* (Customary Law) of Tenganan Pegringsingan Village has existed since 11th century before the *Tri Hita Karana* ecosophy was initiated in Bali; however, this *awig-awig* was able to preserve the environment, in terms of natural environment (*palemahan*), social environment (*pawongan*), and spiritual environment (*parhyangan*). The present study aims at investigating evaluations and assessment of the *THK* ecosophy employed in the *awig-awig* text of Tenganan Pegringsingan village. The research aspires to reveal the value of relationship of human with the natural, social, and spiritual environments. The data of the research were taken from the written text of the *awig-awig*. The collected data were analysed using critical ecolinguistics approach, referring to evaluation theory proposed by Stibbe (2015) and appraisal Theory by Martin and White (2005). The results showed that the *awig-awig* text reveals positive, ambivalent, and negative evaluations. The positive evaluations are in a line with the *THK* ecosophy; the ambivalent evaluation contradicts between positive and negative evaluations; whereas, the negative one contradicts to the ecosophy.

Index Terms—ecosophy, *Tri Hita Karana*, *awig-awig*, critical ecolinguistics

I. INTRODUCTION

The presence of ecolinguistics studies is to dissect stories that surround humans. Ecolinguistics regards to ecology and language; however, both are in separate area of life (Stibbe, 2015). Sapir (in Fill & Mithlsh äusler, 2001, p. 14) states that the relationship between language and environment specifically reflects the physical characteristics of the environment, the way of life, culture, the complexity of ideas, and live hood in certain environments. Furthermore, Haugen (in Fill and Mithsh äusler, 2001, p. 57) states that the language environment is the language user community that characterizes the environment. In line with Haugen's opinion above, Bang and Døør (1996, p. 1) assert that language cannot be separated from its environment; language does not have meanings without the environment. Each linguistic description is also a description of the language environment. Bang and Døør's opinions were also reinforced by van Lier (2004, p. 48) who stated that in addition to dealing with the physical environment, language in depth also relates to the social and cultural environment in which humans live.

Language influences how humans think about the world. A lot of things that happen around us are considered a success in improving economic development; however, it is not realized that the development is ecologically destructive. For example, the rapid development of tourism in Bali contributes a very significant foreign exchange to the country; however, this progress encourages the exploitation of nature, cultural distortion, and commercialization of holy places that should be kept away from the ideology of capitalism.

As a savior of ecological damage, Bali has an “ecosophy” (philosophy of ecological harmony) that regulates human harmony with the three environmental dimensions, namely the spiritual, social and natural environment. This ecological philosophy is known as *Tri Hita Karana* (*THK*). The existence of the *THK* which is practiced by Hindus in Bali aims to harmonize human relations to the Almighty God, other humans, and nature so that human life is happy and prosperous (Wiana, 2007, p. 5-6; Peter and W. Wardana, 2013, p. 52). These three relationships are dialectical, depending on one another.

One of the ways to restore the balance of human relations to God, to others, and to nature is to implement the concepts of the *THK* into the *awig-awig*. The *awig-awig* in Bali is believed to be able to regulate people's lives so that the three environments that are the source of human happiness and prosperity can be carried out harmoniously. The

awig-awig contains a set of rules as a guideline for behavior in a society that is accompanied by sanctions that are carried out firmly and real (Dharmika, 1992).

One of the *awig-awigs* that has existed since 11th century is the *awig-awig* belongs to Tenganan Pegringsingan Village. During the composing of the *awig-awig*, the *THK* concept has not been initiated in Bali. This becomes an interesting phenomenon to be studied with regard to how the text producer through the linguistic features used has a dimension to maintain and preserve the spiritual, social, and natural environments before the concept of *THK* was introduced.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This present study applied two theories, namely evaluation theory and appraisal theory. Both theories were used to analyse the representation of *THK* ecosophy in the *Awig-awig* text of Tenganan Pegringsinga Village.

A. Evaluation Theory

Stibbe (2015, p. 84) defines evaluation as stories in people's mind; whether an area of life is considered good or bad. In line with Stibbe's definition above, Bednarek (2007) defines evaluation as a reference to language expressions from the opinions of speakers or writers with a number of semantic dimensions and parameters. Language evaluation can relate to the assessment of entities or propositions, such as good or bad, important or unimportant, comprehensive or incomprehensive, possible or impossible, sincere or insincere, expected or unexpected. Whereas, Hunston and Thompson (2005) define evaluation as a term of expression of attitude or the position of speaker/writer's views or feelings about the form or proposition being discussed.

B. Appraisal Theory

In recent years, the appraisal theory has been widely used in different genres to study whether and how slightly different appraisal methods are used in them (Xiaqing, 2016, p. 559). In ecolinguistics, evaluation can be investigated by using appraisal theory. Appraisal theory deals with how the writer/speaker agrees and disagrees, is enthusiastic and dislikes, appreciates and criticizes, and how to position the reader/listener to do the same thing (Martin and White, 2005; Sinar, 2008). Furthermore, Stibbe (2015, p. 84) states that appraisal patterns are clusters of linguistic features which come together to represent an area of life as good or bad. This study is intended to investigate evaluations and assessments of human relations to natural, social, and spiritual environments employed in the *awig-awig* text belongs to Tenganan Pegringsingan Village.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

This study applied a qualitative method. Data collection method used was documentation method. The data taken in this study were in the forms of lexicons, grammatical constructions, and other linguistic features used in the *awig-awig* text belongs to Tenganan Pegringsingan Village which are related to the representation of human relations to the Almighty God, other humans, and nature. Furthermore, these data were analyzed using evaluation theory developed by Stibbe (2015) and appraisal theory developed by Martin and White (2005). The evaluations revealed then were judged according to the ecosophy of *THK*.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. The Representation of Human Relation to Nature

Nature is seen as valuable to itself because there is life in it, by itself humans are seen as an inseparable part and depend entirely on nature (Keraf, 2014, p. 89). At the biological level, humans cannot live without water, air, and food provided by nature; economically, humans depend entirely on nature, on ecosystems, on everything provided by nature around their homes; in terms of culture, humans cannot live as cultured beings and are as they are without nature. Human culture depends entirely on the surrounding environment (Keraf, 2014, p. 91). Therefore, humans cannot be seen as the center of the universe system, as is the view of anthropocentrism. Representation of human relations to nature revealed in the *awig-awig* text of Tenganan Pegringsingan Village can be observed from the following quotations.

(1) *tan kawasa wong d ésa ika sinalih tunggal anyandayang, angadol carik, abian, muah pakarangan*
 'the villagers are not allowed to pawn and sell rice fields, gardens, and yards'

ADATP-7

Implicitly, the phrase *anyandayang muah angadol carik abian pekarangan* 'pawning or selling rice fields, gardens and yards' in quote (1) is considered as a negative appraisal. In addition to being controlled by other people, the land that is pawned or sold can potentially change the function and damage the ecological environment of Tenganan Pegringsingan Village. This has implications for environmental damage if the land use is contrary to the *awig-awig* owned, as well as the economic empowerment of the community by establishing modern accommodation for tourists, beside changing the natural village appearance, it will have an impact ecologically detrimental to the survival of tradition and culture.

Until the present time, lands in Tenganan Pegriingsingan Village area still remain the property of the villagers that are used for the benefit of the community collectively. The use of paddy fields, gardens or plantation is not individually-spatially but is used together. Therefore, the prohibition on selling or pawning land is a positive effort to prevent the ecological damage. Thus, the prohibition made by the text producer has a positive cultural evaluation “**prevention is good**”, is an appraisal pattern that is acceptable with the language system, while the contradictory form “**prevention is bad**” will not be acceptable with the language system.

Lands owned by Tenganan Pegriingsingan villagers were inherited by the ancestors, intended for the next generation, so that mortgaging or selling land is prohibited through the approved *awig awig*. If assessed by the ecosophy determined, the cultural evaluation “**prevention is good**” is in accordance with the value of *THK*, in terms of protecting the environment for the survival and welfare of Tenganan Pegriingsingan Village community.

The same treatment was also addressed to migrants in Tenganan Pegriingsingan Village, as shown by the lingual unit in the following quotation.

(2) *wongé mangəndok ring pabumian Tenganan Pegriingsingan, tlasing pada tan kawasa matuku gumi, muah manyanda carik, abian ring palasan Tenganan Pegriingsingan*

‘the people migrating to Tenganan Pegriingsingan area are really not allowed to buy and pawn rice fields or gardens in Tenganan Pegriingsingan territory’

ADATP-15

Prohibition against outsiders who buy or pawn the land owned by Tenganan Pegriingsingan villagers is closely related to preventive efforts so that the people of Tenganan Pegriingsingan do not sell or pawn the land of their own. By forbidding newcomers from buying or pawning paddy fields or gardens, it is implicitly considered as a preventive action against the sale or pledge of rice fields or gardens. This condition has a positive cultural evaluation “**prevention is good**”. Preventing residents’ land in Tenganan Pegriingsingan Village from being owned by outsiders is very important for the survival and environmental sustainability of the existence of Tenganan Pegriingsingan Village.

(3) *yan ana amurug angərabah kayu muah jaka, wənanang kang amurug kadanda*

‘If there is one violating; cutting down trees and palms, the violator worth fining’

ADATP-14

Martin and White (2005) state that many linguistic features that can evaluate the area of life both positively and negatively which are called “appraising items.” The expressions *tan kawasa* ‘not allowed or prohibited’, *amurug* ‘violate’, and *kadanda* ‘fined’ explicitly reveal negative patterns of appraisal items. The grammatical structure in lingual ... *ngərabah jaka kari mabiluluk* ... ‘cutting down the palm trees that are still fruitful’ is an appraisal item, which is negatively depicted “a threat x” (cutting down palm trees threatening ecological sustainability). Every living creature, including plants, has the right to live and humans must keep it so that the plants can benefit humans themselves and preserve the environment. Thus, the evaluation “**cutting down trees are not good**” is the reality that the palm tree has a very important function for the people of Tenganan Pegriingsingan, especially fruiting palm trees that can produce *tuak* ‘palm wine obtained by tapping inflorescences of the palms’ for offerings in various rituals. Thus, the existence of palm trees is very important to be preserved by the local community. Therefore, the evaluation “**cutting down trees are not good**” contradicts with the positive evaluation “**greening is good**”. While maintaining the preservation of palm trees in Tenganan Pegriingsingan forest area, the culture of tapping palm trees to get the palm wine will be preserved. In addition, the function of preserving the palm trees is to green the local village area which is surrounded by hills and prevents landslides.

(4) *...tan kawasa maləlumbaran ring abian muah ring carik, sawawəngkon Tenganan Pegriingsingan...*

‘it is not allowed to release animals in the garden or in the rice field in Tenganan Pegriingsingan area’

ADATP-51

The lexicon *maləlumbaran* ‘letting animals roam wildly’ in quote (4) has the potential to create environmental damage. Releasing wild animals can damage yards or gardens and pollute the environment. This is a negative evaluation “**unbending pets is not good**”. But on the one hand, this evaluation is still problematic because it separates animals from their original ecosystems and confines, anchors, or puts them in the possession of animal rights as part of the ecosystem. This kind of pet discourse is called ambivalent discourse (Stibbe, 2015), which is a beneficial on the one hand, but destructive on the other hand. Confining, anchoring, or staring at a pet has a positive evaluation, namely that the environment is not damaged by these pets. But on the one hand, this has a negative evaluation of preventing animals’ freedom to live in their natural habitats. However, for the people of Tenganan Pegriingsingan Village, the animals that escape their cages have a greater tendency to damage the environment than beneficial factors they bring. Thus, the violations committed by the citizens if *ngalumbar* ‘letting pets roam’ will be *kapratingkah* ‘convicted’ by the village. The lexicon *kapratingkah* has a negative evaluation “**punishment is not good**”. Therefore, releasing pets is greatly avoided by the people of Tenganan Pegriingsingan in order not to get sanctions from the customary village.

B. Representation of Human Relations with Other Human Beings

Representation of human relations to other human beings in the ecosophy of *THK* is intended to create a safe and peaceful social life. Humans as social beings cannot live without others. Gare in Stibbe (2015, p. 8) calls it human ecology, namely human interaction with other humans. The arrangement of the social environment is intended for humanity to live in mutual service in accordance with *swadharma* ‘obligations’ respectively (Wiana, 2015, p. 23).

According to Maria and Rupa (2007, p. 106), the relationship between humans in Tenganan Pegriingsingan Village is called "*sukerta tata pawongan*". This dimension emphasizes the relationship of behavior in the family, interfamily, *banjar* 'sub village', and up to customary villages. Behavioral ethics is intended to have equality of rights and obligations in front of customary rules if they become *krama adat* 'customary village members. Furthermore, the importance of principal of reciprocity is also emphasized - the principle of giving in the hope of receiving it later. The existence of the social relations of Tenganan Pegriingsingan Village community is also inseparable from the principles of *saguluk, sagilik, salunglung sabayantaka, paras-paros sarpanaya*, 'unite, respect each other's opinions, remind each other, love each other, and help each other'. This principle frames the harmony of social relations in Tenganan Pegriingsingan Village which is still well preserved until now. Local indigenous peoples continue to realize the *Tatwamasi* philosophy (I am you, you are me) and the teachings of *Yadnya* 'holy offering to the Almighty God' become the basis of the life of indigenous village communities who prioritize shared interests by aligning personal interests in relation to the interests of society. Individual obligations are perceived as a call to the interests of living in togetherness, so that they appear to prioritize obligations rather than their rights. Examples of representation of human relations with other human beings can be seen from the following quotations.

(5) ...*yan ana wong désa ika sinalih tunggal madruwé sântana katinggalin olih raramaniya, ... yaniya madum tatinggalan, tka wənanng tkaning kacucuné paling wayah, istri kakung polih jəmutan.*

'If there are the villagers who have offspring that their parents have passed away, if they divide the inheritance, it is appropriate until the oldest grandchildren, both men and women, get a share'

ADATP-18

Explicitly, the lingual unit in quote (5) above has a positive evaluation "**justice is good**". The *awig-awig*, which has been applied in Tenganan Pegriingsingan Village since ancient times, has acknowledged gender equality. Rights and obligations between men and women are treated equally as long as they adhere to the agreed upon customary village rules.

(6) ...*wong Désa Tenganan Pegriingsingan yaniya cucaka, tan kawasa iya milət masangkəpan ring Bal é Agung.*

'people from Tenganan Pegriingsingan Village, if they are disabled, they are not permitted to attend customary village meetings in the *Bale Agung* 'customary meeting hall'

ADATP-29

The lingual unit in quotation (6) represents that people who are not allowed to attend a customary meeting in the *Bal é Agung* implicitly means that they do not have the status as customary members in the village. This is a negative evaluation "**injustice is not good**". People with disabilities are treated unfairly. Naturally, they are God's creatures who must be treated the same as those who have normal physical conditions. This condition is not in line with the ecosophy of *THK*, which teaches human to maintain harmony with other humans. This is also not in line with the teaching of *Tat Twam Asi* 'I am you and you are me', so this needs to be challenged because it contributes to damaging the social environment.

(7) //...*yan wongé sinalih tunggal, yan iya ngerangkatang wong kaksikang, pada tan kawasa, yaniya mamurug, wənanng iya kadanda ...//*

'anyone, if marrying a person who is subject to an exclusion sentence is absolutely prohibited; if one violates, he/she should be fined'

ADATP-40

The phrase *wong kasikang* 'ostracized person' in quote (7) is considered as a negative appraisal. The status of "*wong kasikang*" is a sanction received by a villager who is considered to have committed a serious offense. Marrying someone who is subject to "exclusion" sentence is categorized as having a big mistake, as shown in lingual units ... *yan, ngərangkatang wong kaksikang, pada tan kawasa, ...* 'if marrying a person who is ostracized is strictly prohibited. The prohibition on marrying excommunicated person is problematic because there are indications of breaking someone's love which is an essential right of every human being. Punishing someone for marrying someone who is set aside from society is a negative cultural evaluation "**breaking someone's love is not good**". Every human being has the right to determine and choose the life partner he/she loves.

(8) //... *tan kawasa bəlas makurənan, wiwah yan ana amurug sinalih tunggal, wənanng iya kakəsahang saking Desa Tenganan, ...//*

'prohibited from divorcing; and if there is anyone who violates, it should be expelled from Tenganan Pegriingsingan'

ADATP-49a

The lingual unit in quote (8) is a negative appraisal. Text producers in this case strongly oppose divorce. This is explicitly stated in the clause in quote (8) above. Divorce does need to be avoided because it has a negative cultural evaluation. This ban on divorce is a preventive measure for divorce for married couples. Implicitly, not divorce means a family is united. A partner who is harmonious and loyal to each other has a positive cultural evaluation "**being united is good**". However, on the one hand, the positive cultural evaluation "**being united is good**" to be problematic because it contradicts those who have household conflicts which should be the best way out is divorce. Although in a cultural evaluation "**divorce is good**" is unacceptable; however, for couples who consider divorce to be the best way to deal with household conflicts, then the evaluation "**divorce is good**" is acceptable. Therefore, good or bad evaluations of divorce must be viewed from two perspectives in the sense that if divorce will create a worse problem, the divorce has a

negative cultural evaluation. Whereas, if the divorce is a better resolution of a conflict from an unhappy marriage, divorce has a positive evaluation.

C. The Representation of Human Relation to Spiritual Environment

The people of Tenganan Pegringsingan Village are Hindus of Indra sect. In daily life, the community remains concentrated in the three basic frameworks as a way of life, namely *tatwa* 'religious philosophy', *susila* 'ethics', and *upakara* 'ritual'. These three life guidelines present the awareness of the people of Tenganan Pegringsingan Village to create a harmonious relationship with the Creator of the universe, so that happiness and prosperity can be achieved. In this study, the evaluation of the relationship between humans and God was analyzed through appraisal items used in the *awig-awig* text. The evaluation revealed in the text, with its linguistic features, whether it describes something well or not, needs to be supported or challenged. Evaluation of human relations to the Almighty God can be examined from the following quotes.

(9) //...*tatkalaning wong désa ika sinalih tunggal ngawéntanang pujakerti ring Désa Tenganan Pegringsingan ring sasih kalmia, ika wenang sapalasan pakarangan Tigasana kasalarin antuk wong désané ring Tenganan Pegringsingan, ...//*

'when anyone in the village is holding a worship in Tenganan Pegringsingan Village in the fifth month, it is appropriate for the Tigasana Village area to be donated with *salaran* (a kind of compulsory contribution which is usually in the form of crops) by Tenganan Pegringsingan villagers'

ADATP-13

The lexicon *pujak érti* 'worship' in quotation (9) is a devoted form of human to the Almighty God for creating the *bhuana agung* 'macrocosm' and the *bhuana alit* 'microcosm'. Thus, the *pujak érti* is a positive appraisal item. In the cognition of the Tenganan Pegringsingan Village community, worshiping God is an expression of gratitude for all the gifts of God. The Almighty God has created nature with all its contents for the life of all living things. Therefore, the quote above is a positive cultural evaluation "**devotion to the almighty god is good**". It corresponds to the ecosophy of creating a harmonious human relationship with the Creator of the universe through sincere sacrifice.

(10) //...*kang né mangdok sasorohan makarya saluiré, wenang kang mangdok pakaryan, wenang iya anyarengin sapuja carun éring Pandé sanangken sasih kalima manut trap kadi saban//*

'migrants as workers, for example, the immigrant must attend all traditional/religious ceremonies in *Banjar Pande* every fifth month in accordance with the applicable traditional rules'

ADATP-22

The quote (10) above is the reality of increasing devotion to God which is not only done by the indigenous people of Tenganan Pegringsingan Village, but also by the immigrants who live in *Banjar Pande* 'name of sub village. Implicitly, the lingual unit ... *anyarengin sapuja carun éring Pandé* 'attending all the traditional ceremonies in *Banjar Pandé* is a positive cultural evaluation "**devotion to the Almighty God is good**". Attending traditional ceremonies is a manifestation of the sacred sacrifice to the Almighty God. Conducting traditional ceremonies is a way to make relations to the Almighty God, as the aim of the ecosophy of *THK* is to maintain a harmonious relationship with God in order to obtain happiness and prosperity for the life of mankind.

(11) //*yan ana wong désa ika sinalih tunggal mengambil misan, kahangén somah, ...tan wenang anyungsung kayangan ring Tenganan Pegringsingan...//*

ADATP-16

'If there is anyone who takes the cousin as a wife or husband, the villager is prohibited from worshiping the shrines in Tenganan Pegringsingan ...'

The prohibition of conducting worships in holy places (temples) as a consequence of marriage with a cousin is certainly not acceptable from the perspective of ecosophy. The clause in quote (11) *tan wenang anyungsung kayangan* 'prohibited to worship in the temples' is a negative evaluation "**forbidding people to worship is not good**". Relations to the Almighty God should be formed from harmonizing relationships with others. Wiana (2015, p. 55) states that the Hindu worship system in Bali is an implementation of the concept of life based on the *THK*. The worship of God for Hindus also serves to organize the social system so that the social system can become a dynamic and productive medium. Productive in this case is interpreted as a social system that is expected to foster balanced spiritual and material values needed to build qualified human beings. Thus, in order to maintain the social environment, the prohibition on citizens to worship in holy places in Tenganan Pegringsingan should be considered from the aspect of humanity, since it is a personal relationship between humans and God.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The present study showed that the *awig-awig* text belongs to Tenganan Pegringsingan Village reveals evaluation that was then judged with the ecosophy used in this study, with the findings as follows (1) the *awig-awig* has beneficial; (2) ambivalent; and (3) destructive evaluations. The beneficial evaluation corresponds to the ecosophy determined in this study; the ambivalent evaluation consists of two evaluation namely beneficial in one hand; however, destructive in the other hand. Whereas, the destructive evaluation contradicts with the ecosophy used in this study. In critical ecolinguistics perspective, the beneficial evaluation needs to be promoted, and the negative one needs to be resisted;

however, the ambivalent one needs to be considered deeply in which the positive aspect need to be preserved, whereas the problematic one needs to be replaced with more beneficial alternatives.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my great thanks to Arran Stibbe, Professor of Ecological Linguistics, University of Gloucestershire, for sending me some articles related to ecolinguistics study from perspective “the stories we live by”.

REFERENCES

- [1] Bang, J. and Døør, J. (2001). Ecology, Ethics & Communication, *Dialectical Ecolinguistics*: Edited by Anna Vibeke Lindø and Jeppe Bundsgaard, (53-84), University of Odense, Denmark.
- [2] Bednarek, Monika. (2007). “Local Grammar and Register Variation: Explorations in Broadsheet and Tabloid Newspaper Discourse” (article) (serial online) [cited 2017 July 16] available from: <http://ejournals.org.uk/ELR/article/2007/1>.
- [3] Dharmika, I. A. (1992). “Awig-awig Desa Adat Tenganan Pegringsingan dan Kelestarian Lingkungan : Sebuah Kajian Tentang Tradisi dan Perubahan” (*thesis*) (serial online), [cited 2017 Oct. 9]. Available from: www.lontar.ui.ac.id/opac/themes/libri2/detail.jsp?id=81933.
- [4] Fill, A. dan P. Muhlhausler (eds). (2001). *The ecolinguistic Reader: Language, Ecology and Environment*. London: Continuum.
- [5] Hunston, Susan & Geoff Thompson. (2000). *Evaluation in text: Authorial Stance and the construction of Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [6] Li, Xiaqing. (2016). “An Attitudinal Analysis of English Song Discourse from the Perspective of Appraisal Theory” (article) (serial online), [cited 2018 Nov. 25]. Available from: DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0703.17>.
- [7] Maria, Siti dan I Wayan Rupa. (2007). *Monografi Desa Adat Tenganan Pegringsingan Kabupaten Karangasem Provinsi Bali*. Jakarta: Departemen Kebudayaan dan Pariwisata Direktorat Jenderal Nilai Budaya Seni dan Film, Direktorat Kepercayaan Terhadap Tuhan Yang Maha Esa.
- [8] Peters, Jan Hendrik and Wisnu Wardana. (2013). *Tri Hita Karana The Spirit of Bali*. Jakarta: PT Gramedia.
- [9] Sapir, Edward. (1912). *Language and Environment*. In: Alwin Fill Muhlhausler, editors. *The Ecolinguistics Reader: Language, Ecology and Environment*. New York: Continuum. p13 – 23.
- [10] Sinar, Tengku Silvana. (2006). *Bahasa dalam Konteks Sosial: Pendekatan Linguistik Sistemik Fungsional terhadap Tata Bahasa dan Wacana*. Medan: Pascasarjana Unimed.
- [11] Stibbe, Arran. (2015). *Ecolinguistics: Language, ecology and the story we live by*. London and New York: Routledge.
- [12] van Lier, Leo. (2004). *The Ecology and Semiotics of Language Learning: A Sociocultural Perspective*. New York: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- [13] Wiana, Ketut. (2007). *Tri Hita Karana Menurut Konsep Hindu*. Surabaya: Paramita.

I Gede Astawa was born in Tabanan, Bali, Indonesia. He is a lecturer in English Department at Denpasar Academy of Tourism, Bali, Indonesia. He obtained his Master Degree in Applied Linguistics (Language Teaching) in 2013 from Warmadewa University, Bali, Indonesia. He is currently a candidate doctorate in Linguistics at Udayana University and his main research is focused on ecolinguistics

Made Budiarsa is a Professor in Linguistics at Udayana University, Bali, Indonesia. He received his Master in Linguistics from Sydney University in 1988 and his Doctorate in Linguistics from Gajah Mada University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia in 2006. His research interests include a wide range of topics related to linguistics, especially sociolinguistics. He has supervised many theses and doctorate dissertations. He has participated in numerous national and international conferences and has written a lot of books and articles.

I Wayan Simpen is a Professor in Linguistics at Udayana University, Denpasar, Bali, Indonesia. He obtained his Master in Linguistics from Indonesia University, Jakarta, Indonesia in 1995 and his Doctorate in Linguistics from Udayana University in 2008. He has been a supervisor for numerous theses and doctorate dissertations. His research interests are ethnolinguistics and ecolinguistics. He has published many articles and book and actively participated in national and international conference and academic workshops.

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/>

A Recollection of Chinese Bible Translation throughout History—A Sociological Study on Translation <i>Xizhi Zhang</i>	289
Students' L2 Refusal Appropriateness and Accuracy <i>I Made Rai Jaya Widanta, Ni Putu Somawati, and I Wayan Dana Ardika</i>	294
The Application of Task-based Approach in English Grammar Teaching in Junior High Schools <i>Simin Wang</i>	304
A Contrastive Analysis of ESL and EFL Learning Strategies <i>Wafa Ismail Saud</i>	311
A Survey of Practical Knowledge of Pre-service English Teachers in China <i>Mingmei Wang</i>	322
The Terms of Address of <i>Abung</i> Lampungese Language as a Local Wisdom in Its Multicultural Society <i>Iing Sunarti, Sumarti, and Bambang Riadi</i>	329
Translation and Dissemination of Chinese Dietary Culture with the Belt and Road Initiative <i>Yan Miao</i>	338
Integrated Curriculum for a Saudi University EAP Class <i>Sami Al-wossabi</i>	344
Effect of Topic-prominent Features of Mandarin Chinese on English Writing <i>Haiyan Han</i>	353
The Design of Local Culture-based Indonesian Language Teaching Materials <i>Kartini, Achmad Tolla, Jasruddin, and Juanda</i>	363
Problems in and Solutions to Oral English Teaching in Rural Middle School—A Case Study in ZhaoCheng Middle School <i>Yayan Yu</i>	372
Foreignising versus Domesticating Translations of Arabic Colour-related Expressions <i>Amal Abdelsattar Metwally</i>	383
Supernatural Elements in Shakespeare's Plays <i>Liwei Zhu</i>	391
The Representation of The <i>Tri Hita Karana</i> Ecosophy in The <i>Awig-awig</i> (Customary Law) Text of Tenganan Pegringsingan Village: Critical Ecolinguistics Perspective <i>I Gede Astawa, Made Budiarsa, and I Wayan Simpen</i>	396
