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Let's Create a Harmonious and Peaceful World through Quality Bilingual Education! Indigenous Tsotsil Children and Their Languages the Solution!

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Abstract—The purpose of this paper is to underline the implications that language endangerment has, not only for the speakers of a specific language, but for the entire world as losing a language involves the disappearance of cultural, spiritual and intellectual knowledge as well as cultural identity. Many indigenous languages in Mexico, for example, have been in danger as Spanish, the dominant language of the country, has put them at a disadvantage. Transitional bilingual education has been used to achieve such a goal. Since this has been the case, some indigenous communities have taken the initiative to work diligently to preserve and promote their native language and culture despite the sociopolitical, economic and educational pressures they face. An example of that is the Mayan Tsotsil community in Chiapas in southern Mexico. This paper offers a summary of the findings of the qualitative research study that was conducted to explore the situation of the Tsotsil language at a Spanish-Indigenous Tsotsil elementary bilingual school in Chiapas. Tsotsil children and their teacher show that it is possible to preserve and promote the Tsotsil language when working together as a community. It is concluded that quality bilingual education and inclusive schools can be great tools that can contribute to have a harmonious and peaceful world.

Index Terms—Indigenous Tsotsil, children, elementary bilingual education, Chiapas, Mexico

I. INTRODUCTION

A. *Let's Enrich Ourselves and Our World!*

Costas (2018) reminds us that:

Humanity has a rich, beautiful, varied and necessary linguistic heritage which is under risk of disappearance due to different reasons such as disrepute and ignorance based on an expansionist, supremacist and predatory ideology that surround communities that do not speak “international languages” (99 % of the languages of the world). As a result, diversity is razed, and an assimilationist and impoverishing monoculture is implanted leaving us with only two or three languages wrongly called “universal” when in reality all languages are universal (p. 3).

Costa's (2018) words show how linguistic imperialism has prevailed and invaded the world which is a situation that has negatively affected different communities, their languages and cultures globally resulting in a significant loss not only for those communities, but for the entire world. Therefore, it can be said that our world has been characterized by losing rather than by gaining/winning as losing a language involves the disappearance of cultural, spiritual and intellectual knowledge as well as cultural identity. Woodbury (2012) argues that when a language dies, we lose “prayers, myths, ceremonies, poetry, oratory, and technical vocabulary to everyday greetings, leave-takings, conversational styles, humor, ways of speaking to children, and terms for habits, behaviors, and emotions” (p. 13). Sadly, traditions disappear, and, in some cases, they are replaced by the traditions of the dominant society.

On the other hand, many times indigenous languages have wrongly been considered as not being capable to accommodate new communication needs as they are perceived as “not being enough.” This is a subjective perception based on a language deficit ideology that reflects the vision of many dominant societies all over the world. Such ideology as well as the practices based on it have had a negative impact on indigenous peoples, their languages and cultures. Since this has been the case, some indigenous communities have taken the initiative to work diligently to preserve and promote their native language and culture despite the sociopolitical, economic and educational pressures they face. An example of that is the Mayan Tsotsil community in Chiapas, Mexico. In order to contextualize the situation of the Tsotsil peoples, their language and culture and the qualitative research study that was conducted to explore the situation of the Tsotsil language at a Spanish-Tsotsil elementary bilingual school in Chiapas, the section below is focused on Mexico's indigenous languages and their current situation.

B. *Mexico*

The Mexican nation is the third largest country in Latin America, after Brazil and Argentina. Mexico is known for having a society characterized by extremes of wealth and poverty, with a small group of people who are middle class.

On the other hand, Mexico is also known for having a high level of cultural and linguistic diversity thanks to the strong presence of indigenous peoples in the nation. Although Spanish is the dominant language of Mexico, there are also approximately “11 linguistic families, 68 linguistic groups and 364 linguistic varieties” (Villegas, 2011, para. 3). Nonetheless, the survival of these languages is not guaranteed due to the lack of intergenerational transmission as well as their lack of use in the media, in education and other formal settings. Also, majority and more “prestigious” languages such as English and French are favored and encouraged to be learned rather than indigenous languages. In Mexico as in other countries, learning “international” and “powerful” languages is seen as increasing educational and employment opportunities which is an example of how languages are not treated equally in society. This confirms that speaking a language that is viewed as high in status gives some people the advantage not only in a specific society, but in the world at large, that is, it gives privilege to a certain group of people which can facilitate their access to social, political and educational institutions as well as access to different forms of capital. In addition, language privilege may increase the possibilities of being perceived “positively” in society. Unfortunately, most indigenous peoples in Mexico, as in different parts of the world, have not had this language privilege. In contrast, they have been discriminated against, have been excluded from society and their human rights have been violated. The stigma indigenous peoples have suffered, and with that their languages and cultures, have placed indigenous languages in danger.

According to the National Commission for the Development of Indigenous Peoples in Mexico (2014 as cited in Del Carpio, 2017):

Today’s Mexico is still far from being a real multicultural nation. It is recognized as a pluricultural nation based on its native peoples, but it is still not a state-nation that accepts and fully promotes, as part of its conditions, the diversity and the many identities originated in the indigenous cultures that coexist in a territory of approximately two millions of square kilometers (p. 21).

Although indigenous peoples have a strong presence in Mexico, they are still given the title of “minorities”; minorities that have been deprived of what belongs to them such as their lands, traditions, etc. Therefore, the question that some Tsotsil peoples have is if their language will also be taken from them (Del Carpio, 2012). In order to explore the situation of the Tsotsil language, a qualitative research study was conducted with young Tsotsil students and their teacher.

II. THE STUDY

Everything has been taken from us. All we have left is our indigenous language. Are they also going to take that away from us? (Indigenous teacher, Del Carpio, 2012).

Methodology

This research was conducted at a Spanish-Tsotsil elementary bilingual school in Tentic, Chiapas in southeast Mexico. The school has 1 principal, 8 teachers and 227 students who are mostly Tsotsil children. The school was founded in 1990 and is located in Tentic, which is a small town that belongs to the municipality of Chamula in the State of Chiapas (Del Carpio, 2017). The aim of this ethnographic research was to study the situation of the indigenous Tsotsil language by focusing on a Spanish-Tsotsil elementary bilingual school in order to know how bilingual education helps or hinders the preservation of the Tsotsil language. The researcher lived in the indigenous community and over the course of one semester 30 Tsotsil third graders were observed passively and actively in the classroom and other areas of the school. Students were also interviewed in small groups and their teacher was observed passively when teaching and was interviewed during the semester. The school principal was also interviewed multiple times.

III. DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

A. Chiapas

The school where this research was conducted is located in Chiapas which is a state in southern Mexico and is the home of 322 274 indigenous peoples (Estadística de Población de Chiapas, 2014). For this reason, Chiapas is known for being one of the states with the highest rates of indigenous population in the country. As a result, the level of cultural and linguistic diversity is also high. Guitart (2006) points out that there are 8 linguistic groups in the region, that is, Tzeltal, Tsotsil, Choles, Tojolabales, Kanjobales, Mames and Chujs. INEGI (2010) states that the Tsotsil language has approximately 417 462 speakers. Nonetheless, historically, transitional bilingual education in favor of the Spanish language has placed the Tsotsil language at a disadvantage. For this reason, “education” has been considered a weapon that has forced indigenous children to assimilate to the dominant language and society as a way to help them “modernize” (Bessant, 2013). Nonetheless, the participants of this research have resisted to abandon their native language by findings ways to maintain it and promote it at school.

B. Tsotsil Children as Active Agents of Language Preservation and Promotion

As stated earlier, historically, elementary Spanish-Indigenous bilingual programs in Mexico have been used to spread Spanish at the expense of indigenous languages. As a result, passing indigenous language onto younger generations has not always been possible which significantly affects the preservation of these languages as intergenerational

transmission is fundamental for a language to survive. Caminal, Cappellari and Di Paolo (2018) underline the key role that parents play to transmit a language to their children. Some parents “may be inclined to transmit the language that embodies their cultural heritage or their ethnic identity. Immigrant parents, for example, may consider passing on the host-country language to foster their children’s integration, shelter them from discrimination, and ultimately improve their economic outcomes in the long-run” (p. 3). Caminal, Cappellari and Di Paolo (2018) argue that:

Previous studies have focused on immigrants in societies with a predominant language. Clearly, parents also face non-trivial language choices in environments in which there is more than one language that cannot be considered a “minority” language. There, the key issues are not so much related to the speed of assimilation, but to the economic value of bilingualism, the level of endogamy of different speech communities, and the long-run contest between competing languages for dominance (p. 3).

It is true that when native and national languages are under the roof of mainstream society, the indigenous language is at a disadvantage particularly when boundaries are unclear. In this regard, Francis and Reyhner (2002 as cited in Del Carpio, 2017) point out that when indigenous and national languages “compete” for space, and when the “boundaries” between using one or the other are not clear, this imbalance puts the indigenous language at a disadvantage” (p. 101). This has also been the case of the Tsotsil language, that is, it has had to compete against the Spanish language. For this reason, the Tsotsil participants of this research have taken the initiative to take action to preserve and promote the Tsotsil language at school despite the fact that there is little support from the government and educational institutions.

C. The Situation of the Tsotsil Language at School

The Tsotsil children, their teacher and the school principal as well as all the rest of the staff at the school have demonstrated that it is possible to implement quality bilingual education when being committed to do so and when working together as a community. Participants of this research have worked diligently for the survival and transmission of the indigenous language. At this bilingual school, Tsotsil is respected, that is, it does play an active role in the classroom and outside of it. The fact that Tsotsil is the native language of the teachers who work at the focus school as well as the students’ has helped the preservation of the indigenous language. It should be stated that most of the population in the town has made the indigenous language be the dominant language in the area. This supports Reifler and Edmonson’s (1984) arguments that Tsotsil is not moribund or vestigial. In other words, both the Tsotsil language and its oral traditions are omnipresent in the Highlands of Chiapas. Reifler and Edmonson’s (1984) argue that most native narrative accounts of Tsotsil history emphasize the learning of Bats’i k’op and its specialized forms –such as prayer, ritual speech, and song-as the threshold of humanness in our progress through the ages.

Tsotsil is used as a language of instruction at the research school. However, its use could be increased if all the instructors received more training on how to teach with a bilingual approach. The lack of training has been a common barrier in bilingual schools. However, instructors at the research school do teach using both languages especially in fourth, fifth and sixth grades.

D. The Uses of Tsotsil by the Instructor

The Tsotsil language is used for different purposes, for instance, the third-grade teacher uses it to provide students with the instructions for some of the activities to be completed in the classroom as this is the language that all students understand fully. Also, the teacher speaks the native language to teach content in different subjects including Math and Spanish. Moreover, the instructor also speaks Tsotsil to check students’ answers when being given a task to be completed in class. For example, it is common that the teacher asks for volunteers to write their answers on the board and then she checks the answers using Tsotsil outloud. It was interesting to observe that the Tsotsil language does have an active role in Math and Spanish which are the 2 courses that are considered to be the most important at the elementary level. Although both Spanish and Tsotsil are used when teaching Math, for example, third graders have difficulties understanding how the measurement system used by the dominant society works as the way Tsotsil indigenous communities measure is different. The instructor mentioned that Tsotsil people use “*cuartadas*” instead of centimeters or meters. The latter exemplifies that every culture understands the world differently which is also reflected on the language each community speaks. This also shows the need and importance of considering students’ first language and culture during the learning process so that what they learn in school makes sense and is meaningful to them. Tsotsil is also used in the Spanish class both orally and in writing. For instance, students were asked to work on an activity in which the teacher asked them to use the Tsotsil language to write a poem based on the pictures of one of the readings in the book. Most students were on task while writing their poem in Tsotsil and thinking of a title for their work.

It was common to observe that students were asked to write their answers for some activities on the board. Then, the teacher would stand up next to the student to check his/her spelling. After that, the instructor asked him/her to read the sentences outloud and then she would read them outloud and had the student repeat what she said. The teacher stated that the purpose of doing that was to help students improve their reading skills and pronunciation in the Tsotsil language. Despite the spelling mistakes some third graders made when writing, it was interesting to observe them write in both Spanish and Tsotsil. Lightbown and Spada (1999) argue that language acquisition is one of the most impressive and fascinating aspects of human development and observing how this acquisition takes place at such a young age is even more fascinating. Some third graders were able to communicate in both Spanish and Tsotsil in writing, which shows

how intelligent and talented children are as well as how skillful they are to learn and use a second language at such a young age. Their situation exemplifies what Lightbown and Spada (1999) defines as sequential bilingualism, that is, children who begin to learn a second language after they have acquired the first language. It is true that the third graders' level of proficiency in Spanish varies; however, there are some who are actually able to write and speak in basic Spanish; their L2.

Tsotsil is the main language of communication among the teacher, the students and the students' parents. It was observed that when parents visited the classroom to talk to the instructor, the conversation was carried in Tsotsil. Also, when conversations took place between parents and their children these were conducted in Tsotsil. The fact that Tsotsil is spoken by younger generations, in this case, by third graders, is an asset as it contributes to the preservation of the indigenous language. Besides, it helps maintain the relationship between the school and the home in terms of language use, which is essential. According to de Jong (2011), "the use of the students' languages in school also influences the relationship between parents and the school" (p. 34) therefore it is necessary to ensure that this relationship is reinforced by maintaining and promoting students' first language at school.

The Tsotsil language is spoken by all staff at the elementary school. When bilingual personnel are accessible, the possibilities for parents to come to school increase. Also, when homework is in the native language, parents can better assist at home.

E. The Uses of Tsotsil by Children

The first language of all the third graders who participated in this research is Tsotsil. Nonetheless, some of them also speak some Spanish, others only understand it and others do not understand it at all, which means they are monolingual in Tsotsil. The indigenous language is the language they are the most proficient in. For many indigenous children, the school is the first contact with the Spanish language, which reminds us of the importance of using students' first language and culture in their learning process at such an institution. By doing so, the possibilities of making school learners' second home would increase, which is fundamental as the school plays an essential role in the life of each individual. Hernandez (2009) declares that the school should "contribute to the formation of children so that they can develop their skills, competences, attitudes and values that allow them to know their reality, understand it and act upon it to transform it" (p. 3). In other words, what we need is a school for life. Fortunately, as stated before, the Tsotsil language and culture are embraced at the bilingual school where this research was conducted. Tsotsil is the language students feel more comfortable in and use it both inside and outside of the school. In the classroom, Tsotsil is used to communicate among peers or to work on different assigned activities. Because Tsotsil has a writing system, students also use it when writing, for instance, to write poems in class. It was observed that third graders are influenced by their first language when they speak Spanish. For example, when they speak in such a language, they use the Tsotsil intonation. This is a good example of the influence and impact that their first language has when they speak the second language. In the case of the observed Tsotsil children, the use of the Tsotsil intonation when speaking in Spanish did not interfere with communication, which shows how effective those children who are bilingual are when communicating in their L2.

Oral and written Tsotsil is used at different events at the focus school, for instance, at their poetry readings under the name of Top Ten Poético, at their festivals and at their school closing ceremonies. Tsotsil is used in all areas of the school such as at the school principal's office, at the basketball court and at the small library they have. The classroom is one of the main sites where Tsotsil is used other than Spanish. It is true that the more students advance through the grades of schooling, the more Spanish they are taught, so their skills in such a language improve; sixth graders are a good example of this. However, students' native language and culture continue to play an active role in the teaching and learning process especially in the early years of schooling. It can be said that the type of bilingualism that students at the focus school experience is additive bilingualism because it involves respect and "the learning of the second language does not portend the slow replacement of it for the home or the other language". As their languages are accepted and valued, students' sense of self and views of their own language are positive and supported (de Jong, 2011, p. 63). The fact that the teacher in grade 3 speaks both languages, but mostly Tsotsil as this is the language better known by the third graders (at this point) also influences the students' language choice. It should be mentioned that the fact that students at the research school are allowed to use Spanish and Tsotsil and are taught in both languages contributes to the creation of an inclusive environment at the school which is essential for learning to take place.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Education as a Tool to Create a Harmonious Society

Education can be a double-edged sword. In other words, it can be used as a powerful tool to help or as a weapon to destroy. This depends on the purpose education has and how it is used. For example, when education is implemented to violate the cultural and linguistic human rights of indigenous children, it can be said that education acts as a weapon. On the contrary, when education is used to respect, preserve and promote children's native language and culture and enrich them with another language, Spanish in this case, it can be said it is a powerful tool. In other words, when education promotes additive bilingualism, that is, when it is used to strengthen cultural and linguistic diversity is when it is possible to say it has accomplished its real goal.

Education, for example, quality bilingual education is a vital tool to maintain and promote indigenous languages as evidenced by the research bilingual school in Chiapas. Participants have taken an active role to preserve and strengthen their native language and culture. They have demonstrated that it is possible to implement quality bilingual education which is essential to maintain the human and intellectual capital for each nation's future (Rodríguez & Rodríguez, n.d.). The focus school is a good example that cultural and linguistic diversity can be embraced through education. Today more than ever, it is imperative to run schools as caring and inclusive communities where each student feels involved and cared for.

The school should be a real home for each child especially for indigenous children who have historically been discriminated against and their voices have been silenced. This is a situation that may have serious repercussions on their lives as children, but also as adults in the future. As Del Carpio (2017) states "childhood is one of the most important stages in a person's life and what happens during that stage greatly impacts one's future life" (p. 236). This is one of the many reasons that underline the urgency of creating and implementing quality bilingual programs and of building safe, caring and inclusive schools for indigenous children and all children in the world. Yes, quality education and inclusive schools are great tools that can contribute to have a harmonious and peaceful world.

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Can Micro-teaching, Teacher Feedback/Feedforward and Reflective Writing Enhance Pre-service Teachers' Pedagogical Content Knowledge of Grammar in English as a Second Language?

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Abstract—In the current study, 17 pre-service teachers at (upper) secondary school level studying English as a second language within the Swedish educational system were asked to give two mini-lessons each. Both focused on the teaching of grammar, a subarea towards which many teacher trainees have especially negative feelings. The aims were to explore the extent of the learners' pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and to investigate if, with the help of micro-teaching, teacher feedback/feedforward and reflective writing, their pedagogical content knowledge could be strengthened further, thus giving these pre-service teachers the boost they need to address grammatical issues in their future L2 classrooms. The findings show that the pre-service teachers' PCK was low in connection with their first mini-lesson, but that with the scaffolding devices implemented it was enhanced, the subject knowledge component proving more easily consolidated than the pedagogical content component. As many as 15 of the 17 teacher trainees displayed positive scores on both components in their second mini-lesson, the learners who did the poorest in their first mini-lesson improving the most. Great individual differences were, however, also detected among the other learners.

Index Terms—feedback, feedforward, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), L2 English grammar, micro-teaching, written reflection

I. INTRODUCTION

Within their education to become L2 English instructors in Sweden, teacher trainees are supposed to acquire knowledge in a wide spectrum of areas. One subarea that continually appears to evoke negative feelings is grammar. Sometimes, at the mere mentioning of the word *grammar*, although not from all students, sighs and grunts can be heard in the classroom. This interpretation of students' feelings towards grammar is also confirmed in research. As part of Hadjioannou & Hutchinson's investigation (2010), a number of pre-service teachers were asked questions about their perceptions and knowledge of English grammar as well as their ability to teach in this particular subarea. 23% of them answered that they did not like grammar, and an additional 45% that they were unsure of how they felt, thus only 32% expressing a positive attitude to English grammar in general. Moreover, while 95% of the participants reported that they remembered having received formal instruction in grammar, none of them thought that they had a very good understanding of the subject area, as many as 87% of them ranking, on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high), their understanding as 3 or below. Also, while most of them believed that they could write and speak quite well, they did not feel very confident in explaining to someone else why a sentence was incorrect and how it should be expressed instead. Here, as many as 93% of the teacher trainees ranked their ability to teach English grammar as 3 or below. One reason for these negative results may be that during the last few decades a more communicative approach has been taken to the teaching of L2 English, largely neglecting focused grammar instruction (Farrell, 1999).

Moreover, it is very likely that negative perceptions of grammar and grammar teaching are acquired at a young age, transferred subconsciously from those teachers who harbour similar negative attitudes to grammar. Thus locking the minds of teachers-to-be, this vicious circle may hence create insurmountable walls for teacher trainees to adopt new methodological approaches. (Cuban, 1982; Clark & Peterson, 1986) This, Shulman (1987) claims, appears to especially be the case in subject areas where learners do not possess adequate knowledge.

The present investigation is an attempt to try and break this vicious circle by offering students the content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge they need to gain positive attitudes to L2 English grammar and the teaching thereof.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK)

One of the most important qualities of a good teacher is the ability to impart new information to learners in logical and easily comprehensible ways (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Ur, 1996), research showing that there is a clear link between the competence of a teacher and the achievements of his/her students (Ryan & Cooper, 2004). The question is: What makes a teacher a good teacher? Put differently, "what is it that a teacher knows and is able to do that a specialist

in the subject matter that the teacher is teaching, no matter how smart they are, doesn't understand and can't do?" (Shulman, 1987, quoted in Berry, Loughran & Van Driel, 2008, p. 1275).

In 1986, to address what constitutes teacher knowledge, Shulman proposed that the heart of this difference involves "the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction" (Shulman, 1986: 8), and he referred to it as 'pedagogical content knowledge' (PCK). More specifically, while content knowledge consists of an understanding of (central) facts, (core) concepts and theories, as well as knowledge of explanatory frameworks within a certain subject area (i.e. an understanding of what is taught), pedagogical knowledge consists of an understanding of matters such as classroom management, lesson structure, and methods of teaching (i.e. an understanding of how to teach and how students learn) (Bararah, 2016), and during the construction and merging of the two the context of instruction as well as students' prior (mis)conceptions need to be taken into account (Grossman, 1990; McDougall, 2005; Mishra & Koehler, 2006). Hence, teachers' development of PCK involves a substantial change from being able to comprehend subject matter for themselves, to becoming able to elucidate subject matter in new ways, reorganize and partition it, clothe it in activities and emotions, in metaphors and exercises, and in examples and demonstrations, so that it can be grasped by students (Shulman, 1987: 13)

This also indicates that PCK is best acquired through classroom practice (Cochran, DeRuiter & King, 1993; Hashweh, 1987), be it as pre-service instructors within a teacher program or as qualified teachers in real L2 classrooms. Hence, it is consequently assumed that experienced teachers possess quite elaborated PCK (Clermont, Borko & Krajcik, 1994).

Within the research literature, despite the fact that there are a great number of studies on teacher knowledge in terms of PCK, there is a dearth of investigations focusing on instructors teaching L2 English. In fact, very little appears to be known about the various components of their PCK (Liu, 2013) at different stages of their career (Abell, 2008), and how these components interact with each other (Liu, 2013). Also, few studies can be found that in addition are concerned with non-native pre-service teachers' L2 English teaching. Bararah (2016), however, provides some valuable insights into this particular field, while addressing two main research questions. Firstly, what PCK, i.e. pedagogical as well as content knowledge, do experienced non-native English teachers display? Secondly, how does their PCK develop over time? Four non-native instructors of English teaching L2 students at junior high school level (second grade), having taught L2 English between six and 20 years, participated in the study. Both classroom observations and individual interviews made up the data of the study, and a comparison was made between the teachers' displayed PCK and their students' achievements. Despite their experience, none of the four informants displayed an overall strong developed PCK. Rather, each teacher had his/her own weaknesses and strengths, indicating that there was room for improvement for all four informants. For example, only two of the participants displayed adequate subject knowledge, which affected their students in negative ways. A lack of subject knowledge of English grammar specifically has been reported in a number of other studies (e.g. Williamson & Hardman, 1995). Furthermore, while one of the teachers tried to gain information about her learners' prior knowledge of the topic at hand through oral questioning, hence making it possible to adjust her teaching to an appropriate level, the other three did not put any efforts into gaining such information, resulting in the absence of a real foundation for any kind of productive teaching.

In Liu (2013), finally, the PCK of a native speaker, described as an experienced instructor (male), teaching L2 English, was explored. Here too classroom observation and interviews made up the data of the investigation. The study gives some interesting information about the informant's PCK not observed before. Among other things, the results showed that the critical phase to develop PCK is during the early years, when crossing the border from a pre-service student to an in-service teacher takes place. This in turn indicates that teachers who are in the beginning of their careers are in the need of different types of guidance, such as mentoring. Furthermore, the results also showed that the pedagogical part of PCK seems to play a more active role during sessions with students than the content part, but, Liu (2013) claims, it is also less teachable.

B. Micro-teaching

Introduced at Stanford University in the 1960s (Cruickshank, 1996) with a structure of 'plan, teach, observe, critique' (Bell, 2007; Amobi, 2005), the aim of micro-teaching is to bridge the gap between what teacher trainees are being taught in teacher education programs and the ways in which this knowledge will have to be adapted to real classroom situations. Put differently, the implementation of micro-teaching will help create a link between the pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) teacher trainees have acquired in their teacher education and the pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) they will need in specific contexts with learners of various levels of already established knowledge, be it correct or incorrect. Micro-teaching will hence offer teacher trainees opportunities to reflect on different teaching methods in relation to various topics and student groups (Fernandez, 2010; Putnam & Borko, 2000) and, based on these reflections as well as peer and teacher feedback, help improve pre-service teachers' teaching skills (Grossman & McDonald, 2008).

Only a few studies concerned specifically with non-native speakers' micro-teaching of L2 English were found. In Ismail (2011), for instance, focusing on the implementation of micro-teaching of English as a second language (ESL) in relation to young learners, 61 Arab female teacher trainees were included. Within a module focusing on teaching methods, these informants were asked to prepare and give a twenty-minute mini-lesson, to be taught to their fellow students. Additionally, they were requested to reflect in writing as well as orally on their performance. With this set-up, four questions were addressed by the researcher. These were mainly concerned with 1) the effects of micro-teaching on

pre-service teachers' general language proficiency, 2) to what extent micro-teaching may have an impact on pre-service teachers' teaching competence as well as 3) their preparation skills, and 4) the informants' opinion on the implementation of micro-teaching more generally. A questionnaire, using a five-point scale (5=strongly agree; 1=strongly disagree) and organized into the four themes of the research questions, as well as interviews made up the data of the investigation. On all counts, the informants' answers showed positive results, i.e. the opportunity to give a mini-lesson had enhanced their language skills, their skill to understand necessary preparatory steps as well as their teaching competence, making the micro-teaching experience a positive part of their teacher education. Similar positive effects of micro-teaching were observed in Ogeyik (2009) who investigated the attitudes of 57 Turkish teacher trainees studying to become ESL instructors. Along a five-point scale, the informants described micro-teaching to be an effective tool to strengthen their general development and self-confidence as teachers. They further thought that it promoted their skill to develop teaching materials, and enhanced their teaching ability in various courses involving students of different ages and proficiency levels. The great value of micro-teaching for teacher trainees is of course not limited to ESL. Similar observations have been made in, for instance, mathematics (Fernandez, 2010). It appears, however, that in order to make use of the full potential of micro-teaching, it needs to be accompanied by reflection (Ismail, 2011).

C. Teacher Feedback/Feedforward

The implementation of feedback, defined as "information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.81) conveying "direct, usable insights into current performance, based on tangible differences between current performance and hoped for performance" (Wiggins, 1993, p. 82) is a natural element of all teacher trainee programs and crucial to the practicum of all pre-service teachers in order for them to progress in their overall trajectory to become qualified and, eventually, experienced and supportive teachers. Lee (2017) considers feedback to be conceptualized in three main steps: 1) *feedup* (Where am I going?), 2) *feedback* (How am I going?), and 3) *feedforward* (Where to next?), the last of which is achieved by implementing the information in step two, thus providing learners with new goals.

Quite a few studies have focused on the nature of feedback/feedforward. Of particular interest to the present study is Akcan & Tatar (2010). Here the feedback given on the teaching of English as a second language by 52 fourth-year pre-service teachers (ages between 20 and 22) studying to become primary and secondary school instructors at a Turkish university was under scrutiny. The data consisted of field notes of classroom observations written by university supervisors, post-lesson sessions (which involved the teacher trainee, a university supervisor and a cooperating field teacher), evaluation sheets, and other types of material such as self-evaluations, journals and video recordings. With the help of this material, the researchers wanted to explore how university supervisors and cooperating teachers approach pre-service teachers when giving feedback, and of what their feedback consisted. The results of the analysis indicated that the feedback provided by the university supervisors most commonly gave the teacher trainees the opportunity to think more deeply about his/her classroom actions. That is, rarely did the supervisors offer immediate advice, but instead repeatedly asked why the student teacher had acted in a certain way, thus encouraging them to reflect on and question their teaching practice as well as make inferences about what improvements can be made. Four areas seemed to have been of main concern: how to increase the teacher trainees' ability to let go of the lesson plan and adapt to unforeseen events, how to engage learners more actively in the lessons, what activities can be implemented in the classroom and, lastly, how to improve the teacher trainees' target language use. The feedback offered by the cooperating teachers, on the other hand, was more advice-oriented, focusing on specific classroom incidents. The cooperating teachers also seemed concerned with establishing a good relationship with the teacher trainees by offering them praise and encouragement.

D. Reflective Writing

For the last few decades, reflective practice, which incorporates reflective writing, has been a common and important part of teacher education programs worldwide. Its conducive nature has been shown in numerous studies in a wide spectrum of subjects, including English as a second language (Lee, 2007). It is by placing pre-service teachers at the very center of their own development, contextualizing and hence bridging the gap between theory and practice (Freeman, 2002), that reflection may serve two main purposes. Firstly, if the beliefs held by pre-service teachers are very negative, reflective writing may help to change such attitudes. Secondly, once a transition from negative to more positive beliefs has started, reflective writing may also strengthen learners' pedagogical content knowledge. (Farrell, 1999)

In the research literature, three different types of reflection are discussed: reflection-on-action, reflection-in-action, and reflection-for-action. Reflection-on-action refers to the analyzing and evaluating of past experiences, e.g. what went well and not equally well with a lesson just held, (Farrell, 2007, 2013a, 2014), thus slowly building an awareness of the process that teaching involves (Farrell, 2013a; 2014; Wilson, 2008). Reflection-in-action, on the other hand, involves impromptu decisions that need to be made in the heat of the moment, often proving especially difficult for pre-service teachers due to their lack of previous experience (Farrell, 2007, 2008, 2013b; Schulman, 1986). A parallel can here be drawn with the way a group of musicians work together, Schön explaining that "when good jazz musicians improvise together, they also manifest a 'feel for' their material and they make on the spot adjustments to the sounds they hear"

(1991, p. 55). Both reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action generally offer opportunities to grow as a teacher (Farrell, 2013a; 2013b; 2014). Reflection-for-action, finally, builds on the experiences accumulated in the past and the present, and incorporates coming up with a plan to improve what did not work before (Wilson, 2008). Wilson points out that these three types of reflection, although they appear neatly linked to different perspectives of time (past, present, and future), there are no true boundaries between them as people constantly tend to weigh different aspects of teaching against each other.

In Farrell (1999), the aim was to explore the attitudes to grammar and the teaching of grammar specifically by asking 34 Singaporean pre-service teachers of ESL (English as a Second Language) to 1) reflect on their past experience of learning English grammar, 2) put together a lesson plan and teach the lesson to a group of secondary student, and 3) reflect on how the lesson went. The answers of five of the 34 participants, representative of the group as a whole, were then selected and analyzed further. Even though the five informants had generally negative experiences of the grammar classroom, the participants' lessons and their reflections made them come to some important realizations. For example, one learner understood that he had not adequately taken the level of the group into account when he planned the lesson. The same student also drew to the conclusion that there is no one way to teach all aspects of grammar in all contexts. Instead, as unforeseen events may often occur, it is important for teachers to understand that there is constantly a need to modify lessons to adapt to the situation at hand.

III. THE PRESENT STUDY

A. *Research Questions Addressed*

In the present investigation, two main research questions are addressed:

- 1) What pedagogical content knowledge do Swedish pre-service instructors possess when teaching their first mock grammar mini-lessons in English as a second language?
- 2) Can Swedish pre-service instructors' pedagogical content knowledge of L2 English grammar be enhanced by means of mini-lessons, teacher feedback/feedforward and reflection, and, if so, to what extent?

To the present author's knowledge, no other study has specifically focused on pre-service students' pedagogical content knowledge of L2 English grammar while simultaneously implementing micro-teaching, feedback/feedforward and reflective writing as scaffolding devices.

B. *Informants*

A total number of 17 students participated in the present investigation, all of whom were studying to become either upper secondary school instructors (seven informants, teaching age levels 16-18) or secondary school instructors (ten informants, teaching age levels 13-15) within the Swedish school system¹. All of them were studying English, as well as one (upper secondary level) or two other subjects (secondary level): history, religion or Swedish. For three students (S2, S3 and S5), English was their second subject within the program, the rest taking English as their first subject. Furthermore, while 16 of the learners were native Swedes, one came from a different linguistic background (S1). However, he arrived in Sweden at a very young age and his Swedish therefore displayed a native-like level. In addition to summarizing the above and offering the informants' gender and age², Table 1 also supplies information about the learners' achievements on the two grammar modules as well as the subcourse in second language acquisition (SLA) relevant to the present study, all of which will be described in more detail in the subsection that follows.

¹ In Sweden, secondary school teachers study for four to four and a half years, while the training program for upper secondary school teachers involves five years.

² The age given is when the students took their first grammar test.

TABLE 1.
INFORMATION ABOUT THE INFORMANTS

Student	Gender		Age	Level	Final grade – Grammar 1	Final grade SLA (course work/class test)	Final Grade – Grammar 2
	F	M					
S1		X	22	upper secondary school	VG	VG/G	G
S2	X		21	upper secondary school	VG	G	VG
S3	X		24	upper secondary school	VG	G/G	VG
S4	X		26	upper secondary school	G	not done	U, still not completed
S5 ³		X	21	upper secondary school	VG	G/G	VG
S6		X	24	upper secondary school	VG	G/VG	G
S7		X	20	upper secondary school	U, then G	VG/U, then G	G
S8		X	20	secondary school	G	G/G	G
S9	X		19	secondary school	VG	G/U, then G	VG
S10	X		19	secondary school	VG	G/G	VG
S11		X	19	secondary school	U, U, U, still not completed	G/U, U, still not completed	U, still not completed
S12		X	21	secondary school	VG	G	U, then G
S13	X		34	secondary school	G	VG/VG	G
S14	X		20	secondary school	G	G/U, then G	U, then G
S15 ⁴	X		40	secondary school	VG	VG/VG	G
S16		X	23	secondary school	G	VG/G	G
S17	X		27	secondary school	G	not done/U, still not completed	U, U, still not completed

C. The English Grammar Courses and the Second Language Acquisition Module Part of the Informants’ Teacher Education

Within English at the university in which the present data were collected, irrespective of whether the students are studying to become secondary or upper secondary school instructors, they do two grammar modules. Together with educational science, in which they are given a general introduction to what it entails to work as a teacher, the students do their first grammar course during their first term. This module starts by discussing general grammar in terms of word classes, phrases and clause elements. Once English grammar becomes the focus, the course highlights differences between the English and Swedish language, and deals with (mis)conceptions prospective students (may) have in these respects, yet it does not disregard other non-contrastive matters that are usually considered difficult to master. In many ways, this subcourse can best be described as a traditional, proficiency-oriented module, but it also provides the students with tips on how to approach the different areas included in their future classrooms. The test given at the end of this course, however, focuses only on their grammatical knowledge.

Their second grammar module is done during their second term. This subcourse has three main aims. Firstly, the module is to consolidate the knowledge acquired during the first subcourse. Secondly, while a few theoretical issues are addressed in the first grammar module, such as the difference between prescriptive and descriptive grammar, the learners are during the second module presented with more in-depth theory, all linked to the module in second language acquisition mentioned in the previous subsection. Finally, in the third part the students are asked to implement what they have learnt during both grammar courses (as well as the SLA module) by giving mini-lessons (more about these can be found under method below). All three parts are considered in the final grade given for this module.

As mentioned above, all students also took a course in SLA. This module consists of one theoretical part in which the students are presented with a number of different theories, and one practical part in which they are to give mini-lessons based on what they have learnt. In the latter part, the instructor usually encourages students to present their mini-lessons in an engage-study-activate pattern. That is, in the first step the curiosity of the audience is to be raised, in the second step the subject area at hand is to be presented in more detail, and in the final step the class is to be set to work by providing them with some sort of material. While not all students are asked to focus on grammar in their mini-lessons, as a wide variety of fields are covered in the SLA module, some actually are. For this module, the students receive two grades, one focusing on course work (practical part) and one on a final test (theoretical part).

At the time of the collection of the data for the present investigation, the syllabi for English were being revised. This meant that whereas some students did the SLA module parallel with their first grammar course (Students 2, 3 and 5, see Table 1), others did it in connection with their second grammar module.

D. Method

As mentioned above, as part of the second grammar module the informants were asked, on two separate occasions, to give two mini-lessons each, both lasting between 10 and 15 minutes. (Regrettably, the time allotted for the grammar module did not permit more than two mini-lessons per student. A series of mini-lessons would of course have been

³ This student did the very first presentation.

⁴ This student started on the secondary school program within which she did the English modules, she then transferred to the upper secondary program.

preferred.) While the topic of the first one was assigned by the present author, and selected from the areas that were addressed during the students' first grammar course, the students were allowed to choose freely, among the same topics, for their second mini-lesson. Three of the students actually asked to do the same topic twice, either because they did not feel their performance during the first mini-lesson was satisfying (S16) or because they wanted to increase the level of difficulty during their second mini-lesson (S10, S13). The students were told that, although their fellow classmates and the present author would be their audience, they should adjust the mini-lesson to the educational level they would be teaching in the future, and that they could either choose to imagine that this was the first time they addressed this particular area or that, prior to the current session, they had already introduced the topic in a previous session. Before they started their mini-lesson, they were asked to disclose which of the two options they had decided on. As the time allotted for each student was very limited, they were also instructed not to try to cover everything in the area assigned/chosen, but rather to focus on one or a few aspects, and to start their mini-lessons by clearly stating what the focus and goal of the lesson were. Moreover, to imitate what goes on in a real classroom, two students in the audience were assigned to ask at least one question each, which could either be concerned with something they truly did not understand or be a mock question. The other students were also encouraged to ask questions.

In connection with their oral presentation, the students were also required to construct a written exercise, to be handed out to all the students in the audience. They were told that there would not be time for them to ask the audience to work through the entire exercise, nor would there be time to go through it all. Instead they should select a few questions on the work sheet that could be addressed in class.

Due to scheduling, half of the students (S1, S3, S5, S7, S8, S9, S13, S14, S15) had only one week to prepare for their first mini-lesson, while the rest (S2, S4, S6, S10, S11, S12, S16, S17) had two weeks. All students had ample time to prepare for their second mini-lesson, which for the former group took place three weeks after their first one, and for the latter group one week after that. Admittedly, it is difficult to determine the effects of these differences in time allotment, if any. However, none of the students expressed concern about their being too little time for the planning of their mini-lessons.

After each mini-lesson, the presenter received immediate feedback/feedforward by his/her peers and, in more depth, by the present author, all in order for him/her to be able to improve for the next mini-lesson and for future real-life endeavors.

Finally, during the introduction to the second grammar module, the students were informed that when assessing their mini-lessons and material, the present author would consider pedagogical knowledge as well as content knowledge. More specifically, the following aspects were decided on:

Pedagogical knowledge:

- 1) being able to create a positive atmosphere that will promote learning
- 2) being able to involve the whole audience
- 3) displaying ability to give an interesting introduction to the topic assigned/chosen in accordance with the practiced pattern of **engage**-study-activate and to state the purpose clearly
- 4) being able to let go of the physical lesson plan to have eye contact with the audience
- 5) being able to show confidence in front of the whiteboard
- 6) continually checking that the audience have understood what is being presented in the mini-lesson and exercise
- 7) displaying ability to uphold a 'flow' to the mini-lesson so that no awkward breaks occur during which the audience may lose interest
- 8) being able to give adequate instructions for the exercises
- 9) being able to adjust the mini-lesson and matters surrounding it to unforeseen events
- 10) in the written reflection, displaying an understanding of what was already good and/or what improvement/s can be made from a pedagogical point of view

Content knowledge:

- 1) displaying confidence of general content knowledge of the topic assigned/chosen
- 2) displaying confidence in incorporating content of the mini-lesson on the right educational level
- 3) displaying confidence of content knowledge during mini-lesson (including being able to predict errors typically made within the area)
- 4) displaying confidence of content knowledge when responding to questions
- 5) displaying confidence in incorporating content of the exercise on the right educational level
- 6) displaying confidence of content knowledge in the material produced (including being able to predict errors typically made within the area)
- 7) displaying confidence in separating between basic knowledge and more advanced knowledge and/or exceptions
- 8) displaying confidence of content knowledge of the material produced when going through it (including being able to spot errors made by the learners and being able to explain their sources)
- 9) displaying confidence in aligning the content of the mini-lesson with the content of the exercise
- 10) in the written reflection, displaying an understanding of what was already good and/or what improvement/s can be made from a content point of view

For each of the 20 aspects listed above, each student was judged along a three-point scale:

- +1 pass, i.e. the student would manage in front of a real class
- 0 undecided, i.e. the student might manage in front of a real class, but it is questionable
- 1 fail, i.e. the student would not manage in front of a real class

This means that the highest and lowest scores for pedagogical as well as content knowledge respectively are +10 and -10. Thus, to give an example, if, on pedagogical knowledge, a student receives -1 on each of the first five aspects (= -5), then +1 on each of the following three aspects (= +3) and 0 on the last two (= 0), it will yield a total of -2 points (-5+3+0) on that part. If, on content knowledge, the same student receives +1 on the first seven aspects (= +7) and -1 on each of the rest (= -3), it will yield a total of +4 points (+7-3). If the PCK for that student is then calculated it will consequently yield a total of +2 points (-2+4). The total PCK for all 17 students is +340, +170 for pedagogical and subject knowledge respectively.

It here needs to be pointed out that, inevitably, there may be elements of subjectivity in the judging of the absence/presence of these aspects. However, the great experience of the present author – more than 20 years as a teacher educator – ensures to minimize such a risk.

E. Reflections

After the students had given their mini-lessons they were asked to reflect in writing. One reflection was concerned with the oral part and one with the written exercise. In both cases, the informants were asked to give presentations of what they had done in class and discuss their strong and weak points, pedagogically as well as content-wise, while also considering the feedforward they had received from their peers and the present author. Put differently, the students were asked to offer reflection-on-action, i.e., giving accounts of how the mini-lessons went, as well as reflection-for-action, i.e., evaluating and providing insights for future teaching. (Reflection-in-action was instead made part of the 10 aspects of pedagogical knowledge listed above (being able to adjust the mini-lesson and matters surrounding it to unforeseen events). About 1½ A4-pages (size 12, spacing 1) for each reflection were requested of the students.

F. Questionnaire

Lastly, after the completion of the course, the informants were requested to answer a questionnaire focusing on their perceived value of 1) their own mini-lessons, 2) having to listen to their peers’ mini-lessons, 3) their teacher’s feedforward and 4) their written reflections. The informants’ answers were given along a five-point scale (from ‘not at all valuable’ to ‘very valuable’), and divided into pedagogical aspects and content aspects in all four cases.

The students asked that they be able to answer this questionnaire anonymously, and consequently no possible correlations between individual answers and teaching performance can be explored in the result section. However, the students’ answers will be considered on a group level.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the current subsection, the pedagogical content knowledge displayed by the informants in connection with their two micro-teaching experiences and the accompanied feedback/feedforward and reflective writing will be presented and discussed. Table 2 offers information of the learners’ PCK in connection with their first mini-lesson. During this initial link between the theory and practice of L2 English grammar, it is clear that the students’ total PCK (20.29%) is relatively low, far from what is expected of full-fledged teachers. Being only in their second term of their training program, this is, however, not so strange, especially in the light of the fact that, as discussed in theoretical background, even experienced teachers may not have developed full PCK competence (Bararah, 2016). Table 2 further shows that, at this point in time, the learners’ knowledge of the subject matter at hand does not yet match (14.12%) their skill to convey it to an audience (26.47%). There are, however, great individual differences. These can be seen in Table 3. Here the learners’ pedagogical knowledge is indicated along the vertical axis, while their content knowledge is displayed along the horizontal axis. The further up in the top right-hand corner the students are found, the more PCK they possess; the further down in the bottom left-hand corner, the less PCK they possess. Moreover, if occurring in the top left-hand quarter, the students’ content knowledge is developed to varying degrees (+) but they lack pedagogical knowledge (-), whereas the opposite is true if occurring in the bottom right-hand quarter. To exemplify, student 13 achieved a total of +7 points for her pedagogical knowledge and a total of +3 points for her subject knowledge, thus ending up in the top right-hand quarter.

TABLE 2.
THE SEVENTEEN STUDENTS’ PCK IN CONNECTION WITH THEIR FIRST MINI-LESSON

	Pedagogical knowledge	Subject knowledge	Total PCK
First mini-lesson	26.47% (=45/170)	14.12% (=24/170)	20.29% (=69/340)

TABLE 3.
THE STUDENTS' INDIVIDUAL PCK AT THEIR FIRST MINI-LESSON.
Vertical axis: pedagogical knowledge; Horizontal axis: subject knowledge.

(-)10	-9	-8	-7	-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9																				9
8																				8
7													S13				S3	S10		7
6										S1							S2			6
5													S7		S9					5
4					S16								S14							4
3												S11		S15						3
2															S12					2
1																				1
0													S4							0
-1							S5	S8												-1
-2																				-2
-3																				-3
-4			S6																	-4
-5																				-5
-6																				-6
-7																				-7
-8 S17																				-8
-9																				-9
-10	-9	-8	-7	-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(-)10

Eleven of the 17 informants display positive PCK values, for pedagogical as well as subject knowledge, and one student (S4) is on the very verge of doing so. Even within this group, there are, however, great individual differences. For instance, whereas the mini-lessons given by S2, S3, and especially S10 were (comparatively) close to being able to be conducted as is in front of real students, most of the other teacher trainees displayed weaknesses in either of the two components or both. (The fact that S2 and S3 studied Swedish before English may have contributed to them performing in such an advanced manner, as they within that course also practiced teaching in front of their peers.)

Four learners (S5, S6, S8, and S17), on the other hand, received negative PCK scores for both components, where especially student 17 performed very poorly. It should here be noted that S5 gave the very first mini-lesson, thus not being able to benefit from any feedback/feedforward given to the other students (see Footnote 3).

Only one learner (S16) received a negative score for content knowledge, while achieving a positive score for his pedagogical skills. It is here interesting to observe that no students displayed the opposite pattern.

There also appears to exist some correlation between PCK achievement and completion of the program. For instance, four of the five students not found in the top right-hand quarter in fact later dropped out. Moreover, while all three of the students who performed the best (S2, S3, and S10) finished their education, several of those students who just barely ended up in the top right-hand quarter did not. That is, while teaching a mini-lesson may generally help enhance teacher trainees' PCK, it may also, as hinted at in the written reflections, help some learners realize that teaching is really not for them.

Presented in order of frequency, starting with the highest score, Table 4 offers an overview of the pedagogical and subject knowledge aspects that the students succeeded/did not succeed in implementing in connection with their first mini-lesson.

TABLE 4.
ASPECTS OF PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE AND CONTENT KNOWLEDGE RESPECTIVELY AT THE FIRST
MINI-LESSON, PRESENTED IN ORDER OF FREQUENCY, STARTING WITH THE HIGHEST PCK SCORE

First mini-lesson			
Aspect no	Pedagogical knowledge	Aspect no	Subject knowledge
10)	+15	2)	+7
1)	+11	5)	+7
6)	+6	10)	+7
2)	+5	1)	+6
5)	+5	6)	+6
3)	+3	3)	+4
8)	+3	4)	+1
7)	0	8)	-2
4)	-1	9)	-5
9)	-2	7)	-7

As can be seen, for both components, the learners were comparatively accomplished when it came to discussing pros and cons of their mini-lessons, hence displaying evidence of an understanding of what changes could be made to improve their second mini-lesson (aspect 10). They were also quite accomplished when it came to creating a positive atmosphere that will promote learning (aspect 1, pedagogical knowledge) and incorporating content (mini-lesson as well as exercise) on the right educational level (aspects 2 and 5, subject knowledge). On the other hand, they displayed

an inability to, for instance, let go of the physical lesson plan and to adjust their mini-lesson to unforeseen events (aspects 4 and 9, pedagogical knowledge), the latter of which indicates a lack of reflection-in-action which is normally difficult for unexperienced teachers (Farrell, 2007, 2008, 2013b; Shulman, 1986). They were also unable to, for example, separate clearly between basic and more advanced knowledge and align the content of the mini-lesson with the content of the exercise (aspects 7 and 9, subject knowledge).

Table 5 gives information of the learners' PCK in connection with their second mini-lesson, which can be compared with what they achieved in their first mini-lesson (see Table 2). It is obvious that the scaffolding in the form of mini-lessons, feedback/feedforward and written reflections helped strengthen the students' total PCK (from 20.29% to 42.94%, i.e. 22.65 percentages), their pedagogical knowledge (from 26.47% to 37.65%, i.e. 11.18 percentages) as well as their subject knowledge (from 14.12% to 48.24%, i.e. 35.12 percentages) being affected positively. This is encouraging since, Liu (2013) claims, the critical phase to acquire PCK is during the early years of training. Moreover, as the reader can see, this was especially the case with the latter component, the students now consolidating their grammatical knowledge. This also tallies with Liu (2013) who states that the subject component is the more teachable of the two.

According to their own answers to the questions on the survey, the teacher trainees seemed to have gained most of this PCK from the teacher's feedback/feedforward and their own mini-lessons, and the least from their written reflections (see Table 6). As evidenced by what the majority of the students wrote, the fact that their teacher had asked them why they had made certain choices in the planning of the mini-lessons, which in turn made them think more deeply on how they had approached the task set before them, and given them clear advice on how different parts could be improved were the main reasons why the teacher's feedback/feedforward was so useful to them. This agrees with what was observed in Akcan & Tatar (2010), presented in the theoretical background. Furthermore, it seemed that some students felt that they just rehashed in their reflections what they had already learned in class.

TABLE 5.
THE SEVENTEEN STUDENTS' PCK IN CONNECTION WITH THEIR SECOND MINI-LESSON

	Pedagogical knowledge	Subject knowledge	Total PCK
Second mini-lesson	37.65% (=64/170)	48.24% (=82/170)	42.94% (=146/340)

TABLE 6.
THE STUDENTS' ANSWERS (AVERAGE SCORE) TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

To what extent did your own mini-lessons help improve your...		To what extent did your fellow students' mini-lessons help improve your...		To what extent did your written reflections help improve your...		To what extent did your teacher's feedback help you improve your...	
pedagogical knowledge	subject knowledge	pedagogical knowledge	subject knowledge	pedagogical knowledge	subject knowledge	pedagogical knowledge	subject knowledge
4.31	4.62	3.94	3.97	3.50	3.69	4.62	4.38

Moreover, as shown in Table 7 (which should be interpreted in the same way as Table 3), it was the students who did the poorest at the first mini-lesson that improved the most. According to these students' written reflections, it appears they had all been made acutely aware of the great knowledge gap between themselves and their fellow students, this thus being the main incentive for them wanting to improve before giving their second mini-lesson. Some of the students who appeared in the top left-hand quarter already in connection with their first mini-lesson also progressed, while a few in fact regressed slightly. Regression is perhaps not so strange considering the fact that each grammatical subarea is unique, not only from a content perspective of course, but from a pedagogical perspective too. That is, what works pedagogically for one subarea does not necessarily work for all subareas. As pointed out in the theoretical background, this was one of the lessons learned in Farrell (1999). Another reason for this regression may be that some subject matters are inherently more difficult to master and teach than others.

TABLE 7.
THE STUDENTS' INDIVIDUAL PCK AT THEIR SECOND MINI-LESSON.
Vertical AXIS: Pedagogical Knowledge; Horizontal AXIS: Subject Knowledge

(-)10	-9	-8	-7	-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9																				9
8																				8
7															S7		S13		S3	7
6																				6
5															S2; S16		S9			5
4										S1					S14		S11	S10		4
3								S8				S12								3
2												S4								2
1															S6; S17					1
0															S5					0
-1																				-1
-2																				-2
-3																				-3
-4																				-4
-5																				-5
-6																				-6
-7																				-7
-8																				-8
-9																				-9
-10	-9	-8	-7	-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	(-)10

Table 8, finally, offers an overview of the aspects the students managed to implement in connection with their second mini-lesson, again starting with the most frequent one. As the reader can see, for the aspects of pedagogical knowledge considered, both those mastered well (e.g. 1 and 10) and those receiving low scores (e.g. 4 and 9) remain approximately the same as in the first mini-lesson. For the aspects of subject knowledge considered, 2 and 10 are still those that received high scores, but the students now also display greater confidence in the material they were asked to produce (mini-lesson as well as exercise). Also, aspects 7 (separating between basic and more advanced knowledge) and 8 (displaying confidence in going through the material produced in class) still appear difficult to acquire, but the learners now seem to have gained a better understanding of aligning the content of the mini-lesson with the content of the exercise, obviously linked to their better understanding of what to focus on in the complementary exercise as a whole.

TABLE 8.
ASPECTS OF PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE AND CONTENT KNOWLEDGE RESPECTIVELY AT THE SECOND MINI-LESSON, PRESENTED IN ORDER OF FREQUENCY, STARTING WITH THE HIGHEST PCK SCORE

Second mini-lesson			
Aspect no	Pedagogical knowledge	Aspect no	Subject knowledge
10)	+17	3)	+14
1)	+12	2)	+13
3)	+9	6)	+13
2)	+8	10)	+9
5)	+8	5)	+7
6)	+5	9)	+7
8)	+5	1)	+6
4)	0	4)	+1
7)	0	8)	-2
9)	0	7)	-7

Table 8 shows that even after two sessions of micro-teaching accompanied by teacher feedback/feedforward and written reflection, there are aspects of PCK that are difficult to develop. Considering the pedagogical component, which according to Liu (2013) is the more challenging of the two, it appears that, for example, making impromptu decisions, dealing with unforeseen events, and ‘freestyling’ are especially difficult aspects to master. That is, reflecting in action seems considerably more difficult than reflecting on action or reflecting for action. From a subject point of view, it appears that it is the weighing of content against the knowledge level of each learner that causes most concern (aspects 7 and 8). These subcomponents may therefore need special attention in ESL teacher education programs. However, needless to say, with more experience, novice teachers will slowly be able to display increasingly more confidence, even with the more elusive aspects of the topic at hand and the teaching thereof.

V. SUMMING UP

In the present investigation, 17 Swedish pre-service teachers at (upper) secondary school level studying English as a second language were asked to give two mini-lessons each, both focusing on grammar. Offered teacher feedback/feedforward and requested to reflect in writing after their micro-teaching, the learners enhanced their total PCK, both components – pedagogical and especially content knowledge – displaying higher scores during the second mini-lesson than the first one. It was here observed that it was the students who performed the poorest in connection

with their first mini-lesson that progressed the most. Great individual differences were also detected among the other learners.

However, some of the aspects of the learners' PCK remained difficult to attain even after treatment, a few informants regressing slightly between the first and second mini-lesson. This is perhaps not so strange, considering that the majority of the teacher trainees were faced with completely new subareas the second time around, the students thus learning that not all pedagogical approaches work for all subareas.

Hopefully, the largely positive results will mean that at least some of these learners will be able to conduct successful and rewarding grammar lessons in their future L2 classrooms.

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Pre-service Language Teachers' Reflections and Initial Experiences on the Use of Textbooks in Classroom Practice

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Abstract—In foreign language (FL) teaching and learning, textbooks provide the major source for both teachers and learners (see e.g., Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Richards, 2014). Although the use of textbooks and other teaching materials is one of the factors that makes the difference between novice and experienced teachers (see e.g., Savova, 2009), too little attention is paid to their use in teacher training programmes (see e.g., Canniveng & Martinez, 2003). Based on research literature and empirical data derived from a questionnaire (N = 51) and interviews (N = 12) among FL teacher trainees during the one-year teacher training programme at a Finnish university, the following questions are addressed: What are pre-service language teachers' reflections on FL textbooks and their use? What kinds of experiences teacher trainees had with FL textbooks during the one-year teacher education programme? The results of this study give us more information on how language teacher trainees learn to use textbooks and other teaching materials. For instance, it emerged from the findings that the trainees were willing to create learner-centred teaching materials. In addition, the study can give ideas of how to develop courses for FL teacher education in order to pay more attention to a more independent use of textbooks and other teaching materials.

Index Terms—foreign language learning, language teacher education, foreign language teaching materials

I. INTRODUCTION

Despite the central role of textbooks in foreign language (FL) teaching and learning (see e.g., Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Richards, 2014), there is surprisingly little help in the research literature or guide books for teachers or teacher trainees on how to use them in practice (Tomlinson, 2012, p. 151). In general, too little attention is paid to the use of teaching materials in teacher training programmes (see e.g., Canniveng & Martinez, 2003, 482; Augusto-Navarro, de Oliveira & de Abreu-e-Lima, 2014). The reason for this might be related to the fact that textbooks and other teaching materials have not in general received much attention in the SL/FL research field (Tomlinson, 2012; Augusto-Navarro, de Oliveira & de Abreu-e-Lima, 2014). In addition, teacher educators can sometimes have a negative image of textbooks (see e.g., Loewenberg-Ball & Feiman-Nemser, 1988). But in FL teacher education programmes, the use of textbooks and other teaching materials is an important topic for at least two reasons. Firstly, textbooks are a constant companion and resource for both novice and experienced FL teachers. They provide help especially for novice teachers and teachers who lack confidence in using the target language in the classroom (Masuhara & Tomlinson, 2008). Secondly, textbooks act as teacher developers or, as stated by Hutchinson and Torres (1994), as agents of change. For teacher educators, the question is how to teach the use of teaching materials. Prospective teachers should learn to select the 'right' materials for their learners, to adapt, and to reflect on the content of FL textbooks. In addition, they should understand that textbooks have a great influence on exams and vice versa (see e.g., Bailey, 1999).

Against this background, the aim of this study is to give an insight into reflections and initial experiences of pre-service FL teachers in using textbooks and other teaching materials during a one-year teacher education programme at a Finnish university. Firstly, previous studies on the use of textbooks by in-service and pre-service language teachers are examined. Secondly, the collected questionnaire (N = 51) and interview data (N = 12) are analysed in order to capture first experiences of Finnish pre-service language teachers on the use of textbooks in classroom practice. Finally, the results of this study are discussed in order to give ideas on how to develop courses for FL teacher education in which more attention is paid to the use of textbooks and other teaching materials.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES ON THE USE OF TEXTBOOKS BY PRE-SERVICE LANGUAGE TEACHERS

The extensive search by Tomlinson and Masuhara (2010) in their review article yielded that there are not many empirical studies available on language teachers' practice with textbooks. However, during the last few years some studies have shown ways of how FL teachers adapt and supplement textbooks in order to tailor their content to the learner group and learning context in question (see e.g., Grammatosi & Harwood, 2013). Hence, the question of how to use textbooks effectively in order to maintain students' interest is important. McGrath (2006) studied teachers' and learners' images of English-language coursebooks from the metaphors that they had used in describing them. Both

teachers and learners mostly held the coursebook as a guide. Teachers tended to have more positive images for coursebooks than learners. In the Japanese context, Rowland and Barrs (2013) studied the responses of 57 university students to the replacement of teacher-led lessons with small group, role-based textbook work in a yearlong English course focusing on reading skills. They concluded that teachers could restructure the classroom dynamics of textbook use by reworking the roles in a classroom. Even small changes in the classroom dynamics, as work in pairs or groups, made the work with textbooks more learner-centred. Hence, the use of textbooks matters.

Several studies indicate that the use of the textbook is one of the factors that make a difference between novice and experienced teachers. Hutchinson (1996, cited in Harwood, 2013, p. 12) found that lack of content knowledge emerged as a factor that had an influence on a novice teacher's patterns of textbook use. More experienced and much better qualified teachers used the textbook more flexibly than novice teachers and were able to adapt it to meet the learners' needs (similar results were obtained by Savova, 2009). Shaver's (2010) study on classroom-level curriculum development by EFL teachers revealed the link between textbook use and professional development. For instance, teachers who adapted or created their own materials had reportedly acquired a range of new pedagogical skills at the same time. The study by Edwards and Burns (2016) showed the potential of action research in supporting teachers' materials development and subsequent increase in learner motivation. In action research, an on-going process of reflection is needed (see e.g., Banegas, Pavese, Velázquez & Vázquez, 2013), which in turn is beneficial for the materials development.

There is not much research literature available on how pre-service or novice language teachers experience the use of textbooks and other teaching materials. However, there are studies showing that novice teachers had difficulties in using and adapting textbooks to meet the needs of the learners (Loewenberg-Ball & Feiman-Nemser, 1988). For instance, they are not able to predict if textbook activities are well designed and suitable for the learner group in question (Tsui, 2003, Ch. 8). For novice teachers the textbook may provide assistance in how to come to terms with students' level and their prior knowledge (Crawford, 2002; McGrath, 2013, Ch. 2). Novice teachers may have difficulties in getting an overview of materials, how difficult it would be to teach and whether the textbook should be supplemented by teacher-made materials (Richards, 2014). They also seem to have mostly negative images of teachers who just follow the book (Loewenberg-Ball & Feiman-Nemser, 1988; Johnson, 1994). The results of the study by Maijala (2018) indicate that FL teacher trainees need to practice how to build a cultural framework for the texts and activities in the textbooks. Therefore, in language teacher education, trainees should be advised on how to become "better consumers of textbooks" (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994, p. 327; see also McGrath, 2006). Otherwise, as Costa Afonso (2011) states, FL teachers may easily follow the content of the textbook automatically, without reflecting on it. Reflection is also needed when novice teachers learn how to investigate their learners' feelings towards coursebooks (McGrath, 2006).

Numrich (1996) analysed diaries kept by 26 novice English teachers during a practicum and revealed early worries concerning initial teaching experiences. The need for guidance in the use of textbooks was one of these. The study by Loewenberg-Ball and Cohen (1996) displayed that 75 to 85 percent of teacher trainees used a textbook when planning lessons. However, as stated above, the use of coursebooks has not necessarily been internalised in FL teacher education programmes (cf. McGrath, 2013, Ch. 2). Not only the use of the textbooks, but the development of supplementary materials and teachers' own materials, should also be incorporated in teacher training programmes. Bouckaert (2016) presented a course in materials development at a teacher education institute in the Netherlands. Based on a small-scale questionnaire among 10 student teachers, she suggested recommendations beneficial for language teacher education. According to these, teacher trainees should be given background reading materials dealing with theoretical perspective on materials development and design. They should also have an opportunity to conduct a small-scale research project during the course, and use ICT tools and applications.

III. RESEARCH PROJECT

A. Context of the Study and Research Questions

In the Finnish context, FL students apply for the pedagogical studies at the Department of Teacher Education usually after receiving their bachelor's degree in their major subject at the university subject department. During the one-year teacher education programme at the Department of Teacher Education and Teacher Training School associated with the Faculty of Education, the pedagogical skills are learned. In Teacher Training Schools, trainees are supervised by mentoring teachers with experience. The amount of lessons held by trainees at the Teacher Training School usually varies from 15 to 30. At this particular university, the way in which trainees became familiar with different FL textbooks during the pedagogical studies depended very much on their mentors at the Teacher Training School and teacher educators at the Department of Teacher Education. In the context of the university in the focus of this study, the number of FL teacher trainees accepted per year varies between 50 and 70.

Finland is an interesting case in the textbook use, since studies have revealed a high use of them in Finnish FL classrooms. Harjanne, Larenas and Tella (2017) studied Finnish FL teachers' perceptions of teaching and study realities in their classrooms. The data was collected from 147 Finnish teachers through an online survey. The results showed that Finnish FL teachers use textbook a lot. They also seemed to be satisfied with the textbooks and valued especially the communicative oral activities. In Finland, there is a strong tradition of producing textbooks for the national school

market. The textbook writers are mostly experienced non-native and native language teachers, not university academics. Finnish FL textbooks can be regarded as pedagogically oriented books that guide their users to notice or train specific language features (see e.g., Maijala & Tammenga-Helmentel, 2019).

The overall goal of this study is to examine pre-service FL teachers and their reported conceptions and first practices in the use of textbooks and other teaching materials during the one-year teacher education programme at a Finnish university. The following research questions are addressed: 1. What are pre-service language teachers’ reflections on FL textbooks and their use? 2. What kinds of experiences teacher trainees had with FL textbooks during the one-year teacher education programme?

B. Participants, Data Collection and Methods

This qualitative study was conducted at a Finnish university among 74 pre-service FL teachers during consecutive one-year teacher education programmes (see Table 1). The programmes started, respectively, in September and ended in May.

TABLE I
PROFILE OF PARTICIPANTS

Participants	Age	Gender	Major languages of the participants	Previous experiences as a FL teacher	The amount of teaching concerning FL textbook at the Department of Teacher Education	The amount of lessons held the Teacher Training School
Questionnaire December 2014 (N = 51)	22–57	43 Female 8 Male 1 other	English 18; German 11; Swedish 10; Spanish 6; Russian 2, Italian 2, French 1	yes 10 no 41	General lecture (2h) about the theory of FL textbooks	0–15 hours
Interviews May 2016 (N = 12)	22–35	12 Female	Swedish 6; French 3; Spanish 2; German 1	yes 1 no 11	General lecture (2h) about the theory of FL textbooks; small-scale textbook analysis as homework and basis of group discussions on the use of FL textbooks (4 h)	15–30 hours

During a lecture in the first half of the one-year teacher education programme, the questionnaire was anonymously completed by all the 51 students who attended. In the questionnaire, their conceptions of using teaching materials and reported their first experiences with textbooks were elicited. All trainees that completed the questionnaire had had a general lecture on the theory of FL textbooks. Their experiences with the textbooks before answering the questionnaire were very limited, because the study was conducted in the middle of the programme in December 2014. Only 10 trainees had previous experiences as a teacher, varying mostly from a couple of weeks to few months. However, most of them had been following lessons at the Teacher Training School and some of them had already taught a few lessons. The small number of male students in the study reflects the small proportion of them among language teacher trainees. Because it was possible to identify the male students, the gender of the students was omitted in quoting the responses.

The questionnaire data includes the basic information and responses of 51 pre-service language teachers to the following open questions in Finnish: 1. What kind of experiences do you have in the use of textbooks in FL teaching? Give examples of success and failure. 2. In your opinion, what is the role of teaching materials like in FL teaching? 3. What is an ideal FL textbook like? You can list the most important criteria. 4. How do you see the future of FL textbooks? 5. Extra. Further comments on textbooks and other teaching materials. The data was collected in the Finnish language, because it was important that participants fully understand the questions and could answer in detail.

The data from the questionnaire was supplemented through 12 interviews (Students 1–12, from now on St. 1–12) conducted with another group of trainees at the end of the programme in May 2016. The interviewees had taught about 15–30 lessons at the Teacher Training School where they were able to use textbooks and other teaching materials in ‘real-life’ classrooms under the supervision of mentoring teachers. In the theoretical part of the education at the Department of Teacher Education, all interviewed trainees had participated in group discussions dealing with the following aspects: selection of course books and other teaching materials, use of the course book (lesson planning and adaptation) and materials evaluation. They had also conducted a small-scale textbook analysis (linguistic and cultural content) before group discussions (see Table 1).

The interviews were chosen to complement the data, because answers in questionnaires do not always allow in-depth exploration, especially when respondents’ beliefs are examined (cf. Borg 2013, Ch. 2). The semi-structured interviews lasted on average for 30–35 minutes and were conducted face-to-face with the teacher educator at the end of the programme in May 2016. The interviews focused on the questions about 1) the role of teaching materials in FL teaching and in teacher education in general, 2) the experiences of the pre-service teachers in the use of textbooks and other teaching materials during the programme, 3) their opinion on a good textbook and textbook activities, 4) their experiences in teaching grammar with the help of the textbooks, and 5) the ‘ideal’ textbook and the future of textbooks in FL teaching and learning. The interviews were recorded and transcribed in the original language Finnish.

Using qualitative methods commonly used in studies dealing with teacher learning, the data were categorised and analysed in order to identify most recurrent topics. In order to avoid predetermining the results, a grounded approach

was chosen in order to allow topics to emerge both from the questionnaire and interview data (see e.g., Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The qualitative analysis of the data was conducted in the original language of the respondents. The selected quotations in Finnish language were translated into English by the author. The double role of teacher educator as a researcher in this study can be regarded as both a limitation and an asset. On the one hand, due to the instructor-student relationship, trainees might have avoided telling about the problematic issues. On the other hand, the study sheds light on the importance of a teacher educator and mentoring teachers in the development process of trainees. The practices described below refer only to this one particular university, which should also be noted as a limitation. Our aim was not to generalise the findings (cf. Burns, 1999, Ch. 2), but to report and to reflect on the experiences of the trainees in the use of the textbooks. In Section 4, results of the study are partially quantified, categorised and illustrated by using examples from the data. The number of respondents who mentioned the topic are given in brackets.

IV. FINDINGS

A. *Questionnaire Results*

In the questionnaire, 33 of 51 respondents rated the textbook as important in FL teaching and learning. Trainees rated the textbook as necessary (10), a motivator (10), the basis of teaching (10), an overall package (5), and a guide (5). In addition, some of them stated that teachers use textbook a lot (3) and it is difficult to teach without it (5). One trainee of German commented that because she was as an unexperienced teacher and not able to design any material herself, she found support in the textbook. Teaching without a textbook was held time-consuming by seven trainees. Teaching with a textbook was often rated negatively, with attributes traditional (8), monotonous (7), easy (3), hindered creativity (2), passive (1) and binding teachers and learners to certain patterns (1). Creativeness was often connected to teaching without textbook. In general, trainees considered the production of supplementary materials as creative and rewarding and as a way of giving their teaching a personal touch.

22 of the 51 respondents reported about first experiences with textbooks and other teaching materials and gave examples of success and failure. Compared to trainees of other languages, who also brought up negative points, trainees of English seemed to have made more positive experiences with textbooks as the following excerpt from the questionnaire shows:

“During the training period in the autumn I taught a 9th class in the basic education that used a textbook named [...]. All materials including audios, workbooks with a key, teachers’ guide, extra activities etc. were easily available in the internet, which made lesson planning and implementation easier. On the other hand, I was thinking, was is too easy? I taught in an international school as well, in which textbooks were not used. The lesson planning was time-consuming, but at the same time rewarding.” (Teacher trainee of English)

The trainee felt that teaching with textbooks was made too easy. When giving examples of success and failure, 12 of 51 trainees named their favourite textbook, as the trainee in the example above. For liking a certain textbook, the most often mentioned reason was a well-designed electronic platform (8). 21 of 51 respondents told that they had already in the first half of the programme had a chance to produce supplementary materials to textbooks. They brought up plays and electronic materials that they had made for their lessons, for instance, Quizlet, Kahoot, YouTube clips and exercises on Smart Board. After having produced supplementary materials for lessons, trainees often had noticed how time-consuming the production actually is, as the following excerpt from the questionnaire illustrates:

“In my opinion, teaching materials are very important. I noticed this, when already at the beginning of the programme I had to make materials for a lesson of a class where books were not used.” (Teacher trainee of English)

Many trainees regarded ready-made textbooks as a time saver. At the same time, the willingness to create own teaching materials was often mentioned by respondents.

B. *Reflections on Experiences in the Interviews*

In the interviews conducted at the end of the one-year teacher education programme, trainees were able to reflect in-depth on the role of textbooks in FL teaching and learning and their first experiences in using textbooks. They told about their observations on the role and use of textbooks in FL classrooms, where they had been teaching and observing other teacher trainees or mentors teach. Besides the role of the textbook, they were asked which textbook activities learners seemed to like the most and which activities they themselves liked the most. Table 2 presents the summary of trainees’ reflections on the role of textbooks and their experiences of textbook activities.

TABLE II
OVERVIEW OF TRAINEES' REFLECTIONS ON THE ROLE OF TEXTBOOKS AND THEIR EXPERIENCES OF TEXTBOOK ACTIVITIES

Interviewee	The role of the textbook in the classroom	Textbook activities liked by learners	Textbook activities liked by the trainee
St. 1 (Swedish)	Observed heavy textbook use in the teacher education	Questions to videos	Searching information
St. 2 (German)	Stated that the amount how much textbooks are used depends on the level of learners	Reading/listening comprehension exercises where students can work on their own; Blank-filling exercises	Questions to YouTube videos; Oral exercises
St. 3 (Swedish)	Observed a dominant role; Held textbook as a framework for teaching and teachers' guide	Learners like working in pairs; Exercises in which they can produce language	Exercises in which students can work together
St. 4 (Spanish)	Observed that the textbook is often followed in FL classrooms; Textbook control and support	Oral exercises	Work in pairs; Models on how to discuss with peers
St. 5 (French)	Observed that teaching is based on the book	Blank-filling exercises; Exercises in which students can work themselves.	Motivating exercises in which learners know why they do it
St. 6 (Swedish)	Observed that textbooks dominate teaching	Games; Funny exercises	Authentic texts about real-life persons
St. 7 (Swedish)	Observed that teaching is based on the book	Oral exercises in which learners can produce language	Oral exercises
St. 8 (Swedish)	Observed that teaching is based on the book	Exercises in which learners can guess and deduce and do not need to know everything.	Suites many occasions and different learners and is easy to adapt
St. 9 (French)	Observed a dominant role depending on the group	Activating exercises in which learners can produce language	Learners like traditional exercises
St. 10 (French)	Observed that teaching is based on the book depending on the language in question	Exercises that tap into students' interests	Work in pairs; Simulations
St. 11 (Spanish)	Observed a dominant role; Held textbook as a tool and support for teaching.	Versatile exercises that activate students	Translation exercises
St. 12 (Swedish)	Observed a dominant role, especially in higher levels	Dialogues	Blank-filling exercises

When observing lessons at the Teacher Training School, trainees noticed the dominance of textbooks in classrooms. To alleviate this, some interviewees (St. 2, 10, 12) pointed out that the heavy textbook use depended on the level of learners. In the interviews, it could be observed that trainees had tried to move away from the traditional exercises, but often felt obliged to use the textbook as the following excerpts from interviews illustrate:

“Most of the mentoring teachers told us, what should be learned from textbooks. That is why textbooks played such an important role during the teacher education programme. During the longest training period, I could use the textbook more freely and I was able to put such exercises into practice in which students could search for information. We really used textbook a lot during the teacher education programme”. (St. 1, Swedish)

”But when I think back over that teaching period, I remember that my both mentoring teachers told me clearly which units or activities should be treated in lessons. So in that way the textbook influenced my lessons even if I did not use it all the time.” (St. 11, Spanish)

It emerged that trainees felt that they were expected to use textbooks the way mentoring teachers suggested. Thus, they often thought that the role that mentoring teachers played in the use of textbooks was too big.

In general, trainees found those textbook activities beneficial that enabled language learners practice the language with peers. In particular, they stressed the importance of oral activities. Nevertheless, trainees felt that their students liked blank-filling exercises in particular because it was easy to choose between right and wrong (St. 2, 5). One interviewee reflected on how she had thematised blank-filling exercises in her lesson:

“Students say that they like blank-fillings, but after you have talked with them and asked them, if they learned anything from this, they start to reflect that perhaps I did not learn so much, although it is fun to fill in the gaps. [---] But nothing sticks in mind anyway. I have told my students that when you are in Germany, it is not about filling in blanks, but using the language in real. (St. 2, German)

In the interviews, trainees were asked to reflect on their experiences on the use of textbooks during the teacher education programme and give examples of success and failure. Their experiences are summarised in Table 3. The most dominant themes were: i) textbook as a structure tool, pattern or framework for teaching (cf. Crawford, 2002; see also Loewenberg-Ball & Feiman-Nemser, 1988), and ii) textbook as a supporter (cf. McGrath, 2013, p. 86) or as a kind of teacher or mentor for trainees. In addition, iii) the influence of the trainees' own school experiences on the use of textbooks as a teacher could be observed.

Textbook as a structure tool. In general, most interviewees acknowledged that they need textbooks in order to understand the curricular development. On the other hand, they felt that their teaching was schematic and not creative when they followed the textbook (St. 8). However, they often mentioned that textbooks helped when they did not know

in which order they should progress, which activities were well designed and suitable for their group of learners (cf. Tsui, 2002, p. 213). Trainees often found the design of activities difficult. Particularly, their problems lied in adapting textbook activities to meet the needs and the level of their students. The structure of textbooks was found helpful when planning lessons at the Teacher Training School. It seemed to be difficult for trainees not to follow the textbook:

TABLE III
OVERVIEW OF TRAINEES' INITIAL TEACHING EXPERIENCES WITH TEXTBOOKS

Interviewee	Grammar teaching with textbooks	Adaption of textbooks	Teaching experiences with textbooks (excerpts)
St. 1 (Swedish)	Modified grammar	Taught culture parts in an own way	The use of textbook is very schematic. [---] I would have liked to have more guidance on how to make it more interesting for students.
St. 2 (German)	Modified textbook activities	Created quizzes and games on the basis of the textbook	Students liked blanks-filling exercises: I told them that when they are in Germany they are no blanks to fill in. So you have to really use the language. [---]
St. 3 (Swedish)	Made own presentations based on the textbook	Taught culture parts in an own way	I feel obliged to follow the textbook. [---] I have to do all exercises in the book, because they are there. [---] It is easy to use them.
St. 4 (Spanish)	Did not teach grammar directly from the book.	Made own grammar exercises based on the book	First, the presentation of grammar in a teacher-centred way, then work in pairs. [---]
St. 5 (French)	Found grammar exercises in textbooks mechanical	Made own questions to the texts	It was easy to use textbooks, because I have learned languages myself. [---] It was difficult to find suitable exercises for learners.
St. 6 (Swedish)	Found clear presentations of grammar rules useful and they helped to teach	Added something to the exercises, for instance, oral parts	It is a challenge that there is so much material in the book. [---] It is difficult to find the most important exercises.
St. 7 (Swedish)	Tried to present grammar in an own way	Transformed oral exercises into written ones or vice versa	[---] Electronic teacher's manual helped me to teach. [---] Textbook kept the lesson going. [---]
St. 8 (Swedish)	Taught grammar always from the book, found rap songs funny	Combined exercises or transformed oral exercises into written ones or vice versa	I would have wanted to use the book less in lessons in upper secondary school [fi. <i>lukio</i>]. In the junior high school [grades 7-9] were much nicer in the textbook, so it was nicer to use. The book in the upper secondary school was old fashioned, and how to say, pretty dull. So I did not like to use it. [---]
St. 9 (French)	Found that the grammar in the global book was hidden to the texts and it was teachers' job to teach it	Transformed oral exercises into written ones or vice versa	It was difficult to find suitable exercises for learners. [---] In the fourth class, a global textbook was used. I did not like it at all. But it was also a kind of funny because there was a lot of pictures in it and very little text. [---] So as a teacher I was able to adapt it. [---]
St. 10 (French)	Found teaching easy with Finnish books	Used own exercises instead of ones from the textbook	[---] I would say that Finnish textbook are very good. When I used a global textbook, it was really poor for both learners and the teacher. When you plan your lessons you are so used to the Finnish books that are very clear. Global books are not. They express things differently and there are different kinds of activities. I can't follow them.
St. 11 (Spanish)	Found that grammar did not suit the group of students in question; modified the grammar in the book	Sequences of grammar presentation; Gave more examples	First, I had feelings of oppression because I thought I would be expected to follow the book. [---]
St. 12 (Swedish)	Learned the grammar from the textbook; Difficult to find ways how students could work with grammar	Made cultural information more topical	It has taken so much time to get in to the textbooks. [---] Teaching grammar has been most difficult for me.

"I felt that I do not have the courage to depart from the textbook. I am not able to do anything else. I must do the exercises in the book, because they are there. I just cannot leave them out. (St. 3)

The dominant role of textbooks was often questioned, as the following comment shows:

[...] I could have easily done something else on the same topics. For instance, if we had food as a topic, I did not understand why I had to use the textbook. I could have used food blogs from the internet or something else. [---] (St. 8, Swedish)

Some trainees felt that it was difficult to find suitable texts and activities for the target group. It also took time to get used to the textbook. On the other hand, digital materials were found useful, but some trainees found it more difficult to find a close contact to students when they had to stand behind the computer desk.

Textbook as a mentor or teacher. In the interviews, trainees often mentioned that they had found help from textbooks, for instance, in finding out the right level of learners. Some interviewees pointed out that it is difficult to choose the

relevant exercises “that support the learning process” (St. 5). In grammar teaching, in particular, the central role of the textbook as a teacher or guide could be observed. This came out when some trainees emphasised that it was important to learn the grammar oneself before teaching it with the textbook (St. 6). FL textbooks usually include an overwhelming amount of material and trainees reported difficulties in selecting the suitable combination for their learners. An example from an interview illustrates this:

“Normally you had to go through the activities as they are in the book, but when there is not time for this, you have to pick up the most relevant ones. For the mentoring teacher it is always easy to say that take this and that, they are the most important activities, but you are as a trainee very unsure. I can easily pick up activities for fun, but [---].” (St. 6, Swedish)

In grammar teaching, experiences with textbooks were both negative and positive. In the interviews, it was often mentioned that teaching grammar with nationally used Finnish textbooks was regarded as ‘easy’ and ‘safe’. For instance, St. 8 stated that students learned from the book and that the book was clearly structured. Trainees who had worked with global textbooks found their use difficult (St. 9, 10, see Table 3). One trainee pointed out that the textbook both helped and hindered grammar teaching:

“But if learners do not understand the grammar rule, it does not help at all if they just do the textbook exercises, because it is very mechanical. Especially if they do not understand the grammar rule.” (St. 5, French)

In grammar teaching, trainees relied on the book, but were willing to present grammar in their own way. Seven interviewees mentioned that they had modified textbook grammar exercises and made efforts to teach grammar in their own way. It could be observed that they wanted to modify activities to make them learner-centred and interactive by transforming writing exercises into oral ones and vice versa (St. 7, 8, 9). The adaptation of textbooks by trainees usually meant supplementary PowerPoint slides to the textbook. As St. 3 stated “[...] culture parts I taught in my own way. I made own PowerPoint presentations and did not follow the content of the textbook.”

The influence of trainees’ own school experiences as a learner on the use of textbooks as a teacher. Some trainees stated that the use of textbooks was easy because they had their own experiences about it when they were students themselves. Trainees’ own experiences on formal language learning in school seemed to guide the use of textbook during the programme (St. 5). St. 12, who had learned the language informally, found teaching grammar difficult. She had to learn grammar rules from the textbook before teaching her classes.

V. DISCUSSION: OUTCOMES AND IMPLICATIONS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

The results of this study show the dominance of textbooks in the FL teacher education programme. Trainees often referred to the frequent textbook use in the Teacher Training school, where they had been observing teaching. This is in line with previous studies showing the heavy textbook use in Finnish FL classrooms (cf. Harjanne, Laranas & Tella, 2017). The role of mentors in Teacher Training School was decisive in the use of textbooks, since trainees’ experiences seemed to be dependent on their guidance. They were told how the textbook should be followed and which activities should be chosen. Trainees wanted to learn how to teach more independently, that is, they were not just following the book. They relied on the book, but were in most cases willing to present their content in their own personal way. Mentoring teachers who just followed the book were seen in a negative light (similar results were obtained by Johnson, 1994). Creativeness was often connected with teaching without a textbook. Trainees were eager to present grammar in their own way in order to give their teaching a personal touch. The results indicate that trainees would have needed more support from the mentoring teachers in using textbooks creatively. In sum, trainees seemed to be dependent and independent on textbooks at the same time.

The results of this study indicate that trainees had difficulties in adapting textbooks to meet the needs of the learners (cf. Loewenberg-Ball & Feiman-Nemser, 1988). In addition, they had problems in getting an overview of the textbooks, and in finding ways of how to supplement them with teacher-made materials (cf. Richards, 2014). Since there will always be a need to adapt any already-published materials regardless of the type of situation in which a teacher finds herself (cf. Macalister, 2016), pre-service FL teachers should get a chance to try this in teacher education programme. Prior experiences from a formal language teaching in school had an influence on the use of textbooks by trainees.

There seemed to be a conflict between the learner-centered approach to teaching (derived from the pedagogical studies) versus the teacher-centered approach (derived from the observed practice in the teacher training school) (cf. Farrell, 2009). Some trainees wished that mentoring teachers could have encouraged them more often to use textbooks independently. In the interviews, they brought up that they had added content to textbooks and also changed the format of the activities, that is, transformed oral exercises to written ones or vice versa. In most cases, this transformation had taken place more from the initiative of the trainee and not as a result of encouragement by mentoring teachers. In general, trainees found useful in language classroom textbook activities that enabled learners to use the target language communicatively with peers. Hence, they had been trying how to make teacher-centred methods more learner-centred (cf. Kagan, 1992; Johnson, 1996; Numrich, 1996).

In general, most interviewees acknowledged that they need textbooks in order to understand the curricular development. Trainees found digital materials useful, but at the same time some of them felt that electronic devices tie the teacher in front of the class behind the computer desk and make the contact with students more difficult. Some

trainees pointed out that teaching with Finnish textbooks is too easy and safe. Trainees who had worked with global textbooks, found their use very difficult compared to Finnish ones. This study showed differences between trainees of different languages. Trainees of English, in comparison with trainees of other languages, seemed to have more positive experiences with textbooks. Trainees of other languages also brought up negative points more often.

The results of this study show that trainees need to be guided on how to use textbooks in a pedagogically meaningful way and not just to follow them without reflection. Teachers need not only guidance on how to follow the textbook, but also how to adapt their content for their students as well as on how to produce supplementary materials. Teacher educators and mentoring teachers should make their tacit knowledge on the use of the textbook visible, for instance, by using the think aloud method. Teacher educators and mentoring teachers could help trainees to analyse textbooks, for instance, by conducting a small-scale analysis of teaching materials and then reflect on it with peers (cf. McGrath, 2013, pp. 207–208). For example, reflecting together with trainees on the selection of suitable exercises for the group of learners could also be beneficial. In general, teachers should be more involved in materials adaptation, e.g. by using methods of action research (Edwards & Burns, 2016). Small-scale action research projects, in which trainees focus on their use of teaching materials in the classroom, could easily be conducted during the teacher education programme. In addition, this study showed that production of supplementary materials to the textbooks should be practiced. In the reflection afterwards, trainees could discuss on how the designed materials had worked in practice. Trainees should learn that teachers guide learning and not textbooks.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this article, we have conducted a study that explored Finnish pre-service teachers' reflections and experiences in the use of textbooks during a one-year teacher education programme. The importance of the topic was justified by the fact that textbooks provide the major source in FL classroom. In addition, the use and adaption of textbooks and other teaching materials does not necessarily receive much attention in language teacher education. The data were collected with a questionnaire filled in by 51 Finnish pre-service FL teachers in 2014 and interviews of 12 trainees in 2016 during the one-year teacher education programme at a Finnish university. Based on our results, there is evidence to suggest that the use of textbooks is not in the focus of the teacher education programme, although Finnish FL teaching mostly relies on them. The study revealed the decisive role of mentors in the Teacher Training School, since they guided trainees and often chose activities from textbooks for them. The results indicate that trainees wanted to learn how to teach more independently, that is, they are not just following the book. In addition, the results showed that trainees had tried to adapt textbook exercises in order to make them more learner-centred. They found such textbook activities useful in language classroom that enable learners to use the target language communicatively with peers. Regarding language teacher education, there is need for more studies that increase understanding of how language teachers learn from textbooks and how the use of textbooks could be practiced in teacher education programmes.

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Teaching Autonomy and Speaking Skill: A Case Study of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—English speaking proficiency requires more than knowing its grammatical and semantic rules. It also includes the knowledge of how native speakers of one language use the language in the context of structures of interpersonal exchange in which many factors interact. In this study, autonomy was implemented by journal or diary writing, sharing and discussing journals, sharing feedback on journals, reflection, promoting dictionary use, introducing useful internet websites, forming yahoo groups, sharing valuable links, creating online self-access center, watching preferable movies, and goal setting. The present quasi-experimental study aimed to investigate the impact of teaching autonomy on the speaking skill of Iranian EFL learners. To this end, 44 male and female intermediate students at Respina Talk (i.e., Iran-Canada) language school with the age range of 20-35 were selected in order to achieve the objectives of the study. According to the obtained results, there was a significant relationship between teaching autonomy and EFL learners' speaking skill. The findings of this study may have some theoretical and practical implications for material developers, EFL teachers, language learners, etc.

Index Terms—teaching, autonomy, speaking Skill, EFL Iranian learners

I. INTRODUCTION

For years, pedagogical circles in ELT have been striving to better the existing methods as well as forging new ones that house a variety of recipes aimed at facilitating the teaching-learning process of language skills. Because of its importance, the speaking skill of the learners has received considerable attention of the scholars in the field. Baily and Savage (1994) declare, speaking in a second and foreign language has often been viewed as the most demanding of four skills. ELT theoreticians have accordingly been trying to conjure up the means necessary to help EFL or ESL learners learn how to speak a foreign language (see Arfae, 2020).

Other scholars have as well cited the importance of speaking in the ESL or EFL learning and teaching; for instance, Lazaraton (1996, p. 151) says, "For most people, the ability to speak a language is synonymous with knowing that language, since speech is the most basic means of human communication." Although such strong statements have drawn extents of controversy, arguing their validity, they have mostly been concurred upon in their assertion of the significance of the oral proficiency of the language learners. Nunan (1999) rather poetically describes listening as the "Cinderella skill" in second or foreign language learning and yet speaking as the "elder sister" (see Arfae, 2020).

A wide range of strategies has been concocted and examined to the purpose of helping EFL or ESL learners with their speaking skill. Not all of them, however, have proven successful. The relentless efforts of the scholars in the field, nevertheless, continue to churn new ideas to be added to the array of the existing ones (see Arfae, 2020).

One of rather recent such off-springs happen to be autonomy. Benson (2006) says that Little (2000a, p. 69) combines Holec's (1981) definition with his to provide his recent definition. Autonomy in language learning depends on the development and exercise of a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action (Little, 1991). Autonomous learners assume responsibility for determining the purpose, content, rhythm, and method of their learning, monitoring its progress, and evaluating its outcomes. (Holec, 1981)

In this study, autonomy was implemented by journal or diary writing, sharing and discussing journals, sharing feedback on journals, reflection, promoting dictionary use, introducing useful internet websites, forming yahoo groups, sharing valuable links, creating online self-access center, watching preferable movies, and goal setting.

Benson (2006) says the history of autonomy in language education begins with the Council of Europe's Modern Language Project that led to the publication of Holec's (1981) seminal report in which autonomy was defined. The origins of the concept, however, seem to belong to decades before hinted by humanistic studies the applications of which placed sizable emphasis on self-directed and self-regulated learning. Benson (2006) also points to the controversies about a dichotomy between 'learner autonomy' as an attribute of the learner and 'autonomy' as a learning situation. Dickinson (1987, p. 11) for instance points to the latter mentioning "the situation in which the learner is responsible for all the decisions, concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions". In another interpretation, Allwright (1988, p. 35) said "the idea of learners' autonomy was for a long time associated with a radical restructuring of language pedagogy that involved the rejection of the traditional classroom and the introduction of wholly new ways of working".

Since its introduction to language pedagogical circles, promoting learner autonomy in language classrooms has been the subject of heated debates and arguments and has accordingly found many proponents and opponents. Recent studies, however, have weakened the position of the opponents. Benson (2001, p. 2) makes the argument that autonomy has its roots in learners' natural tendency to take control of their learning. While asserting that autonomous learning is more effective than regular learning, Benson (2001) further says that if the circumstances are appropriate, learner autonomy can be promoted even among those who do not possess it.

In mainstream ELT contexts, as Pennycook (1994, p. 35) maintains, autonomy is "a matter of helping students to find a voice in English". According to Benson (2006), the concept of autonomy has undergone some modifications since its birth and evolved towards classroom applications, leading to the proliferation of self-access centers and the advent of computer-based modes of teaching and learning. The latest interpretations and implications of autonomy have led to the reshaping of language learning classrooms and courses. The International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA) Review also has confirmed the efficacy of promoting and fostering learner autonomy in language classrooms in a special issue. To mention another scholar, vouching for the benefits of autonomous learning, one can observe Dam (2001), describing autonomy as an issue of general concern in second language learning. Note should be taken that regulating and directing the language learners do not imply leading them toward isolation and a distrust of language classrooms. On the contrary, as Benson and Voller (1997) put it, learner autonomy must be conceptualized as pedagogical ideology in favor of a teaching that ultimately turns control of the task of learning over to the learners so that they become empowered to engage in learning, independently.

The relentless endeavors of the scholars in the field have shed some light on the importance of the role of the learners in second or foreign language classrooms. Wenden (2002) describes shifting responsibility to the learners and the premium placed on the role of the learners and not the teacher in the language learning process as one of the most important results of the more communicatively-oriented language learning and teaching. Furthermore, a cursory look at the contents page of the recent books on ELT such as Harmer (2007), Hedge (2000), Thornbury (2005) and many others reveals the importance attached to autonomy in mainstream ELT.

The advent of albeit controversial issue of autonomy has reanimated the EFL or ESL classrooms with their practical implications for the teaching or learning process. Teaching the speaking skill as one of the most important skills in language learning has undergone so many a change and alteration in the history of language teaching-learning (see Arfae, 2020). The current trends have distanced from the teacher-the authority, teacher-centered classes in which the students were regarded as subjects, exposed to a certain methodology of teaching practiced by the teacher to which they had to be attuned. The behaviorist or structuralist school implemented in foreign or second language methodologies has waned and has been superseded by the schools that respect cognition. The learner's role and reflection surfaced as crucial to the bipartisan teaching-learning process (see Arfae, 2020).

Based on the above-mentioned issues, the following research question was posed:

Research Question: Is there any significant relationship between the impact of teaching autonomy, and EFL learner's speaking skill?

In order to investigate the research question, the following null hypothesis was put forward:

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant relationship between the impact of teaching autonomy and EFL learner's speaking skill.

Given the fact that the researcher or teacher carried out the study in a language school; he had to comply with the regulations and conditions of the institution. The number of the male and female students was not equal in the classes and due to the previously mentioned reason the researcher or teacher did not have a say in it. Therefore, gender could act as an intervening variable in this study. In addition, due to the regulations of the language school and the syllabus that had to be covered, the researcher could allocate no more than 45 minutes of each session for the experimental treatment in each group (see Arfae, 2020).

The researcher narrowed down the participants to those with intermediate level of proficiency, since elementary level learners might have proven to be immature in their foreign language for practicing autonomy skills, and at advanced level, the learners might have already obtained the skills. In addition, advanced level students would most probably have mastered the speaking skill and basic level students need a rather more fundamental approach to be able to gain a survival level of speaking proficiency and move further. Furthermore, an acute problem with EFL advanced learners was their occasional failure in generating ideas necessary for producing language (see Arfae, 2020).

II. THE PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

Little (2000) says autonomy solves the motivation problem. Autonomous learners, he says, draw on their intrinsic motivation when they accept responsibility for their own learning and commit themselves to developing the skills of reflective self-management in learning; and success in learning strengthens their intrinsic motivation. Autonomy has rather recently been advocated by a vast swathe of the scholars in the field, although its practicality and efficacy has not been fully endorsed by all. The present study aimed to investigate the impact of teaching autonomy on the speaking skill of the EFL learners. In other words, it attempted to see whether there was a significant relationship between teaching autonomy, and EFL learners' speaking skill.

The ability to communicate has, since time immemorial, been an urgent need of man. Among the language skills needed for a proper communication, the speaking skill has stood out as the most important one. The recent trend of globalization has made the issue even more urgent. Language pedagogical circles have for years been trying to formulate concoctions to ease the process of language teaching and learning (see Arfae, 2020).

The scholars in the field have for years now realized the importance of the role of the learners in learning a foreign language. The era of teacher-centered classes is long gone and the new approaches to language pedagogy attach paramount importance to the role of learners. While promoting learner autonomy, the teacher provides the students with assistance in developing various strategies and skills for self-directed learning, and then gradually gives students increasing responsibility for using and defining these learning strategies for themselves. Furthermore, according to Sliogeriene (2005, p.43), “By allowing students’ subjectivity into the educational field, and by making it an expectation, we provide students with an opportunity to experience themselves as the knower, as people who have the right to claim a voice, an identity, an authority. Learning thus becomes an active and meaningful process and one that is about the learner as well as the content area studied. When we invite students to bring themselves into the educational arena, we make it richer for them and for us” (see Arfae, 2020).

The introduction of autonomy into language classrooms has reshaped and reformulated the second or foreign language pedagogy. The growing interest in learner autonomy is evidence to its significance in the field. Benson (2006) says, “in terms of sheer quantity, the literature on autonomy published since 2000 exceeds the literature published over the previous 25 years”. Yet, in spite of the considerable quantity of the literature published on both autonomy and its impact on developing language skills including the speaking skill, the sheer magnitude of the influence offers much more room for further research and study in the area. The present research offers practical classroom implementations, as it provides the teacher with an insight to the impact of teaching autonomy on the speaking skill of language learners. The empirical study of the entities discussed will provide those involved in the field of foreign language pedagogy with a new scope toward the teaching or learning process of a foreign language. Accordingly, the present study was an attempt to investigate the impact of teaching autonomy on EFL intermediate learners’ speaking skill.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

To conduct the study, the present researcher chose 44 male and female intermediate students at Respina Talk (i.e., Iran, Canada) language school with the age range of 20-35. The participants made up three classes, conveniently sampled and the researcher randomly assigned the treatment of autonomy to them (see Arfae, 2020).

B. Instrumentation

1. Speaking tests

To elicit the data required for the study, two sets of PET speaking tests were administered with one serving as the pre-test conducted before the treatment and the other as the post-test at the end of the treatment. The oral test lasted about 10-12 minutes for each candidate. The PET speaking test consists of four parts. It demonstrates the learner’s spoken English as they take part in conversation, asking or answering questions, and talking freely, for example, about their likes and dislikes. The speaking test is conducted face-to-face to make the test more realistic and more reliable. PET speaking section includes the following parts. As the first step, the students were asked to introduce themselves. The participants were asked some general questions. Next, the participants were required to speak about a given topic and the follow-up questions. After that, the participants were given photos and asked to talk about those photos and the follow-up questions. As the last step of the speaking test, the participants engaged in a dialogue with the test giver to arrange for a social event (see Arfae, 2020).

2. The Oral Proficiency Rating Scale

To observe objectivity of the measuring process of the speaking test, the present researcher deemed it necessary to make use of an analytic rating scale. He utilized the PET rating scale for scoring the speaking tests. In addition, two raters with a high inter-rater reliability scored the participants’ speaking to decrease the subjectivity of scoring as much as possible and each participant’s score was the average of the scores given by the two raters. It is worth mentioning that the two raters’ inter-rater reliability was estimated from 30 speaking samples that they had previously rated

3. Instructional Material

Apart from, yet in line with the treatment randomly assigned to the experimental group, the present researcher or teacher had to follow the syllabus of the language school where he conducted the study. Respina Tak (i.e., Iran Canada) language school offers “Interchange” books as the textbook for the language learners. Four units are covered throughout every term. The participants of the study were at the level of *Interchange 3*, the third part i.e., the last four units of the book. The book of course provided the learners with audio and video material, utilized in the classroom in accordance with the teacher’s guide and in line with the treatment, designated for every experimental group (see Arfae, 2020).

C. Procedure

The study aimed to investigate the impact of teaching autonomy on EFL learner's speaking skills. The participants of the study were young adult and adult male and female intermediate learners of EFL at Respina talk (i.e., Iran Canada) language school at Tehran.

The researcher or teacher had one experimental group at his disposal with a total number of 44 participants. Every group was randomly assigned to one of the designated treatments of autonomy. At the first step, a PET speaking test was administered to the participants in the experimental group.

Note should be taken that in order to boost the reliability and minimizing the subjectivity of the results, the speaking performance of the participants both at the pre-test and the post-test were scored by two raters, that is, the present researcher or teacher and his fellow colleague, who was trained by researcher to follow the relevant rating scale. To determine the inter-rater reliability and consistency, prior to administering the PET speaking pre-test, a similar PET speaking test was piloted on 30 participants, enjoying the same qualities as the participants of the study and the inter-rater reliability of the two raters was estimated based on their scorings.

Once the inter-rater reliability and consistency was determined, the average of the two scores given by the two raters was considered as the score obtained by the participants.

After the speaking pre-test, every experimental group underwent the designated treatment for a total of 10 two-hour sessions. Care was given to the equality of time and amount of the treatment employed so that the amount and time of the exposure to the designated treatment would not tarnish the results of the study. It is noteworthy that due to the regulations of the language school and the syllabus that had to be covered, the present researcher allocated 45 minutes of each session for the experimental treatment in each group (see Arfae, 2020).

D. Treatment

The first experimental group was assigned the autonomy treatment. Benson (2001) says fostering autonomy does not imply any particular approach to practice. Bearing that in mind, autonomy of a learner can be fostered through a wide array of activities at disposal of the teacher. The teacher who intends to promote learner autonomy needs to do his utmost to make his/her students independent. To practice the treatment of the present study, the researcher or teacher allocated 10 sessions of the course to fostering autonomy in the first experimental group. To achieve the goal, the researcher or teacher along with the participants went through the following steps:

Session 1:

The researcher or teacher spent a considerable amount of time to establish a strong rapport with the students through the ice-breaking activity. The teacher assumed that in order to open up to the teacher and their peers, the students needed to feel secure. They needed to confide in their teacher and their peers to expound on their self-discovery, expected throughout the course.

The teacher or researcher introduced the concept of autonomy and what was expected of the learners. To do so, he asked the students to be conscious of their learning process throughout the course. The teacher pointed out that there are different learning styles and strategies and that everyone has their own learning style that requires different learning strategies. The teacher described in details the learning journals or diaries and how to start one. Different parts of the journals were discussed in details and the researcher or teacher helped the students with the questions they had concerning their learning journals.

The teacher and the students talked about dictionary use. The teacher introduced several dictionaries, CD-ROMs, as well as hard copies, as the learners were supposed to take charge of their own learning dictionary use was essential.

The teacher asked the students to choose their favorite movie or TV series and discuss it with their peers. The students also had to find out about the ways through which watching a movie could help them with their learning process.

The teacher introduced internet social networks and Yahoo groups. He received the students e-mail addresses and started a Yahoo group later, inviting the students to join them. In the yahoo group, the learners had the chance to openly discuss their learning process and problems, the present researcher or teacher and the students shared valuable links about learning English. The links, shared by the students, served as an online self-access box, as the students were able to download books they needed at will.

The teacher introduced the idea of the students, starting their own English club, where they would meet at different occasions outside the classroom in their desired place for a specific given time and spend their time speaking in English, only discussing their learning as well as their daily life. The students were encouraged by the teacher to devise their own programs for the club, although the researcher could not verify whether the activity was practiced or not. To help the students reflect on their learning process, the teacher had the students talk about their individual goals and objectives. He also asked the students to define new goals for themselves and encouraged them to pursue those goals through collaboration with their peers.

Session 2 through sessions ten:

From session two through session ten, the students began every session with presenting their learning journal to their peers in groups of three, discussing their learning process. As per their teacher's instructions, they came up with different strategies and shared them with their peers. Different elements of language were discussed separately. As instructed by the teacher, the students had assigned themselves to different assignments. The assignment however was chosen by the learners themselves. The students were asked to determine their own assignments besides the routine

homework given by the teacher. Every two sessions, the students shared their feedback on their assignments with each other and the teacher. As sharing and discussing the learning journals took place among the students in different groups, the teacher randomly joined the groups and meticulously monitored every group member, and giving advice when required. Every two sessions, the students came up with a self-assessment, describing what they had learned. Throughout the course, the students were exposed to a selection, following speaking tasks:

Pair-work discussion: students were required to pick a topic and discuss it in pairs. The notion of the student's independence was important in fostering autonomy. Furthermore, the concept of peer correction was introduced as essential by the teacher. The students were required to carefully monitor their partners, as they spoke and correct them.

Story telling: In groups of three, the students told stories they had either read in a storybook or seen in a movie. Every group had three members: the storyteller, the one who would correct, and the third member who would keep a record of the story and described it to the next group in a rotational manner.

Shadowing in conversation: The teacher presented the students with a line, the students then had to take turns, making another sentence building a story.

Talk-show, free discussion: Both of these activities help students with their fluency, as they overcome their inhibitions and make an effort to speak. The situation resembles that of real life interaction and the students feel distanced from the classroom environment.

In brief, the treatment included the following steps in each session:

Session 1: Ice-breaking activity, introduction of the concept of autonomy, discussing awareness, learning styles and strategies, learning journals, websites, and Yahoo group, discussing students' goals and objectives

Session 2: Sharing journals, discussing issues and problems, describing assignments, the students engaged in a talk show, a pair-work.

Session 3: the students shared journals and discussed their issues and problems. They described their assignments, and presented a self-assessment to their partners in groups of three. As part of the story-telling activity, the students described a movie they had seen recently in pair, peer correction was emphasized; the class had a group discussion on the issue of learning English as a foreign language.

Session 4: After sharing their journals, talking about their assignments and progress, the students gave each other a feedback on using a journal and how it helped them with their learning process. The students took part in shadowing in conversation making up a story; they had a pair work and a free discussion.

The same procedures were carried out through the tenth session. The use of learning journals helped raise the students' consciousness and awareness toward their learning process. The activities and assignments they defined for themselves helped them with taking charge of their own learning. Discussing their favorable strategies with their peers, as they asserted gave them a new scope.

E. Design

The present study was quasi-experimental with a pretest-posttest design, since there was no chance of randomization of the participants and the groups were selected via convenient sampling. Of course, the choice of treatment for each group was randomly made. The independent variable of the study was the type of treatment namely, autonomy. The dependent variable was the speaking ability of the participants. The gender of the participants can be considered as the intervening variable, since the number of the male and female participants were not equal in the experimental group. The control variable of the study was the language proficiency of the learners according to the categorizations of the language school they were studying in (see Arfae, 2020).

F. Data Analysis

The SPSS software was used to conduct the statistical analysis, implemented in the present study, as follows:

1. Inter rater reliability estimate of the two raters in the speaking tests
2. Descriptive statistics of the speaking pretest
3. Descriptive statistics of the posttest
4. Checking the assumption of Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA)
5. An Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA)

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first step in statistical analysis was to analyze the data of the speaking pretest of the experimental group. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the speaking pretest conducted prior to the treatment (see Arfae, 2020).

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS' SPEAKING PRETEST

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Pre AUTONOMY	14	8.50	14.00	22.50	17.9286	2.28589	5.225	.192	.597
Valid N (List wise)	13								

As Table 1 shows, the mean turned out to be 17.92 for autonomy group. In addition, the variance was 5.22. Moreover, the fraction of skewness statistic to its Std. Error was equal to .32 that is between the range of -1.96 and 1.96, ensuring the normality of the distribution of scores in the speaking pretest for the experimental group.

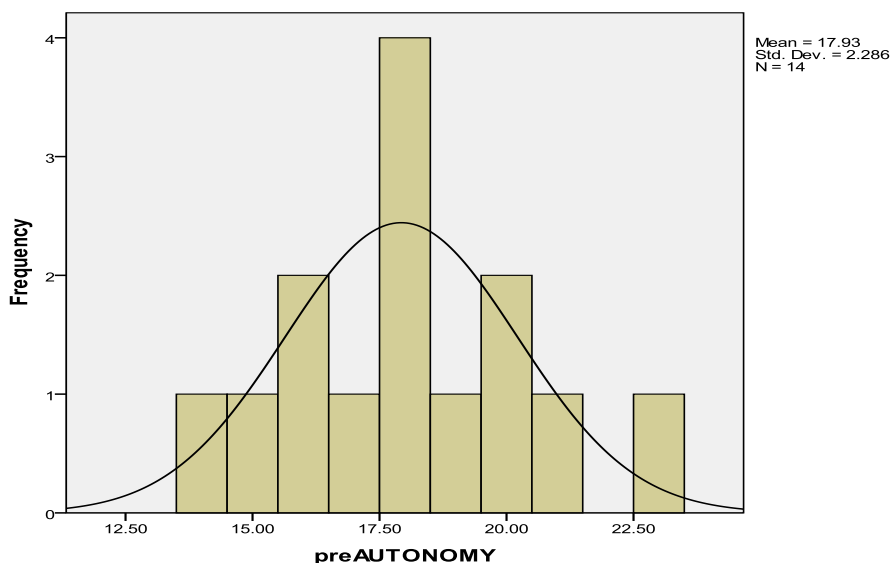


Figure 1. Histogram of Speaking Pretest Scores for Autonomy Group

In order to make sure of the reliability of the test scores, the scores of two raters were correlated to see whether the test was reliable or not. Table 2 provides the information on the inter-rater reliability of the two raters who scored the speaking pretest.

TABLE 2
INTER-RATER RELIABILITY OF SPEAKING PRETEST

		rater1	rater2
rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.923**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	50	50
rater2	Pearson Correlation	.923**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	50	50

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

As can be seen from Table 2, the two raters demonstrated a high amount of correlation and a reliable measurement. Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics of the speaking posttest, conducted at the end of the treatment period. At the end of the treatment period that took ten sessions, the researcher conducted a speaking posttest to see whether there has been any significant change in the performance of the experimental group. The data are provided in Table 3 (see Arfae, 2020).

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP'S SPEAKING POSTTEST

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Post t AUTONOMY	14	7.00	17.00	24.00	20.8571	1.92582	3.709	-.547	.597
Valid N (list wise)	13								

Table 3 shows a mean of 20.85 and a variance of 3.709 for autonomy group. In addition, the distribution of scores for the experimental group demonstrated normality, because none of the values of the fraction of skewness/Std. error of skewness came out to be out of the range of -1.96 and 1.96 (i.e., 1.28). The normal distributions are manifested in Figures 4, 5, and 6 below (see Arfae, 2020).

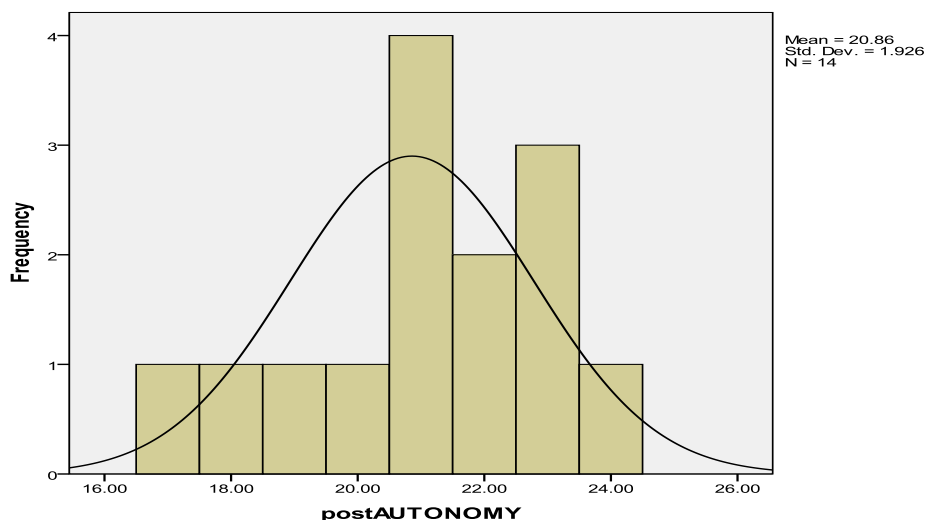


Figure 4 Histogram of Speaking Posttest Scores for Autonomy Thinking Group

Table 4 shows the inter-rater reliability estimate between the two raters of the speaking posttest.

TABLE 4
INTER-RATER RELIABILITY OF SPEAKING POSTTEST

		rater1	rater2
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.933**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	44	44
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.933**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	44	44

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

As can be seen from Table 4, the two raters enjoyed a high level of correlation, ensuring the reliability of the measurement by the researcher. As the number of participants was not large and there was no chance of homogenizing, the participants prior to the treatment without the risk of losing more participants and decreasing the number of the target sample, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted as the referential statistics of the research study and in order to investigate the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference between the impact of Teaching *Autonomy* on EFL learner's *speaking skill* (see Arfae, 2020).

However, prior to this analysis, there were a set of assumptions that need to be checked to legitimize conducting an ANCOVA. The independent categorical variable was the treatment provided for the experimental group, the continuous dependent variable was the participants' speaking ability, and the continuous covariate was the pretest scores of the participants on the speaking test conducted prior to the treatment.

The first assumption is the reliability of the covariate that is measured before the treatment and in this case the speaking pretest. As the speaking test was a PET speaking section rated according to the rating scale provided for the test and scored by raters whose inter-rater reliability was assured previously (see Table 3), this first assumption was met (see Arfae, 2020).

TABLE 5
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS-HOMOGENEITY OF REGRESSION SLOPES

Dependent Variable: speaking POSTTEST						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
Corrected Model	238.931 ^a	5	47.786	64.905	.000	
Intercept	18.763	1	18.763	25.484	.000	
GROUP	1.229	2	.614	.834	.442	
Speaking PRETEST	202.439	1	202.439	274.958	.000	
GROUP * speaking PRETEST	.970	2	.485	.659	.523	
Error	27.978	38	.736			
Total	18840.000	44				
Corrected Total	266.909	43				

a. R Squared = .895 (Adjusted R Squared = .881)

As the output obtained from Table 5 indicates, the value of significance level of the interaction term (shown above as GROUP*speaking pretest) is .523 which is larger than .05 indicating that the assumption has not been violated. Bearing in mind that the normality of the distributions of scores in both speaking pretest and posttest was previously checked and ensured, and with all assumptions of legitimizing ANCOVA met, the researcher felt confident to embark on the analysis. Tables 6, 7, present the results (see Arfae, 2020).

TABLE 6
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SPEAKING POSTTEST

Dependent Variable: speaking POSTTEST			
GROUP	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AUTONOMY	20.8571	1.92582	14

As can be seen from Table 6, the mean was 20.85 for the autonomy group. In addition, the standard deviation came out as 1.92. Table 7 presents the Levene’s test of equality of error variance.

TABLE 7
LEVENE’S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

Dependent Variable: speaking POSTTEST			
F	df1	df2	Sig.
4.430	2	41	.618

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.
a. Design: Intercept + speaking PRETEST + GROUP

According to Table 7, the Sig. value (i.e., 0.618) was larger than .05 showing that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated.

Table 8 presents the main ANCOVA results. It shows whether the groups were significantly different in terms of their scores on the speaking posttest (dependent variable) (see Arfae, 2020).

TABLE 8
TESTS OF BETWEEN SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Dependent Variable: speaking POSTTEST							
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	
Corrected Model	237.962 ^a	3	79.321	109.607	.000	.892	
Intercept	17.938	1	17.938	24.787	.000	.383	
speaking PRETEST	223.195	1	223.195	308.415	.000	.885	
GROUP	19.786	2	9.893	13.670	.000	.406	
Error	28.947	40	.724				
Total	18840.000	44					
Corrected Total	266.909	43					

a. R Squared = .892 (Adjusted R Squared = .883)

The Sig. value corresponding to the independent variable (GROUP) .000 turned out to be less than .05; therefore, the results are significant and the experimental group is indeed different regarding its performance on the speaking posttest. The partial Eta square was equal to .40 showing that 40% of the variance of the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable (see Arfae, 2020).

Table 9 presents the estimated marginal means on the dependent variable for each of the groups. Adjusted refers to the fact that the effect of covariate has been statistically removed.

TABLE 9
ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS

Dependent Variable: speaking POSTTEST				
GROUP	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
AUTONOMY	20.769 ^a	.227	20.309	21.228

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: speaking PRETEST = 17.8295.

As can be seen from Table 9, the mean 20.30 belonged to the autonomy group. Therefore, the null hypothesis of the study was rejected and group with both autonomy intervention (see Arfae, 2020).

V. DISCUSSION

A one-way between-group analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to compare the effectiveness of the one different intervention designed to improve speaking ability. The independent variable was the type of intervention (i.e., autonomy), and the dependent variable consisted of scores on the speaking posttest administered after the intervention was completed. The speaking pretest was considered as the covariate in this analysis. Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure that there was no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, homogeneity of variances, homogeneity of regression slopes, and reliable measurement of the covariate. After adjusting for the pre-intervention scores, there was a significant difference between the groups on post-intervention scores of speaking (see Arfae, 2020).

The analysis of the data elicited clearly rejects the null hypothesis of the research stating that ‘There is no significant difference between the impact of Teaching *Autonomy* on EFL learner’s *speaking skill*.’

The findings of the research are in line with the results presented by a great deal of empirical studies carried out on autonomy. Albeit somehow controversial, the notion of autonomy continues to gain weight. A cursory look at the literature stands evidence that proponents of the autonomy now outnumber the opponents by a large number. Concerning autonomy for instance, Benson (2006) in his state of the art article entitled “Autonomy in language teaching and learning,” mentions the growing interest to the teaching of autonomy in language classrooms. While citing works such as Hedge (2000), Harmer (2001), Kumaravadivelu (1991), Nation (2001) and Thornbury (2005), Benson (2006) says that such books provide us with the most striking evidence of the movement of autonomy into mainstream language education.

Material developers have likewise learned about the efficacy of incorporating tasks that promote autonomy. A glance at Jack C. Richards’ ‘Four Corners’ stands proof to the assertion.

The present research however is quite distinctive in that it presents an investigation into the impact of the teaching of autonomy on EFL learners. Naturally, the results have certain implications for pedagogical circles.

VI. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

A. Conclusion

The study aimed at investigating the impact of teaching autonomy on intermediate EFL learners’ speaking skill. To this end, the null hypothesis stating that ‘There is no significant difference between the impact of Teaching *Autonomy* on EFL learner’s *speaking skill*’ was put to test.

A total number of 44 participants were assigned to one experimental group of autonomy; the participants were assigned to the one experimental groups of Autonomy.

Prior to the treatment, a PET speaking pretest was given to the participants in the experimental group. The participants’ performance was recorded using a recording device and then rated by two raters using the same rating scale to minimize the subjectivity of the rating. Then, the experimental group was exposed to the designated treatment that lasted for 10 two-hour sessions. Due to the regulations of the language school, however, the researcher or teacher could allocate no more than 45 minutes of every session to the treatment. Upon the conclusion of the treatment, a PET speaking posttest was administered. The same mechanism as the pretest was employed in the rating of the participants’ performances at this stage. In order to study the impact of the independent variable an analysis of covariance ANCOVA was conducted as the referential statistics of the research study. While providing the opportunity to study the participants’ performances prior and after the introduction of the relevant treatment designated for the experimental group in an individual level as well as a whole experimental group the application of ANCOVA obviated the need of a homogenization process which would lead to a significant participant loss as the number of the participants was relatively small. Certain assumptions were investigated to legitimize the application of an ANCOVA. Once the assumptions were met, the researcher felt confident to embark on the analysis.

The study aimed to investigate the impact of teaching of autonomy. The results presented clearly rejected the null hypothesis, revealing significant differences among the impact of teaching of the independent variable (see Arfae, 2020).

At the end of the treatment period that took ten sessions, the researcher conducted a speaking posttest to see whether there has been any significant change in the performance of the experimental group (i.e. Autonomy group). There was a mean of 20.85 for autonomy group. The variance was 3.709. The null hypothesis was clearly rejected.

The study aimed to investigate the impact of teaching autonomy upon the EFL intermediate learners. The results of the study serve the enthusiast teachers and material developers as a device to better their work. The analysis of the data collected throughout the study stand as evidence to the assertion.

Note should be taken however, that due to the language school's regulation where the study was carried out, the researcher or teacher could allocate no more than 45 minutes of each session to the treatment. Had the limitation not been there, the results of the study might have turned out differently (see Arfae, 2020).

B. Implications

The analysis of the data elicited through the previously mentioned mechanisms, proved the significant difference the implementation of the treatment made in each participant. The outcome reveals the importance of fostering the language learner autonomy. The proper implementation of the concoction as concluded by the research results will definitely ensure a better performance on the part of the learners while increasing the efficacy of the process. The findings of the study while consistent with the assertions of the scholars advocating autonomy highlight the efficacy of the fostering of learner autonomy. Accordingly, the researcher makes the following recommendations (see Arfae, 2020):

- Teachers must be made aware of the concepts autonomy. Teacher training courses need to familiarize language teachers with the strategies and techniques applicable in fostering learner autonomy.
- Material developers need to promote learner autonomy through provision of tasks that help the teachers and learners to that end.
- The learners also need to be made aware of the concepts of autonomy. They also need to learn about self-regulation and discovery learning. While being encouraged to think for themselves, the learners need to gradually take charge of their own learning.
- Establishing positive teacher-student, student-student rapport, creating a convivial environment and promoting cooperative/collaborative learning should be highlighted in language classrooms. They act as catalyst in promoting learner autonomy.

C. Suggestions for Further Research

In spite of the growing interest in the concepts of autonomy, as Benson (2006) says, it has to be acknowledged that the empirical knowledge base on autonomy in language learning remains somewhat weak. In pedagogical circles helping facilitate the teaching or learning of a foreign language. The following may serve the enthusiastic research as potential grounds to cover (see Arfae, 2020):

- Even though an assumption on the part of the researcher was that the elementary learners of a foreign language might lack the maturity necessary for being exposed to the treatment of the study or that the advanced learners might have already obtained or developed, it might prove useful to include those levels in further research.
- The limitation concerning the number of participants of the study is an issue worth considering. Further studies with large numbers of participants may be carried out to assess the findings of the study (see Arfae, 2020).
- The study was carried out in a private language school where the participants willingly took part in EFL classrooms. The level of motivation of the learners in such an environment would in all likelihood differ from that of the EFL learners in other educational institutions including schools. Further research may be carried out in other educational facilities.
- Due to the age limitation dictated by the language school, where the study was conducted, children were excluded from the study.
- Further study may be carried out to investigate the impact of teaching autonomy on other dependent variables specifically other language skills, i.e. reading, writing and listening.
- Due to the regulations of the language school and the syllabus that had to be covered, the researcher allocated 45 minutes of each session for the experimental treatment. Further study may be carried out to investigate the result of longer exposure to the treatments (see Arfae, 2020).

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Cameroon English Speech: Intelligibility to Some Chinese Speakers of English Living in Cameroon and Pedagogic Concerns

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Abstract—In the recent past, there have been several calls from Cameroonian scholars for the variety of English spoken within the country to be taught in the Cameroonian classroom, arguing strongly that the acquisition and use of Standard British English (SBE) is far-fetched given the socio-pragmatic realities of the context within which the language is learnt (see, for instance, Atechi, 2006; Ngefac, 2010 & 2011). On the same token, there have been doubts whether Cameroon English (CamE) can be regarded as a variety in its own right (see Simo Bobda, 2002). This study set out to investigate the intelligibility of Cameroon English speech to educated Chinese speakers of English living in Cameroon and to examine what implications the findings can have on English Language teaching (ELT) in Cameroon.

Index Terms—Indigenisation, Intelligibility, ELT, Cameroon English Speech, Chinese English

I. INTRODUCTION

The spread of the English language across the globe has resulted in forms which are significantly different from those of the traditional seats of the language. This spread of the English language is very likely to lead to intelligibility problems within non-native varieties because the forms and the functions of the language differ from one context to another. Consequently, English is not used as a monolith in non-native settings as it is usually influenced by different sociolinguistic realities. It is in this light that we set out to investigate the intelligibility of a non-native English, that is CamE speech to speakers of educated Chinese speakers of English who themselves are non-native speakers living in Cameroon.

II. CONCEPTUALISING INTELLIGIBILITY

Intelligibility has attracted and sustained the interest of many researchers over the past decades. In fact, Atechi (2006) argues that “with the emergence of non-native varieties of English across the globe, the concept of intelligibility has attracted the sustained attention of many international scholars” (p. 1). Though intelligibility has occupied the nucleus of linguistic research for some time now, there seems to be no consensus among researchers as to what intelligibility is, as it has been viewed from wide-ranging perspectives. Kenworthy (1987) defines intelligibility as “being understood by a listener at a given time in a given situation.” In more practical terms, she holds that “the more words a speaker is able to identify accurately, the more intelligible the speech is.” Intelligibility, in this light, is defined in terms of the speaker and the listener in a particular speech interaction. Catford (1950, p. 8) holds that intelligibility depends on the effectiveness of an utterance. This effectiveness comes when the speaker’s intention is understood by the listener. Thus, Catford (ibid) posits that any discussion of intelligibility must also deal with the loss of intelligibility. Munro and Derwing (1995a), on their part, define intelligibility as “the extent to which an utterance produced by a native speaker (NS) or non-native speaker (NNS) is understood by a native listener (NL) or non-native listener (NNL).” This definition dwells so much on the NS/ NNS dichotomy. It is worth noting here that studies in English have gone past the stage of the traditional definition of the native speaker. In fact, the distinction between native and non-native speaker may be considered archaic. After all, who defines a native speaker in a world where English has been adopted, adapted and nativised to suit context-specific realities? To rephrase this definition to suit the context of this study, we will look at intelligibility as the extent to which an utterance by a speaker is understood by a listener.

Far from defining what intelligibility is, some scholars (Smith 1992; Munro and Derwing 1995a; Munro et al., 2006) have rather looked at intelligibility as a component within a complex set of ideas. According to Smith (1992), the term “intelligibility” has a very broad sense; consequently, he divides it into three categories namely: intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability.

1. Intelligibility which focuses on word/ utterance recognition.
2. Comprehensibility which focuses on word/ utterance meaning.
3. Interpretability which focuses on meaning behind word/ utterance.

These three categories, as Smith (1992) argues, constitute a continuum and should be looked at as different. He classifies it in order of importance, from the least to the most important. Given that intelligibility entails understanding

an utterance which can be achieved only through interpretation, this researcher shares Atechi's (2006, p. 43) view that, "this distinction seems not clear." This is because we cannot draw clear-cut lines on where one category ends and where another one begins. For instance, when a listener uses context and other clues to decode the speaker's message, we are dealing with aspects that go beyond simple word/ utterance recognition. Intelligibility, in this study, is perceived as the ability of a listener to accurately write down what a particular speaker has said.

III. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Several studies on the intelligibility of non-native speech abound in the literature of the world Englishes. The intelligibility debate of non-native Englishes was triggered especially by the fact that most of NNEs have been regarded as "incorrect", "unacceptable" or "deviant." Some of these studies include Bansal (1969); Tiffen (1974); Munro and Derwing (1995); Munro (1998); Bradlow and Pisoni (1999); Jenkins (2002); van Wijngaarden (2001); van Wijngaarden *et al.* (2002) and Bent and Bradlow (2003). Jenkins (2002) examines the possible causes of communication breakdowns when NNSs communicate. In the study, she found out that "a combination of phonological errors which caused the most serious problems of intelligibility was as a result of wrongly placed stress in words" (p. 89). Thus, suprasegmental aspects of phonology cause a lot of intelligibility problems between non-native speakers. Pickering (2006), thus, qualifies non-native speakers in the light of their tonal structure (overuse of falling tones) as "unsympathetic and uninvolved." Stress and tone have proven to be major causes of intelligibility breakdown of non-native speech. Equally, according to Nash (1969), quoted in Bent and Bradlow (2003, p. 1601), "a non-native speaker who cannot make himself understood when speaking English to a native English speaker will have no difficulty conversing with another non-native speaker." This suggests that non-native speech is more intelligible to other non-native speakers than to native speakers. Further research on the intelligibility of non-native speech, carried out by van Wijngaarden (2001), using native and non-native speakers, has provided very strong evidence to support this view; the findings reveal that non-native listeners find sentences produced by non-native talkers as intelligible as those produced by native speakers. Non-native talkers in this study were less intelligible than each of the four native talkers included.

Practically, the difficulty in understanding non-native speech has not only been subject to empirical studies but it has also been found in the difficulty native speakers find in understanding non-native speech in everyday communicative exchanges. A typical example is quoted by Atechi (2006, p. 53). As the report goes:

A Nigerian woman went to do her hair in a salon owned by an American lady of Jewish extraction.

The Nigerian, an English major from a famous Nigerian university, was of course sure of her English. She confidently articulated her needs in what she considers the Queen's English. Much to her chagrin, however, the only response she drew from the hairdresser was an apology, "I'm sorry, but I know no foreign language. I speak only English."

This anecdote captures the numerous dilemmas through which non-native speakers go when they interact with native speakers. Though this story may sound weird, it is worth noting that this very speech would have been perfectly intelligible to other non-native speakers, especially other Nigerians. This brings in the relevance of the question asked by previous researchers such as Kachru (1986), "intelligibility with whom?" Simo Bobda (1994, p. 14), in response to this question, points out that intelligibility is relative; it depends on the participants in the speech act, as well as on the context. In fact, Smith (1992) holds that we need to be intelligible only to those with whom we need to communicate. With the status of the English language today as a global language, where interaction is not only between native and non-native speakers but also among non-native speakers themselves, there is the dire need to investigate the extent to which non-native listeners can successfully understand other non-native speakers. In fact, it is within this framework that this study is situated.

If we chose to limit this study to the intelligibility of CamE speech, it is because CamE speech has been proven to be the highest aspect which posed intelligibility problems. This is supported by Ntumbuh (1998) in her study on how Americans and British residing in Cameroon perceive English in terms of intelligibility. Though most of the informants held that CamE was very intelligible, a few, on the other hand, held that CamE was not intelligible at all. The study also revealed that more than 90% of the informants acknowledged that pronunciation was a major source of intelligibility problems as far as CamE is concerned.

In the light of the intelligibility studies, Atechi (2006) carried out a bi-directional study on the intelligibility of native and non-native Englishes. For the purpose of the study, five tests involving connected speech, phonemic contrast elicitation, passage reading, nucleus placement in words and sentences were conceived. Some aspects of native English were played to Cameroonian informants while CamE speech was played to Americans and British who were informants. The findings at the end of the investigation were summarised as follows:

1. When CamE speakers speak, native English speakers can understand about 61.3%
 2. When CamE speakers speak, BrE speakers can understand about 62.9%.
 3. When CamE speakers speak, AmE speakers can understand about 59.7%
 4. When native English speakers speak, CamE speakers can understand about 56.3 %
 5. When BrE speakers speak, CamE speakers can understand about 58.7%
 6. When AmE speakers speak, CamE speakers can understand about 53.9%
- (Atechi 2006, p. 129)

On the intelligibility of CamE speech which is the focus of this study, we discover that CamE speech is intelligible to 61.3% of the native speakers used for the study. More precisely, the statistics reveal that CamE speech was intelligible to 59.7% of British informants and 56.3% of Americans respectively. As Catford (1950, p. 8) puts it, we cannot look at intelligibility without looking at the other side of the coin. Thus, since this was a bi-dimensional study, the statistics presented above show that CamE speakers understand only about 56.3% of the speech of native speakers. Well, we cannot belabour this point because the results go a long way to show the gap that exists between native and non-native speech. Thus, it equally reveals that CamE, in particular, has been so indigenised to the extent that it is no longer very intelligible to native speakers. Whatever the case, the overall results reveal that CamE is more intelligible to native speakers of English than native English is to the speakers of Cameroon.

On a whole, studies on CamE speech have revealed different levels of intelligibility of CamE speech and one thing which stands out clear in all the studies is that CamE speech is not 100% intelligible to the informants in the various studies. Equally, we discovered that most, if not, all of the studies had as informants native speakers. This, equally, reveals the dearth in the literature of the intelligibility of CamE speech from a non-native perspective. In a world where the non-native speakers are numerically superior to native speakers (Crystal 2003), such choice of informants has far-reaching consequences as far as communication in the English language is concerned. Given the numerical advantage of non-native speakers, it is very likely that a CamE speaker when interacting with foreign speakers will interact more non-native speakers than native speakers.

IV. INTELLIGIBILITY TESTING

A series of tests have been developed to investigate intelligibility. Kenworthy (1987) holds that the best way of testing intelligibility is through 'impressionistic' or 'subjective' assessments. In such assessments, a listener is asked to listen to a particular speaker and say how easy or difficult it is to understand them. She sees this method as not only accurate but also very reliable and, therefore, holds that "one does need complicated tests and procedures to assess the intelligibility of non-native speakers" (p. 20). However, this still poses a number of problems, the most pertinent being what a non-native speaker who wants to study the intelligibility of native speech to other non-native speakers do to if he/she cannot assemble the speakers and the listeners in a single place. Probably, it is due to such considerations that recent research on intelligibility (Atechi 2006; Nya 2010; Lugwig 2012) has tended to use tape recorders to record the speech of particular speakers. Tape recorders are advantageous in a number of ways: first, they assure accuracy and, second, they enable a researcher to test a particular speech pattern over long distances without having to carry the speakers of that variety along. With the increasing spread and use of the English language across the globe, it is worth noting that intelligibility studies have gone beyond mere word recognition, as illustrated by studies such as Bansal (1969); Tiffen (1974); Brown (1977); Atechi (2006); Chen (2011).

Other intelligibility studies have revealed a good number of intelligibility testing methods some of which are: doze procedure test (Smith & Rafiqzad 1979), close tests (Nelson 1982), and translation from target language (TL) to L1 and vice versa. Thus, to test the intelligibility of CamE speech to the subjects under study, some tests have been designed. These tests will be read by selected speakers of CamE, after which, the speech will be recorded and played to the informants who will be expected to write down what they have heard. The results got are to be analysed and we will from the analysis, ascertain the degree of the intelligibility of CamE speech to educated Chinese speakers of English living in Cameroon.

V. METHOD

This study was carried out in the metropolitan cities of Yaounde and Bamenda. The study made use of both speakers and listeners. The speakers were Cameroonians who were to produce the sample speech to be used for the study. Thus, in order to get the speech sample for the study, a number of CamE speakers were observed and only those whose productions were representative of CamE speech were retained for the study. All the speakers were drawn from the faculty of Arts, Letters and Social Sciences of the University of Yaounde I. At first, some of the speakers were taken from the English Department but when their articulations were analysed, we discovered that most of the articulations were highly influenced by either RP or general American English. Equally, it was noticed that some of them tended to be too conscious of their speech that it led to forms that were not attested in any of the varieties (hypercorrection). Because of this, anyone who majored in English at the University was automatically disqualified as a speaker. So, five students of English speaking backgrounds were chosen and after a series of discussions with them, three were retained to produce the test material that could be presented to the informants.

The listeners, on the other hand, comprised fifty educated Chinese speakers of English residing either in the North West or Centre Regions of Cameroon. Education was an important consideration in the selection of the informants. This is because English is used in China to supplement the native Chinese language. Consequently, it is through formal education that most Chinese come in contact with English. In this light, 68% of the informants had a Bachelor's Degree, while 32% had a Master's Degree in their different areas of specialisation.

In order to test the intelligibility of CamE speech to the informants above, a series of tests were designed to this effect. Consequently, the tests included word recognition. Consequently, some ten words which portrayed clear

variations in pronunciation between Received Pronunciation (RP) and CamE speech were identified and adopted for the study. Apart from the identification of words in isolation, a passage was also designed by the researcher for the study. The usefulness of a passage to the testing of intelligibility is seen the fact that previous studies on intelligibility have proven that, when context is provided, words become more intelligible than when they are in isolation. Finally, the test material for testing intelligibility of CamE speech to the informants under study equally took into consideration some of the suprasegmental features of CamE, especially stress. Consequently, some words with deviant stress patterns were selected and subsequently put in these sentences. These tests were read out by CamE speakers, tape recorded by the researchers and, subsequently, played to the informants who were expected to write down what they had heard.

VI. RESULTS

A. *The Intelligibility of Segmental Features of CamE Speech in Isolation*

These words analysed in this section were based exclusively on the segmental features of CamE speech. Hence, twelve words were carefully chosen and presented to the informants. The test reveals interesting scores on the intelligibility of segmental features of CamE speech. The scores were based on the ability of the subjects to identify tape-recorded words and write them correctly. A detailed account of the results of the intelligibility of the various words to the informants under study is presented on the table below.

TABLE I
THE DEGREE OF INTELLIGIBILITY OF SEGMENTAL FEATURES TO THE INFORMANTS

No	Word	RP rendition	CamE rendition	Frequency of responses	Percentage
1	Sergeant	/sɜ:dʒənt/	/sedʒənt/	25	50
2	Colonel	/kɔ:nəl/	/kolonel/	18	36
3	Mayor	/meɪə/	/mejə/	23	46
4	Tower	/taʊə/	/towa/	25	50
5	Favourite	/feɪvərɪt/	/fevərait/	40	80
6	Leopard	/lepəd/	/ljopat/	4	16
7	Martyr	/mɑ:tə/	/mataja/	3	6
8	Sure	/ʃʊə/	/ʃə/	15	30
9	Tour	/tʊə/	/tə/	18	36
10	Lawyer	/ləɪə/	/ləja/	35	70
11	Assume	/əsjum/	/azjum/	45	90
12	Consume	/kɔnsjum/	/kɔnzjum/	43	86
			Mean	24.83	49.66

Summarily, looking at the intelligibility situation of CamE speech basing our judgments from the analysis of the scores got from the informants' identification of words whose pronunciations have undergone different segmental modifications within the Cameroonian setting, we discover that the intelligibility situation is close to average as the mean percentage score for the test stands at 49.66%. This means that if words are pronounced arbitrarily to Chinese speakers of English living in Cameroon, not up to half of the informants would be able to understand. Such results tell so much about the growth and development of CamE speech, especially at the segmental level and this has so many implications on the learning and use of the variety of English spoken in Cameroon. In the next section, we will look at the intelligibility situation of segmental features of words when used in continuous speech. Given that some of the words were also put in context, we will equally see how the inclusion of these words within specific contexts have improved or marred their intelligibility.

B. *The Intelligibility of Segmental Features of CamE Speech in Connected Speech*

In the analysis of this test, we paid keen interest on the role of context on some of the words discussed in the previous test. Such a method enabled us to bring out the various clues which enhance intelligibility. Given that this test was made up of a passage, we had to break it up into manageable segments to ease analysis. The intelligibility of CamE in connected speech is presented on the table below.

TABLE II
THE INTELLIGIBILITY OF CONTINUOUS SPEECH TO THE INFORMANTS

No.	Segment/sentence	Frequency of intelligible productions	Percentage %
1.	Joan lives in a village in the southern part of the country	5	10
2.	Their division has a police station	35	70
3.	and a local council with a mayor at its head	20	40
4.	It also has a clinic which takes care of amoeba infections.	5	10
5.	Though they assume that they have a plumber who is in charge of their water supply,	28	56
6.	they always consume infected water.	23	46
7.	Last December, there was a serious bombing of the post office tower	15	30
8.	The colonel, who was head of the military	20	40
9.	opted for to be a martyr	5	10
10.	when he decided to challenge the terrorists with his old sword	25	50
11.	Though he was not sure to win	33	66
12.	his colleagues constantly surveyed the whole area	15	30
13.	making it difficult for the invaders to escape.	33	66
	Mean	20.15	40.30

The table above shows that the mean intelligibility score for this test stands at 40.30%. This therefore suggests that aspects of CamE pronunciation in connected speech pose some problems of understanding to educated Chinese speakers of English living in Cameroon. The very fact that segmental aspects of CamE pronunciation are intelligible to less than 50% of the population under study goes a long way to confirm postulations of previous studies on CamE (Simo Bobda and Mbangwana 1993, Simo Bobda 1994) that CamE has developed a quasi-autonomous phonological system. In the next section, we will look at the intelligibility of some suprasegmental aspects of CamE speech to the population under study.

C. *The Intelligibility of Suprasegmental Features of Came Speech*

In line with the objectives of this study, we also sought to find out the degree to which suprasegmental features of CamE speech were intelligible to the population under study. This is because when we speak, we use both segmental and suprasegmental features of pronunciation concomitantly. Consequently, we designed a test in which we used words whose stress patterns deviate significantly from RP, but are used normally in CamE speech. Though this test was made up on sentences, we focused our analysis on the rendition of the words concerned. The written productions of the informants were analysed and the degree to which they were intelligible is presented on the following table.

TABLE III
THE INTELLIGIBILITY OF SUPRASEGMENTAL FEATURES TO THE INFORMANTS

No	RP stress position	CamE stress position	Frequency of correct answers	Percentage
1	'classificatory	classifi'catory	26	52
2	'mandatory	man'datory	25	50
3	'tentative	ten'tative	28	56
4	'plantains	Plan'tains	25	50
5	se'conds	'seconds	20	40
6	re'cord (verb)	'record	25	50
7	suc'cess	'success	23	46
8	um'brella	'umbrella	30	60
9	op'ponent	'opponent	20	40
10	'subjected	sub'jected	45	90
	Mean		26.7	53.4

The analysis of the suprasegmental features of CamE with focus on stress shows that its mean percentage score is 53.4%. This therefore suggests that, in some cases, the stress position of a word in CamE speech may significantly influence the rate of intelligibility of a word or segment. However, on a whole, we can postulate that stress does not really pose intelligibility problems as this test was intelligible to more than half of the population.

D. *The Intelligibility of CamE Rhythm*

Generally, rhythm is the succession of stressed and unstressed sounds in a language, resulting in particular beats. Thus, rhythm depends largely on stress. So, deviant stress patterns from those to which the listener is accustomed to can result in a rhythm that can cause problems of intelligibility to the listeners. Wirth noting here is the fact that the rhythm of CamE speech significantly deviates from that of RP because CamE pronunciation is made up of strong forms where almost every syllable is stressed. Thus, given that the tests, especially that to test the intelligibility of stress to the informants under study was intelligible to 53.4% of the informants, we can infer that CamE rhythm does not really impair intelligibility given that rhythm is generally defined by stress placement.

VII. IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

The relationship between intelligibility and aspects of speech production is a very complicated one. This is because

the spread of the English language across different areas has met with so many cultures that have significantly influenced its pronunciation, as it is being adopted and adapted to suit context-specific realities. Thus, the English language spoken in the Cameroonian context is not left out as it has equally undergone significant indigenisation, thereby leading to a new variety of English known in linguistic literature today as CamE. However, though the variety has developed extensively to capture the worldview of its speakers, it has not been recognised in the classroom. Consequently, ELT in Cameroon still targets SBE, in spite of numerous calls from scholars (Ngefacs 2010, 2011; Atechi 2010, Ngwa 2015) for the recognition and use of CamE in the classroom. The fact that SBE is still targeted as the goal for ELT in Cameroon raises many problems in the classroom because the teachers themselves are non-native speakers who cannot squarely teach SBE without the interference of CamE on their lessons. Hence, it is worth noting that SBE, which is the target of ELT in Cameroon, is almost inexistent and, consequently, there is the need to get learners acquainted with the variety of English spoken in Cameroon. Drawing from our findings, we noted that segmental features were not very intelligible to the informants under study as the mean intelligibility score stood at less than 50%. Given that the informants themselves are non-native speakers of English, such results suggest that, even within non-native contexts, the English language is fast spreading and is taking new forms. Consequently, ELT material in Cameroon should be tailored to meet the new changes the language is embracing in Cameroon.

With regard to shaping ELT material to suit the context-specific realities of its new environment, we do not ignore the fact that there are worries or questions which really need to be clarified. These include the material to use in teaching and the purpose for which the language is learned. As far as ELT in Cameroon is concerned, most scholars argue that SBE will always be dominant because it is well codified and there exist so many visual and audio-visual tools to ease the acquisition of the variety. The primary claim here is that the native or older varieties of English dominate the ELT industry because of the fact that it has a huge database on them which enhance the learning of the English language. However, the problem with not using CamE in the classroom does not really lie with the unavailability of material on the subject because CamE has been described at all linguistic levels and this literature shows the CamE has fairly predictable and stable features, especially at the phonological level. In fact, Ngwa (2015, p. 27) sees the acceptance of non-native Englishes in ELT as “a way to facilitate the process of codification, which will guarantee fairly stable non-native standards that can help in the process of looking for solutions to the intelligibility problems raised.” Thus, teaching CamE will not only enhance the codification of the language but will also lead to the standardisation of the language since only the stable features will be identified and taught. The real problem lies with stakeholders who need to change attitudes and accept the fact that CamE is robust enough to capture the cosmic visions of its speakers. Consequently, it should not be relegated to the background.

Having analysed the findings got on the intelligibility of CamE speech, it can be deduced that the most appropriate premise from which to treat the complex notion of intelligibility within the Cameroonian setting, especially in the classroom, is arguably the fact that, first of all, it must tie with the function of the English language in Cameroon which is the immediate context of the adaptation of the language. This is because Cameroonians use English more for national than international needs. Hence, this too should be reflected in the classroom. Deviating from previous studies which have investigated the complex relationship between intelligibility and features of SBE, this study has focused on the intelligibility of CamE speech to non-native speakers from the Expanding Circle. The findings have revealed that with a little bit of effort from both the Cameroonians and Chinese when they engage in conversations, comfortable intelligibility can be achieved. Thus, as far as the teaching of CamE is concerned, we can adopt Bamgbose’s (1971, p. 41) view, quoted in Simo Bobda (1994), of a local variety that will satisfy the minimum requirements of national and international intelligibility.

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Lost in Translation: The Implementation of Community Service in Lebanese High-schools Following Decree No.8924

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Abstract—In 2012, the Lebanese Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MEHE) issued Decree No. 8924. Entitled “Project Community Service in Public and Private Secondary Schools”, the decree states that all schools should apply a mandatory 60-hour community service program across the three secondary school years. There have been scattered efforts to study how the Decree is being implemented across Lebanon, with no exhaustive and thorough study yet documented. This research sought to fill part of that gap by examining the experience of ten private Catholic schools. The research results were congruent with global educational policy implementation research and suggested future lines of inquiry specific to Lebanon.

Index Terms—community service, Catholic education, educational policy implementation, policy-making, citizenship

I. INTRODUCTION

Education in conflict areas is sometimes perceived as being part of the problem rather than the solution (Bush & Saltelli, 2000). More specifically, education was found to play a role in both the development and exacerbation of conflict. On the one hand, evidence suggests that education is a human right that contributes to the promotion of social cooperation and understanding and builds an internal collective solidarity (Pherali, 2019). The UNESCO Commission for Education highlights the positive and civilizing power of education, revealing that it is a means to reduce poverty, crime, exclusion and ignorance, creating greater harmony in a community and fostering social peace (1997, p.11). On the other hand, education can also have a destructive impact (Bush & Saltarelli, 2000) and as per Sommer (2002), “many who conduct modern wars are expert at using educational settings to indoctrinate and control children” (p.8). Educational institutions sites of influence that help form the personality and outlook of their students and are sometimes abused for the purpose of establishing war propaganda. It is thus suggested that the purpose of educational institutions changes depending on the context and situation of the country in question, whether it is at peace or at war.

The educational system has been advocating community service in the youth for social cohesion purposes and an overall development of the overall community. Research suggests that active involvement in community service predicts later civic engagement (Hart et al., 2007). For instance, it was found to help shape the students’ identity as many students do service at sites managed by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as a response to social crises such as extreme poverty or homelessness. A study by Huda et al. (2018) disclosed that students’ engagement in community service was positively associated with the development of greater civic responsibility. Acquired civic values in turn contribute to their personal as well as social development as they start to identify themselves as individuals who are capable of positive public involvement. Furthermore, community service was established to be valuable for students’ self-exploration and the development of their leadership skills by providing them the chance to make meaningful changes and witnessing the consequences of their actions (Dewey, 1916). The latter highlights the significance of community service and how it can be beneficial on both a societal and personal level.

Social cohesion was found to cater for societal needs in times of conflict (Aall & Crocker, 2019). It was stated by the UN Research Institute for Social Development that a government’s role should be to create programs encouraging national cohesion in order to improve social welfare and promote integration in shaping attitudes towards peace (2003). As an example, a study conducted in Lebanon explored the impact of community kitchens and their establishment in Syrian refugee camps. Results revealed that this act of service enhanced nutrition education among women in the camps, reduced social isolation and improved cooking and food management skills in low-income families in a context of war and displacement (Ibrahim, Abou Haidar & Jomaa, 2019). The latter displays how small initiatives can make a positive contribution to furthering the community’s interests.

While the Lebanese Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MEHE) issued Decree No. 8924 “Project Community Service in Public and Private Secondary Schools”, a gap in the literature still exists regarding its implementation in Lebanon. To our knowledge, no recent published study describes the experiences of schools when implementing the Decree and a study to tackle this would be the first of its kind in studying the impact of change on students, teachers and parents. Lebanon is a country that experienced a civil war for almost fifteen years. In addition to this, it is currently fac-

ing a refugee crisis, with the influx of almost one million Syrian refugees in 2019. Opportunities for affordable education are limited, and poverty sometimes leads to negative coping mechanisms such as child labor or child marriage. Based on past literature, the establishment of community service in conflicted areas can have a positive and significant impact on the wellbeing of the general community. At present, debates on the implementation of the Decree are arising and school headmasters are determining the risks and benefits of such a decision. Research on this matter contributes to literature by evaluating the extent to which the implementation of community service across Lebanese high schools can successfully meet the Decree's aims of cultivating citizenship and social cohesion among students.

In Lebanon, the main policy-making actors are the Parliament and the Council of Ministers. The Council is responsible for setting the general policy of the state in all domains, approving draft bills and decrees, and overseeing the implementation of laws. In 2012, the Council approved the above-mentioned Decree Number 8924 (The decree states that all schools should apply a mandatory 60-hour community service program across the three secondary school years covered in the study (approximately 14 to 18 year-old students). From an educational perspective, global research examining the effectiveness of community service in schools and universities has been prolific. The general consensus is that it is an effective tool for the academic, personal, and social development of students. However, research examining the impact of community service on students remains scarce in Lebanon and the region. Moreover, there is a deficit in the MENA region in terms of studying the implementations of educational policies. This research seeks to fill in these gaps by examining the implementation Decree No. 8924 in light of existing research on policy implementation and the experience of ten private Catholic schools following the decree.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A. Education Policy

The implementation of education policy is a complex and evolving process that requires and involves input from several stakeholders. Measuring policy outcomes in education is particularly challenging, "because they take time to appear, and because it may be difficult to attribute learning performance outcomes to one specific policy" (Viennet & Pont, 2017, p.11). Moreover, "few studies actually document reform impact or can specify what factors contribute to the policy's success" (Viennet & Pont, 2017, p. 11). As a result, governments, experts, and international organizations have come to acknowledge the necessity of focusing on implementation processes (Gurr á, 2015; Pont, 2008; Schleicher, 2016; Wagstaff, 2013).

Unlike the policy itself, the implementation strategy is action-oriented and must be flexible enough to cope with the unexpected (Fullan, 2015). When examining action strategies in Mexico, the OECD (2010) found that successful implementation was linked to the establishment of "a small number of clear, high-priority, measurable, ambitious but feasible goals focused on student outcomes, which do not distort practices within the school system (e.g. teaching to the test)" (OECD, 2010). Barber (2008) also stresses the importance of defining and prioritizing targets (i.e. objectives linked to figures) for effective policy implementation.

In fact, the design of an given policy is a main determinant in hindering or facilitating its implementation process, as the way in which a policy is formulated influences its enactment (Bell & Stevenson, 2015). Haddad and Demsky (1995) argue that policy development should be based on evidence and a solid understanding of the education sector in general, as well as the socioeconomic, cultural, demographic, and political contexts. Moreover, the policy's underlying theory of change, or causal theory, is essential as it creates a narrative as to how and why the policy change will take place, and thus can guide and engage stakeholders (Fullan, 2015).

Another determinant of the policy's implementation is its context, i.e. the environment in which it is implemented, which can include institutional settings, existing policies and their complementarities, and events that can impact socio-political trends. According to Pont (2008), the speed and extent to which a policy is implemented is determined by constitutions, laws, rules, conventions, and norms or habits. Research also suggests that implementation is particularly affected by the compatibility of educational policies: only when policies are compatible and coherent is change possible in complex systems such as the education sector (Mason, 2016; Pont, 2017).

Research further suggests that policy actors'¹ belief systems, interests, and motivations affect their perceptions and engagement with the policy (Malen, 2006; Spillane, Reiser & Reimer, 2002). In this context, Malen defines interests as "the complex web of values, views, orientations, dispositions, preferences, and convictions that shape their perception of public problems and the policy solution that may be attached to them" (Malen, 2006, p. 87).

Pont highlights that when service providers, teachers, principals, and parents support a policy (rather than oppose it), its chances of effective implementation increase significantly (Pont, 2017). Moreover, the actors' capacities play a significant role in effective implementation. In a study conducted by Cheung and Man Wong, the teachers' professional development and the principals' leadership skills were found to positively affect policy implementation (Cheung & Man Wong, 2012). Equally influential are the schools' organizational settings and their capacity: Bell and Stevenson (2015) argue that the manner in which organizations react to a given policy is shaped by organizational principles, structures,

¹ The implementers of a policy may be identified as "stakeholders" or "actors", which can refer to both individuals and collective entities, whether formal or informal, across all levels of policy implementation.

and internal procedures.

In light of these studies, this research seeks to examine Decree Number 8924, which holds that community service can positively impact students' development by fostering and strengthening essential democratic values such as citizenship, cooperation, social responsibility and accountability, as well as their personal and social identity.

B. Community Service, Education, and Citizenship

Existing research supports the claim that participation in service activities offers a wide range of benefits, both for the service provider, or volunteer, and for society at large. For instance, the experience of serving others appears to increase empathy, commitment to community, empowerment, and self-esteem (Raupp & Cohen, 1992, p. 25). In an academic context, studies indicate that service activities open students to learning experiences that strengthen their interpersonal links with those they are serving, and that providing services enhances agency and social connections, moral-political awareness, as well as identity development (Yates & Youniss, 1996, p. 85). In fact, participation in community service has been linked to the development of both personal and collective identity by encouraging students to develop a deeper understanding of themselves through meaningful work with others (Rhoads, 1997; Yates & Youniss, 1997).

More recently, research indicates that community service positively impacts the acquisition of social skills, personal growth and satisfaction, professional improvement, and civic development and responsibility, where the welfare of others is enhanced by a collective effort (Watkins, Carnell, & Lodge, 2007, p. 11). Furthermore, community service was proven to be a valuable opportunity for students' self-exploration and leadership development by providing a platform to take meaning from an experience by connecting the activity to its consequences (Dewey, 1916; Marks & Jones, 2004; Rhoads, 1997). Research also shows that progress monitoring and evaluation to continually assess student learning and program goals are vital (Shumer & Duckenfield, 2004, p. 141), and that community service is highly efficient in setting and meeting a clearly defined need when students participate in planning and carrying out the assigned project (Bosworth, Ford, Anderson, & Paiz, 2016, p. 13).

Thus, evidence supports the belief behind Decree No. 8924, that community service can positively affect students' personal and social development. However, the success of the policy in meeting its goal of cultivating citizenship and strengthening civics education through community service alone is problematic, particularly in the Lebanese context.

Citizenship education is built around learning to live together and requires the availability of "opportunities that allow students to engage in dialogic and collaborative practices informed by understandings of rights and responsibilities" (Akar, 2016, p. 291). Moreover, young people develop their capacity for a life of peaceful coexistence by learning how to engage in constructive dialogue and to participate in social change (Bush & Saltarelli, 2000, p. 54). Thus, schools can play a key role in enhancing students' social cohesion and active participation through community service, especially since good citizenship is represented through high levels of engagement in community-building activities (Akar, 2016).

However, research on civics education programs in Lebanon shows that the common practices of memorization and the adherence to prescriptive curricula were at odds with the very conceptualizations of citizenship (UNDP, 2008). Moreover, the various revisions of the Lebanese curriculum have focused on the learning and transmitting of information with little or no emphasis on "the development of analytical, evaluation, critical thinking and other necessary skills and competencies" (Frayha, 2003, p. 84). Plus, according to Hart et al. (2007), requiring community service of students either as a condition of high-school graduation or as part of a class results in a dull, possibly resented, activity that cannot deepen the students' commitment to the civic good (p. 200).

Therefore, this paper seeks to evaluate the extent to which the implementation of community service across Lebanese high schools can successfully meet the Decree's aims of cultivating citizenship and social cohesion among students.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The principals of ten private Lebanese Catholic schools participated in this study. The schools are located in Mount Lebanon, target middle-income to high-income earners, adopt English and Arabic as languages of instruction, and host an average of 2,000 students each.

As mentioned previously, the socioeconomic and cultural context, as well as the institutional setting, play a major role in determining an educational policy's implementation process. As such, having a homogenous sample allowed for more consistent results and limited interference from external variables.

It should be noted that the study originally sought to include students through surveys and focus groups. However, the ten schools refused to grant permission to interview the students, which made it impossible to examine the students' perception of community service and its impact.

B. Instruments

Qualitative methods were used to gather and analyze the data in this study (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000, p. 44). The interviews with the headmasters were guided by a semi-structured questionnaire that included three Likert scale items. The questions were based on existing literature and focused on examining the implementation process adopted by the schools, the challenges it entailed, and the perceived impact of community service on students.

C. Procedure

The researcher first reached out to high-schools she had collaborated with previously during her time as the principal of a Catholic school. Due to the political sensitivities of education research in Lebanon, many schools are cautious of being externally evaluated and are reluctant to answer questions about personal experiences; thus, it was important that other school principals, or the potential interviewee's colleagues, personally introduced the interviewees to the study.

Of the contacted schools, ten agreed to participate. The principals received a copy of the interview questions a week before the interview. Each principal was aware of the researcher's background, had a copy of the research rationale and focus of the study, and was given a signed assurance of confidentiality. The interviews were conducted in each principal's office and were recorded with their permission.

One of the ten principals preferred to answer the interview questions in written form due to time constraints. Although this poses a limitation to the study, the researcher agreed as the principal heads an international private school that has been implementing community service as part of its curriculum since 2010, i.e. before the Decree was issued. Moreover, only her answers to the Likert scale questions are considered here as the number of participants for a Likert scale question to be reliable and valid (effective at 10:1), i.e. 10 participants for each item (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006).

IV. RESULTS

In terms of the general feedback about the Decree's implementation, three of the ten principals indicated that their experience was very difficult, six found it complicated and challenging, and only one claimed it was easy because the school already considered 60 hours of community service to be a graduation requirement.

More specifically, the schools faced numerous administrative challenges and were incapable of complying with the Decree's guidelines. For instance, nine schools faced strong opposition from teachers. Instructors were reluctant to allocate time to community service hours at the expense of completing course content and refused to invest their time and effort in "trivial social work" that was a "complete waste of time", according to one headmaster.

Nine principals also faced administrative opposition to integrating the 60 service hours into the curriculum. The administrators argued that they had a program to accomplish in order to prepare their students for the Official Baccalaureate II exams. In an attempt to overcome these challenges, three schools suggested conducting community service hours during vacations and weekends, which was demotivating for both students and teachers. Consequently, the 60 hours of community service stipulated by the Decree were not fully implemented and the students' reports were not completed.

Six principals insisted that community service should be legally integrated into the curriculum and not taught as a separate entity. In their view, it should be conducted as an interdisciplinary project involving all teachers and across all subjects. One principal noted that community service must be mandatory. He claimed that there is a need to shift paradigms and to integrate the concept of community service into Lebanese culture stating that "when people become accustomed to the concept of community service, it can be turned into an optional activity in schools".

Eight principals perceived the absence of specialized community service units in their schools as a major obstacle for implementation. As such, the administrative follow-up with students and with external institutions had to be conducted by the schools' social service staff due to budget restrictions.

Nine principals attested that one of the most prominent challenges was the mentality and culture of what one called "traditional Lebanese society". According to them, community service is not well regarded by mid- and high-income Lebanese families, as if a child works while a student it is considered demeaning and humiliating to the parents.

Three principals were faced with issues of social class conflict. The school's wealthy families did not want their children to "mingle with and serve poor people", or to collect garbage, for instance. They wanted their children to "assist dentists and work as interns in banks" rather than attend institutions involved with social affairs.

Six principals experienced resistance from middle-income families pertaining to the importance of community service in their children's lives. The parents believed that their studies were of primary importance and that community service hours were a waste of time.

In terms of the community service activities that the schools were capable of implementing and completing, they primarily targeted neighboring communities in need, including refugees, children, and the elderly. While one school visited a Palestinian refugee camp where students helped paint houses, another organized for its students to provide after-school English lessons to young Syrian refugees. Through other projects, students helped disabled children supported by Anta Akhi, an association that tends to children with disabilities in Lebanon and supports their families, with their homework. Some schools coordinated with Caritas Lebanon to allow for students to help during their food drive by delivering donations to shelters. One school in particular focused on ecological issues pertaining to garbage recycling. Students visited all the houses in the school's neighborhood and explained the importance of recycling, as well as the process of separating garbage and using the proper bins. As for the elderly, one school's students raised funds and invited 20 seniors to a lunch they prepared followed by entertainment activities they had organized beforehand.

As for the impact of community service on students, all ten principals reported difficulty in quantifying these effects. They admittedly formulated their views based on their personal observations and the reports they received from students.

Eight principals attested that they witnessed an increase in social commitment among the students. Four reported that

some students even went to volunteer outside their local area during the summer.

All ten principals stated that empathy was very hard to measure and observe. They rated empathy development through the students' willingness and readiness to participate in community service along with their efforts in understanding and caring for others as reflected in their reports and oral presentations.

Nine principals reported that a significant increase in their student's appreciation of diversity was noted through the students' attitudes and written reports. For instance, the principals cited statements such as "a Syrian refugee can be my friend because he can teach me new things", and "a Muslim student in my class is very helpful and taught me how to work better in a group to better support the others".

Seven of the ten principals attested that a significant increase in the students' sense of responsibility was tangible through their reports and attitudes towards interdisciplinary projects related to community service.

When asked about the link between community service and civic education, active citizenship, and social engagement, the nine interviewed principals recommended that students conduct service hours in their own communities. They claimed that such direct involvement would increase coherence and cohesion within the community, and through service, all parties would be working hand in hand to enhance the quality of life of the less fortunate and needy.

V. DISCUSSION

This research examines the implementation of Decree 8924 in ten private Lebanese Catholic schools. With the exception of one school, which already required community service as a graduation requirement for the International Baccalaureate, all the interviewed principals reported that policy implementation was difficult, if not impossible, due to numerous challenges.

Within the schools, principals faced strong opposition from both the teachers and the administration. The study's results are congruent with existing literature on stakeholder impact on policy implementation (Pont, 2017; Bell & Stevenson, 2015). Moreover, research suggests that stakeholders' belief systems, motivations, and interests (values, views, orientations, dispositions, etc.) shape their perception of public policy and determine their engagement (Malen, 2006; Spillane, Reiser & Reimer, 2002), which was observed through the reactions of teachers and parents alike. Furthermore, all the principals highlighted their lack of organizational readiness to successfully implement the policy, whether in terms of budget or specialized units; a result that is in line with Bell and Stevenson's research.

However, an interesting finding of this research was the unanimity of the opposition from the schools' administration, the teachers, and the parents. All three groups appear to agree that academic learning is more important than community service. For instance, instructors refused to "waste time" at the expense of course programs, and some parents preferred their children to study rather than serve others. This collective valuing of academic learning over social service suggests a cultural determinant of the policy's implementation. Moreover, unlike previous studies that highlight the role of a policy's complementarities, and their compatibility with other laws, rules, conventions, and norms (Desimone, 2002; Mason, 2016; Pont, 2008; Pont, 2017), this study suggests a hierarchy of values: in this case, the value of academic learning supersedes that of community service.

Identifying the reasons behind this apparent hierarchy is beyond the scope of this research. However, several interpretations can be hypothesized. First, academic achievement is generally highly valued in Lebanese society. One possible reason for that is the cultural correlation between academic success and career development. Second, it was clear from the interviews that community service was perceived as mere volunteer work that bordered on charity. The prioritizing of self-development over social development can be related to the broader individualistic culture and the residue of the Civil War mentality of "every man for himself". Additionally, the following should be noted: it was interesting that, even when understood as a form of charity, community service gave way to academic learning, especially in the context of the Catholic schools in this study. As such, the effect of religious affiliation on how community service and academic learning are perceived requires further research.

The (mis-)understanding of the nature of community service can also be linked to the ambiguity of the policy's language and rationale. On the one hand, the Decree did not connect its objective (to enhance social cohesion and civic engagement) to its tool (community service). In other words, there was no underlying theory of change (Fullan, 2015), as the Decree failed to explain how and why community service would result in change. In addition, legislators failed to connect community service to the educational setting. The Decree stipulated the implementation of community service during course hours, and in compliance with the curriculum; it did not advocate a service-learning model but sought the mere complementarity between the type of service performed and the curriculum's objectives (more specifically, the objectives of particular subjects such as languages, social studies, civics, and arts). The lack of a clearly defined service-learning model could explain why teachers and principals recommended the integration of community service into the curriculum.

In terms of the impact following the integration of community service into schools, principals claimed an increase in social commitment and empathy, as well as an enhanced sense of responsibility and respect for diversity among students. However, the researcher was denied access to interview students about their community service experience. This denial could imply a certain lack of transparency on the part of the schools and raises questions as to the democratic values they are fostering (interfering with the students' freedom of expression for instance by not allowing them to participate in the study). More importantly, self-reflection, critical evaluation, and participation in dialogue (Akar, 2016;

Bush & Saltarelli, 2000; Frayha, 2003; Hart et al., 2007) have all been identified as essential components of community service and citizenship education. The schools' refusal to allow the researcher to interview students could be interpreted as a failure to provide them with the chance to fully benefit from their community service experience and to grow as citizens.

Nonetheless, taking the principals' feedback at face value, there were two specific elements of diversity that the students reported: some of the students appear to have gained a certain appreciation and respect for religious and national diversity. The extent to which this valuing of diversity is impactful and sustainable requires further examination. There seems to be some foundation for the Decree's logic of implementing community service in order to foster respect for diversity. However, it is far from clear that community service can counter the culture of corruption, inequality, and sectarian divisions that the Decree sought to address. In fact, this very same culture seemed to hinder its effective implementation. For instance, parents protested their children's participation in numerous service activities because they are perceived as degrading and "beneath" their social status. Instead, they preferred their children to assist dentists or bankers. While this preference might stem from the parents' desire for their children to acquire direct professional experience, it can also be related to social class issues and conflicts.

Finally, the research revealed the existence of a powerful stakeholder in education policy implementation, namely parents. While previous research acknowledged the role parents play in supporting or objecting to policies, this study showed their influence on school administrations and the pressure they were capable of exerting. While this observation could be related to the cultural context (it is not uncommon for Lebanese parents to be directly involved in all aspects of their children's lives), it requires and deserves further examination.

VI. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study sought to examine the implementation of Decree 8924 in Lebanese high-schools. The research consisted of interviews with the principals of ten private Catholic schools, a factor which could affect the representativeness, validity, and reliability of the results on a national scale. Additional quantitative research could involve a wider and more inclusive sample to support the results and to better understand the impact of community service on students and the educational community as a whole in Lebanon.

Although the ten schools were from different regions, i.e. from urban and rural areas within Mount Lebanon, they were all private schools with students of a relatively high socio-economical status. Future studies need to include a more varied sample, including students from different socio-economic backgrounds as well as public and private schools throughout the country. Moreover, further research should compare schools with different religious affiliations.

This research was a case study, which is a natural limitation when exploring educational and teaching experiences (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000, p. 167). The principals appeared transparent and honest when noting many of the challenges faced while attempting to apply the Decree; however, they might have chosen to report on the positive experiences taking place at their schools rather than reporting on any extremely negative instances.

Additionally, the refusal to allow the researcher to interview students raises questions as to the interviewed principals' transparency. Although schools must safeguard students' privacy, the impact of community service cannot be fully studied without their participation.

A future study could further determine the accuracy of the data through triangulation, by comparing the attitudes of principals, teachers, and students.

Finally, although the principals reflected on specific incidents that took place while applying the Decree in their schools, future on-site observation could validate and expand the data gathered in this study.

VII. CONCLUSION

There have been scattered efforts to follow how Decree 8924 is being implemented across Lebanon, with no exhaustive and thorough study yet documented. This research seeks to fill this gap by examining the implementation of community service across ten private Catholic schools. The researcher sought to explore if these schools were capable of implementing the Decree and the different types of challenges they faced during implementation. In parallel, the author was interested in evaluating the Decree's success in reaching its objectives, especially in terms of cultivating citizenship. The research results were congruent with global educational policy implementation research and have resulted in suggestions for future lines of inquiry specific to Lebanon.

APPENDIX. EXCERPT FROM CERD'S (CENTER FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT) DECISION UNDER DECREE No. 8924

Article Number 1:

The project of "community service" is applied in all private and public high-schools starting the academic year 2012 – 2013

Article Number 2:

The “community service” periods in the secondary cycle are set for 60 hours of effective service applied during the 3 years of secondary education. It is possible to apply those periods during 2 years instead of 3, on the condition that the periods of effective execution do not exceed 40 hours in one year.

Article Number 5:

Scheduling of the execution periods of “community service” occurs as follows:

- Planning, preparation, and discussion periods are held during regular school opening hours
 - Periods of actual execution of the project occur outside school working hours
 - Periods of assessment of general and specific concepts and principles acquisition as well as good execution and skills acquisition are conducted during regular school opening hours
- Planning, preparation, discussion, and assessment periods are allocated 10 to 15% from the total periods allocated to the project.

Article Number 6:

The execution of “community service” projects starts at the beginning of the academic year and ends during the last week of June for First and Second Secondary classes, and at the end of May for Third Secondary classes.

Article Number 7:

The theme choice and execution periods of the “community service” projects happens in concordance with the different goals of the subject matters and their related content. Furthermore, students’ preferences and their interests, capabilities, and execution possibilities should be kept in mind. The choice and execution of the projects should be based on the diversity of fields listed in Decree number 8924, dated 21/9/2012, to offer diversified opportunities that will meet the needs of the individuals and society as a whole.

Article Number 8:

A team should be formed in each high-school, headed by the principal, or a person that represents him/her, to study the concerned students’ suggested projects, to choose the most appropriate ones, and to define the execution mechanisms as well as the relative follow up inside and outside the high-school. The team should encompass between 3 and 5 teachers depending on the number of categories and the diversity of the projects.

Article Number 9:

The choice of the above mentioned team members in Article 8 should be based on:

- Teaching experience not less than 3 years in the secondary cycle
- Having a wide general knowledge background, an open mind and communication skills; along with commitment to their job and readiness to bear responsibility and follow it up.
- Good command of the Arabic language and either/or French or English
- Readiness to actively participate in activities inside and outside the school
- Realization of the importance of community service and its impact on student/citizen upbringing

Article Number 10:

Choosing the teachers who will be on the team is done based on the subject matters they teach and that represent the objectives and contents of “social service”. Those subjects are: languages, social studies, physical education, arts and diverse activities.

Article number 11:

The tasks and responsibilities of the team are defined as follows:

- Taking part in the choosing the projects based on the students’ suggestions, interests, and preferences.
- Contributing in discussing the chosen projects and providing any necessary clarifications.
- Keeping record of models and lists relative to the chosen projects’ titles and the participating students.
- Making the necessary contacts with the centers or organizations where the projects will be executed.
- Participating in providing adequate explanations for good execution as well as facilitating students’ tasks to obtain relative information.
- Following up on projects and keeping up with their progression to provide opportunities for success.
- Partaking in the process of evaluation that occurs after finishing the projects.

Article Number 12:

The cost of the execution and requirements of the community service projects is covered, when needed, from the quarterly activities students perform, from donations that are allocated for these projects and other similar projects, and from the high-school fund that covers the extra-curricular activities’ expenses .

Article Number 13:

The working hours of the “team” is set as part of the decreased periods (deducted from the total of the working hours assigned by the law at the secondary level) allowed for teachers as stipulated in Law number 156 dated 17/8/2011 and as part of the extra-curricular activities that are effected during the gradual decreased periods as per the provisions stated in Decree number 5334 dated 5/11/2010.

Article Number 14:

The team evaluates the projects’ execution in order to check the students’ acquired skills, their performance, and their successful execution of the project along with the extent of their evolution in different societal situations.

Article Number 15:

The principal of the high-school should submit to the Directorate General for Education by the end of June of each year at the latest, a list with the students' names who completed the "social service" projects with the relative projects' titles along with the organizations that cooperated in the execution process. This list should rely on official attestations signed by the people in charge in those organizations or instances. Obtaining the graduation certificate of the general high-school degree, in all fields, is associated with the student's completion of the effective social service periods outlined by this decree.

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Teacher's Practices in Fostering Learner Autonomy in a Thai University Context

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Abstract—Despite the widespread interest in autonomy and its inclusion in many teacher education programmes, if and how teachers foster learner autonomy in the classroom is not well-known (Nasri et al., 2015). Especially, in-depth studies of teachers' practices and the factors that influence these are thin on the ground. For this reason, this study was conducted to investigate four teachers' practices, drawing on classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, and a focus group interview, to identify how they fostered learner autonomy and the variables which affected their classroom practices. It was found that the teachers placed greater emphasis on certain dimensions of autonomy, specifically favouring the psychological and technical dimensions over the political and socio-cultural ones. The teachers' decisions to foster learner autonomy were influenced by contextual factors, such as students' language proficiency levels, as well as teacher-internal factors, such as their beliefs about fostering learner autonomy and their own prior learning experiences. We draw from this a number of pedagogical implications for how learner autonomy may be fostered in the language classroom.

Index Terms—learner autonomy, teaching practices, teacher's beliefs, Thai university context

I. INTRODUCTION

Learner autonomy has been a popular topic in language research and practice for many years. One line of inquiry has been the influence that teachers have on fostering autonomy. Language advising, self-access learning, peer-teaching, peer-assessment, portfolios, reflection, reflective teaching, and digital learning are some of the tools and techniques that have been shown to have an effect (Dam, 2011; Lázaro & Reinders, 2011). They share a focus on improving the capacity of learners to learn on their own. However, many studies report challenges on the part of both teachers and learners. One factor is that teachers lack the confidence and the ability to foster learner autonomy. Teachers are not sufficiently trained to support autonomous learning (Reinders & Balçikanlı, 2011). Another factor is learners' lack of experience and skills in diagnosing their own learning needs, formulating their own goals, identifying suitable resources, using effective strategies, and monitoring and evaluating their learning. Learners need a significant amount of preparation and ongoing support which many teachers struggle to provide and are not adequately trained for.

In Thailand in particular, there is a need to help students become autonomous learners as Thai students are generally "passive, obedient, uncritical" (Sanprasert, 2010, p. 110). Rungwaraphong (2012) pointed out that Thai students view teachers' role as a knowledge transmitter and teller. Students often wait for directions from the teacher and repeat what the teacher says. Another reason is that the classroom is usually led by the teacher, focusing on grammar-translation methods and assessments (Vibulphol, 2004). These classroom situations do not seem to promote autonomous learning as the support of students' knowledge, skills and strategies for managing their own learning are absent (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012). In fact, previous studies have shown that Thai English teachers have faced difficulties in attempting to develop learner autonomy in their classrooms. Although the concept of autonomy has been perceived as being important among Thai teachers, they are uncertain about how to implement this concept into their teaching practice (Nonkukhetkhong, Baldauf Jr, & Moni, 2006). Moreover, teachers stick to the teaching methods they are familiar with whereby the teachers are in charge of making decisions concerning what and how to be taught in classrooms, so they are reluctant to change their roles (Punthumasen, 2007). School curriculum and examinations might be another reason which makes it difficult for teachers to implement methods that they think can be beneficial for their students (Tayjasanant & Suraratdecha, 2016).

When implementing the concept of learner autonomy in the classroom, the teacher and student roles need to be changed. The teachers are expected to be facilitators who create a learning environment in which students can take control of their learning. The students are expected to play active roles to acquire and make decisions for their own learning. Previous studies conducted in Thailand reveal that a teacher can encourage their students to become

autonomous by, for example, developing the learning skills they might need in order to take control of their learning (Na Chiangmai, 2016), or giving students freedom to make decisions for their learning (Tapinta, 2016). However, the roles and responsibilities of teachers are not limited only to their classrooms. Teachers have to deal not only with students in class but also with curriculum planning and with testing and evaluation. If the teachers have the power to make such decisions, then they can teach or manage the classes in accordance with what they believe is best for their students. Students' level of autonomy then depends on the control of power which teachers transfer to their students. Unfortunately, especially in the Thai context, teachers work in an environment where they may have control over one aspect such as classroom management but may not be able to control other aspects such as curriculum planning, testing and evaluation. Therefore, these factors may be constraints when they try to develop learner autonomy. Given the need to develop learner autonomy, not much is known, especially in the Thai university context, about how teachers attempt to develop learner autonomy in the classroom and what influences that practice. Therefore, this study was conducted to fill this gap in the literature.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In many countries and contexts, one of the key stated objectives of foreign language programmes these days is to develop learner autonomy, or learners' "capacity to take control of one's own learning" (Benson, 2011, p. 58). This capacity involves the ability to make decisions concerning their own learning goals, what to do and how to achieve those goals, how to monitor the effectiveness of their own learning process and how to assess what they have learned.

To develop learner autonomy, students are not simply allowed to decide whatever they want to do. Learner autonomy in a language classroom encompasses the entire range of giving students' sense of ownership of their learning, equipping them with learning strategies they might need in order to carry out their learning effectively, as well as providing them opportunities to make choices and decisions concerning their own learning. In other words, Littlewood (1996) points out that the process of learner autonomy development needs to include two components, namely ability (i.e., knowledge and skills for learning) and willingness (i.e., motivation and confidence). A teacher may, for example, teach knowledge to learners on how to learn a language which includes providing them learning strategies they might need and also, boosting their confidence in using the language and their own ability to learn. Besides these two components, Dam (2011) highlights that a teacher should involve learners and encourage them to take an active role in the learning process by providing them with choices. The shifting control from a teacher's hand to learners' helps increase learners' motivation to learn and raise their awareness of learning.

A number of studies have been conducted to investigate teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy and their teaching practices to engage learners in the above. Previous research has shown that teachers generally had positive attitudes towards learner autonomy and usually put it in their teaching practices (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012), whilst in practice, they fostered learner autonomy in classrooms by letting students encouraging independent work and giving students responsibility (Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2019), engaging students in task-based activities (Keuk & Heng, 2016), developing students' learning strategies (Yang, 1998).

Specifically, in the Thai context, studies which focus on teachers have centred on the teachers' views and beliefs of learner autonomy and how the teachers should encourage autonomy in class and/or their actual practices. For example, Duong and Seepho (2014) employed an open-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to investigate Thai EFL university teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy and their practices in fostering learner autonomy. The majority of the participants identified three roles of the teacher: a facilitator, a counsellor and a resource. In their practice, the teachers reported that they had fostered learner autonomy by asking students to reflect or evaluate their learning progress, allowing them to choose topics, materials, and learning strategies, as well as encouraging them to work outside of the classroom and to use self-access learning centres. However, the teachers faced three major constraints, among others, namely time limitations, students' characteristics as passive and unmotivated learners, and students' ability to make decisions for their learning.

Na Chiangmai (2016) investigated teachers' beliefs about autonomy and the teaching practices they implemented to foster learner autonomy in Thai classrooms. The data was gathered through a questionnaire, interviews, and classroom observations from nine teachers. The findings showed that the teachers believed learner autonomy meant independence from teachers, and they developed learner autonomy by helping their students acquire the learning skills they need and by using self-access learning activities/tasks to make students practice autonomous learning skills. The teachers reported curriculum as a major constraint. They were required to follow the highly prescriptive curriculum which might leave little to no room for the students to make decisions for their own learning.

Another study was conducted by Tapinta (2016). This study was carried out to investigate English teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy and their practices in Thai university contexts. She employed a questionnaire, online (written) interviews, and focus group discussion to collect the data. The findings revealed that the teachers had positive attitudes towards learner autonomy and believed major attributes of autonomous learners were psychological and political factors. The teachers reported that they developed learner autonomy by allowing the students to choose the topics for the lessons and letting them choose materials and sources of information to be used. Moreover, the study reported that students' lack of motivation to learn and students' characteristics as dependent learners were two factors that challenged teachers' practice in developing learner autonomy.

From the previous studies, it can be seen that teachers have employed a variety of practices in helping to develop the students' ability to take responsibility for their learning. Throughout the process of learner autonomy development, teachers have been faced with some difficulties in integrating autonomy in their actual classroom teaching. Although there are quite a few studies that illustrate how learner autonomy can be promoted in the language classrooms, the number of studies that have investigated teacher's actual teaching practices in fostering learner autonomy is still limited (Nasri et al., 2015). To fill this gap, we conducted our study with the following research questions:

1. What are teachers' practices in fostering learner autonomy in the classroom?
2. What are the factors affecting those practices?

III. METHODOLOGY

This section details the background of the study, participants, data collection instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis.

A. Theoretical Framework

Aligned with the research questions above, a qualitative approach was employed to take an in-depth look into how learner autonomy was fostered in a Thai classroom context. The fundamental principle of qualitative research is that it "relies more on the views of the participants in the study and less on the direction identified in the literature by the researchers" (Creswell, 2012, p. 17). This type of research is helpful for a study which wants to describe what happens and explain how or why something happened. Therefore, employing qualitative research is an appropriate approach as this study aims to investigate how teachers went about fostering learner autonomy in their classrooms.

To conceptualize the complexities of teaching practices, we drew on a theoretical framework from teacher cognition theory, which is referred to as what teachers think, know and believe, as it has made a great impact on how teachers implement their practices (Borg, 2003). Several researchers support the notion that teachers' instructional practices depend on what they bring to the classroom (Al-Asmari, 2013), and their beliefs have more impact than their knowledge on how they make decisions for their teaching (Pajares, 1992). Therefore, the study of teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy, especially in a specific context like Thailand, is important as these beliefs can explain what shapes their practices and what informs difficulties in attempting to develop learner autonomy. These understandings can help both teachers and educators have a clearer view on how to help students acquire the skills they need for autonomous learning.

To understand the extent to which teachers implement their beliefs about learner autonomy in their practices, the aspects of autonomous learners should be taken into consideration. According to the literature, learner autonomy is referred to as learners' capacity and ability to make decisions concerning learners' own learning goals, what to do and how to achieve those goals, how to monitor the effectiveness of their own learning process, and how to assess what they have learned (Benson, 2011), learners' freedom and choices (Dam, 2011), learners' willingness to take control of their own learning (Littlewood, 1996), and learners' ability to develop their autonomy through interaction with others (Murray, 2014). Therefore, learner autonomy has been conceptualized in four aspects: technical, political, psychological, and socio-cultural dimensions (Benson, 1997; Oxford, 2003). These four aspects were used to guide this study. The technical dimension of autonomy is referred to as learners learning strategies and techniques. The political dimension of autonomy is referred to as the freedom and control learners have in order to make decisions for their own learning. The psychological dimension of autonomy includes both learners' desire and willingness to take control of their learning and their metacognitive knowledge which could guide them to use metacognitive strategies effectively. The socio-cultural dimension of autonomy is related to the situation in which learners' autonomy is developed through social interactions with teachers or other learners. The description and examples of each dimension are in Table I.

TABLE I
DIMENSIONS OF LEARNER AUTONOMY AND ITS DESCRIPTIONS

Dimension of learner autonomy	Description
Technical autonomy (Benson, 1997)	Looks at how teachers help students to develop their metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies, such as helping them identify their learning objectives and helping them use learning strategies.
Political autonomy (Benson, 1997)	Refers to the freedom and choices a teacher gives to his/her students to determine aspects of students' own learning, such as letting them choose learning topics for assignments.
Psychological autonomy (Benson, 1997)	Focuses on raising students' consciousness, willingness and motivation to take control of their own learning, such as helping them have positive attitudes towards the learning process and developing their metacognitive knowledge.
Socio-cultural autonomy (Oxford, 2003)	Focuses on situations in which learners might learn through social interactions with their teacher and/or other learners, such as engaging them in interactions with others.

B. Context of the Study and Participants

This study was conducted in four classes offered by the department of language studies in a Thai university in Bangkok, Thailand, in which developing learner autonomy had been integrated into the English curriculum for over twenty years. A self-access learning centre was provided so that students had opportunities to learn, practice and

explore English outside the classroom. The one class was Academic Writing and the other three were General English. These four classes were chosen by the participants. All four class met once a week for three hours over a period of 15 weeks. There were 23 students in Academic Writing class and 35-42 students in each General English class.

Four teachers of undergraduate English courses voluntarily participated in the study. They were selected on the basis of their high scores on a questionnaire we administered, which was based on the questionnaires from Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012), Joshi (2011) and Moomaw (2005). The purpose was to identify teachers who have a strong sense of their own autonomy, well-articulated beliefs about learner autonomy, and who report actively fostering autonomy in the classroom. To protect the identity of the teachers, pseudonyms were used. Table II below shows background information of the four teachers.

TABLE II
PARTICIPANTS

Name	Gender	Education	Years of teaching experience	Chosen courses to be included in this study
Kawin	Male	Doctorate	11	General English
Paradee	Female	Masters	20	General English
Saran	Male	Masters	24	General English
Danai	Male	Doctorate	21	Academic Writing

C. Data Collection Instruments and Data Collection Procedures

Three data collection instruments were employed, namely classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, and a focus group interview.

Classroom observations

Classroom observations were undertaken to gain a deeper understanding of the process of learner autonomy development in natural classroom settings. The classroom observations focused on teachers’ behaviours attempting to foster learner autonomy, the activities they used and how these activities were carried out. The characteristics and features of learner autonomy drawn from Benson (2011) and Murray (2014) were employed to guide the observations. Teaching behaviours of fostering learner autonomy included, for example, teaching students how to identify their own strengths and weakness, demonstrating how to use learning strategies, or allowing the students to use their preferred learning materials. During the observations, the researcher was seated at the back of the classroom watching and making notes without getting involved in or interrupting the class. Observation field notes were used to record information about classroom procedures and activities, using observational questions (e.g., What activities/tasks are used in the classroom? Are students engaged in planning, setting a goal, or finding their own learning strategies?).

Each teacher was observed three times (90 - 180 minutes) spreading out over the semester at the teacher’s convenience. The data from these classroom observations were collected by using observation field notes and audio recordings, which were then transcribed for data analysis.

Semi-structured interviews

Three semi-structured interviews were conducted with each participant within a few days after each classroom observation, in order to understand how (s)he went about fostering their students’ autonomy. These interviews focused on what the participants had done in the classrooms about developing learner autonomy, the reasons for their practices, and factors affecting their decisions. The interview questions were generated from the classroom observation episodes in which the participants were evaluated as attempting to foster learner autonomy. Practices which occurred frequently were further probed in order to shed light on the teachers’ rationale of and beliefs behind those particular methods (e.g., Why did you carry out this activity in class?). After each question, the interviewer would summarize the data to the participants to ensure their mutual understanding before continuing to the next question. Interviews were conducted in Thai, as preferred by the participants, lasting between 20 and 40 minutes. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis.

A focus group interview

A focus group interview with the four teachers was conducted immediately after the course ended so that the participants could see the whole picture of what happened in the classroom and how they went about fostering learner autonomy in their classroom settings. In the focus group interview, the researcher acted as a moderator, asking guiding questions and leading the discussion. The participants could both share their ideas and feelings about their teaching experiences in the course and draw and build on each other’s ideas (Borg, 2001). The theme of the questions guiding the discussion included what they had done to foster learner autonomy in their classes, what could be done to enable their students to work autonomously, what factors affected their teaching practice, and what challenges they faced in developing their students’ autonomy. This focus group interview was conducted in Thai, audio-recorded and transcribed for data analysis. The interview lasted 40 minutes.

D. Data Analysis

To identify the practices employed by the teachers to foster learner autonomy, the data from classroom observations were coded deductively using the four-dimension framework of autonomy taken from Benson (1997) and Oxford (2003) (see Table I). The observation transcripts and observation field notes were read through several times to identify

teachers' behaviours which promote learner autonomy, or autonomy-supportive behaviours exhibited by teachers. Teachers' behaviours which reveal that they were fostering learner autonomy were highlighted and coded according to the aspects of learner autonomy that the teachers were developing in their students. These codes were then grouped into categories representing the extent to which the participants implemented the teaching practices in fostering learner autonomy and placed under each of the four dimensions of autonomy. Examples of the behaviours included: suggesting learning strategies (technical autonomy), raising students' awareness of their own competence (psychological autonomy), giving students choices (political autonomy), and encouraging peer interaction (socio-cultural autonomy).

Based on the list of practices derived from the analysis above, emerging themes showed the extent to which teachers foster learner autonomy, such as letting the students choose topics for their assignments, explaining the importance of the knowledge of their own proficiency levels, and describing how to use prediction strategies. Such themes were coded and categorized as *What*-practice, *What+Why*-practice, *How*-practice, and *How+Why*-practice (see Table III for descriptions). The teachers' behaviours were generally identified as *What* when they had the keywords such as 'you should', 'you have to', while behaviours identified as *Why* were mostly found using keywords such as 'because', 'so that you can', 'you will learn'. The *How* behaviours were typically identified when the teachers were describing or elaborating the process of doing something. These four categories of practices were employed to guide the analysis of classroom observation data to identify the extent of how teachers help the students to acquire the ability for independent learning. Frequency counts were conducted on the occurrences of each type of practices performed by the participants.

TABLE III
TYPES OF PRACTICES IN FOSTERING LEARNER AUTONOMY

Type of practices	Description
WHAT	Mentioning that something is important and/or lets students practice an autonomous action without explaining or showing how to do it.
WHAT + WHY	Mentioning that something is important or lets students practice autonomous action and explaining why it is important for the students to do so and what benefit they might gain from doing so.
HOW	Explaining or illustrating how to do something. The teacher may give examples or suggestions of how to do it.
HOW + WHY	Explaining or illustrating how to do something. The teacher may give examples or suggestions of how to do it. Additionally, the teacher also explains why it is important for students to do so or what benefits students might gain from doing so.

To identify the factors affecting teachers' decisions to develop learner autonomy, the data from semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews were coded inductively. Such codes were used to triangulate teachers' practices. The transcripts of the semi-structured and focus group interviews were closely read. Words, phrases, or sentences indicating how the teachers made their decisions regarding their teaching behaviours were then identified. Later, these segments of information were coded. Finally, these coded segments were categorized into groups of factors which influence their decision making.

To ensure the reliability of the coding, two applied linguists were invited to identify and label teachers' beliefs and their behaviour regarding how learner autonomy was fostered. The two raters were provided with 20% of the observation and interview transcripts. They were asked to use the dimensions of learner autonomy and types of practices in fostering learner autonomy as guidelines to interpret and label teachers' behaviours regarding the aspects of autonomy that the teachers were fostering and the extent to which the teachers implemented their teaching practices to foster learner autonomy. The inter-rater reliability was computed at 87% which indicates that the reliability of the data analysis is satisfied.

IV. FINDINGS

A. Teachers' Classroom Practices in Fostering Learner Autonomy

The classroom observation data showed that the participants demonstrated a variety of teaching practices to support all four dimensions of autonomy, notably, the psychological and technical autonomy aspects (see Table IV).

To foster psychological autonomy, the results showed that all teachers agreed to advise their students to work outside class and raise awareness of the purposes of the task and what should be done. The findings on the types of practices include *What*, *What+Why* and *How+Why*. The most frequently employed type practice was telling *What* students should do. Also, raising students' awareness of the task was taught by all four teachers. Kawin, for example, described the purpose of the task which the students were working on. He asked his students to complete 1000 Vocabulary Word Test and explained how significant it was for the students to understand their proficiency levels. He explained, "*the test we are doing now is to measure how many words you know based on the first 1,000 word of the most frequently used 3,000 words ... if you know your level you can read books that are in the same level or a little bit higher than you.*" This excerpt shows that Kawin both engaged students in *How* they could learn to understand their language proficiency and provided them the reasons *Why* they need to know about it.

The classroom observation data show two incidents in which socio-cultural autonomy was taught in Danai's class. He fostered socio-cultural autonomy by both telling students *What* they should do and *Why* they should do it. Danai said, "*Don't forget to read your friends' diary. You learn a lot from your friends ... You could, like, see some good*

expressions they use...try to react to your friends' post okay?" He first advised the students on what to do and then explained the benefits the students might receive.

TABLE IV
TEACHERS' TEACHING PRACTICES IN FOSTERING LEARNER AUTONOMY

Dimensions of autonomy	Teaching practices	Sub-dimension of autonomy	Types of practices			
			Kawin	Paradee	Saran	Danai
Technical	(1) Helping or encouraging students to monitor their own progress	Metacognitive strategies	◉ (2) ◻ (1)	◉ (1)		
	(2) Helping students make predictions (e.g. using context clues, part of speech, subject-verb agreement, and knowledge of the topic)	Cognitive strategies	◉ (5) ▲ (4)	▲ (3)		
	(3) Suggesting additional learning resources (e.g. vocabulary lists, websites, dictionaries)	Cognitive strategies	▲ (2)			◉ (2)
	(4) Suggesting students to use remembering strategies	Cognitive strategies	▲ (1)			
Political	(1) Allowing students to choose topics or negotiate deadlines for assignments	Freedom and choices	◉ (2)	◉ (2)	◉ (1)	◉ (2) ▲ (1)
	(2) Allowing students to negotiate classroom rules	Empowering students	◉ (1)			
	(3) Allowing students to express whether they like or dislike the class and its activities	Empowering students	◉ (2)			◉ (1)
Psychological	(1) Encouraging students to work outside class	Motivation to direct one's own learning	◉ (3)	◉ (1)	◉ (4) ◆ (1)	◉ (3)
	(2) Raising students' awareness of their own proficiency levels	Person knowledge	◆ (1)			
	(3) Raising students awareness of the purpose of a task and what it requires	Task knowledge	◉ (4) ◻ (1)	◉ (3)	◉ (4)	◉ (1)
	(4) Encouraging students to overcome their fear of making mistakes	Affective strategies		◻ (5)		◻ (2)
	(5) Encouraging students to give moral support to their friends for the work they have done	Affective strategies				◉ (2)
Socio-cultural	(1) Encouraging students to read and interact with friends through their online diary	Interaction with peers				◻ (2)

Note: ◉ = What; ◻ = What + Why; ▲ = How; ◆ = How + Why; (X) Frequencies

The above findings illustrate that the four dimensions of autonomy can be translated into practices and then be promoted in language classrooms. Psychological and technical dimensions of autonomy were found to be the two most frequently occurred dimensions which suggests that the teacher participants believed that they were crucial to promoting learner autonomy.

B. Factors Affecting Teachers' Decisions to Foster Learner Autonomy

The interview data revealed that the factors which influenced the teachers' decisions can be categorized into two main groups: contextual and individual (see Table V).

Contextual factors

Students' background knowledge and their proficiency levels were often cited as the reason why and how the participants conducted their classes to encourage learner autonomy. Paradee explained that with low proficiency students, she tended to focus more on the technical dimension by encouraging and helping her students to use metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Paradee said, "working with low proficiency students, I have to help them acquire the learning strategies so that they can develop those skills, and later they can pick and choose those strategies to help them learn by themselves". Another example was in Danai's class. He, at first, allowed his students freedom to choose any topic that they wanted to write about. However, he later decided to limit to three given choices as he recognized that the students had difficulty choosing a suitable topic. He explained, "Thai students expect teachers to spoon-feed them bit by bit. Sometimes when they have freedom to choose whatever they want to do, they are not ready to make a reasonable choice as they have low proficiency levels".

TABLE V
FACTORS AFFECTING TEACHERS' DECISIONS TO FOSTER LEARNER AUTONOMY

Factor	Specific code
Contextual factor	Students' background knowledge and their proficiency levels
	Students' willingness to learn
	School context
Teacher's individual factor	Teacher's beliefs and knowledge about what autonomous learning is and how learner autonomy should be fostered
	Teacher's beliefs about teaching and learning language

Students' (un)willingness to participate in the classroom was another factor that the participants were concerned with. Kawin, for example, explained, *"I have to think about my students' feelings and be willing to learn, too. If they just come to class because they have to, it's quite challenging for teachers to help them become aware that learning is their own responsibility"*. This helps explain why he allowed his students to express whether they liked or disliked the classroom activities. He wanted his students to get involved in designing their own classroom.

Lastly, the school context which includes school curriculum, final exams, and course books also influenced the teaching practices. The participants agreed that the curriculum directly affected how they decided to foster learner autonomy in their classrooms. Saran said, *"Developing autonomy depends on the course. If teachers need to cover a lot of core content with no room for students to practice autonomous behaviours, it would be difficult for them to become autonomous"*. Moreover, final examinations and course books were factors which impeded the development of learner autonomy. Paradee admitted that she had to follow the course books due to the restriction on the exam. Paradee mentioned, *"I have to strictly follow the language expressions or the contents described in the course book. The students have to use them in the exam. I cannot do much to develop learner autonomy in my class."* Even though the strict guidelines of what to be taught in the classroom might help to ensure standard across all classes of the same course, some teachers may feel pressured to teach to the test.

Teacher's individual factors

The interview data shows that there was a link between the participants' beliefs and their teaching practices. Kawin expressed his strong belief that to foster learner autonomy in the classroom, students should be provided with freedom and choices. He underscored, *"When we let students do as they prefer, we might see that they may have different backgrounds. We can see how different they are, so that we can adjust our teaching accordingly."* This helps explain why he offered his students choices on assignments and classroom management to motivate the students.

In addition to freedom and choices, the participants believed that students should be trained to learn by themselves. For Paradee, to develop learner autonomy, she believed students' metacognitive and cognitive strategies were necessary in order to be able to manage their learning effectively. Paradee referred to an autonomous learner as, *"someone who knows how and where to start learning ... has to know the process and steps of how to manage his own learning, being able to plan and evaluate his own learning"*. It can be seen that Paradee consistently encouraged and helped her students to use a variety of metacognitive and cognitive strategies in her class.

The teachers' beliefs not only influenced their classroom practices, but their knowledge about learner autonomy also affected their practices. Kawin emphasized that teachers' knowledge about the SALC is essential. Kawin described, *"Teachers should be offered training, they must know the centre and what it can offer, and then they can pass that onto their students"*. Not being knowledgeable about the SALC, teachers may not be able to utilize the centre to its full benefits.

Furthermore, teachers' belief about teaching and learning language in a class was another factor which had an impact on teachers' practices. Saran was often seen suggesting and demonstrating to his students how to use a predicting strategy which might help the students complete their tasks successfully. In the interview, he explained, *"This might help them when they are working on other tasks or even other subjects. They will complete the task faster and more effectively."*

Another individual factor affecting teachers' decisions on their teaching practices was teachers' perceptions of their own autonomy. This was seen when Kawin admitted that teacher autonomy had a strong relationship with learner autonomy regarding the political dimension of learner autonomy. He stated, *"If the teacher has his own autonomy, the teacher must know how to manage his own teaching. In return, he can guide his students to manage their learning, too"*. As it can be seen from Kawin' view, teachers who are autonomous learners themselves are aware of the process of learning by themselves, so they might be a better teacher who fosters learner autonomy than those who were not autonomous learners.

V. DISCUSSION

Data from classroom observations and interviews with the participants showed that they employed various teaching practices to foster learner autonomy in their classrooms covering all four dimensions of learner autonomy: psychological, technical, political, and socio-cultural. All four participants seemed to focus more on developing psychological dimension, especially the sub-dimensions "motivation to direct one's own learning" and "task knowledge". This is in line with Borg and Al-Busaidi's (2012) and Tapinta's studies (2016) which found that teachers believed that the psychological dimension of autonomy is the strongest indicator of an autonomous learner. This implies

that the teachers believe that the psychological readiness and being motivated to learn are the two pre-cursors to learners becoming autonomous learners.

In order to help students to be ready to become autonomous learners, the study showed that the students were encouraged to direct their own learning by practicing what they learned outside the classroom. Assuming that these teachers are successful language learners, they all agree that a main part of learning a language takes place outside of the classroom. Therefore, to foster psychological autonomy, the teachers may raise students' awareness of their role as life-long learners by telling students to practice what they have learned outside the classroom.

Knowing how to learn was another aspect the teacher participants considered important. The technical dimension of autonomy was fostered in the classroom as the teachers believed that students could autonomously perform better if provided with adequate learning strategies and learning tools. The teachers suggested their students to learn to use quite a few learning strategies, including both metacognitive and cognitive strategies. By letting the students practice using these strategies in class, they may realize and recognize the usefulness of those strategies. In this case, the learners were not only trained on how to learn, but were made aware of their role as the person responsible for their own learning.

With regards to the political dimension, freedom and choices sub-dimension was found in all four participants' classes. The participants gave their students choices on classroom tasks or assignments, classroom activities, and classroom management. These methods could raise students' sense of agency and sense of responsibility for their learning. The participants believed that one of the most important attributes of autonomy is a freedom to make decisions concerning the teaching and learning process. However, giving students choices may not be appropriate when students had limited language proficiency, as in Danai's case. For this reason, the teachers' beliefs about developing the political dimension of learner autonomy could be considered premature in the classroom in which students are reluctant to participate in decision making.

Instances of fostering the socio-cultural dimension of learner autonomy were also found in the classroom observations. They were achieved by encouraging students' interaction with friends (interact with peers sub-dimension) through an online platform so that they could learn from one another. The students can also gain valuable experience through their virtual interaction, in terms of both content and language. Therefore, fostering students to work together is viewed positively since it could encourage students to develop their language and learning abilities through interaction with their peers.

The courses that teachers teach could dictate their decision to foster a certain dimension of autonomy. For instance, in Danai' writing course, he preferred psychological dimension to other dimensions. In a writing class, the nature of teaching writing is very complex in itself, so teachers need to encourage students to take risks and be creative when composing. Therefore, by encouraging the students to use the language without fear of making mistakes, students can become more confident and are not afraid to take risks in language learning and using.

Moreover, from the results, it can be seen that the common challenges faced by teachers in this current study were similar to those found in previous studies. First, students' unwillingness to cooperate with teachers in making decisions for their own learning was found as prominent problem when teachers tried to foster autonomy in the class as occurred in Duong and Seepho's study in 2014. Moreover, curriculum was another vital challenge for teachers in this study which is similar to what Na Chiangmai (2016) has found. It becomes noticeable that language teachers in Thailand have faced similar challenges in contextual factors which can impede the development of learner autonomy.

Next, findings relating to the types of teachers' teaching practice will be discussed. To encourage learner autonomy, the teachers generally suggested *What* should be done or get students involved in activities in which they have to perform such practice. However, teachers may need to go beyond *What* should be done as the '*What*' might not give students enough momentum or reason for students to experiment and later adopt the suggested practice. The integration of explaining *How* to do it and *Why* they should do it may have a greater effect on the students. By giving a student reason to adopt a new practice, it enables students to start an internalization process (Reeve, Jang, Hardre, & Omura, 2002).

Therefore, to foster meaningful learner autonomy, teachers should be aware of not only the dimensions of autonomy but also the types of practice as well. Suggestions (*What*), demonstrations (*How*), explanations (*Why*) are also found to be an integral part in teachers effectively promoting learner autonomy in a classroom setting. The key in fostering autonomy may lie in teachers being prepared to ensure that each of their classroom instructions encompasses all these three types of practice.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study demonstrates the extent to which these Thai English language teachers fostered learner autonomy in their teaching practice. Classroom observations provided an insight into a wide range of practices that the teachers employed to encourage learner autonomy in their classroom. These included developing students' metacognitive knowledge, suggesting metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies, and giving them choices over their learning. Teachers, as a result, play an important role in the classroom when it comes to providing students opportunities to develop their autonomy. This study shows that it is possible to encourage learner autonomy, especially in a context where the teachers are expected to be in control, by both creating an environment where the students can practice control over aspects of their own learning and by preparing them to be able to make effective choices.

This paper introduces the ‘types of practices’, i.e., *What*, *What+Why*, *How*, and *How+Why* as an analytical framework to describe teachers’ actions in greater detail in order to give insights on how teachers foster learner autonomy. We have demonstrated that the use of ‘types of practices’ is possible and could be used to complement the four dimensions of autonomy advocated by Benson (1997) and Oxford (2003). Future research may explore the effectiveness of teacher actions in fostering learner autonomy by investigating students’ insights which help teachers adapt and design activities to support learner autonomy.

This study illustrated the types of practices teachers have at their disposal to encourage learner autonomy in the language classroom. In addition to the frequently used *What*-type of practice, teachers could go further by showing students *How* to do it and justifying (*How + Why*) the necessity of doing it. The classification of the types of practices shows the choices that teachers have in promoting learner autonomy. The *What*-practice would be used more effectively if combined with the *How + Why* practice to make a strong impression on students for that particular teaching practice by giving them specific instruction, direction, and explanation or justification behind it. For example, to use *What*-practice, teachers may encourage students to practice further what they have learned outside the classroom, mentioning, “You should practice this at home. You can’t learn a language in the classroom only.” To integrate *What+Why*-practice, teachers may say, “You should practice this at home. When you learn a language and practice it more in the real world, you will be able to use the language better. The more you practice, the better you will be.” To implement *How*-practice, teachers may suggest websites where students can practice more, saying, “You can use the Oxfordlearn website. ... In the Oxfordlearn.com website you can choose the language skills that you want to improve such as writing or even speaking.” To use *How+Why*-practice, teachers might say, “Although there are quite a few English words, the research identified the most frequently used 3,000 words as the most important. This is because by knowing these 3,000 words, learners can understand 80 percent of the language they encounter. The test we are doing now is to measure how many words you know based on the first 1,000 words of the most frequently used 3,000 words.”

Our study was largely qualitative in nature and explored the extent to which teachers attempt to foster autonomy and only observed a small number of classes. In future research, complementing qualitative research with quantitative research as well as recruiting a large number of participants and extending the study time frame could provide a well-rounded and more descriptive pictures of how, what transpires in a language classroom and why.

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Preliminary Speech Rate Normative Data in Adult Jordanian Speakers

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Abstract—Studies conducted to establish normative data on speech rate; including speaking and articulation rate, for the Jordanian Arabic dialect are scarce. **Aim:** to establish preliminary normative data on speaking and articulation rate for the adult male and female Jordanian Arabic speakers. **Methodology:** The sample of the study comprised 51 participants (23 males and 28 females), age (18-25 yrs, mean 20.82 yrs \pm 1.52). Spontaneous speech and reading samples were collected from participants. **Results:** Means of articulation rates during the tasks of spontaneous speech and reading passage were (140.07 w/m, 161.83 w/m, respectively), while the means of speaking rates during the tasks of spontaneous speech and reading passage were (124.51w/m, 141.36w/m, respectively). The ANOVA showed no significant differences ($p=0.237$) attributed to the effect gender on the articulation or the speaking rates in both tasks of spontaneous speech and reading passage. Pearson-r test showed moderate-strong positive correlations between articulation and speaking rates during both the reading passage and the spontaneous speech tasks ($p<0.01$, $r = 0.416$; $p <0.001$, $r = 0.962$, respectively). **Conclusion:** this study can be of a clinical significance in the evaluation and treatment of fluency, articulation and motor speech disorders.

Index Terms—Arabic, speech rate, Jordanian dialect, normative data, speaking rate, articulation rate

I. INTRODUCTION

Speech rate is traditionally defined as the number of production units such as phones or phonemes, syllables, or words during a defined time period (Goldman-Eisler, 1968). It is an important measure that affects the intelligibility of verbal messages, and the perception of the speaker's personality, and mental and emotional status, in addition to speaking conditions (Apple, 1979; Robb, Maclagan and Chen, 2004). It also includes information about the number and the duration of disfluencies that a speaker produces, and the amount of time it takes a speaker to convey a particular intention (Bloodstein & Bernstein-Ratner, 2008). Additionally, speech rate may help identify a speaker when he/she utilizes some kind of voice disguise (Rodriguez, Perez & Pedroso, 2014).

The establishment of speech rate normative data has important clinical applications pertaining to the diagnosis and intervention strategies of several speech and communication disorders (Lee & Doherty, 2017). Speech rate can be clinically used in the evaluation of disturbances such as dyslexia (Smith, Roberts, Smith, Locke & Bennette, 2006), stuttering, cluttering, hearing problems, and motor speech disorders, such as dysarthria (American Speech, Language, and Hearing Association [ASHA], 2016a; ASHA, 2016b; Chon & Ambrose, 2012; Lee & Doherty, 2017; Wang, Kent, Duffy & Thomas, 2005).

Moreover, speech rate is useful in the assessment of communicatively disordered populations (Bloodstein & Bernstein-Ratner, 2008). Smith et al. (2006) for instance stated that speech rate is slower in children who have dyslexia than in normal population (Smith et al., 2006). In fact, some clinical interventions are based on the strategy of controlling speech rate, such as speaking in a slow speech rate with children or adults who suffer from stuttering (Stuart, Kalinowski, Rastatter, Saltuklaroglu, & Dayalu, 2004). Wang et al. (2005) found that adjusting speech rate is often used as a procedure for treating motor speech disorders. For example, patients with dysarthria may be guided into speaking in a slow pace and better articulation precision in order to promote better speech intelligibility (Wang et al. 2005).

Multiple methods for calculating speech rate are available; two conventional and commonly used methods are speaking rate and articulation rate (Lee & Doherty, 2017; Duwal, Karki, George and Ravi, 2016; Amir and Grinfeld,

2011). Speaking rate is calculated by dividing the number of syllables or words by the time unit including the silence intervals and disfluencies (Lee & Doherty, 2017). It provides information about how quickly the person talks, and the influence of the speaking situations and emotions (Hall, Amir, & Yairi, 1999; Miller, Grosjean, & Lomanto, 1984). Articulation rate, on the other hand, is a more recent and sensitive method in estimating the time of speech execution than speaking rate. Articulation rate is not affected by silence intervals and disfluencies, and it is considered a global estimate of verbal output (Hall et al., 1999; Miller et al., 1984). Articulation rate is calculated using the same formula of calculating speaking rate but with exclusion of silence intervals and disfluencies (Lee & Doherty, 2017). Speaking rate and articulation rate were found to be positively correlated in all dialects of English in terms of length of utterance (Robb and Gillon 2007). The units of calculation of speech rate are multiple. Some studies used (words/minute) while others used (syllable/ minute) and (phone/ second) (Amir and Grinfeld, 2011; Duwal et al., 2016).

Several factors may have an effect on speech rate such as gender, age, language and dialect. The literature shows controversial results concerning the effect of gender on speech rate. For example, Duwal et al. (2016) studied speech rate including silent pauses of about 150 msec and less in 20 adult native Nepali speakers (10 males and 10 females, age 20-30 yrs). The researchers utilized a spontaneous speech sample and reading a particular passage. The study used the parameters (word per minute (w/m), syllable per minute (s/m), and syllable per second (syll/s)) in measuring the speech rate, and found that males registered insignificantly faster speech rate in spontaneous speech and significantly faster speech rate in reading than females (Males: 159.9 w/m, 337.3 s/m, and 5.80 syll/s and 141.8 w/m, 381.20 s/m, and 6.30 syll/s, respectively; Females: 148.9 w/m, 307.8 s/m, and 5.1 syll/s and 115.9 w/m, 304.2 s/m, and 4.8 syll/s, respectively). In addition, Nepali speakers had significantly higher rate in spontaneous speech (154.4 w/m, 322.55 s/m and 5.45 syll/s, respectively) than in reading (128.85 w/m, 342.70 s/m and 5.55 syll/s, respectively) (Duwal et al., 2016). Leemann, Kolly & Dellwo (2014) measured speaking rate for two groups of Swiss German dialect speakers in two regions of Switzerland (115 speakers from Bern city, and 205 speakers from Zurich city). The speakers' age range was between 4 and 75 years (60% males and 40% females) Participants were invited to read a 129 syllables fable. The study found that speakers from Zurich read the fable in 46 seconds while speakers from Bern read the text in the slower rate of 54 seconds. The Study also found that adult females demonstrated a slower speaking rate than adult males (Leemann et al., 2014). Jacewicz, Fox, O'Neill & Salmons (2009) used (Syllables per second (syll/s)) in measuring the articulation rate in 94 American speakers from two regions (South-central Wisconsin and Western North Carolina). The participants were divided into two groups-40 older adults (51-65 yrs), further sub grouped into speakers from South-central Wisconsin (20) and speakers from North Carolina (20). The participants were then subdivided into 10 males and 10 females from each region. The Authors found that adult females demonstrated a significantly slower articulation rate in the task of reading than adult males (3.33 and 3.48 syll/s, respectively). They also found that the articulation rate in spontaneous speech was slower for females than males but remained insignificant (5.03 and 5.2 syll/s, respectively). Moreover, the study found that the articulation rate was faster in spontaneous speech than in reading in all investigated regions (Jacewicz et al., 2009). Lee and Doherty (2017) used the (Syllable per minute (s/m) parameter) in measuring speech rate, and noticed that the speaking and articulation rate in each speech task (spontaneous and reading) were faster in 22 Irish men (Speaking rate (266 s/m and 293 s/m), Articulation rate (353 s/m and 341 s/m, respectively) than in 22 Irish women (Speaking rate (275 s/m and 282 s/m), Articulation rate (335 s/m and 323 s/m, respectively). The study also found that speaking rate in reading (299 s/m) was faster than in the spontaneous speech task (271 s/m), but with insignificant difference in articulation rate. Furthermore, Amino and Osania (2015) used reading a passage to measure the articulation rate in four languages (Japanese, Korean, Chinese and Thai) for 74 participants (32 Japanese, 20 Korean, 14 Chinese and 8 Thai) aged between 18-48 years, and found that the articulation rate for males in all investigated languages was faster than that of females. They also found that the female articulation rate was faster than males in Thai language. The articulation rate for Japanese male speakers was 7.81 syll/s, and for females 6.95 syll/s, whereas other nationalities articulation rate was as follows: Korean (males 6.43 syll/s, females 6.27 syll/s), Chinese (males 5.45 syll/s, and females 5.14 syll/s., Thai (males 4.36 syll/s, and females 4.53 syll/s) (Amino and Osania, 2015). Robb et al. (2004) also found that there was no significant difference for speaking and articulation rate during reading between males and females in 40 New Zealand English speakers (20 males and 20 females with a mean age of 19 years for females and 20 years for males), and 40 American English speakers (20 males and 20 females with a mean age of 27 years for females and 33 years for males). The Researchers reported that the mean values of the speaking rate for New Zealand males was 277 s/m and 284 s/m for females. On the other hand, the mean values of speaking rate for American males was 245 s/m and 254 s/m for females. The mean values of articulation rate for New Zealand males were 346 s/m and 341 s/m for females. The articulation rate for American males was 315 s/m and 318 s/m for females (Robb et al., 2004).

The literature reviewed shows that Languages and dialects did influence speech rate. For example, Irish English speakers showed faster speaking and articulation rate than other English dialect speakers from New Zealand and America (Robb et al., 2004, Lee & Doherty, 2017). In addition, Amino and Osania (2015) showed that the Japanese speakers had the fastest articulation rate as compared to the Korean, Chinese, and Thai speakers (Amino and Osania, 2015)

Robb et al. (2004) also found that New Zealand English speakers demonstrated faster speaking and articulation rate (280 s/m, 342 s/m, respectively) than American English speakers. Furthermore, Robb et al. (2004) stated that there was

a difference of (30 s/m) in the speaking and articulation rate between the two English dialects. That is, the speaking rate for American English was (250 s/m) and the articulation rate was approximately (300 s/m) (Robb et al. 2004).

Jacewicz et al. (2009) found that the articulation rate for overall American speakers in two regions during a spontaneous task (5.12 syll/s) was faster than reading (3.40 syll/s). They also reported that the speakers in Northern America (from Wisconsin) had faster articulation rate during spontaneous and reading task (5.41 and 3.54 syll/s, respectively) than speakers in southern America (from North Carolina) (4.81 and 3.27 syll/s, in that order) (Jacewicz et al., 2009).

The effect of age on speech rate was also investigated. Amino and Osania (2015) reported that older people tend to speak slower than young people (Amino and Osania, 2015). Jacewicz et al. (2009) found that young adults speak faster than older adults (Jacewicz et al., 2009). On the contrary, Amir and Grinfeld (2011) also reported that the articulation rate among children and adolescent increased with age (Amir and Grinfeld, 2011).

Studies targeting speech rate of Arabic speakers or of any of the Arabic dialects are scarce. Therefore, the current study aims to establish preliminary speech rate normative data for Jordanian Arabic speakers. The study will constitute a benchmark for measuring normative data of speech rate in other dialects of Arabic. Another aim of this study is to compare the resulting preliminary data with the results of other available languages and dialects. The influence of gender on Jordanian Arabic speech rate is identified and compared with other languages.

Correlation between speaking and articulation rate during speech tasks was conducted to highlight the importance of their combined use in the calculation of speech rate.

II. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Ethical approval to conduct the study was granted by the deanship of scientific research at the University of Jordan and by the institutional review board at the University of Jordan hospital.

A. Participants

Participants were recruited after obtaining their informed consent. Convenience and snow-ball sampling methods were employed. Potential participants were students who were approached at the school of rehabilitation sciences, the University of Jordan.

Participants were adults (≥ 18 yrs of age) and speakers of Jordanian Arabic. A self-administered questionnaire was used as a method for excluding participants who have health conditions that could affect speech rate calculation. Participants were asked to state their gender, age, and whether they had any respiratory, language, or speech problems. Those with respiratory problems, such as Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Diseases (COPD), or any form of speech or language problems at the time of data collection (respiratory infections, chronic or acute voice disorders, hypernasality, stuttering etc.) were excluded from the study. The study also incorporated communication disorders screenings in addition to the self-report. The screening was conducted by two speech language pathologists who had an expertise of 25 years in speech and language pathology practice.

B. Procedures

Two speech samples were collected from each participant; spontaneous speech and reading. As for the spontaneous speech samples, participants were encouraged to speak for 3-5 minutes as recommended by Lee & Doherty (2017) to elicit the production of at least 200 different utterances (Guitar (2006) and Shipley and MacAfee (2009)). Open-ended questions concerning topics such as friend activities, study topics, and interests were used to elicit responses (Lee & Doherty, 2017). As for the reading samples, participants were asked to read a selected paragraph from a refereed journal. The paragraph included all Arabic sounds following the recommendations of Shipley and MacAfee (2009) and included more than 308 words as suggested by Guitar (2006). All samples were collected using a digital voice recorder (Olympus, WS-600S, China).

Both the articulation and the speaking rate were used to establish preliminary results of Jordanian Arabic. For the purpose of the current study, the authors utilized words as the unit of count (Guitar, 2006). Articulation and speaking rate were calculated by dividing the total number of words produced in all spontaneous and reading utterances after excluding interjections and disfluencies.

Speaking rate was calculated by dividing the total number of words by the total utterance duration including the period of silent intervals that were estimated to be less than 2 sec and including dysfluencies time (Guitar, 2006). Articulation rate was calculated following the same procedure but with the exclusion of the time of silent intervals and dysfluencies (Lee & Doherty, 2017).

C. Data Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 22, (IBM Corporation, USA). Participants were classified into subgroups according to gender. Descriptive statistical analysis of categorical variables of gender was conducted, and then a One-way ANOVA was used to compare the means of speaking and articulation rate (i.e. in the two tasks of reading versus spontaneous speech) between gender subgroups. P value was set to be below 0.05 ($P < 0.05$) to test any significant effect of gender on speaking and articulation rate.

The correlation between speaking and articulation rate in the two speech tasks (spontaneous speech and reading) was also investigated by conducting a Pearson-r test. P value was set at .01. Values of correlation coefficient-r below 0.39 were considered weak, values between 0.4–0.59 were considered moderate, whereas values more than 0.60 were considered as strong correlations (Mukaka, 2012).

III. RESULTS

The study sample consisted of 51 participants (age range 18- 25 yrs; mean age 20.82 ±1.52). There were 23 (45.1%) males (mean age 20.54 yrs ± 1.59); and 28 (54.9%) females (mean age 21.07 yrs ± 1.43).

Articulation rate mean during reading for the whole sample was 161.83 ± 36.80 w/m; while articulation rate mean during spontaneous speech was 140.07 ± 28.59 w/m (Table 1). Speaking rate mean during reading and spontaneous speech was 141.36 ± 16.76 w/m and 124.51 ± 25.34 w/m, respectively (Table 1). Articulation and speaking rate during reading were faster than spontaneous speech. In addition, the articulation rate was faster than speaking rate for all participants.

TABLE 1.
MEANS & STANDARD DIVISIONS OF ARTICULATION AND SPEAKING RATES AS ARRANGED BY GENDER

Gender	Articulation rate		Speaking rate	
	Spont.	Reading	Spont.	Reading
Females	137.81 ±30.29	160.64 ±42.04	125.28 ±25.07	140.12 ±12.78
Males	142.83 ±26.78	163.28 ±30.07	123.58 ±26.21	142.87 ±20.84
Total	140.07 ±28.59	161.83 ±36.80	124.51 ±25.34	141.36 ±16.76

Note. Spont. = Spontaneous speech, unit = words/minute.

As for gender, articulation and speaking rate during reading were faster in males than in females (163.28±30.07, 160.64±42.04 and 142.87 ±20.84, 140.12 ±12.78, respectively). This was also true when comparing articulation rate in spontaneous speech sample, as males showed faster articulation rate than females (142.83 ± 26.78, 137.81 ± 30.29, respectively). On the other hand, speaking rate in the spontaneous speech sample showed faster rates for female participants than males (125.28±25.07, 123.58 ±26.21, respectively) (Table 1).

One-way ANOVA analysis showed that gender has no significant effect on speaking and articulation rate during all speech tasks (Spontaneous and Reading) (p= 0.237). Gender has no effect on articulation rate during spontaneous speaking and reading (p=0.538, 0.802, respectively), and on speaking rate during spontaneous and reading (p= 0.814, 0.566, respectively).

Correlation between articulation and speaking rate during reading was found to be moderately positive and significant (p<0.01, r = 0.416). Correlation between articulation and speaking rate during spontaneous task was found to be strongly positive and significant (p <0.001, r = 0.962).

The correlation between speech tasks per rate type was found weak and insignificant (p>0.01, r < 0.39). The correlation between reading and spontaneous articulation rate was found to be negative and insignificant (p= 0.559, r=-0.084). On the other hand, the correlation between reading and spontaneous speaking rate was found to be weakly positive and insignificant (p= 0.261, r= 0.160) (Table 2).

TABLE 2.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ARTICULATION AND SPEAKING RATES ACROSS TASKS

Correlations	Articulation rate		Speaking rate	
	Spontaneous	Reading	Spontaneous	Reading
Articulation rate				
Spontaneous	1	-0.084	0.962***	0.155
Reading	-0.084	1	-0.034	0.416**
Speaking rate				
Spontaneous	0.962***	-0.034	1	0.160
Reading	0.155	0.416**	0.160	1

Note. *Significant on p < 0.05 level, ** Significant on p < 0.01 level, *** Significant on p < 0.001 level.

IV. DISCUSSION

Investigations targeting normal speech rate (speaking and articulation rate) during conversation and reading in Jordan are scarce. The current study is a preliminary effort to establish speaking and articulation rate normative data among adult male and female Jordanian speakers. The samples utilized were conversation and reading a passage.

Studies reviewed by the current investigation (Table 3), used different methodologies for calculating speaking and articulation rate. Some studies used syllable per second (syll/s) like Duwal et al. (2016), Jacewicz et al. (2009), and Amino and Osania (2015). Other studies used syllable per minute (s/m) like Duwal et al. (2016), Lee and Doherty (2017) and Robb et al. (2004). Duwal et al. (2016) used word per minute (w/m) where they calculated speech rate including mean silent pauses. The current study used the same methodology to investigate the effect of gender on articulation and speaking rate during spontaneous speech and reading.

TABLE 3.
RESULTS OF PREVIOUS STUDIES ON THE EFFECT OF GENDER ON SPEECH RATES ACROSS DIFFERENT LANGUAGES

Gender	Articulation rate		Speaking rate		Speech rate		Reference	Dialect/ Language
	Spont.	Reading	Spont.	Reading	Spont.	Reading		
Females	137.81 w/m	160.64 w/m	125.28 w/m	140.12 w/m	-	-	Current Study	Jordanian Arabic
	-	-	-	-	-148.9 w/m	115.9 w/m	Duwal et al. (2016)	Nepali
	-	-	-	-	307.8 s/m	304.2 s/m		
	-	-	-	-	5.1 syll/s	4.8 syll/s		
	5.03syll/s	3.33syll/s	-	-	-	-	Jacewicz et al., 2009	Northern and Southern American English
	335 s/m	323 s/m	275 s/m	282 s/m	-	-	Lee & Doherty, 2017	Irish- English speakers
	-	6.95syll/s	-	-	-	-	Amino and Osania, 2015	Japanese
	-	6.27syll/s	-	-	-	-		Korean
	-	5.14syll/s	-	-	-	-		Chinese
	-	4.53syll/s	-	-	-	-		Thai
	-	341 s/m	-	284 s/m	-	-	Robb et al., 2004	New Zealand English
-	318 s/m	-	254 s/m	-	-	American English		
Males	142.83 w/m	163.28 w/m	123.58 w/m	142.87 w/m	-	-	Current Study	Jordanian Arabic
	-	-	-	-	159.9 w/m	141.80w/m	Duwal et al. (2016)	Nepali speakers
	-	-	-	-	337.3 s/m	381.20 s/m		
	-	-	-	-	5.80 syll/s	6.30 syll/s		
	5.2 syll/s	3.48syll/s	-	-	-	-	Jacewicz et al., 2009	Northern and Southern American English
	353 s/m	341 s/m	266 s/m	293 s/m	-	-	Lee & Doherty, 2017	Irish- English speakers
	-	7.81syll/s	-	-	-	-	Amino and Osania, 2015	Japanese
	-	6.43syll/s	-	-	-	-		Korean
	-	5.45syll/s	-	-	-	-		Chinese
	-	4.36syll/s	-	-	-	-		Thai
	-	346 s/m	-	277 s/m	-	-	Robb et al., 2004	New Zealand English
-	315 s/m	-	245 s/m	-	-	American English		

Note. Spont. = Spontaneous speech, s/m= syllables/minute, w/m= words/minute, syll/s = Syllables/ second.

The current study results showed that the males registered faster, but insignificant, articulation and speaking rate during reading than females. The same result was found in articulation rate during spontaneous speech. Those results resonate the speaking rate reported by Duwal et al. (2016) and the articulation rate reported by Jacewicz et al. (2009). The results also resonate the articulation rate for New Zealanders reported by Robb et al. (2004) who used a reading passage as their study sample. Speaking rate in Duwal et al. (2016) and Leemann et al. (2014), and the articulation rate in Jacewicz et al. (2009) and in Amino and Osania (2015) had significantly faster rates in males than females. Significantly faster speech rate were also reported by Lee and Doherty (2017).

In contrast, the current study showed that females demonstrated faster, but insignificant, rate than males particularly in speaking rate during spontaneous speech. This result is similar to the results reported by Robb et al. (2004) study of speaking rate for New Zealander and of speaking and articulation rate for American speakers.

As for the comparison of speaking and articulation rate across speech tasks, the current study found that speaking and articulation rate were significantly faster during reading than spontaneous speech. This result is similar to the results of speaking rate in Lee and Dehorty (2017), with insignificant differences in articulation rate. On the other hand, speaking rate in Duwal et al. (2016) and articulation rate in Jacewicz et al. (2009) were faster during spontaneous speech than reading.

An overview of previous studies that targeted speaking rate and the measurement unit (syllable per minute (s/m) in different languages and dialects is interesting. For example, Nepali speakers had faster speaking rate than Irish- English during each speech task, but had faster speaking rate than New Zealanders, and American –English speakers. As for articulation rate during reading, Irish speakers were faster than New Zealanders, and American speakers. Speaking rate reported by the current investigation can be compared with Nepali speakers in Duwal et al. (2016) as both studies used word per minute as a measurement unit. The comparison showed that adult Jordanian speakers had faster speaking rate during reading than adult Nepali speakers. Additionally, adult Jordanian speakers had slower speaking rate during spontaneous speech than adult Nepali speakers (Table 4).

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF PREVIOUS STUDIES ON SPEECH RATES ACROSS DIFFERENT DIALECTS AND LANGUAGES

Languages and Dialects	Articulation rate		Speaking rate		Speech rate		Reference
	Spont.	Reading	Spont.	Reading	Spont.	Reading	
Japanese	-	See table 3	-	-	-	-	Amino and Osania, 2015
Korean	-		-	-	-	-	
Chinese	-		-	-	-	-	
Thai	-		-	-	-	-	
Indo-Aryan							
Nepali	-	-	-	-	154.4w/m	128.85w/m	Duwal et al. (2016)
	-	-	-	-	322.55s/m	342.70 s/m	
	-	-	-	-	5.45 syll/s	5.55 syll/s	
English							
New Zealand	-	3342 s/m	-	280 s/m	-	-	Robb et al. (2004)
USA	-	3300 s/m	-	250 s/m	-	-	
USA	5.12syll/s	3.40syll/s	-	-	-	-	Jacewicz et al. (2009)
Northern USA	5.41syll/s	3.54syll/s	-	-	-	-	
Southern USA	4.81syll/s	3.27syll/s	-	-	-	-	
Irish	344 s/m	3352 s/m	271 s/m	299 s/m	-	-	Lee & Doherty, 2017
Arabic							
Jordanian	140.07 w/m	161.83 w/m	124.51w/m	141.36w/m	-	-	Current study

Note. Spont. =Spontaneous speech, s/m =syllables/minute, w/m =words/minute and syll/s = Syllables/ second.

The current study also found that there was significant positive correlation between speaking and articulation rate during both reading and spontaneous speech. This result is similar to Robb and Gillon (2007) in all dialects of English. In contrast, there was negative articulation rate correlation between the two speech tasks. As for the two speech tasks in speaking rate there was weak positive correlation. These results may facilitate Jordanian speech pathologists’ ability to predict one measure of speech rate if the other is known. That is, if a speech pathologist calculates speaking rate, articulation rate could be at least predicted given that both rates utilize the same speech task (reading or spontaneous speech).

Exploring speech rate normative data for both measures (speaking and articulation rates) is important for designing evaluation and treatment plans for many communicative, speech, and neurological disorders (Lee & Doherty, 2017; Smith et al., 2006; American Speech, Language, and Hearing Association [ASHA] 2016a; [ASHA] 2016b; Chon & Ambrose, 2012; Bloodstein & Bernstein-Ratner, 2008; Stuart et al., 2004 and Wang et al. 2005). Additionally, gender effect on the values of speech rate across speech tasks in some languages, is worth of attention when designing evaluation and treatment plans for the Jordanian population. As such, the current study sheds some light on the methodology used in calculating and interpreting speech rate measures.

V. FUTURE RESEARCH

The current study is a preliminary normative study of speaking and articulation rate across two speech tasks (reading and spontaneous speech) for Jordanian speakers. Future studies will target different age groups across a larger sample

using variable measurement units. In addition, future studies will include samples of speaking and articulation rate from different groups of patients (fluency, articulation and motor speech disorders etc.).

VI. CONCLUSION

The current study concluded that there were no significant differences between male and female Jordanian speakers in articulation and speaking rate during spontaneous speech and reading. However, this study reported that males had faster, though not significant, articulation rate and speaking rate than females, with the exception of the speaking rate during spontaneous speech, where females had faster rates than males.

Furthermore, the current study noted that the articulation rate was faster than speaking rate in reading than in spontaneous speech. In addition, adult Jordanian speakers had faster articulation and speaking rate during reading than those reported by other languages. Nepali speakers, however, registered the fastest speaking rate during spontaneous speech among other languages.

The current study also found that there was significant positive correlation between speaking and articulation rate, which means that one of them, may be helpful in predicting the other in clinical settings.

Finally, the current study can be used as a preliminary effort to establish normative data for evaluating and treating patients with fluency, articulation disorders and/or motor speech disorders.

DECLARATION OF INTEREST

The authors report no conflict of interest.

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Worldwide Shadow Education Epidemic and Its Move toward Shadow Curriculum

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Abstract—Shadow education has become a widespread phenomenon worldwide and is now an unavoidable learning space for many students. It challenges the traditional notion of factory-like one-size-fits-all education and provides students with more personalized learning. Moreover, it goes beyond shadowing the formal education and holds a mirror up to the formal education to reveal its shortcomings. Although more studies worldwide are focusing on the phenomenon, its scope, characteristics, history, and functionality remain underexplored. Therefore, shadow education should be considered as an emerging focus of recent curriculum studies and should not be disregarded by researchers who attempt to understand where, how, what, and with whom students learn. The present article elaborates on a new conceptualization of ‘shadow education’ and one of its components, ‘shadow curriculum’, which is a new focus of curriculum studies aiming for individual students’ academic success in formal education. First, we deal with shadow education and its forms and features, and then move toward the concept and characteristics of shadow curriculum.

Index Terms—shadow education, shadow curriculum, private tutoring, curriculum studies

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, education has been based on formal schooling and “the school curriculum was the only guideline for determining what and how students learned at school or at home” (Kim & Jung, 2019a, p. 14). Nevertheless, in the recent decades, academic success can no longer be attributed solely to public education and many students achieve their academic goals by learning in the ‘shadow education’ which is commonly understood as private education outside of formal public schooling. (Kim & Jung, 2019a). Therefore, shadow education expanded in response to perceptions that public schooling was inadequate to guarantee academic success (Byun, 2010). This phenomenon can also help us critically question the historically ‘sacred’ status of public schooling (Kim & Jung, 2019b).

Students and parents do not have blind faith in public education today (Kim & Jung, 2019a) and believe that shadow education centers employ more and better educational practices and teachers (Kim & Kim, 2012, 2015; Paramita, 2015; Yang & Kim, 2010). In fact, shadow education challenges the authority of schooling and instructors by altering students’ attitudes toward public education. Thus, many students value shadow education more than public education (Kim, 2016; Paramita, 2015), believing that shadow education teachers understand and guide them better (Kim & Kim, 2012, 2015; Mawer, 2015; Paramita, 2015). They supplement their learning through shadow education (Bray, 1999; Kim, 2016; Ozaki, 2015), because it provides various curricula and materials that are mostly related to public schools to enrich schooling (Kim, 2016; Kim & Jung, 2019a; Ozaki, 2015). In addition, parents are much more active and powerful in the shadow education sector than in public education and actively search for educational opportunities that best meet the needs and goals of their children (Kim & Jung, 2019a). Unlike public schooling, shadow education enables students and parents to make decisions about courses, curriculum materials and even instructors (Kim & Jung, 2019a). Therefore, “in an era when shadow education is reshaping student learning and arguably the whole landscape of education in many countries worldwide, shadow education, and more specifically shadow curriculum, should emerge as a new research area in the field of curriculum studies” (Kim & Jung, 2019a, p. 16).

The present paper tries to discuss the historical development of shadow education and its move toward shadow curriculum. Firstly, it focuses on how shadow education has been defined by different researchers at different times. Then, it provides detailed explanation on different forms of shadow education and also deals with what forms of shadow education emerge in different contexts. Next, the paper looks at the conceptualization of shadow curriculum as a new focus of curriculum studies and explains characteristics of shadow education curricula in order to understand what characteristics attract students and parents. Finally, backwash effects of shadow education on mainstream schooling and the issue of inequalities caused by shadow education are addressed.

II. RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT

Historically, shadow education has been most widespread in East Asian countries such as South Korea, Japan, China, Taiwan, and Singapore (Dawson, 2010; Jung, 2018; Kim, 2016; Kim & Jung, 2019b; Mori & Baker, 2010), but it has

expanded significantly worldwide since the start of the twenty-first century (Bray, 2017; Kim, 2016; Kim & Jung, 2019b; Park, Buchmann, Choi & Merry, 2016). “Students’ participation in shadow education has gained increasing interest from researchers due to its tremendous growth” (Dwita, Cheisviyanny, Helmy, & Marwan, 2018, p. 551) and researches have been done to find out what impacts and consequences shadow education leaves on students, families, schools, public school systems, and societies (Jung, 2018). On the positive side, studies on shadow education have acknowledged its important contribution to students’ academic success, college admission (Buchmann, Condron, & Roscigno 2010), and also their social development (Gök 2010). On the other hand, researchers have identified undesirable consequences of shadow education that Bray (2011, p. 14) calls “backwash”, including negatively impacting students’ development (Gillen-O’Neel, Huynh, & Fuligni 2013; Park et al. 2016; Yamamoto & Brinton 2010), as well as increasing students workloads, parental financial burdens, existing social inequalities, and excessive competition and anxiety of students and parents (Jung, 2018; Kim, 2016). “Existing research has revealed enough of shadow education’s pervasiveness, seriousness, and negative effects to alarm educators and researchers, and to ensure that shadow education shall not be ignored” (Jung, 2018, p. 272). Although, shadow education has been the focus of much attention in the fields of comparative education, education and policy, sociology of education, education and economics, and lifelong education (Jung, 2018), it has not received attention from curriculum theorists (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Empirical research has indicated that in many contexts shadow education is a great force that is shaping our education sector and academic success is seriously influenced by participation in shadow education (Nam & Chan, 2019). Thus, Curriculum research cannot be restricted to schools and research needs to be conducted to uncover shadow education impacts in depth (Nam & Chan, 2019).

III. DEFINING SHADOW EDUCATION AND ITS SUBCATEGORIES

De Silva, Gunawardena, Jayaweera, Perera, Rupasinghe, and Wijetunge (1991) introduced the idea of shadow education to academia using the term ‘private supplementary tutoring’ when referring to this kind of education (Kim & Jung, 2019b). After that, Stevenson and Baker (1992) defined shadow education as “a set of educational activities that occur outside formal schooling and are designed to enhance the student’s formal school career” (p. 1639). Later, Baker, Akiba, LeTendre, and Wiseman (2001) defined shadow education as “outside-school learning activities paralleling features of formal schooling used by students to increase their own educational opportunities” (p. 2). Buchmann, Condron, and Roscigno (2010) also defined shadow education as “educational activities, such as tutoring and extra classes, occurring outside of formal schooling designed to improve a student’s chance of successfully moving through high school graduation and into a college of their choice” (p. 436).

“The metaphor of ‘shadow’ first emerged in discourse about shadow education in Malaysia, Singapore, and Japan” (Kim & Jung, 2019b, p. 26), and helped researchers and readers understand the overall implications of the phenomenon (Bray, 2013). Bray (1999) popularized the term ‘shadow education’, emphasizing the mimicry character of shadow education, while framing mainstream schooling as the source of light. He claimed that the metaphor of the shadow is suitable for several reasons:

First, private supplementary tutoring only exists because the mainstream education exists; second, as the size and shape of the mainstream system change, so do the size and shape of supplementary tutoring; third, in almost all societies much more public attention focuses on the mainstream than on its shadow; and fourth, the features of the shadow system are much less distinct than those of the mainstream system. (Bray, 1999, p. 17)

Malik (2017) considered various definitions of shadow education and argued that these can result in confusion and ambiguity, particularly about the issue of supplementation and privateness, which Bray (2007 [1999]) considered important parameters of shadow education. He defined shadow education as “activities that are meant to help the students to improve their school learning in examinable subjects” (2017, p. 20). He also explained that “these activities must be paid by the students or on their behalf, and provided privately outside of formal school responsibilities” (2017, p. 20). Further, he divided shadow education into three subcategories according to their characteristics and impacts; including ‘shadow teaching’, ‘shadow curriculum’, and ‘prerecorded academic aids’. Shadow teaching which is the first subcategory of shadow education refers to any kind of supplementary teaching provided by tutors, teachers, or any other person with or without physical presence such as online teaching (Malik, 2017). It is real time teaching; therefore, prerecorded lectures are not part of this category in that their impact, how they are delivered and received are totally different from face-to-face or live lectures (Malik, 2017). Like shadow education, shadow teaching is considered as profit making and free supplementary teaching is not part of it (Malik, 2017). The second subcategory of shadow education is shadow curriculum which includes all textual help books, eBooks, guides, helping materials, notes, solved and unsolved materials (Malik, 2017). These materials need to be bought or hired and any materials obtained or used free of cost would not be a part of this category (Malik, 2017). The third subcategory of shadow education introduced by Malik (2017) is prerecorded academic aids which include all the lectures, lessons, explanations or solutions that are delivered in the form of prerecorded online lectures, CDs, audio messages or videos.

IV. FORMS OF SHADOW EDUCATION

Kim, Gough, and Jung (2018) identified five main forms of shadow education based on Bray's (2011) categorization of shadow education that include one-to-one, pairs, small groups, and classroom-based instruction. It is believed that this categorization of shadow education is based chiefly on student-teacher ratio (Kim et al., 2018; Kim & Jung, 2019a). The five forms of shadow education which allow students and parents to make choices about learning space, time, methods, and even teachers include: (1) home-visit private tutoring, (2) private tutoring institutes, (3) subscribed learning programs, (4) Internet-based private tutoring, and (5) after-school programs (Kim et al., 2018; Kim & Jung, 2019b).

A. Home-visit Private Tutoring

Home-visit private tutoring (HVPT) is the most individualized form of shadow education (Kim et al., 2018) that provides students with a face-to-face customized tutoring, usually at their home (Kim & Jung, 2019b). This is considered as the most traditional form of shadow education in which tutors usually work one-on-one with a student, but sometimes work in small groups (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Unlike schools, which are often restricted to government-designated timetables, textbooks, and curricula, HVPT is flexible in terms of instructional materials, methods, and time and location and this flexibility may be the most distinctive feature of HVPT (Kim & Jung, 2019b). In fact, HVPT is unsystematic and fluid and tutors are not restricted to a structured curriculum in order to allow immediate modification of curricula based on the individual learner's needs (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Additionally, HVPT involves an intimate relationship between a tutor and tutee(s). This means that tutors not only help students with their academic needs, but also meet their emotional, affective, and mental needs in a close relationship (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Research shows that students who engage in HVPT experience more open and honest communication with tutors than to school teachers (Kim, 2016; Kim & Jung, 2019b; Yang & Kim, 2010). Since there are no formal requirements for HVPT, private tutors can range from high school or university students with no pedagogical training to specialized and experienced tutors and even to mainstream teachers (Kim & Jung, 2019b). HVPT is used mostly by students from relatively wealthy families, because fees are higher than any other form of shadow education (Kim, 2016; Kim et al., 2018; Kim & Jung, 2019a). However, in some countries, like the United States and Japan, governments fund tutoring for poor and underachieving students (Kim & Jung, 2019a; Mawer, 2015).

B. Private Tutoring Institutes

Private tutoring institutes (PTIs) are the most school like form of shadow education because they have their own physical spaces with classrooms and buildings (Kim & Jung, 2019a). They included differentiated classes and group students based on academic levels, abilities, and needs (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Typically, students attend private tutoring classes three times a week during the school year and every day during the vacations (Kim, 2016). Class sizes are usually smaller than school classes and may range from 7 to 15 students or more (Kim et al., 2018; Kim & Jung, 2019a). PTIs have their own formulaic curriculum and instruction, formalized timetables, materials, classes, and assessment or evaluation methods (Bray, 2011; Kim, 2016; Kim et al., 2018). Unlike schools which use formal exams once or twice a semester or year, PTIs usually use ongoing assessments and diagnostic tools to check student understanding of course content and assess each student's study progress, academic strengths and weaknesses, and overall attitude about school and learning (Kim & Jung, 2019b). PTIs provide educational counseling services that positively contributes to students' academic, social, and psychological development and enhances their general welfare (Kim & Kim, 2012, 2015, Kim & Jung, 2019b). Kim and Jung (2019b) believe that PTI has become a big industry in many countries in that many PTIs have recently become franchised and expanded rapidly throughout the world. According to Kim and Jung (2019b), PTIs can be classified into four main types: One subject PTIs, Comprehensive PTIs, PTIs for talented students, and Test preparation specialized PTIs. 'One subject PTIs' focus on one particular subject such as language, mathematics, or science; for example, English language PTIs which are common in East Asia (Kim & Jung, 2019b). 'Comprehensive PTIs' focus on all school subjects to provide students with remedial and enhancement lessons, provide assistance with school assignments and regular counseling, help students build fundamental learning skills, help maintain or improve their GPA, and prepare students for high-stake tests (Kim & Jung, 2019b). 'PTIs for talented students' target advanced and high-achieving students and provide them with accelerated learning opportunities, which public schools cannot or do not (Kim & Jung, 2019b). 'Test preparation specialized PTIs' provide admission-oriented teaching and preparation for various exams. In fact, for successful exam preparation, students are provided with strategies, learning methods, types of questions, and admission counseling and information (Bray, 2013).

C. Subscribed Learning Program

A subscribed learning program (SLP) is defined by Kim and Jung (2019a) as "a highly standardized and systematic tutoring program provided by large, franchised enterprises such as Kumon, Red Pen, Prunet, and Nunnoppi" (P. 4). These enterprises develop their materials using their own curricular and instructional strategies that is only available by subscription and are delivered via mail, email and online (Kim et al., 2018). In fact, SLPs have systematized curricula, constituting of subdivided levels to provide students with daily and weekly materials and worksheets (Kim & Jung, 2019b). In SLP, students master the content and fundamental skills through repetitive drills and feedback (Kim & Jung, 2019b) and also have the chance to follow the instructional materials step-by-step and at their own pace at home (Kim, et al., 2018). In addition, SLPs homework management helps students develop good learning habits (Kim & Jung,

2019b). Although most SLP companies send tutors to students' home like HVPT, the role of tutors in this type of shadow education is different in that they evaluate student progress and degree of understanding (Kim et al., 2018; Kim & Jung, 2019a), analyze their work, identify weak points, and provide additional explanation until students fully understand the material and can move on to more advanced topics (Kim & Jung, 2019b). According to Kim and Jung (2019b), SLP is delivered in two main ways: 'home-visit subscribed learning programs' which are the most common and traditional form of SLP and focus on distributing printed worksheets to students and an instructor visit regularly; and 'online/ telephone subscribed learning programs' which are technology-based and focus on online and telephone services to manage learning without visiting students at home. "Students are often motivated to learn by participating in online educational platforms that gives virtual points and rewards to students when they complete online lectures, games, math problems, and reading materials" (Kim & Jung, 2019b, P. 74).

D. Internet-based Private Tutoring

"Internet-based private tutoring (IPT) combines the advantages of private tutoring and highly developed technologies" (Kim & Jung, 2019b, P. 74) and helps students and tutoring institutions overcome geographical and temporal barriers (Kim et al., 2018; Kim & Jung, 2019b). IPT allows students to access to high quality lessons and lectures from famous instructors across their country or even other developed countries (Kim & Jung, 2019b). It has also improved matching between students and instructors and has reduced inequalities in information acquisition through distant education (Bukowski, 2017). IPT allows students to utilize their time efficiently and requires them to be more self-managed independent learners (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Additionally, IPT companies develop their own online content, curriculum, teaching, and learning materials and make numerous lectures, programs, information, and services available online (Kim & Jung, 2019b). These companies are growing exponentially due to their ubiquity and relatively low tuition cost and as a result many traditional offline shadow education companies have now expanded their models to include the Internet (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Kim and Jung (2019b) introduced three main types of IPTs: 1) Archived online lecture refers to educational video files that are viewable on a designated Web site and students can access them on the Web sites anytime, anywhere, via their computer, PMP, tablet, or smartphone (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Students can watch the files repeatedly for a designated time period after paying for them (Kim & Jung, 2019b). 2) Live online tutoring allows real-time student-teacher interaction in which learner/ learners simultaneously log into the system and receive lectures from a tutor (Kim & Jung, 2019b). 3) Blended learning combines online and offline learning and provides students with prerecorded lectures posted on Web sites (Kim & Jung, 2019b). "Students can get help from archived online lectures when they cannot understand the content is covered in offline tutoring or lectures, or when they miss a specific lecture" (Kim & Jung, 2019b, P. 77).

E. Academic After-school Programs

After-school programs (ASPs) can be defined as "a set of student-centered learning and development activities which are school-based operations but are not a part of the regular curriculum" (Bae & Jeon, 2013, p. 55). Although other forms of shadow education mainly focus on academic purposes, ASP focuses on diverse purposes and functionalities from school subjects, sports, and arts (Devaney, Smith, & Wong, 2012; Durlak, Evans & Leung, 2012; Kim & Jung, 2019b). Actually, ASPs provide child care and supervised learning in educational environments to students whose parents cannot take care of them after school hours (Kim & Jung, 2019b). The cost of ASP is often funded or supplemented by governments or nonprofit organizations to fulfill the needs of working parents (Kim & Jung, 2019b). It is relatively low compared to PTI or HVPT in that they use school classrooms and facilities (Kim & Jung, 2019b). ASPs usually include government regulation and "originate from a government's desire to reduce academic gaps among students, provide child care, and enhance the results of national academic assessments" (Kim & Jung, 2019b, p. 82). As Kim & Jung (2019b) noted, the different practices of ASPs in different countries can be categorized into two main types: 'Subject knowledge-based ASPs' include school subjects and provide students with remedial help, academic help, and test preparation at a low cost (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Typically, teachers in public education are also teachers in ASPs and receive additional payment for tutoring students who are already their students in the mainstream schooling (Bray, 1999). 'Skill and aptitude ASPs' normally focus on the development of artistic and practical skills and offer various programs, such as sports, cultural arts, performing arts, computer literacy, and life skills (Kim & Jung, 2019b) which can improve students' attitude, self-confidence, and social skills (Evans & Leung, 2012).

V. CONCEPT OF SHADOW CURRICULUM

Shadow curriculum is one component of the worldwide phenomenon of shadow education (Kim & Jung, 2019b). It is a new concept of curriculum that focuses attention to student learning outside formal schooling (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Kim and Jung (2019a) defined shadow curriculum by drawing on existing terminologies, definitions and characteristics of shadow education as "supplementary curriculum out of schooling provided by educational business industries that are aimed for individual students' academic success in formal education" (p. 10). Their definition of shadow curriculum incorporates three main components. First, shadow curriculum focuses on the individual (Kim & Kim, 2012, 2015; Mawer, 2015; Ozaki, 2015) and the academic level of individual students as well (Kim & Jung, 2019b). It provides students with personalized learning environments (Dawson, 2010; Park et al., 2016), instructional materials, and

programs (Kim, 2016; Kim & Kim, 2012, 2015) and also adjusts strategies to students' learning styles and needs (Kim, 2016; Ozaki, 2015; Zhang, 2013). Second, shadow curriculum enhances academic success and help students achieve higher school grades and test scores and eventually enter the college of their choice (Yamamoto & Brinton, 2010). Third, the lessons in shadow curriculum are determined by each student's academic level (Kim & Jung, 2019b). These lessons either help underachieving students catch up or help overachievers advance faster (Carr & Wang, 2015; Entrich, 2014). This means that shadow curriculum uses remedial strategies for students who cannot follow the school lessons, and provides more advanced materials for students who are far beyond the level of other students at school (Kim, 2016; Kim & Kim, 2012, 2015). Therefore, shadow curriculum is not only limited to remedial mainstream schooling, but it also functions for enrichment or acceleration purposes (Kim & Jung, 2019b).

Within shadow curriculum, students and their parents have the opportunity to express their opinions about the levels of courses, various programs, instructors and instructional approaches and aggressively ask for and eventually obtain what they need due to the profit-making nature of shadow curricula (Kim & Jung, 2019a). If shadow curriculum providers cannot or do not address these needs, students and their parents will leave and find another provider (Kim & Jung, 2019a). "A shadow curriculum thus reflects the interests and information needs of those who have no voice in deciding what the formal curriculum should include, although they are the ones who are most influenced by it, the students" (Hagay & Baram-Tsabari, 2010, p. 611).

VI. CHARACTERISTICS OF A SHADOW CURRICULUM

Kim and Jung (2019b) presented six characteristics of shadow curriculum based on their definition of shadow curriculum and compared these characteristics to schooling and school curricula.

The first characteristic of shadow curriculum is that it responds to the academic and educational needs of students and parents (Bray, 2007 [1999]; Bray & Kwo, 2013; Kim, 2016; Ozaki, 2015; Park et al., 2016). Because shadow education centers must meet consumer needs, they try to find out students wants and needs and then to respond to them (Bray, 2007 [1999]). Shadow education meets students' academic needs and help them achieve their goal (Kim, 2016) by addressing content and skills that are sometimes not covered in public schooling (Kim & Jung, 2019b).

The second characteristics of shadow curriculum is that it strongly emphasizes students' academic achievement which is the most important reason why they take shadow education classes (Bray, 2007; Kim, 2016; Stevenson & Baker, 1992). Research has revealed that students with either weak or strong academic performance seek shadow education (Bray 2007[1999]), and students in high ranking schools tend to use shadow education more than those in lower ranking schools (Kim 2016). It is believed that higher achievement in schools will lead students to prestigious universities and that graduates from such universities tend to be successful in their career and life (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Thus, shadow curriculum tends to be goal specific and task oriented and helps students prepare for an exam, pass a specific test or improve a grade in a course (Aurini & Davies, 2004; Kim, 2016; Kim & Kim, 2012, 2015; Stevenson & Baker, 1992; Yamamoto & Brinton, 2010).

The third characteristic of shadow curriculum is that it focuses on school grades and test preparation (Aurini & Davies, 2004; Kim, 2016; Kim & Jung, 2019b; Kim & Kim, 2012, 2015; Stevenson & Baker, 1992; Yamamoto & Brinton, 2010). "Shadow curriculum is oriented toward academic success, and customer satisfaction is determined by outcomes such as school grades and passing university entrance examinations" (Kim & Jung, 2019b, p. 153). Therefore, shadow curriculum emphasizes test-taking skills to help students get higher grades on school tests and nationally standardized tests (Kim & Jung, 2019b). In this regard, shadow curriculum providers tend to put an overemphasis on providing exam-relevant academic knowledge and test taking training, which has been criticized for causing students to believe that the only object of education is to get high scores on the tests and improve test taking skills rather than encouraging students to appreciate the significance of learning (Bray & Kwo, 2013; Kim & Kim, 2012, 2015; Kim & Jung, 2019b).

The fourth characteristics of shadow curriculum is that it is "highly subject to parental investment in terms of what, where, and how students learn" (Kim & Jung, 2019b, p. 153). Parental investment affects access to both public education and shadow curriculum; however, it functions more powerfully and relatively instantly in terms of accessing shadow education and curriculum (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Parental investment affects the types, quality, and intensity of shadow education students receive (Kim & Jung, 2019b) and students from wealthy families benefit from shadow education more than their less resource-rich counterparts (Byun & Kim, 2008; Kim, 2016; Stevenson & Baker, 1992). Empirical research argues that shadow education can deepen social and educational inequalities by providing better educational opportunities for students from economically privileged families (Dawson, 2010).

Another characteristic of shadow curriculum is personalized learning (Kim, 2016; Kim & Kim, 2012, 2015; Mawer, 2015). Although personalized learning has been already used by public schooling and school curricula throughout the twentieth century, it is more effectually actualized and actively achieved in shadow curriculum (Kim & Jung, 2019b). "Generally, because shadow curriculum is consumer-oriented and need-based, personalized learning is better actualized in shadow curriculum" (Kim & Jung, 2019b, p. 155). According to Bray (2009), one-on-one tutoring is the best example of personalized learning, in that it focuses on individual students' needs, learning styles, and academic levels and goals (Kim, 2016). Unlike in public schools, where students are assigned teachers and learning materials, in Internet-based shadow education students can personalize their own learning by choosing subject areas, levels of

courses, instructors they like, course content, learning speed, as well as where and when to study (Kim, 2016; Kim & Jung, 2019b). However, this maximizing of student choice requires student responsibility and commitment toward learning (Kim & Jung, 2019b).

The final characteristics of shadow curriculum is that it heightens the competitive aspect of education (Halliday, 2016; Kim & Kim, 2012, 2015; Kim & Jung, 2019b; Mawer, 2015). Many researchers have found that shadow curriculum has contributed to ‘an overall intensification of exam competition’ (Mawer, 2015. p. 133) and has turned education into a survival game (Kim & Jung, 2019b; Holliday, 2016). This intensified competition can encourage students to view other students as rivals to defeat and to become preoccupied with test scores and school grades, rather than encouraging the intrinsic value of learning (Kim, 2016; Kim & Jung, 2019b; Park et al., 2015; Zhang, 2013). When students consider learning only as a way of getting better scores or defeating their classmates, they risk being stuck to school grades and test scores (Kim, 2016; Kim & Jung, 2019b; Park et al., 2015; Zhang, 2013). Thus, “markets in education raise a moral concern because of the way in which they cause, or at least exacerbate, an educational arms race that expands educational screening at the expense of educational development” (Holliday, 2016, p. 151).

VII. BACKWASH EFFECTS OF SHADOW EDUCATION ON MAINSTREAM SCHOOLING

“Shadow education has impacted on the dynamics of teaching and learning in mainstream schools” (Yung & Bray, 2017, p. 106). Although shadow education “may compensate for shortcomings in mainstream education, increase learning for human capital accumulation, and provide employment and incomes for tutors” (Zhang & Bray, 2016, p. 1), it may cause distortions to the main curriculum and create additional burden on students (Dwita et al., 2018). Shadow education activities can interrupt lessons in school and produce fatigue for students and teachers (Dwita et al., 2018). “The intensive academic schedule may also deprive students of time for sports, socialization and hobbies, which are important for all-round education” (Yung & Bray, 2017, p. 107). Scholars have reported that increased studying time and excessive involvement in shadow education have adverse effects on student development (Mori & Baker, 2010) in that they sacrifice sleep time for studying (Gillen-O’Neel et al., 2013). Bray & Kobakhidze (2014) argued that excessive private tutoring may have negative consequences on both students’ personal development and their overall academic performance. However, students’ desire to learn more or their willingness to sacrifice sleep for their future need to be considered as well (Carr & Wang, 2015; Kim 2016).

A further dimension concerns students’ attitudes towards their tutors compared with their mainstream teachers (Bray & Kobakhidze, 2014; Yung & Bray, 2017). “Students who pay for private lessons may respect their tutors more than their teachers who seem to come free of charge” (Bray & Kobakhidze, 2014, p. 8). In addition, this dimension is also related to students’ choice (Yung & Bray, 2017). As students can choose their tutors but not their school teachers, they tend to appreciate their tutors more than their teachers who are imposed on them (Yung & Bray, 2017).

Other forms of backwash may arise when teachers provide private tutoring to their own students. This means that where private tutoring is offered by teachers to students for whom they already have responsibilities at schools, teachers’ malpractice and corruption are possible (Brehm, Silova, & Tuot, 2012). In order to promote demand for supplementary lessons from their own students (Kobakhidze, 2014), teachers may intentionally only teach some part of the curriculum at school and require students to pay for learning the rest of the material in a private tutorial after school (Bray & Lykins, 2012). They normally choose to reserve their energies and put more effort into their private classes than into the regular ones (Bray & Lykins, 2012; Brehm et al., 2012). Moreover, some teachers may treat students who attend their tutoring classes with more attention in regular teaching, and provide them with special training and extra teaching materials (Zhang, 2013). Although in some countries, teachers are not allowed to provide tutoring to their own students (Brehm et al., 2012), “in an alternative arrangement, teachers refer their students to colleagues on a reciprocal basis rather than tutoring the students themselves” (Zhang & Bray, 2016, p. 6).

VIII. SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL INEQUALITY CAUSED BY SHADOW EDUCATION

While shadow education may to some extent compensate for shortcomings in public schooling, it can undermine educational reforms and deepen social inequalities (Yung & Bray, 2017). There are two possible outcomes for investing in shadow education: first, shadow education can equalize educational opportunity by providing extra support to disadvantaged students; second, it can increase educational inequality by providing a market-based resource for advantaged students (Aurini, Davies, & Dierkes, 2013, Entrich, 2017). Additionally, “the shadow education system of private supplementary tutoring is a serious issue with far-reaching implications for social inequalities and therefore social justice” (Bray & Kwo, 2013, p. 480). Families, regardless of their income, invest heavily in shadow education and spend huge amounts of money (Tsiplakides, 2018). In fact, “the expansion of shadow education, some of it (especially in the mass tutorial schools) at a relatively modest price, has made private supplementary tutoring accessible not only to rich families but also to middle-class and low-income families” (Yung & Bray, 2017, p. 105). However, since shadow education enterprises will provide services based on the tuition that families can afford, there always will be issues of educational inequality in shadow education as long as it exists (Kim et al., 2018). Therefore, students’ achievement and the distribution of educational resources are heavily influenced by family background (Kim et al., 2018), and more prosperous families are able to purchase greater quantities and better qualities of supplementary

tutoring than can less prosperous families (Bray & Lykins, 2012; Yung & Bray, 2017). In this regard, shadow education may lead to “the maintenance of social class in education, since students from different social classes have differential levels of access to it” (Tsiplakides, 2018, p. 75). Bukowski (2017) believed that this inequality of access to shadow education can even cause an additional gap between students of different socio-economic status.

IX. CONCLUSION

“Student learning has been crossing the boundaries of school walls, becoming shaped and influenced by shadow curriculum” (Kim & Jung, 2019a, p. 14) which is an individually based supplementary or enrichment curriculum provided to encourage academic success. In this transboundary culture of learning, students participate in competitive shadow education in order to achieve their best educational outcomes and school grades (Kim & Jung, 2019a). Since shadow education is indispensable to many students, understanding shadow education is necessary for grasping the whole picture of education and more importantly student development and cannot be ignored by those who try to understand education and students’ learning today (Kim & Jung, 2019b). Therefore, curriculum research cannot be restricted to public education, but must be carried out in shadow education as well. On the other hand, shadow education has attracted increasing public concern because it exacerbates social inequalities and imposes academic burdens on students. Despite social and educational inequalities and negative backwash effects caused by shadow education, it can be concluded that shadow education and more specifically shadow curriculum, should be considered as a new research area in the field of curriculum studies in that it will expand further and will intensify due to fierce academic competition among students on achievements in standardized assessments.

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Exploring Language Learning Motivation among Primary EFL Learners

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Abstract—The present study examined factors contributing to motivation of young EFL learners. Specifically, it explored learners' attitudes and purposes for studying English, and how their perceptions of social support (teacher, family, peers) and that of the formal learning environment (learning tasks and class activities) varied at different levels of motivation. In total, 23 grade six students who studied at a Macau primary school completed a 10-item open-ended questionnaire. Findings revealed that most of the participants were highly motivated and learned English for both instrumental (e.g., for work and travel) and integrative (e.g., wanting to integrate within the target language culture) reasons. Most respondents reported that they viewed their teachers positively, which may explain why most of them also had a positive view of studying English despite indicating that their family expected them to get high grades on exams, and that most of their classmates perceived studying English negatively. Unsurprisingly, participants also reported that games and songs were their favored activities because they increased their intrinsic motivation to learn. The results of this study suggest that young learner motivation may be largely influenced by the learning environment (as opposed to family or peer social relationships), notably the positive relationship with the teacher and the types of learning activities employed to achieve learning aims.

Index Terms—young learners, motivation, EFL, Asia, teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Motivation is a well-known factor that contributes greatly to success in how a foreign language is acquired (Gardner, 2010). For young learners in particular, motivation is important for long-term learning success. Students with more motivation are consistently found to be more engaged in the learning process, which ultimately leads to higher achievement (Nikolov, 1999). However, fostering motivation in foreign language contexts where English is a compulsory subject, like China, Japan, or Korea, can be quite challenging since learners are not given the choice of what language to study. Varied motivation levels about learning can pose a significant challenge to teachers, as some students have little to no interest in learning while sharing the same class as students who are highly-motivated. Much research has been devoted to examining the motivations of young adult and adult EFL learners (e.g., Tung & Chang, 2014), but less is known about motivation of young learners (Haifa Al-Nofaie, 2016). This research has suggested that motivation can be affected by both personal (e.g., attitude toward studying, reasons for study, desire and effort put in studying) and contextual (e.g., social influences of family, peers, and teacher and the learning context) factors (Williams & Burden, 1997). Gaining a better understanding of how younger learners at different motivation levels may be influenced by these factors can help language teachers identify ways to improve their motivation to learn.

The current study takes place in the Macau primary school context. The education system in Macau includes four main stages: Kindergarten, Primary, Junior Secondary, and Senior Secondary. As English is a compulsory subject in Macau, children begin to learn English at the age of three when they begin Kindergarten. For primary school learners, students have one to two English lessons (40-80 mins) every day, five days a week. A unique attribute of Macau is that schools are not required to implement curriculum, including use of materials or instructional methodology, from the government. Each school chooses its own materials, school curriculum, and approaches for English learning. As a result, there is great variation in proficiency levels throughout Macau.

A. Motivation in L2 Learning

According to Gardner (1985, 2010), motivation to learn consists of the desire to achieve a learning goal, the attitude maintained in pursuit of that goal, and the effort put forth in achieving it. Learners with high motivation typically demonstrate a strong desire and positive attitude to achieve their goals, while exerting much effort to accomplish them. In contrast, lowly motivated learners suffer from weak desire to learn, express negative attitudes toward the subject, and/or exert little effort in accomplishing their goals. Maintaining motivation requires of all of these elements (effort, desire, goal, attitude), and the absence of one would indicate a lack of motivation. For example, if a learner has a goal to be a proficient language user, but fails to make effort, then this goal will not be realized and the learner may be considered unmotivated. This has been illustrated in the Hungarian L2 context by Kormos and Czizer (2014), who

examined the relationship between motivation, self-regulation, and autonomous learning behavior. They reported that even though the learners had a strong goal to study and positive attitude in L2 learning, without making concerted effort to study, they were unable to obtain their learning goals.

These features of motivation may be influenced by the learners' approach to studying. Gardner distinguished between two general orientations towards language learning that may affect motivation levels: learning for instrumental purposes and learning for integrative purposes. When learners study for instrumental reasons, they do so because of the value they place on the language in helping them attain some extrinsic benefit. For the EFL learners, this value may include studying to gain access to higher education, a future job, or simply passing a test. On the other hand, studying for integrative purposes involves having a favorable view of the target culture and wanting to join it. Language learners studying for this purpose are willing to learn a language because they identify with the target culture and want to integrate within that community (Woodrow, 2015). Though often presented as mutually exclusive approaches, Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) note that students can approach learning both instrumentally and integratively. They can want to study because of the benefits that learning that language may bring, while also doing so for the desire to join that target language use community.

Language learning motives may also be classified according to Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2002). According to this taxonomy, motivation to learn may be driven by extrinsic or intrinsic reasons. Learners who study for extrinsic purposes do so to earn rewards (e.g., scoring well on a test) or to avoid punishment (e.g., scoring poorly on a test). In contrast, intrinsically motivated learners are inspired to study by the satisfaction they receive from the act of learning. Learners with these motives appreciate the novelty and challenges involved in learning a language and seek opportunities to extend their linguistic competence with the aim of improving themselves as second language users (Dincer & Yesilyurt, 2017). Of the two, intrinsically motivated learners are more likely to persist with their language studies over time, even when encountering obstacles, because they enjoy the engagement in learning the language (Dailey, 2009). For EFL teachers, fostering intrinsic motivation in their learners may be more advantageous for longer term success in language acquisition. Kong (2009) explains that when excessive focus is placed on extrinsic motivators (e.g., achieving rewards), learning for intrinsic reasons may lessen because the sole aim for studying becomes achieving external goals. For young EFL learners like the participants of this study, if parents or teachers constantly stress the importance of getting good scores on assessments, then their intrinsic motivation to learn English may be lower, which ultimately may limit the degree to which they acquire it. This highlights the importance of understanding what may motivate younger learners, as doing so would provide teachers with vital information for how to approach their students' language learning needs.

B. Factors Influencing Motivation

Language learners' motivation can be influenced by factors that are both internal and external to the learner (Williams & Burden, 1997). Internal factors include interest in what is being learned, its perceived value, and attitude toward the subject. External factors influencing motivation are inclusive of social support for learning provided by teachers, parents, and peers, and perceptions of the formal learning context. Though often presented as independent constructs influencing motivation, internal characteristics are considered inseparable from the learner's individual learning context (Waninge, Dörnyei, & de Bot, 2014). Illustrating this, Nikolov (1999) reported that the most important motivating factors for children between 6 and 14 years of age in Hungarian context included positive attitudes toward the learning context, the teacher, and intrinsically motivating activities, tasks, and materials. In that study, children were motivated to learn an L2 if they found classroom activities, tasks, and materials interesting and the teacher supportive. This is unsurprising since being interested in what happens in the classroom would lead to higher motivation. In order to gain insight into learner motivation, it is also important to examine the support they receive outside of the immediate learning context, like from parents and peers. Of the factors influencing motivation, three are of primary importance for younger EFL learners: attitudes toward L2 learning, social support provided by parents, teachers, and peers, and perceptions of the learning context.

C. Attitude and Effort

It has been consistently reported that a positive view of language learning is associated with higher motivation (Conday Dital, 2012). For example, Chalak and Kassaian (2010) reported that positive attitudes towards studying English was associated with higher motivation to learn for Iranian university learners. Not only does having a positive attitude increase motivation, but it has also been shown to result in higher educational achievement. However, Al-Hoorie (2016) noted that this attitude does not apply generally to L2 learning, but more specifically for attitudes toward L2 speakers. When learners express positive feelings toward the L2 course in particular, higher achievement was not always attained. This is in line with the integrative approach to learning, as language learners who identify with the target language culture may be more motivated to learn and ultimately be more successful as language learners than those who place instrumental value on learning outcomes.

Attitude toward L2 learning may also affect how much effort is given when studying the language. Ro and Chen (2014) reported that learners with positive attitudes towards L2 reading tended to read more than those with negative attitudes toward reading. Replicating an earlier study by Crawford Camiciottoli (2001), who reported that attitudes and effort made in reading were influenced by previous learning experiences and existing reading habits, Ro and Chen

found that effort made in reading was influenced by the attitude about reading and the amount of time available to read. This later finding provides additional support showing that having a positive attitude towards an aspect of L2 learning may result in higher motivation and greater efforts made to engage in activities that promote L2 learning, including finding time to do so.

D. Social Influences

Research has indicated that teacher, parent, and peer support for learning may influence student motivation (Bambirra, 2017, Wadho, 2016, Kiefer, Alley, & Ellerbrock, 2015). For example, Wadho (2016) reported that college students in Pakistan were heavily influenced by their parents and teachers to study English. The learning context placed a heavy emphasis on learning for extrinsic purposes, as parents reportedly offered rewards for positive learning outcomes and teachers focused on achieving strong test performance. The test-focused culture described in that study is similar to the learning context in which the current study was conducted, where performance on high-stakes standardized tests are given high priority by parents and teachers alike.

When learners are supported by their teachers and peers, they tend to be more motivated to learn, but what kind of support is helpful in this regard? Kiefer, Alley, and Ellerbrock (2015) reported that effective teacher and peer support can be academic and emotional in nature. Results from quantitative analysis showed that teacher involvement ($\beta=.22$, $p<.01$) in learners' academic and emotional development (e.g., teacher showing she cares) was the strongest predictor of motivation. Fostering autonomy by demonstrating the relevance of the learning material to student lives outside of the classroom ($\beta=.15$, $p<.05$) was also a predictor, as was the perception of academic (want peer to perform well) and emotional (I like my peer) peer support ($\beta=.18$, $p<.05$). These findings were corroborated by qualitative interviews showing that learners felt more motivated when they perceived teachers as being approachable and caring about their well-being and academic progress. Similarly, when they viewed their peers as supporting their academic goals and emotional well-being, they were more motivated. Altogether, these studies show that when learners perceive their parents, teachers, and peers to be supportive of their learning, they feel motivated to learn.

E. Formal Learning Context

Within the formal learning context, the teaching activities and learning tasks are essential for student motivation because if they find them interesting, then they will be more inspired to study (Aguierre, Bustinza, & Garvich, 2016; Liu & Chu, 2010; Nikolov, 1999, Yilmaz, 2018). Several studies have examined this issue by investigating how perspectives of teaching activities may affect motivation. For example, Aguirre, Bustinza, and Garvich (2016) reported that songs can have a positive influence on student motivation. Students were more willing to participate when the teacher used a song in their study. The authors further reported that students seemed to be more committed to the activities when there was a song playing in the class; they paid more attention and they were more involved with the activities. Liu and Chu (2010) also demonstrated that incorporating games into the English learning process could achieve a better learning outcome and higher motivation than using a non-gaming method. They further reported that the higher motivated learners also achieved better learning outcomes, which is consistent with the existing literature showing that motivation and learning are positively correlated.

F. Factors Influencing Demotivation

In addition to factors that have been found to motivate students, there are also factors that reportedly influence motivation negatively. Kikuchi (2009) listed five demotivating factors for language learners, including when 1) teacher behavior in the classroom was perceived negatively (unsupportive or using ineffective instructional methods); 2) the grammar-translation method was the preferred method of instruction; 3) curriculum focused on tests and university entrance examinations; 4) tasks consistently involved memorization required for vocabulary learning; and 5) students perceived their textbook/reference book negatively. Kikuchi recommended that in order to avoid demotivating students, the teacher should interact with them in the target language as much as possible, that the number of tests given to during a learning period should be minimized, textbooks with interesting topics should be used, and students should be provided with numerous and consistent opportunities to communicate in English.

Although these factors have been found to affect L2 motivation, the findings can be different in various context and learners. Also, a majority of the research to date has focused on young adult and adult learners, but less is known about young learner motivation, especially those in Macau. Therefore, with the consideration of both individual (e.g. goal, attitude) and contextual factors (e.g., teacher, task, class, parents, and peers), this study aims to help us to better understand the relationship between the different components in the present context.

G. Research Questions

Based on the gaps identified in the literature, the following research questions were articulated:

1. What are primary EFL learners' attitudes towards studying English?
2. Why do primary EFL learners study English?
3. What kinds of activities do primary EFL learners engage in outside of English class?
4. Does social support differ for learners at different motivation levels?
 - a. How do Macau primary EFL learners perceive their teacher?

- b. What are their family's expectations for learning English?
 - c. What are their peers' attitudes towards learning English?
5. How do primary EFL learners perceive their formal learning context (tasks and their class)?

II. METHODOLOGY

A qualitative research design was adopted in this study to investigate the motivation of young EFL learners in a primary school. Qualitative approaches can provide researchers with descriptions of feelings and opinions of L2 learning which can lead to a deeper understanding of the motivation of young learners (Ushioda 2003, 2007).

A. Participants

In total, 23 primary six students, aged 11-12 years old (7 males and 16 females) participated in the study. They were recruited from two classes at the Chinese primary school that one of the researchers taught at in Macau. All of participants use Chinese as their L1, with Cantonese serving as the medium of instruction in school. The participants have learned Mandarin as a second language and English as a foreign language since Kindergarten. Despite these years of language instruction, the proficiency level is still very low for these learners. The socio-economic status of these learners and their families is considered medium-level, or middle class.

B. Instrument

Inspired by earlier frameworks of L2 motivation and with consideration of the Macau learning context, an open-ended questionnaire was developed (see Appendix A). The instrument explored three dimensions of motivation: individual differences (motivation level, attitudes towards learning English, effort put into studying, and desire to study), social influences (family, peers, teacher), and formal learning context (task, overall class). In total, 10 questions were posed in Chinese and English so that participants could respond in whatever language they felt comfortable and able to clearly express themselves. Table I shows the questionnaire items and associated characteristics of motivation.

TABLE I.
QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS AND RELEVANT CHARACTERISTICS OF MOTIVATION

10 open-end questions	Relevant characteristics of motivation
1. How do you feel about studying English?	Individual differences—attitude
2. Why do you study English?	Individual differences—desire
3. How much time do you spend on studying English per week?	Individual differences—effort
4. What kind of English learning activity do you like most? What kind of activity do you like least? Why?	Formal learning context—task
5. How do you feel about your English teacher?	Social influence—teacher
6. How do you feel about your English class?	Formal learning context—overall class
7. What kind of score do your parents want you to get on English test?	Social influence—family
8. How will you use English in the future?	Individual differences—desire
9. What do your friends think about studying English?	Social influences—peers
10. Other than English class, how else do you study English? How much time do you spend doing it?	Individual differences—effort

C. Procedure

After receiving ethical clearance from the University of Macau, approval from the primary school administration, and informed consent from parents and the participants, the questionnaire was administered to a pilot group consisting of two primary 6 students who were selected randomly. Based on their feedback, it was not deemed necessary to make adjustments to the original survey. Subsequently, the researcher administered the questionnaire to the participants, explaining the research purpose and each item of the questionnaire to ensure understanding. After confirming the participants knew what to do, the researcher gave them the questionnaires to the classes. The participants answered the questions in 30 minutes. Then the researcher collected all the questionnaires and entered their responses into an Excel spreadsheet for subsequent analysis.

D. Data Analysis

The data was analyzed through a multi-stage analysis based on Dornyei (2007). In the first round, the data was read through to gain a general understanding of the responses. In the second stage, responses for question one were assigned a code based on the nature of the response. For example, when the response was positive (e.g., *I think studying English is very interesting.*), the learner was labeled as positive attitude. If it was negative (e.g., *I think it is very complicated and difficult.*), the learner was labeled as negative attitude. If it indicated neither a positive nor negative response (e.g. [*I think English is*] *ordinary.*), the learner was considered to be at a neutral attitude level. The responses for the remainder

of the items were then read through multiple times and assigned codes. Each time the responses and codes were read, the codes that were deemed similar were combined together for each item until the data was saturated. Next, the item responses were divided by their associated level of motivation—highly, moderately, or lowly—to answer the research questions.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Attitudes towards English

The first research question asked about primary EFL learner's attitudes towards studying English. Based on their responses, participants were divided into three levels of attitude: positive attitude (14 students), negative attitude (3 students) and neutral attitude (6 students). Most of the students indicated that they viewed English learning positively. They reported that studying English was interesting, fun, and enjoyable for them. These respondents expressed more positive attitudes toward learning English, with most indicating they do so for intrinsically motivated because they found English interesting and enjoyable to learn. For example, Participant 16 stated *I think it is very fun [to learn] and I can use English in my life. When I see foreigners getting lost, I can use English to talk to them. I can talk to my teacher too. This is so good.* The students with neutral attitudes toward learning offered neither positive nor negative opinions about English, stating that they found it ordinary (e.g., *I think English is ordinary*) or acceptable (e.g., *English is acceptable to me*).

In contrast, responses from learners with negative attitudes reported that their perceptions of English study were largely influenced by their formal learning context. Respondents indicated that they felt that it was difficult to understand their teacher and/ or the instructions given in their English classes (e.g., *I don't understand what my English teacher says*), with one respondent going so far as to express despair regarding their English study (*Sometimes I don't understand [the teacher] and feel helpless*). This is in line with Kikuchi's (2009) findings that when teachers and teaching methods are perceived negatively, learners will be less motivated. For the young learners in the current study, the formal learning context in which English is taught appears to play an important role in their attitudes toward learning the language.

Because of the strong and well-established relationship between attitudes toward learning and motivation to learn, the respondents who reported positive attitudes toward English were regarded as highly motivated learners. Likewise, those who indicated negative attitudes were considered as lowly motivated, and respondents who demonstrated neutral attitudes toward English study were labelled as moderately motivated. The remainder of the data collected from the questionnaire will be analyzed from these perspectives.

B. Reasons to Study English

The second research question asked why primary EFL learners study English and how they envision using it in the future. The questionnaire elicited responses for the immediate purposes for studying English (Item 2), and to gain a sense of what may motivate these younger learners in the longer term, the questionnaire also asked what learners envision their future use of English being (Item 8). The results show that highly motivated learners had both intrinsic and extrinsic purposes to study English (questionnaire item 2). Eight of them indicated that they learned English because they were interested in communicating with foreigners, for improving themselves, and feeling that English as a subject was interesting and fun, all of which are considered intrinsic reasons to study. This is to be expected of higher motivated learners, since they are interested in studying it because they enjoy doing so. However, many of the respondents also indicated that they were extrinsically motivated. They thought that studying English could help them to find a better job, be of use in the future, and aid in travelling. All three reasons indicate that some of the highly motivated learners view English as a means to achieve some external goal. This was an interesting finding since it would be expected that highly motivated learners would be mostly intrinsically motivated to learn. One reason for this may be the learning context influencing how these learners perceived their purpose for learning English. The students learn English as a compulsory subject, and success in the acquisition of English is deemed necessary for future success.

The moderately motivated learners indicated that they studied English for mainly for extrinsic reasons. This included studying for future work or travel, and because it is required of them as a school subject. Though two respondents noted that they study in order to communicate, a majority of the reasons were for instrumental purposes, where they highlight the facility of the English language.

The responses of lowly motivated learners showed that they were negatively and primarily extrinsically motivated to learn English because they seemed to be forced to learn by the educational system in which English is a compulsory subject. They stated that they studied English because of having to face high-stakes exams or deal with it as a school subject. These results are consistent with Dorney and Ushida (2011), who reported that learners are more motivated to learn when they study for intrinsic reasons and that when forced to meet extrinsic requirements on a consistent basis, may become less motivated. The respondents reporting that they view English as a means to accomplish an educational goal suggest that even at a young age the EFL learners in this study may view English as a means to achieve external goals and less as a means to improve themselves or even something interesting and fun to learn.

An interesting pattern emerged from the data regarding how the learners envision their longer-term use of English. The data is rather consistent across the three levels of motivation, showing that the students studied for future work,

communication, and travel. All three of these reasons suggest that the cultural importance of learning English for instrumental purposes may be ingrained in learners as early as primary school.

C. Learning Activities Outside of Class

Research question three was interested in the types of learning activities primary school EFL learners engage in after class. This is considered an indicator of the effort put into learning, as students willing to engage in more activities after class would be putting in more effort to acquire the language. The results showed that all participants indicated that they engage in some form of activity outside of class. However, the nature of the activities are quite varied. The types of activities can be classified as school-related (e.g., revising homework or studying with a tutor), literacy-related (e.g., reading books), social-related (e.g., speaking with classmates), or entertainment-related (e.g., watching movies or animations). The highly-motivated learners reported using a wide variety of activities, consisting of all four types. The most frequently reported were literacy-related, entertainment related, and school-related, while social-related activities were least engaged. This is somewhat anticipated, since being more motivated to learn would lead to greater engagement beyond the classroom context, as has been previously reported in the literature (e.g., Ro & Chen, 2014). The nature of the activities for the lowly-motivated and moderately-motivated learners were mostly school-related and literacy related. This is also unsurprising, since it has been reported that the less students feel motivated, the less effort they would make in studying (Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 1999). Interestingly, these learners did not report engaging in activities that were socially oriented, despite listing communication as their immediate and longer-term purposes for studying. However, learners at this motivation level did note that their reasons for learning in the short-term were also driven by the school and the need to perform well on assessments. It is therefore understandable why they view English as a subject that needs to be studied for scholastic purposes, as opposed to a means for communication. This indicates that these learners may not yet have made the connection between the social function of English as a means to communicate and subject they learn in school.

D. Social Support for Learning

The fourth research question asked about the participant perspectives of the teacher, the expectations of their family, and the opinions of their peers for studying English. The responses indicate that the participants overwhelmingly viewed their teacher positively, regardless of the level of motivation. The respondents described the teacher as kind, patient, and attentive to their needs. This type of emotional support viewed by the students is consistent with findings from Kiefer, Alley, and Ellerbrock (2015), who reported that when learners felt their teacher was supportive of their emotional and academic well-being, they were more motivated to learn. It would be expected that only the highly motivated learners would view their teacher this way, as it has been reported that positive views of the teacher can reduce demotivation (Hamada, 2014), but the findings indicate that even moderately and lowly-motivated learners felt supported by their teacher. Only two negative comments were offered by the participants and appeared more to do with classroom management (*Except for controlling the class, everything else is good*) and low linguistic competence in the target language (*I don't know what the teacher is talking about*) than the direct support they received from the teacher. Though perceptions of ineffective teaching has been noted by Kikuchi (2009) as being potential demotivators, it appears not to have had this effect on the primary learners in this study.

The questionnaire also inquired about how the participants thought their peers viewed English study, as peer support for the subject may contribute to the motivation of L2 learning. Interestingly, regardless of the level of motivation, most of their participants reported that their friends had an unfavorable view of English learning. Only a few students reported having peers with a positive feeling towards L2 learning, for both intrinsic reasons (e.g., *He is interested in studying English*) and instrumental purposes (*[English is] useful for all purposes*) given. It would be expected that primary school learners would share similar views as the peers they share a social community with, but this was not the case. The negative responses offered were oriented towards the learning context, specifically the nature of the class in terms of interest (*My friend feels bored in class*), workload (*Hope to have little homework, exam, test*), task difficulty (*...it is difficult to memorize English words*), tasks utilized (*Want to use games to learn in class*), and teacher instruction (*Want the teacher to explain more clearly*). These perceptions are likely influenced by the specific learning context, where English classes in Macau primary schools encourage the use of English only during English class time and instructional tasks are focused on improving language competence needed for successful performance on high-stakes tests.

The study also explored how the respondents viewed their family's expectation towards learning English. With the performance-oriented learning culture in mind, the questionnaire narrowed this to the score that the students felt their parents expected them to receive on exams. The results showed that only one participant reported that his parents were not interested in his scores (*They never say about the score*), indicating that they may foster an intrinsic motivation to study without the focus on extrinsic rewards. Expectedly, this participant was in the highly motivated group, but the remainder of the respondents in the study noted that their parents expected them to meet a certain standard on their exams. Most of them, regardless of the level of motivation, reported that they were expected to score at least 70% on their tests, with three indicating their parents expected perfection. To pass English exams in Macau, students need a score of 60%, which suggests that parents likely have a similar expectation for non-English subjects and view English as just another class to pass. This also reinforces learners' views of English as one of instrumental value, as opposed to

integrative worth, since the emphasis of learning is to achieve some purpose, as opposed to viewing it as a means to integrate within a culture. This result supports Wadho's (2016) findings that most L2 learners study English due to the extrinsic rewards given to them by their parents. However, unlike that study, whose participants were university students, the findings of this study show that the cultural emphasis on extrinsic rewards for learning for instrumental purposes may be reinforced at a young age and fostered by their parents. This is most likely influenced by the Macau learning context, but Wadho has cautioned that excessive focus by parents on these external motivators may harm long-term intrinsic motivation to learn, which could ultimately limit the amount of English acquired by these learners.

E. Perceptions of the Learning Context

The fifth research question attempted to find out how the formal learning context, including the class and the learning tasks, may differ according to the motivation level of the young learners. To do this, we asked respondents to comment on their overall opinions about the English class, and then to specifically describe what kind of teaching activities and tasks were preferable and not preferable to them. The participants reported mixed opinions about their English class at all three levels of motivation. The highly motivated learners reported positive views of the class, most notably the passion of the teacher in fostering this positive outlook. This is unsurprising considering the respondents reported an almost uniformly positive perception of their teacher. The motivated respondents also stated that they viewed their English class overall as interesting, which is consistent with Nikolov's (2009) results showing that learners who are more interested in the activities engaged in during class are more motivated to learn. When asked about their preferred learning tasks, the highly motivated learners consistently reported that playing games, listening to English songs, and watching movies were among their favored activities. These results are consistent with Liu and Chu (2010) and Aguierre, Bustinza, and Garvich (2016), who suggested that incorporating games and songs, respectively, into the learning process could increase motivation and class engagement. In contrast, the activities the participants reported not enjoying were academic in nature, consisting of reading and answering comprehension questions, completing homework assignments, writing sentences for class, and memorizing vocabulary words. Though these assignments were likely designed to increase the learners' linguistic proficiency, the use of these traditional methods to do so may have lowered the motivation to learn. This result is consistent with Kikuchi's (2009) findings that learners are demotivated when classroom activities involve memorization for learning new words and exercises from textbooks they find uninteresting.

However, these higher motivated respondents also indicated negative attitudes about the physical class setting (e.g., *I think the English lesson is a little bit crowded. My teacher speak English during the class but I cannot understand what my teacher has taught.*) and the outside of class workload (e.g., *homework is too much*). The homework issue may be related to the particular school's approach to learning because of the expectation for teachers to give homework to students every day. The crowdedness concern may be related to classroom size. Primary school classes in the school where the data was collected in Macau consist of up to 31 students. This large class size, which limits the amount of space available to move around the classroom and increases the noise during a lesson, appears to have been a factor for these learners. The inconsistent results for these higher motivated learners may be explained by Al-Hoorie (2016), who reported that learner perspectives of the learning context may not be the strongest motivator for learners. However, the positive responses provided consistently point to the teacher as being a strong motivator indicates that for these young learners, the perceptions of their teacher may also contribute to how they view their English class experience overall.

The pattern of results showing both positive and negative views of the class and learning activities were also held for the moderately and lowly motivated learners. The moderately motivated learners were noncommittal in their evaluation (*[Class is] not bad*), negative (*[I'm] bored [in class]*), but also positive (*[Class is] fun*). The lowly motivated learners were expectedly more negative (*[Class is] very boring; strange*), but also positive (*[I am] very happy [in class]*). Similar to the higher-motivated learners, these participants reported that despite varied opinions of class, they favored listening to English songs and playing games to completing academic tasks like grammar activities, reading and answering comprehension questions, or learning about English grammar. These opinions further reinforce the findings reported by Kikuchi (2009), who noted that motivation can be lessened when learners perceive the learning materials negatively and when tasks involve memorization activities for language learning. Kikuchi also reported that negative views of teacher practices may also lower motivation to learn, but since most learners in this study viewed their teacher favorably, it is likely that this may have resulted in the mixed opinions about their English class.

IV. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study provide insight into why primary learners of different motivation levels study English. The results suggest that the young EFL learners surveyed in this study view English positively, and that they study mainly for instrumental reasons. This may be in part due to the focus on extrinsic motivators (e.g., scoring well on tests) by the specific learning context, in which English language proficiency is viewed as a means to access higher education and better employment. The findings also have important implications for the classroom, as the results showed that the teacher may play a significant role in how young learners perceive studying English. The respondents viewed their teacher as both emotionally and academically supportive, and this support was consistent for learners of all motivation levels.

The study is not without its limitations, though. The use of a survey limited the amount of explanation the participants could provide in response to the questions presented them. Future studies may utilize an interview data-collection method to elicit more in-depth responses to questions. Despite this, the results of this study provide some insight into what motivates young EFL learners. Because motivation is known to be especially challenging to foster in EFL contexts like the present study, we feel the results discussed here may give primary EFL teachers an insider's view into understanding their own learners and what may be done to motivate them to study.

APPENDIX. OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONNAIRE

The open-ended questionnaire **English Learner Questionnaire**

We would like to ask you to help us by answering the following questions in a survey to better understand the thoughts and beliefs of learners of English in Macau. You do not have to write your name on it. We are interested in your personal opinion. The results of this survey will be used only for research purposes so please give your answers sincerely, as only this will ensure the success of this project. Thank you very much for your help!

英語學習者的問卷調查

為了更好地了解澳門英語學習者的想法和觀念，我們誠意邀請您參加關於“澳門英語學習者”的問卷調查。這份問卷完全保密，亦無需署名。我們關注的是您的個人觀點，請根據您的實際情況填寫。本問卷結果僅供學術研究之用。您的支持對本研究能否取得成功至關重要。非常感謝您的幫忙！

Part 1 - We would like you to answer the questions below.

第一部分 — 請回答以下問題

1. How do you feel about studying English?

你對英語學習的感覺如何？

2. Why do you study English?

你為什麼學習英語？

3. How much time do you spend on studying English per week?

你每周花費多長時間去學習英語？

4. What kind of English learning activity do you like most? What kind of activity do you like least? Why?

你最喜歡哪一類英語學習的活動？你最不喜歡哪一類英語學習的活動？為什麼？

5. How do you feel about your English teacher?

你對你的英語老師的感覺如何？

6. How do you feel about your English class?

你對你的英語課的感覺如何？

7. What kind of score do your parents want you to get on English test?

你的父母期望你在英語測驗中得到如何的分數？

8. How will you use English in the future?

你將來會如何應用英語？

9. What do your friends think about studying English?

你的朋友對於英語學習有何意見？

10. Other than English class, how else do you study English? How much time do you spend doing it?

除了上英語課，你還會如何學習英語？你花費多長時間來這樣學習英語？

Part 2 - Please provide the following information by ticking (✓) in the box or writing your response in the space to help us to better interpret your previous answers.

● Male Female

● Chinese non-Chinese (Please specify: _____)

● Your age (in years): _____

第二部分 — 請就以下問題打“✓”或根據您的實際情況填寫，以便我們更好地了解您之前提供的信息。

● 男 女

● 中國人 非中國人(請注明: _____)

● 年齡(周歲): _____

By submitting this questionnaire I agree that my answers, which I have given voluntarily, can be used anonymously for research purposes.

本人同意：我自願填寫並提交的該份匿名問卷可供學術研究之用。

再次感謝您的參與！

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Lexical and Phonological Differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi, Indonesia

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Abstract—This study aims to reveal part of language components named lexical and phonological differences in Javanese in East Java, Indonesia. Data were collected from a sample of three regions which are Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi. Probolinggo was chosen because of its adjacency to Madura Island. Surabaya was chosen because of its strategic location not only the centre of government, but also as the Capital City of East Java Province. Meanwhile, Ngawi was chosen because of its location in the west-end of East Java and directly adjacent to Central Java Province. This research is a quantitative research. The data were Javanese used by adults in East Java, especially in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi. The research instrument used was Nothofer questionnaire which was modified by Kisyani to be 829 glossaries of words/phrases. The results of the study revealed that: 1) the most lexical of Javanese was in the western and eastern parts of East Java thus the least was in the central government of East Java Province, Surabaya, 2) lexical differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi result in one dialect and two sub dialects, and 3) phonological differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi produced three utterances.

Index Terms—lexical, phonological, Javanese, dialects, sub dialects, utterance

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is predetermined as a significant aspect that can change human life. Every human being has a close relationship of language. A philosopher expressed thoughts and the results of his reflections by using language. Therefore, without language, human would not understand the philosophical thoughts. Language and philosophy are like two lovebirds that cannot be separated or two sides of a coin that complement each other. There is a Javanese proverb that reads “*ajining dhiri dumunung ing lathi, ajining raga dumunung ing busana*,”. It implies that the personal value of a human is determined by language, thus the value of a human appearance is determined by clothing. The language spoken by humans must contain goodness and politeness because of it reflects the high dignity of a human being and the high civilization of a nation. Thus, language reflects the quality of the individual in the life of society; nation and state (see Sasangka, 2011, Suhono, 1953, Poerwadarminta, 1953).

Based on dialectological review, research on lexical differences and phonological differences in Javanese language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi is reasonable. Javanese is one of the local languages in Indonesia. Among the local languages, Javanese is the language with the most speakers compared to other regional languages in Indonesia. The study of Javanese language in East Java is important to reveal the facts of differences in Javanese language in the eastern part of Java Island, which is directly adjacent to Madura and Bali Island which have other regional languages that is Madurese and Balinese (see Petyt, 1980, Ayatrohaedi, 1983, Chambers and Trudgill, 1990, Mahsun, 1995, Kisyani and Savitri, 2009).

East Java Province consists of three parts: the central government, i.e. Surabaya, and the suburb which consists of the east and west parts. The East is represented by Probolinggo and the western part is represented by Ngawi. Surabaya is a major port and a commercial trade centre of eastern Indonesia and now one of the largest cities in Southeast Asia, in which many domestics and foreign investors are investing to build companies, factories and malls. This caused a lot of urbanization of people from various regions to find work in the city. This mixture of people from various regions from within and outside the country in Surabaya City has caused variants of languages from various languages, including Madurese, Chinese, Arabic, English and other languages that can influence the existence of Javanese in Surabaya.

Ngawi is one of the regencies located on the west end of East Java Province, which is directly adjacent to Central Java Province. Central Java Province has two Javanese Palace or palaces which is still well-known in Indonesia. The

two Palaces are Surakarta Hadiningrat Palace, located in Solo and Yogyakarta Hadiningrat Palace located in Yogyakarta. Both palaces are still very close with Javanese language and culture. The fact that Ngawi is close to the two palaces is expected to bring positive value of the existence of Javanese in Ngawi.

Probolinggo is a district located on the east end of East Java Province, which is directly adjacent to Madura and Bali Island, which have its own regional languages, i.e. Madurese and Balinese. The fact that East Java Province is close to the two islands is possible to influence the existence of Javanese language in Probolinggo.

Based on a sample of the three research locations, it can be questioned: how many existing lexical Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi? What are the lexical and phonological differences of Javanese language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi? These questions are the consideration of the researchers to conduct a study related to Javanese language in East Java.

The study of Javanese language with dialectological studies is worthy of research and has its own appeal, proven by many researchers who studied language. There were several studies which have been done in the past: A Study of Dialectology on Javanese “*Ngoko*” in Banyuwangi, Surabaya, Magetan, and Solo by Erlin Kartikasari; Kisyani-Laksono; Agusniar Dian Savitri; Diah Yovita Suryarini (2018) resulted on the largest number of Javanese “*ngoko*” lexical is found in Solo while the least were found in Surabaya. The lexical differences in Javanese “*ngoko*” in Banyuwangi, Surabaya, Magetan, and Solo resulted in one utterance, two dialects and four sub-dialects, (2)19 patterns of phonological differences in Javanese “*ngoko*” were found. Also, the phonological differences in Javanese “*ngoko*” in Banyuwangi, Surabaya, Magetan, and Solo resulted in four utterances.

The Realization of Intensifiers in Banyumas Dialect by Chusni Hadiati (2017) findings that speaker Banyumas dialect express their intensity by using several linguistic devices including lexical items and reduplication. General lexical items consist of *banget* and *pisan*. Specific lexical items include *rea*, *regeng*, *leder*, *njilep*, *cirut*, *lecit*, *kecu*, *kethuwek*.

The Relativity Strategy of Old Javanese by Ni Ketut Ratna Erawati (2017) the result is the Old Javanese could make the subject to be relative by inserting element of the relative *sang* and *ikang*. On the other hand, there was also an indirect relativity by marking of verbs and pen loping.

Another research outcome about the geography of the Javanese Coastal Dialect in Paciran Village, Lamongan Regency conducted by Apriyani Purwaningsih (2017) with the findings: (1) phonological isogloss file has five distribution patterns and lexical isogloss file has four patterns of distribution; (2) phonological variation is manifest from variations in allophones, sound addition, sound reduction, sound shifting, sound reduction in closed syllables, and sound substitution; (3) lexical variations caused by onomasiological, semasiological, and reduplication; (4) there are differences in speech and sub-dialect at the phonological level. At the lexical level, there is no difference. It included in the Proceedings of the International Conference on Art, Language, and Culture.

Variations of Javanese Dialect in the District of Ngawi: Dialectology Study by Ika Mamik Rahayu (2018) produced a conclusion of research using 250 lexicons in data acquisition; the list of questions in the form of this lexicon refers to the list of Swadesh questions. Out of 250 lexicons, 23 phonological variations and 47 lexical variations were obtained. In both variations, it was found that words/phrases experienced the process of apheresis and syncope. In addition, there are also cluster sounds and accompanying or nasalization sounds of several words/phrases. All variations that appear later are also presented in the form of dialect maps to further clarify the linguistic situation in the area of observation. The dialect variation that appears in the Ngawi Regency region is not a separate dialect, but rather a variant of Javanese. The Ngawi Regency dialect tends to refer to the Central Javanese dialect. In all observation areas, there were several references that appeared to refer to Indonesian.

Based on research on Javanese, it is necessary to conduct further investigation. This study specializes in the scope of Javanese languages in East Java. To find out the lexical differences and phonological differences in Javanese in East Java, it is necessary to identify Javanese languages in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi.

II. THEORY AND CONCEPT

The term dialectology comes from the word dialect and the word logi. The word dialect comes from the Greek dialectos. The word dialectos is used to refer to the language conditions in Greek which show small differences in the language they use. However, this difference does not cause the speakers to feel that they have a different language (Meillet, 1967).

Meillet stated that the term dialect comes from Greek which is derived from the word dialectos. Dialectos which means shows differences in a language, however, the difference does not really affect the language used. Even though there are language differences, each speaker can still understand the language. Speakers and speakers can still communicate even though they use different dialects.

Kisyani (2004) stated that, in general, dialectology is the study of certain dialects or dialects of a language. in the broadest sense dialectological research seeks to describe differences in linguistic patterns, both horizontally (diatopically) which include geographical variations and vertical (synoptic) which include variations in one place. This variation in a syntopic place can also penetrate into the study of social dialects involving social factors.

Furthermore, Kisyani also said that dialectology is a study of dialects somewhere. Dialect is a language variation that has its own lingual system that is used by certain groups of speakers; however, between these groups of speakers with

other groups of speakers, it is still bound in one language. In general, dialectology refers to the study of geographical dialects, but actually the study of dialectology is not that narrow, in addition to learning about dialectological geography dialectology is also learning about social dialects. Social dialects are the study of dialects that involve variations in language and social factors in a place.

Ayatrohaedi (1983) emphasized that at the beginning, the notion of dialect referred to regional differences that existed in the observation areas which resulted in the mapping of languages / dialects / sub dialects. This understanding eventually also includes the social dimension. In dialectology, research that examines differences that exist in some observation areas (OA) is called a geographical dialect, while what happens as a result of differences in social dimensions is called a social dialect.

Sutardi (2007) stated that social dialect is determined by the foundation of social status / class, position / profession and the class of its speakers. On the other hand, the geographical dialect is based on the area or settlement of the speakers. Sutardi's opinion has clearly limited the difference between social dialect and geographic dialect. Social dialects are determined based on differences in society; these differences include the status / social class, position / profession and the class of the speakers. Whereas, the geographical dialect is determined based on differences in the region or the settlement of speakers.

In line with what Sutardi said, research on lexical differences and phonological differences of Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi is a study that uses dialectology as its study. Javanese dialectological studies about geographic dialect studies with Probolinggo, Surabaya and Ngawi as research locations. Research subjects are adults. The study of geographic dialects is used to analyse the Javanese of adults in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi.

A. Lexical Differences

Mahsun (1995: 54) stated that the scaled differences in the lexical term if the lexeme used to realize a meaning that is not derived from one language etymon. All lexical term differences are always variations. Mahsun stated that all lexical differences are always in the form of variations. For example, lexical differences in the Javanese language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi are the words "tomorrow," for example, in Surabaya tomorrow, it is said "*mene*" and in Probolinggo and Ngawi "tomorrow" it is said to be "*sesok*" These lexical differences will be described in this study so that it can be known a real picture of the differences between the Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi.

Additionally, Nadra and Reniwati (2009: 28) stated that lexical differences or lexical variations are variations or differences in language found in the field of the lexicon. A difference is called a lexicon difference if the lexicon used to realize a meaning comes from a different etymon. In determining lexical differences, differences arising from the fields of phonology and morphology are considered non-existent. In other words, phonological and morphological differences are ignored in determining lexical differences.

According to Nadra and Reniwati, lexical differences are differences that exist in the lexicon in one language. In looking for lexical differences, ruled out phonological and morphological differences in one language. Javanese research in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi analysed the lexical differences of Javanese by ruling out differences in phonology and morphological differences in Javanese.

B. Phonological Differences

Mahsun (1995: 24) stated that phonological variation is the differences found in lexeme which states the same meaning if the lexemes are derived from the same protolanguage. This phonological variation or difference means a new language formation (dialect) from the parent language, but not so much as to make a striking difference. The change is not drastic, but only a part of the "vowel" or "consonant" of the language.

Mahsun (1995: 34-38) stated that there are some sound changes that can be classified into changes in the form of variations, including a) assimilation is the process of changing one segment (sound) that resembles each other, b) dissimilation is a sound change so that the sound is different from what is nearby, c) metathesis that is the change of sound associated with the exchange of location between two sounds, d) the contraction is a change of sound that is related to the combination of two sounds into one sound, e) apheresis is sound obsolescence in the initial position, f) syncope is a sound observer in the middle position, g) apokope is a sound observer in the final position, h) prothesis is the addition of sounds in the initial position, i) epetensis is the addition of sounds in the middle position, and j) paragraphs is the addition of sound in the final position.

The phonological differences in the Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi will be analysed more deeply based on the forms of variation changes that have been conveyed by Mahsun (2005) both as assimilation, dissimilation, metathesis, contraction, aferesis, syncope, apocope, prothesis, epetensis, and paragog. The phonological differences in the Javanese in East Java need to be investigated to find out the differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi.

III. METHOD

The current study is a quantitative study with descriptive methods. The data in this study were linguistic data that are adults' Javanese language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi. The research instrument was a questionnaire, a list of questions developed by Nothofer and modified by Kisyani by developing a swadesh list to be 829 glossaries of

words/phrases. The observation areas (OA) were made at three locations, namely observation areas (OA) 1 and 2 are located in Probolinggo and the observation areas (OA) 3 and 4 are located in Surabaya. Meanwhile, the observation areas (OA) 5 and 6 are located in Ngawi.

The method used to collect the research data was the field observation method that is the researchers directly came to the field to search for research subjects, interview, hear, take notes, and record data. The field observation method is used by the researchers to observe linguistic data, geographical state, socio-cultural conditions, and the state of transportation infrastructure in the observation area. In addition, the researchers might also ask opinions and explanations directly to the subject of research about things that are poorly understood.

The data collection technique used by the researchers to collect adult Javanese language data in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi was an advanced proficiency technique. The researchers and the research subjects met directly at the research location to have a direct conversation. The conversation is based on a list of questions that have been developed by Nothofer and modified by Kisyani by developing a Swadesh list into 829 glossaries of words/phrases. This advanced skill technique is always accompanied by note-taking techniques. The note technique was carried out by the researcher during the interview process with the research subject. The note-taking technique was carried out to avoid errors in phonetic writing. The data obtained in this note-taking technique would be matched with the data obtained from the recording. The data obtained from this note taking technique was used to complete the data contained in the recording. At the time of recording, the researcher tried his best so that the research subjects did not know this. This was done to maintain the nature of research data. To get the desired data, the researcher also used fishing techniques. This fishing technique might be carried out by movement or by certain words. Researchers lured the data out of the tool said the research subject.

The analysis was carried out through several steps: 1) data transcriptions, i.e. data obtained through recording were converted into written data. Data obtained through recording were changed according to their original phonetics. The data obtained from this recording technique were used as a complement to the data obtained through note-taking techniques using the Nothofer questionnaire modified by Kisyani by developing a swadesh list to 829 glossaries of words/phrases. 2) Data analysis; after the lexical and phonological differences in Javanese had been obtained, the observation areas that were possibly involved in communications were compared. The comparisons were carried out based on dialectometry triangles and a number of dialectometrics.

The following dialectometry formula is used

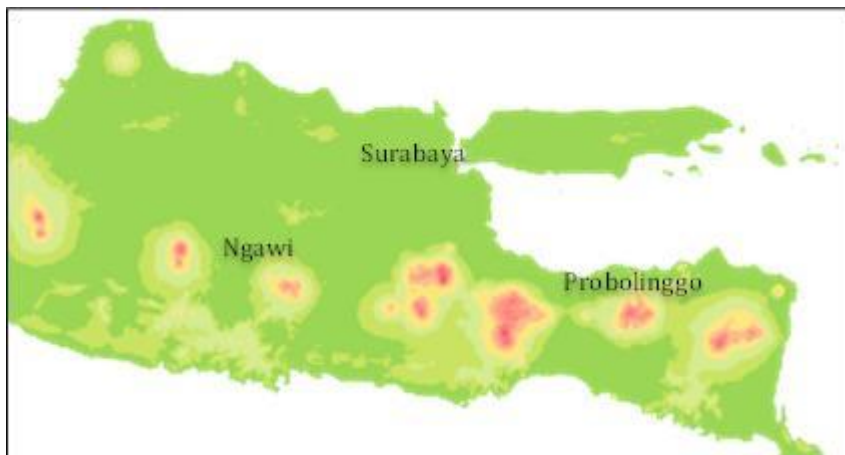
$$\frac{(S \times 100)}{n} = d\% \quad (1)$$

Where S is the number of different from other observation areas, n is the number of maps to be compared, d is distance of vocabulary in percentages.

The results obtained will be used to determine the relationship between the observation areas with the following criteria:

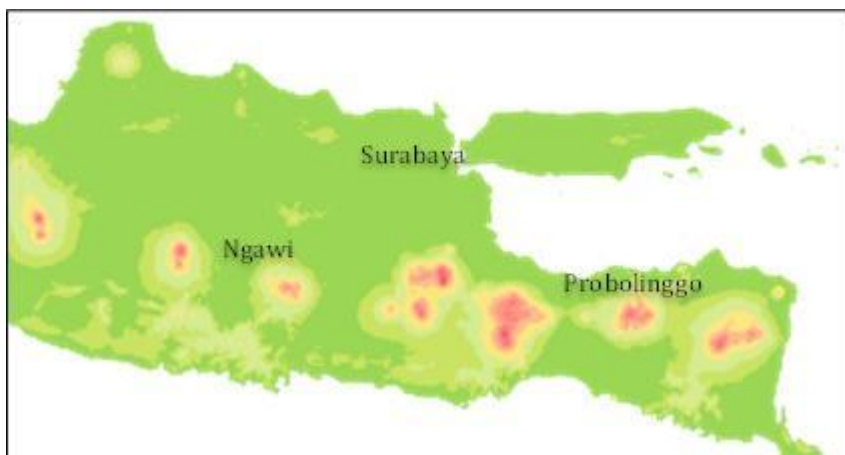
1. Differences in lexical level
 - 81% and above: language differences
 - 51% - 80%: dialect difference
 - 31% - 50%: sub dialect difference
 - 21% - 30%: speech difference
 - Below 20%: no difference
2. Differences in phonological levels
 - 17% and above: language differences
 - 12% - 16%: dialect difference
 - 8% - 11%: sub dialect difference
 - 4% - 7%: speech difference
 - 0% - 3%: no difference

The following is a basic map of research locations that is taken from pffanon.wikia.com, a basic map of research sites:



MAP 1: Research Location

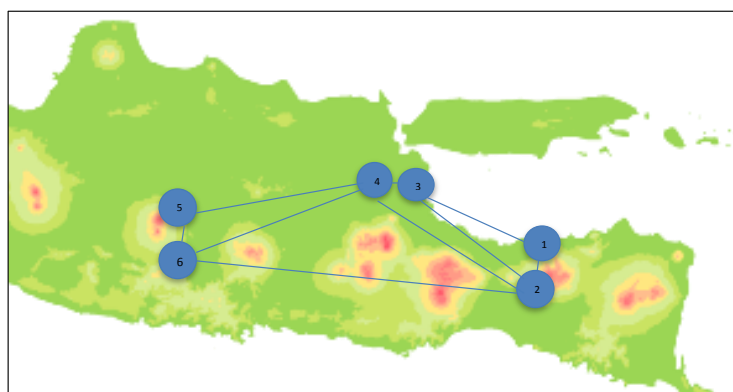
At each research location, two observation areas (OA) were chosen that were the city and the suburb. Probolinggo City consists of two OAs as well as Surabaya, and Ngawi each consisting of two OAs. So the total number of OA in this study is six OA. The observation areas in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi can be seen in map 2 as follows.



MAP 2: Observation Areas

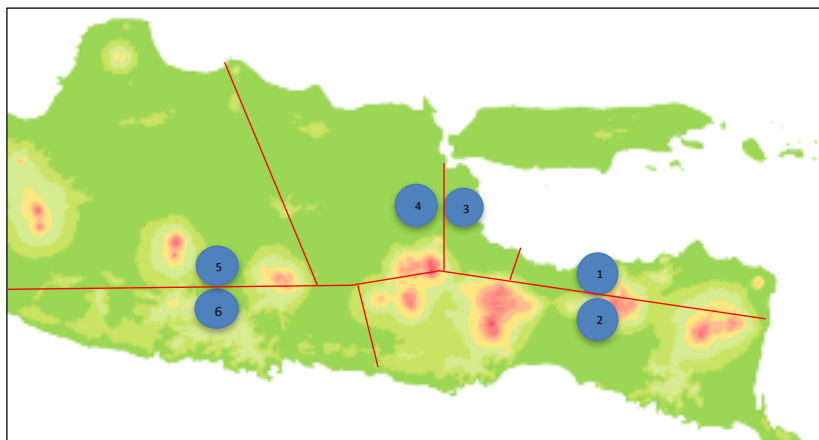
Before calculating using the dialectometry method the mapping of the observation area is first carried out based on a triangular map and a lot of dialectometry. In the determination of triangles and a lot of dialectometry, there are several provisions that must be considered. The provisions are as follows:

1. The observation area (OA) which is comparable only to the observation area (OA) based on where each location may communicate.
2. Each observation area (OA) that may communicate directly is connected to a line so that a triangle with various shapes is obtained.
3. The lines of the dialectometry triangle should not intersect, it is better to choose one possibility that is closer to the other (Mahsun, 1995: 119).



MAP 3: Dialectometry Triangle

After making a dialectometric triangular map, a lot of dialectometry is made. Dialectometry multitude maps more visually to visualize the boundaries of OAs than dialectometry triangles because dialectometry triangles only connect with OAs, whereas a lot of dialectometry maps separate from OAs.



MAP 4: Polygon Dialectometry

Based on triangular maps and dialectometry maps, OA pairs were determined to decide lexical differences and phonological differences in the Javanese. The compared OA pairs can be seen in table 1 as below:

TABLE I
COMPARED OA

No.	OA Pair
1.	1—2
2.	1—3
3.	2—3
4.	2—4
5.	2—6
6.	3—4
7.	4—5
8.	4—6
9.	5—6

IV. DISCUSSION

The lexical differences and phonological differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi were calculated based on lexical dialectometry and phonological dialectometry. The data retrieval of Javanese language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi was done using the Nothofer questionnaires which had been modified by Kisyani into 829 glossaries covering 20 meaning fields. The 20 meaning fields were: (1) numbers, (2) size, (3) season and time, (4) human body parts, (5) greetings and references, (6) kinship terms, (7) clothing and jewellery, (8) work, (9) animals, (10) animal body parts, (11) plants: parts of fruit and their processed products, (12) nature, (13) houses and their parts, (14) tools, (15) diseases and drugs, (16) directions, (17) activities, (18) nature, (19) colour and smell, and (20) taste.

A. Calculation of the Number of Lexical Differences of Javanese

The lexical data of Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi shows that not all glossaries asked for the research subject were in Javanese *ngoko*. From 829 glossaries asked to adults in all observation areas, there were several glossaries answered using Indonesian. In addition, there was also zero or empty glossaries. The number of Javanese lexical at each observation area in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi can be seen in table 2 as follows.

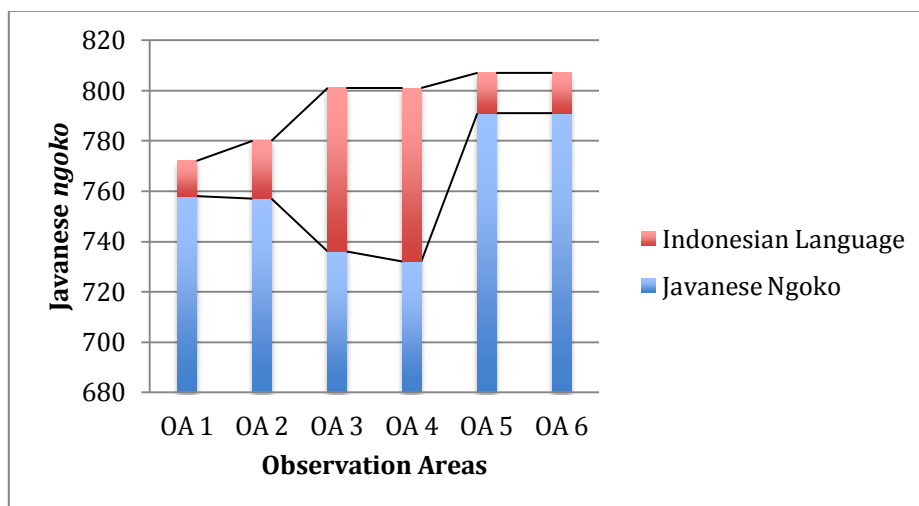
TABLE 2
THE NUMBER OF JAVANESE LEXICAL

No.	Observation Area	Adults' Javanese Language			Total
		Javanese <i>ngoko</i>	Indonesian Language	Zero	
1.	1	758	14	57	829
2.	2	757	23	49	829
3.	3	736	65	28	829
4.	4	732	69	28	829
5.	5	791	16	22	829
6.	6	791	16	22	829

Based on the lexical calculation of Javanese language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi, the following groups were obtained:

- a. OA 1; of the 829 glossaries that were asked there were 57 zero, 758 Javanese *ngoko*, 14 Indonesian.
- b. OA 2; from 829 glossaries asked, there were 49 zeros, 757 Javanese *ngoko*, 23 Indonesian.
- c. OA 3; from 829 glossaries asked, there were 28 zeros, 736 Javanese *ngoko* and 65 Indonesian.
- d. OA 4; from 829 glossaries asked, there were 28 zeros, 732 Javanese *ngoko* and 69 Indonesian.
- e. OA 5; from 829 asked, there were 22 glossaries, 791 Javanese *ngoko* and 16 Indonesian.
- f. OA 6; from 829 asked, there were 22 glossaries, 791 Javanese *ngoko* and 16 Indonesian.

Based on the grouping, it can be seen that OA 3 and 4 located in Surabaya have fewer Javanese lexical than that in other OAs. The number of Javanese lexical at each OA in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi can be seen in graph 1 as follows.



GRAPH 1: The Number of Javanese Lexical in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi

The graph shows the number of lexical in each OA in East Java. The number of Javanese lexical in the west and east ends of East Java Province, namely in Probolinggo and Ngawi, was more than that in the centre of East Java Province, namely in Surabaya. Calculation of lexical differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi was done by referring to dialectometric triangular maps and numbers of dialectometry maps. However, the netted data show that not all OAs had Javanese language for the glossaries they were asking. For example: the CICIT kinship term (glossary no.210) with [*buyut*] was only known at OA 1,2,5, and 6 while in OA 3 and 4 it was unknown. This might be caused by being unproductive to use in everyday speech in OA 3 and 4. Of the 829 glossaries asked to adults at OAs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 there were 349 lexical differences found. The results of calculating Javanese lexical dialectometry in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi can be seen in table 3 as follows.

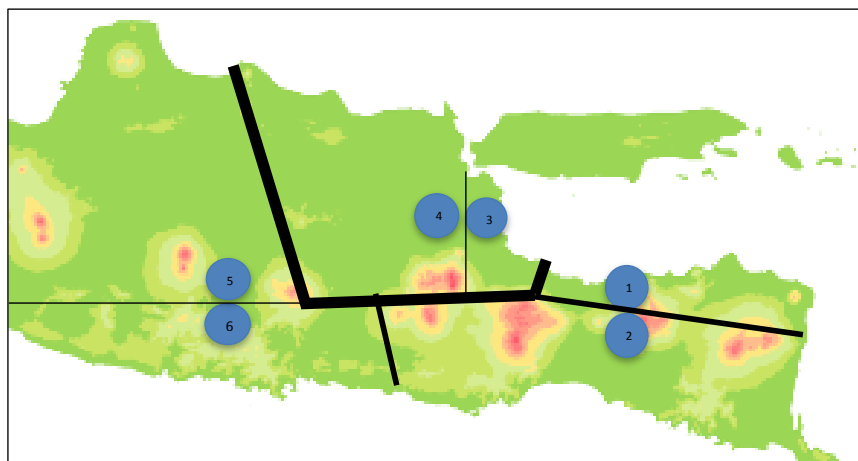
TABLE 3
LEXICAL DIALECTOMETRY IN JAVANESE IN PROBOLINGGO, SURABAYA, AND NGAWI

OA	Number of Difference (S)	Number of Maps Compared (n)	Vocabulary Distance (d%)	Description
1—2	112	349	32,09 %	Sub-dialect differences
1—3	261	349	74,78 %	dialect differences
2—3	187	349	53,58 %	dialect differences
2—4	215	349	61,60 %	dialect differences
2—6	151	349	43,26 %	Sub-dialect differences
3—4	28	349	8,02 %	no difference
4—5	187	349	53,58 %	dialect differences
4—6	185	349	53,01%	dialect differences
5—6	48	349	13,75 %	no difference



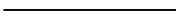
Based on the calculation of the lexical dialectometry of Javanese *ngoko* language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi, the following division groups were obtained:

- a. OA which shows no difference or vocabulary distance with a percentage of 0% - 20% were found in OA 3-4 and OA 5-6.
- b. OA which shows speech differences with a percentage of 21% - 30% were not found.
- c. OA which shows the differences in the sub dialect with the percentage of 31% - 50% was in OA 1-2, and OA is 2-6.
- d. OA which shows the difference in dialect with the percentage of 51% - 80% was found in OA 1-3, OA 2-3, OA 2-4, OA 4-5, and OA 4-6.

Calculation of lexical differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi shows no difference in OA 3-4 and OA 5-6. Sub dialect differences were found in OA 1-2 and OA 2-6. Differences in dialects were found in OA 1-3, OA 2-3, OA 2-4, OA 4-5, and OA 4-6. The differences in Javanese language and sub dialects in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi can be seen in map 5 as below.



MAP 5: A Map of Lexical Differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi

Notes:
 = Different dialects
 = Different sub dialects
 = no difference

B. Calculation of the Number of Phonological Differences of Javanese

Calculation of phonological differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi shows variants and correspondence. Of the 829 glossaries asked to adults at OA 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 there were 272 phonological differences found. The number of the phonological differences was the number to calculate the phonological dialectometry of Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi. This number might develop if other differences that contain the same thing were involved. The phonological calculation of Javanese language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi can be seen in table 4 as follows.

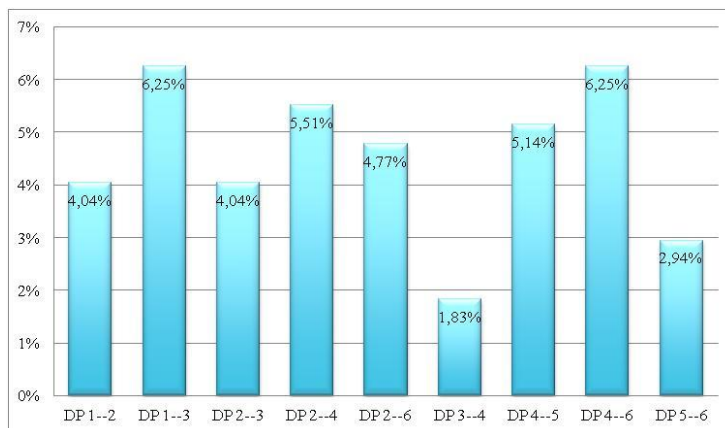
TABLE 4
 PHONOLOGICAL DIALECTOMETRY IN JAVANESE IN PROBOLINGGO, SURABAYA, AND NGAWI

OA	Number of Difference (S)	Number of Maps Compared (n)	Vocabulary Distance (d%)	Description
1—2	11	272	4,04 %	speech differences
1—3	17	272	6,25 %	speech differences
2—3	11	272	4,04 %	speech differences
2—4	15	272	5,51 %	speech differences
2—6	13	272	4,77 %	speech differences
3—4	5	272	1,83 %	no difference
4—5	14	272	5,14 %	speech differences
4—6	17	272	6,25 %	speech differences
5—6	8	272	2,94 %	no difference

Based on the calculation of phonological dialectometry, Javanese language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi is grouped into the following groups division:

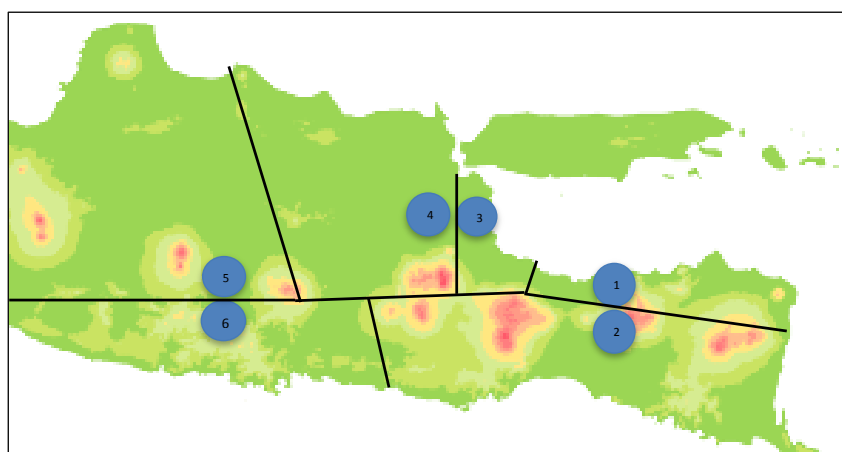
- OA which shows no difference or vocabulary distance with a percentage of 0% - 3% were found in OA 3-4 and OA 5-6.
- OA which shows the difference of speech with the percentage of 4% - 7% was in OA 1--2, OA 1 - 3, OA 2 - 3, OA 2 - 4, OA 2 - 6, OA 4 - 5, and OA 4 - 6 .
- OA which shows sub dialect differences with a percentage of 8% - 11% were not found.
- OA which shows dialect differences with a percentage of 12% - 16% were not found.

The calculation of the phonological differences shows speech differences in OA 1--2, OA 1-3, OA 2--3, OA 2--4, OA 2--6, OA 4--5, and OA 4--6. This proves that there were many phonological similarities between Javanese languages between OAs. The phonological differences in Javanese language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi can be seen in graph 2 as follows.



GRAPH 2: The Percentage of Phonological Differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi

Phonological differences in OA 1--2, OA 1-3, OA 2-3, OA 2-4, OA 2-6, OA 4-5, and OA 4-6 indicated that there were speech differences while those in OA 3-4 and OA 5-6 showed no speech difference. The map of the phonological differences in Javanese language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi can be seen in map 6 which shows the difference in speech in the OA-OA compared.



MAP 6: A Map of Phonological Differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi
 Notes:
 ————— = Different speech
 ————— = no difference

The map of Javanese phonological differences above showed thickening in OA 1--2, OA 1-3, OA 2-3, OA 2-4, OA 2-6, OA 4-5, and OA 4-6 which indicated the different lines of speech. OA 3-4 and OA 5-6 did not indicate any thickening because there was no difference in the OA-OA compared.

V. CONCLUSION

The conclusions from the results of the study on lexical differences and phonological differences in Javanese language in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi are: 1) the most lexical of Javanese is in the western and eastern parts of East Java, while the least is in the centre of East Java Province, i.e. Surabaya, 2) lexical differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi produced one dialects and two sub-dialects and 3) phonological differences in Javanese in Probolinggo, Surabaya, and Ngawi produced three utterance.

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A Constraint-based Analysis of Morphological Processes in the Ibibio Language

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Abstract—This paper is on a constraint-based analysis of morphological processes in Ibibio (Lower cross language of Niger Congo: Nigeria). The study seeks to determine the phonological processes that condition and restrict the position of an affix while specifying where an affix may appear in a string of affixes; examine the influence of a morphological form on the phonological conditions that regulates affix placement in the Ibibio language, as well as determine the constraints that account for the appropriate placement of affixes on reduplicative forms. Leaning on the optimality framework, it was revealed that nouns in Ibibio accept only vowel prefixes which provides an enabling environment for vowel processes to occur in compounding and affixation. We observed that certain phonological forms, like the productive suffix *-ke* which has differing phonological realisations depending on the structure of the verb in Ibibio, are influenced by the morphological structure of a word while others are not. Certain constraints like the intervocalic constraint, the *[CC] constraint and the harmony constraint are some of the constraints that account for full reduplication in Ibibio. Also, partial reduplication in the Ibibio language adheres to the *complex^{ons} and the NO CODA constraint.

Index Terms—Ibibio, morphological processes, optimality theory, phonological constraints, phonotactics

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a means of verbal communication among humans. Words that are used in communicating messages are formed through a number of processes. This study looks at the morphological processes in Ibibio. The analysis is couched within the framework of Optimality Theory (henceforth, OT) by Prince and Smolensky (1993) in which morphological processes are encoded in phonological constraints on the realisation of surface forms. It is primarily concerned with the phonological realisation of morphological properties and not in the nature of the morphemes themselves; its emphasis is in accounting for the influence of phonotactic restrictions on the phonological realisation of morphological processes.

The restrictions on the environment in which sounds appear are part of what defines the phonology of a language; therefore, sounds are not just combined randomly but they are combined and constrained in a well-defined pattern. Constraints are used in linguistics (in areas such as phonology, syntax and morphology) for representing properties that a linguistic phenomenon or concept must satisfy. Constraints are universal and language specific (i.e. valid for different languages). In essence, constraints stipulate properties that remove structures which are unacceptable to a language. In a constraint-based approach, the surface forms are constrained, forms not conforming to these constraints are rejected.

According to Spencer and Zwicky (2001), morphological forms when combined can affect each other phonologically but phonology has a more radical influence on morphology because it can determine whether or not some morphemes are combinable at all. As such, some morphological processes of affixation, reduplication, compounding, etc. are restricted to bases with certain phonological characteristics and cannot apply to bases without those characteristics even if they are appropriate on other grounds like (syntax, morphological and semantic).

According to Onwuka (2007), the relation of phonology and morphology lies in the area of morpho-phonology. At this point, what is considered is the phonological information necessary for morphological analysis and the morphological information necessary for phonological analysis. Therefore, a constraint-based analysis of morphological processes within the framework of optimality theory will look at mechanisms for controlling the size and contents of reduplicative morphemes (reduplication), constraints responsible for the precise placement of affixes, and constraints that account for compounding as a word-formation processes.

Many scholars have looked into the morphological processes in Ibibio but much attention has not been paid to those constraints that limit morpheme combination during word-formation processes and how such constraints determine the kind of morpheme that can occur with the other whether bound or free morpheme. This present study has not enjoyed

much inquiry in the Ibibio language. The foregoing dearth of research in optimality account of phonological phenomena in the Ibibio language necessitates this study.

In view of the fact that languages of the world are well ordered, and not randomly distributed in deriving new words from others either through affixation, reduplication or compounding, there are constraints that limit the rules of such combinations. Therefore, this paper seeks to determine the phonological processes that condition the position of an affix and restrictions while specifying where an affix may appear in a string of affixes, examine the influence of a morphological form on the phonological conditions that regulates affix placement in Ibibio, as well as determine the constraints that account for the appropriate placement of affixes on morphological forms.

There are many aspects of grammar which reveal a great deal about morphological structures and its relation to phonology, and there are a lot more morphological processes like borrowing, calquing, etc. However, the present study will be restricted to the morphological categories expressed by affixation, compounding and reduplication. Affixation on the other hand will be restricted to prefixation and suffixation in Ibibio. Its emphasis is on accounting for the influence of phonotactic constraints and lexical exceptionality on the phonological realisation of morphological process.

The Ibibio language is one of the minority languages in Niger Delta area in Nigeria. Although it is spoken by about 4million people (Essien, 1990), it is not as widely documented as other major Nigerian languages. This work will significantly help the second language learners who may have difficulty understanding the phonotactics of the language as regards word-formation.

II. METHODOLOGY

The researchers collected data through elicitation using the Ibadan 400 word-list which contained nouns, verbs, adjectives adverbs, etc. Some documented materials in the Ibibio language were also consulted. The purpose was to ensure that data collected were accurate and in their standard forms. Data transcription was done using the researcher's intuitive knowledge as a native speaker

III. THEORETICAL STUDIES

The theory of constraint and repair strategies (henceforth, TCRS) is a constraint-based theory propounded by Paradis in 1987. A repair strategy as opposed to a rule-based theory is an operation that applies to a phonological unit or a structure in order to repair the violation of structural or segmental phonological constraint of a universal language or a particular type of language. This repair can take various forms, for example insertion, deletion or modification of linguistic material (Murphy, 2018).

Declarative phonology is a constraint-based theory propounded by James Scobbie 1993. According to him, declarative phonology (henceforth, DP) provides a radical solution to the interaction problem of constraints. Firstly, in DP all elements of the phonology are constraints, so one only has to characterise constraint interaction but not the interaction of constraints with any other type of element such as the lexicon or rule set. Unlike the TCRS, DP cannot make repairs because this would mean adding or subtracting information from the pool at a point or another, neither can constraints truly conflict, as this would render the constraint pool incoherent. However, in DP, violations are avoided or pre-empted as there is no repair in DP, since that would mean removing a constraint from the constraint pool.

Optimality theory was originally proposed by linguist Allan Prince and Paul Smolensky in 1993 and later expanded by John J. McCarthy and Prince later in 1993. Although much of the interest in optimality theory has been associated with its use in phonology, the area to which it was first applied, the theory is also applicable to other subfield of linguistics, like syntax and semantics. Optimality theory as a linguistic model proposes that the observed form of a language arises from the interaction between conflicting constraints. In OT, candidates are compared by a hierarchy of violable constraints. The constraint assesses the form of each candidate, how it relates to the input and perhaps other properties. Candidates usually differ in performance on various constraints as such of the two or more candidates, the more harmonic is that which performs better on the highest-ranking constraint that distinguishes between them. Elements of OT include constraints (con); generator (gen) and evaluator (eval).

Generator: (gen, also known as the candidate set) is a mechanism which relates the input to a set of candidate representation. Gen takes an input, and manipulates the input to generate randomly the list of possible outputs or candidates.

Constraints: Constraint according to Kager (1999:5) can be defined as "a structural requirement which satisfies constraints if it fully meets the necessary structural requirements". Constraint provides the criteria in the form of strictly ordered violable constraints used to decide between candidates.

Evaluator: Evaluator on the other hand selects the optimal candidate from a set of candidates created by generator. It chooses the optimal candidate based on constraints and this candidate is the output.

IV. EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Akinlabi and Urua (2000) worked on tone in Ibibio verbal reduplication. The aim of the study was to describe the tonal patterns observed in prefixing reduplication in Ibibio verb, specifically prefixing reduplication in three constructions: the imperative contrastive, the declarative contrastive and the perfective. The optimality theory was used

as the theoretical framework. The researchers provided evidence for the full model of reduplicative identity and fixed segments which results from the realization of a tonal morpheme. According to the researchers, Ibibio is a two-tones plus down-step language. The researchers claim that tone is no different from other aspects of the signal when it comes to reduplicative transfer and this was demonstrated using the correspondence constraint of OT. The researchers in spite of assumptions that tone reduplicates with segments, were of the view that faithful transfer of tone must be independent of faithful transfer of segments. The similarity between the study reviewed and the current study lies in their collective effort to study constraints on reduplicative morphemes in Ibibio. However, they differ in their point of focus. While Akinlabi and Urua (2000) focused on constraints on the tonal tier which according to the researchers, is independent of the segmental tier; the current study looks at constraints on reduplicative morphemes at the segmental level.

Mbah (2006) worked on reduplication in Ibibio: an optimality account. The paper studied reduplication in Ibibio, using the correspondence model of the optimality theory. The study investigated how some phonological conditions evident in the language use relevant constraints to achieve their results. The researcher stated that two types of reduplication exist in Ibibio, and these include the complete and partial reduplication which affects only the first CV of the base. According to the researcher, in complete reduplication, elements in the base are wholly copied by the reduplicant, and reduplicants forbid consonant clusters. The study discovered that in places where there are consonant clusters, vowels are inserted between the base and the reduplicant to avoid such clusters. The researcher went on to state that complete reduplication in Ibibio results when a universal constraint MAX_{BR} is not dominated. However, if MAX_{BR} becomes highly dominated, it will result in the emergence of the unmarked segment (TETU), which manifests when some phonological constraints block exact copying of the base by the reduplicant. The similarity between the study reviewed and the current study lies in their collective effort to study constraints on reduplicative morphemes in Ibibio. However, they differ in their scope. While the current study covers a wider scope by looking into constraints on other morphological processes, Mbah (2006) payed attention to reduplication alone.

Mba (2017) worked on hiatus resolution in Igbo. Mba states that the study of hiatus as a concept shows that many languages of the world do not prefer hiatus, some completely avoid it while some devise strategies for resolving it. According to the researcher, hiatus is a phenomenon where two different vowels occurring in a juxtaposition without an intervening consonant have different repair strategies which include vowel assimilation and vowel deletion. The theoretical framework adopted is the optimality theory by Prince and Smolensky. The study according to the researcher seeks to establish the occurrence of hiatus in Igbo as well as identify the hiatus resolution strategies applicable in the language. Finally, Mba (2017) posits that Igbo does not permit hiatus and uses the assimilation and deletion method as strategies for resolving the non-preferred configuration. The study reviewed and the current study differs in their phonological area of study. While the current study looks at constraints on morphological processes, the study reviewed looked at the resolution of hiatus in the Igbo language. However, both studies adopt the optimality theory as a framework for data analysis.

V. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Of the above theories of phonological constraints, Scobbie (1993) states that the TCRS is similar to optimality theory in that it makes crucial use of forms which violate surface constraints but it also differs with the optimality theory in that such forms exist only at abstract intermediate levels. As such constraint violations are always repaired. Deletion is a possible repair strategy, therefore, TCRS is procedural as compared to declarative phonology which is non-procedural. Therefore, when two constraints are violated by a single form in TCRS, two repairs might apply giving different results. However, since the optimality theory allows one to generate language-specific constraints, and constraints can as well be violated to bring out the optimal candidate, we find it a more comprehensive, and adequate framework for this study.

VI. DATA PRESENTATION

This section intends to explain the constraints and phonological conditions that regulate such morphological processes as compounding, reduplication and affixation in Ibibio.

A. *Compounding in Ibibio*

Ibibio compound words are a combination of two content words. According to Urua (1998) compounds in Ibibio may be classified into two parts: those that have a direct composition of two or more nouns, and those which are derived through verbs. Unlike in English, where different word classes can be utilized in compounding process, compounds in Ibibio are generally nominal-based (Urua, 1998).

1. Noun + Noun

- | | | | |
|--------|-----------------|---|---------------|
| (a) | ɔ̀kp ʔ + ɔ̀bɔ̀k | - | ɔ̀kp ʔ ɔ̀bɔ̀k |
| bag | hand | - | 'handbag' |
| (b) | ʔ ɛ + ɪ ɪ ɪ ɪ | - | ʔ ɪ ɪ ɪ ɪ |
| father | village | - | 'chief' |
| (c) | ɔ̀bɔ̀k + ɔ̀kp ʔ | - | ɔ̀bɔ̀r ɔ̀kp ʔ |
| hand | bag | - | 'hand of bag' |

(d)	ò é + b à à n	-	ò í b à à n	
	husband women	-	'womanizer'	
	2. verb + noun		phrasal verb	nominal compound (prefixation)
(e)	d á á + ò s f	-	d á ò s f	í d á ò s f
	happy heart	-	happyheart	'happiness'
(f)	k à p á + s u à	-	k à p s u à	ú- k à p s u à
	turnover year	-	turnover year	'Christmas'
(g)	n é k + ú n é k	-	n é ú n é k	á n é ú n é k
	dance dance	-	dance dance	'dancer'

B. Reduplication in Ibibio

Ibibio has the complete and partial reduplication. Certain word classes in Ibibio may be derived through the complete reduplication process. Such word classes include: adjectives from nouns, adjectives from adjective, nouns from verbs, adverbs from nouns and adverbs from adjectives (Urua, 1998). Complete reduplication in Ibibio is productively derived by faithfully repeating the base. The consonants, vowels and tones of the base are completely copied by the reduplicant. In the derived form, one half is the base while the other half is the reduplicant (Mbah, 2006). Partial reduplication in Ibibio comes in form of a prefix and it involves attaching the repeated part of the word to the base.

From the data below, it is observed that complete reduplication in Ibibio is derived by fully repeating the base. The consonants, vowels and tones are copied by the reduplicant. The new or derived form consists of two parts known as the base and the reduplicant. The identity of the base and the reduplicant is ensured by a set of the base-reduplicant and input-output faithfulness constraints, where faithfulness constraints outrank markedness constraints.

3. Data showing reduplication in Ibibio

(a)	èkpàt 'bag'	èkp à èkp à	'bogus'
(b)	bòk 'medicine'	bòr bòk 'medicinal'	
(c)	ndòm 'clay'	ndòmndòm	'clayey'
(d)	keed 'one'	keerekeed	'one each'

4. data showing Partial reduplication

(e)	d ɸ 'buy'	de.dep	(be buying)
(f)	n é k 'dance'	n è n é k	(be dancing)
(g)	tuuk 'touch'	t ó t ú t k	(be touching)
(h)	kipp é 'pluck'	k è kipp é	(be plucking)
(i)	fr á n 'fry'	f à fr á n	(be frying)

C. Affixation in Ibibio

Josiah and Udoudom (2017) observes that most grammatical properties in Ibibio are indicated through the prefixation process. Essien (1990) states that in Ibibio inflectional morphemes are characterised by prefixes while derivational morphemes are typically suffixes. One major feature of the Ibibio language is that it is an agglutinative language. That is, it is capable of forming new words by taking other words or affixes without changing the form of the root.

a. Data showing prefixation in Ibibio

Nouns formation in Ibibio through prefixation.

5. Verb		Noun	
(a)	t ó- 'plant'	é t ó	'plant'
(b)	m á- 'love'	í m á	'love'

6. Plural formation in Ibibio through prefixation (mm è- morpheme)

(a)	áv ó- 'person'	mm è w ó	'many people'
(b)	ù s á n- 'plates'	mm è s á n	'plates'

7. Data showing vowel assimilation in Ibibio through prefixation

(a)	s é + ó w ò	s é é w ó	
	look + person		'look at someone'
(b)	kp é + kp é	kp í kp é	
	judge + case		'judge a case'

b. Suffixation in Ibibio

Suffixation is a very productive derivational process in Ibibio is well constrained phenomena. The -ke morpheme which appears to be the most productive suffix in Ibibio has different melodic realizations which is dependent on the structure of the verb.

Data showing suffixation in Ibibio

Reflexive suffix in Ibibio

8. (a)	dip 'hide'	dip + é → di bé	'hide oneself'
(b)	sin 'put'	sin + é → sin é	'dress oneself'

Reversive suffix

9. This deals with oppositeness of certain verb forms

- (a) fʌk ‘cover’ fʌk + kɔ ‘uncover’
- (b) tèm ‘cook’ t ɛ̃n + m è ‘remove cooking from fire’

Negation in Ibibio through suffixation

In Ibibio, the suffix *-ke* is used to mark negation in a CV, CVC and CVC (C) V verb structure. However, it has different melodic realization depending on the structure of the verb.

10.

- CV
 - (a) S é ‘look’ s é+ k é → s ɛ̃ɛ é ‘not looking’
- CVC
 - (b) dép ‘buy’ dép + pé → déppé ‘not buying’
- CVCV
 - (c) Kéré ‘thing’ kéré + ké → kéréké ‘not thinking’

VII. DATA ANALYSIS

A. *Optimality Account of Compounding in Ibibio*

From the data in (a), (c) and (g) above, it can be observed that consonant weakening is a phonological process found in the Ibibio language and this occurs when a consonant sound occurs in-between two vowel sounds at morpheme or word boundary (intervocalic environment). The voiceless plosive /k/ in an intervocalic environment will become either /ɸ/ or /R/ depending on the [± backness] of the preceding vowel sound. The leading constraints will account for intervocalic weakening in Ibibio.

The asterisk (*) denotes that a structure is unacceptable.

License [voice]#: intervocalic weakening or voicing at morpheme or word boundary

[+ back + syll] [R]#: feature of [+cons] following a back vowel at word/morpheme boundary.

[-back +syll] [ɸ]#: feature of [+cons] following a front vowel at morpheme or word boundary.

Dep -IO every segment in the output must have a corresponding segment in the input (no insertion)

Constraints are arranged across the top of the tableau in a hierarchy of decreasing importance from left to right. Also, shading shows constraints that are immaterial to the selection of the optimal candidate (especially those below a constraint for which a fatal violation is incurred).

1. Consonantal weakening in intervocalic position

TABLEAU 1
tuak + ukɔt ‘palmwine tapper’

tuak + ukɔt –UR	License (voice)	[+back +syll] [R]	[-back +syll] [ɸ]	Dep-io
a. tuakukɔt	*!	*		
b. tuakukɔk		*!		*
☞c. tuarukɔt			*	*
d. tuarukɔt		*!	*	*

Here, it is observed from tableau 1 above that the ranking of constraints leads to the selection of a candidate other than that which most closely matches the input. This indicates that the markedness constraint outranks the faithfulness constraints. Candidate (a) incurs a fatal violation of the highest ranked constraint License (voice) as such as been ruled out. Candidate (b) and candidate (d) do not violate the highest ranked constraint but candidate (c) *tuarukɔt* performs better because it incurs the least violation and as such becomes the optimal candidate

TABLEAU 2
nek + unek ‘dance’

nek + unek – UR	License (voice)	[-back +syll] [ɸ]	[+back +syll] [R]	dep-IO
☞a. nekunek			*	*
b. nerunek		*		*
c. nekunek	*!			
d. nerunek		*!	*	*

From tableau 2 above, it is observed that the markedness constraint License (voice) is ranked above the faithfulness constraint. It is also ranked above the [+back +syll] [ɸ] constraint. This is because the constraint License (voice) prohibits the occurrence of oral stops in an intervocalic environment while the [-back +syll] [ɸ] determines what feature the consonant sound takes in an intervocalic environment based on the backness or frontness of the preceding vowel sound. As such, candidate (a) emerges the optimal candidate because it satisfies the two highly ranked constraints.

2. Vowel deletion in compounding

In Ibibio, wherever two vowels occur in juxtaposition at word boundary, one of the vowels is deleted. Here, the vowel height constraint comes into consideration. This constraint states that where there is a -high and + high vowel

occurring in juxtaposition, the -high vowel should be deleted. As seen in data (e) and (f) above. The following constraints suffice for an OT analysis

No hiatus: Two adjacent vowels cannot be associated to different features (deletion of a low vowel in juxtaposition with a high vowel).

Max-IO: Every segment in the input has a correspondent in the output (no deletion)

Dep-IO: Every segment in the output should have a corresponding segment in the input (no insertion).

TABLEAU 3
ukapa + isua 'christmas'

ukapa + isua – UR	*[-high +syll] [+high +syll]	Dep [+high]	Max [-high]
a.ukapisua			*
b.ukapiisua		*	*
c.ukapaisua	*!		
d.ukapasua	*!		

In tableau 3 above, candidate (c) and candidate (d) are ruled out because they incur fatal violation on the highest ranked constraint as such cannot emerge winner. Candidate (a) therefore is the optimal candidate because it satisfies a highly ranked constraint and only violates a low-ranking constraint.

3. Constraint showing vowel assimilation in compound words.

According to Urua (2007), assimilation rather than deletion occurs when adjacent vowels bear non-identical tones. But in noun plus noun construction, complete vowel assimilation takes place even in the midst of identical tones. Example as seen in data (b) and (d). The leading constraints are generated for an OT analysis

No hiatus: Two adjacent vowels cannot be associated to different features (assimilation to a following high vowel)

Max-IO: Every segment in the input has a correspondent in the output (no deletion)

Dep-IO: Every segment in the output should have a corresponding segment in the input (no insertion).

TABLEAU 4
ǎ é+ ílǎ - ǎ ílǎ 'chief'

ǎ é+ ílǎ - UR	No Hiatus	Max-IO	Dep-IO
a. eteidǎ	*!		
b. etiidǎ		*	*
c. eteedǎ	*	*	*
d. etidǎ		*	

In tableau 4 above, it is observed that a markedness constraint is ranked above faithfulness constraints. This is because the structural well-formedness of an output ranks above its correspondence to the input. In Ibibio, the “No Hiatus constraint” can be resolved through assimilation process but, the vowel segment V₁ must assimilate to the following high vowel. In the analysis above, candidate (a) is ruled out because it incurs a fatal violation of a highly ranked constraint. Candidate (c) violates the high-ranking constraint by assimilating to the preceding mid vowel /e/ instead of the following high vowel /i/. Therefore, candidate (b) emerges the optimal candidate.

TABLEAU 5
ǎ é+ b ààn - ǎ íb ààn

ǎ é+ b ààn	No Hiatus	Max-IO	Dep-IO
a.ebeiban	*!	*	
b.ebibaan		*	
c.ebiibaan		*	*
d.ebiebaan	*!		

Here, candidate (c) is the optimal candidate because it satisfies the highly ranked constraint and aligns with the phonotactic constraints of the language.

B. Optimality Account of Reduplication in Ibibio

From the data in (3) above, it is observed that complete reduplication in Ibibio is derived by fully repeating the base. The consonants, vowels and tones are copied by the reduplicant. The new or derived form consists of two parts known as the base and the reduplicant. The identity of the base and the reduplicant is ensured by a set of the base-reduplicant and input-output faithfulness constraints, where faithfulness constraints outrank markedness constraints. Constraints necessary for the analysis are:

Max-IO: every segment S1 has a correspondent in S2

Dep-IR: every segment of the reduplicant has a correspondent in the input.

Ident BR: place specifications in the reduplicant are the same as place specifications in the base

*Vc#V: No intervocalic stop at word boundary.

*C#C: No consonant cluster at morpheme or word boundary.

*Vc#V: No intervocalic stop at word boundary.

TABLEAU 6 SHOWING FULL REDUPLICATION IN IBIBIO
ekpat-ekpat 'baggy'

Red-ekpat	Max-IO	DEP-IR	*VC#V	Ident BR (place)
☞a. ekpar-ekpat				
b. ekpat-ekpat	*!			
c. ekpaR-eakpat	*!	*		*
d. ekpat-ekpat			*!	

Here, candidate (a) is the optimal candidate while candidate (c) is the worst of all the candidates. It violates all constraints except *VC#V. It violates Max-IO because of the presence of the uvular trill /R/ in the reduplicant, which does not correspond to the base. It violates Ident-BR (place) because /R/ is an uvular sound while /t/ is an alveolar sound, as such do not agree in place. Candidate (a) is optimal because it satisfies all high-ranking constraints.

TABLEAU 7
Keed + keed 'one each'

Red + keed	Max-IO	*C#C	*VC#V	Dep IR
☞a. Keerekeed				*
b. kee keed	*!		*	
c. keedkeed		*!		

In tableau 7 above, candidate (a) emerges the optimal candidate having violated a low ranked constraint. Candidate (C) has violated only one constraint which is *CC (no consonant cluster at word boundary) but it cannot become the optimal candidate because it incurs a fatal violation on highly ranked markedness constraints.

1. Partial reduplication

Partial reduplication in Ibibio repeats only the first CV of the base. However, there are modifications in certain instances. The following constraints will suffice for partial reduplication in Ibibio

Max-IO = Every segment in the input must have a correspondent in the output (no deletion)

No CODA = No coda in the reduplicant

*Complex^{ONS}: No complex onset in the reduplicant

Align (R prefix L): The left edge of the prefix must align with the right edge of the base word.

Max-BR: every segment in the base must have a correspondent in the reduplicant.

In Ibibio, the well-formedness constraint NO CODA must be ranked higher than the MAX-BR so as to result in partial reduplication.

TABLEAU 8
Fraŋ → fa-fraŋ 'be frying'

Red- fraŋ	No CODA	*Complex ^{ONS}	Align (R prefix L)	Max-BR
a. fra-fraŋ		*!		*
☞b. fa-fraŋ				*
c. fraŋ-fraŋ	*!	*		
d. ra-fraŋ			*	*

Here, candidate (b) being the optimal candidate violates only the Max-BR constraint. Candidate (c) is ruled out because it violates *complex ons and the No Coda constraint. In Ibibio, codas are allowed in the base but not in the prefixal reduplicant. Also, complex^{ONS} is allowed at the base but not in the reduplicant.

C. Affixation in Ibibio

1. Optimality account of prefixation Ibibio

In Ibibio, prefixation is productive and gives rise to inflections as well as derivations. However, there are certain constraints that account for prefixation in Ibibio. Therefore, the following constraints will suffice for an OT analysis of prefixation in Ibibio.

No Coda_{pref}: The prefixal morpheme in Ibibio has no coda.

*[-high + syll]# [+high + syll]: delete low vowel at morpheme or word boundary where there is a following high vowel.

No Hiatus: Two adjacent segments cannot be associated with different features.

Max-IO: Every segment in the input has a correspondent in the output (No deletion)

Dep-IO: Every segment in the output has a correspondent in the input (No insertion).

TABLEAU 9 THE PLURAL MORPHEME 'MME'
Mme + usan → mmsan 'plates'

Mme+usan	No hiatus	*[-high + syll]# [+high + syll]	No coda	Max-IO
a. mmesan		*!		*
b. mmeusan	*!			
☞c. mmsan				*
d. mmsan			*	*

From tableau 9 above, it is observed that the height constraint which states that a [-high] vowel should be deleted when there is a following [+high] at morpheme or word boundary. This constraint ranks higher than the Max-IO constraint. Candidate (a) and candidate (b) violates the highest ranked constraint but candidate (c) which violates the least ranked constraint (max-IO) emerges the optimal candidate.

TABLEAU 10 TABLEAU SHOWING VOWEL ASSIMILATION THROUGH PREFIXATION IN IBIBIO

Se+owo → seewo 'look at someone'				
Se + owo	No hiatus	No coda	Max-IO	Dep-IO
a. sek+owo		*!		*
b. seowo	*!			
☞c. seewo				*
d. sen+owo		*	*	*

Candidate (d) has been ruled out because it violates the “No coda” constraint which is a high-ranking constraint in Ibibio prefixation. Candidate (a) and (b) have also been ruled out because they violate the No coda and No hiatus constraints respectively. In Ibibio, the prefixal morpheme can only be an open CV or a CCV structure. Closed syllable structures such CVC is not allowed as a prefix in Ibibio. Therefore, candidate (c) emerges as the winning candidate.

2. Optimality account of suffixation in Ibibio

Suffixation is a well constrained phenomena in Ibibio. The *-ke* morpheme which appears to be the most productive suffix in Ibibio has different melodic realizations which is dependent on the structure of the verb (Urua, 2007). The following constraints will suffice for suffixations in Ibibio.

Harmony: vowel in the suffix must harmonise with vowel in the root.

License [voice]#: intervocalic weakening or voicing at morpheme or word boundary

Align (stem R suffix L): The right edge of the stem must correspond to the left edge of the suffix.

*[high, central]: high or central vowel is not allowed as suffix.

*(CvC) No insertion of vowel between two identical consonant sounds.

Dep-IO: Every segment in the output must have a corresponding segment on the input (no insertion)

TABLEAU 11
dip + pi → dippe 'not hiding'

Dip + pi	Align (stem R suffix L)	*[high, central]	Harmony	Dep-IO
☞a. dip-pe			*	*
b. dip-ke	*!			
c. dip-ki	*!	*!		*
d. diβ-e	*!		*	*

In tableau 11, candidate (a) emerges the optional candidate. It satisfies the two high-ranking markedness constraints. It is observed that in the output form, the suffix uses the mid- front vowel /e/, this is because high or central vowels /i, i, u, ʌ / are not permitted suffixes in Ibibio.

TABLEAU 12
nam + ke → nama 'not doing'

nam+ke – UR	Harmony	Align (stem R, suffix L)	*[CvC]#	Dep-IO
☞a. nam-ma				*
b. nam-ke	*!	*!		
c. nam-ama			*!	*
d. nam-ka		*!		*

From the table, it is observed that the *-ke/* suffix which marks negation harmonises with the last consonant of the verb stem which is a CVC structure. The [+back] vowel also harmonises with the vowel of the root word which is a constraint in the Ibibio language. Candidate (b) which copies exact features of the underlying representation violates the Harmony and Alignment constraint. Candidate (c) is ruled out because it violates the *[cvc]# constraint which permits identical consonant sounds at word final position. Therefore, candidate (a) emerges the winner.

VIII. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

This study examines a constraint-based analysis of the connection between phonology and morphology in the Ibibio language and shows the effect of phonology on morphology. Findings reveal that in the Ibibio language, the placement of affixes in a reduplicative form are well constrained, this implies that reduplicants are not randomly affixed to the base. Reduplicants in the Ibibio language are affixed to the left, as such occur as prefixes. In full reduplication, elements are completely copied by reduplicant. Certain constraints like the intervocalic constraint which prohibits the occurrence of intervocalic stops, the *[CC] constraint which requires that an epenthetic vowel be introduced to break consonant clusters and the harmony constraint which requires that such vowel must harmonise with the vowel of the base-reduplicant, are some of the constraints that account for full reduplication in the Ibibio language. Also, partial

reduplication in the Ibibio language adheres to the *complex^{ons} and the NO CODA constraint. These constraints prohibit codas and complex onsets in the reduplicant, even though it is permitted in the base.

The study observes that nouns in the Ibibio language accept only vowel prefixes, therefore, it provides an enabling environment for vowel processes to occur in compounding and affixation. Some of the phonological processes that condition word formation processes in Ibibio include: vowel assimilation, vowel insertion, intervocalic weakening, vowel harmony, etc. The study also observes that certain phonological effects are influenced by the morphological structure of a word while others are not. For instance, the productive suffix *-ke* has differing phonological realisations depending on the structure of the verb.

In conclusion, the study confirms that word formation processes in Ibibio are well patterned and not randomly distributed. In the study, it was observed that compounding, reduplication and affixation cut across phonology, morphology interface. Morphologically, they are processes for language enrichment, where new words are produced from existing ones. Phonologically, compounding, reduplication and affixation are regulated by certain phonological conditions which have to comply to with the phonotactic constraints of the Ibibio language. In this work, we also observed that phonological conditions used to realise morphological constructions are essentially the same for compounding, reduplication and affixation in Ibibio.

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The Effects of Motivational Techniques on Students' EFL Achievement in ELT at Tatek Lessira Secondary and Preparatory School, Tach Gayint Woreda: Grade 11 Students in Focus

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Abstract—The aim of this study was to examine the effect of motivational technique on enhancing students' English achievement. To bring into effect, quasi- experimental was designed. From the total of six sections, two were randomly taken and signed one as experimental (N=40) and other as controlled group (N=40) by lots so that each sections (intact groups) have equal probability to be selected. The study used document review and test as the main tool of data collection to compare the mean score of both groups before and after the treatment. The reviewed document and test was analyzed by (SPSS 20). The result of the reviewed document (students' rooster) before training revealed that both groups were almost at the same level of language achievement. However, after teaching with selected motivational techniques, the result of experiential group was significantly different with the control group taught in a conventional classroom (usual classroom teaching). As a result, the alternative hypothesis (H1) was accepted; whereas, the null hypothesis (H0) was rejected. Based on the findings above, employed motivational techniques in EFL classroom enhance students EFL achievement. As a result, teachers should use selected motivational techniques in EFL classroom.

Index Terms—effect, motivation, techniques, achievement, conventional teaching, control group, experimental group, t test, p- value, cut point, significance difference, degree of free doom, t-table, Levene's Test, standard deviation, standard error mean

I. INTRODUCTION

English is the language that has expanded breaking the barriers of color, race, and living differences of people, and has continued to spread all over the world (Crystal 1997). He also noted that the use of English in media is also great. For example, according to the unpublished document of ministry of education of Ethiopia (2002: p-15) stated, 60% of the world's radio broadcast, and 70% of the world's mail are covered by English language. As a result of the above facts, English has become the language that links the world altogether. It is the medium through which technological, social, political and cultural information has been transmitted. In the Ethiopian educational system, the learning of English begins at the elementary level and it gives different functions at various organizations. A document from the Federal Ministry of Education (2002: P-1) also reveals, "English is a cornerstone in the development of Ethiopia's commerce, communication systems, technology, and education." Due to this, students should have good command of English so that they would play their significant role for the attainment of the above purposes. However, as Berhanu (2000:P-22) suggested about the English language ability of the majority of the students in Ethiopia.

Most students' ability to understand their teachers or their textbooks is not adequate. Moreover, much time is given to copy written explanation. Therefore, to solve problems that face in EFL classroom, motivation is one issue and using adequate motivational techniques is indispensable. Motivational techniques help teachers to create eager students in the classroom.

Motivation to learn another language is further complex due to the difficult nature of language itself (Guilloteaux, 2007). As Dornyei (2003) and Gardner (2001) clarified a lot about the educational shift and motivational renaissance that took place in the 1990s; the key belief that leads to this shift is the classroom conditions that had a much stronger motivational influence than had been planned before. As result, scholar's needs to investigate the effect of motivational techniques for instance, issues which are related to the importance of materials used for teaching and teachers' and students' behavior towards students EFL achievement.

Besides, Harmer (2001) defined motivation, as it is a state of cognitive arousal, pushing learners to do things to achieve goals. The latter scholars point out that motivation provokes a 'decision act' in the learner to sustain intellectual effort inclined towards goal attainment. The scholars have emphasized on the significance of motivation. For learning to happen, there must be motivation. Moreover, motivation and learning have a relationship of interchange for one is the consequence of the other. According to Brown (1994), learners need to have positive attitude towards the speakers of the language in order to be motivated to learn it. He also adds that most of the learners who lack motivation neither

participate nor use the language. Student motivation naturally has to do with students' interest to participate in the learning process. But it also matters the goals that bring about their participation or non-intervention in academic activities. Although students may be equally motivated to carry out a task, the sources of their motivation may differ.

Motivated learners focus on obtaining abilities and strategies rather than achieving tasks. These learners are also appropriate to be engaged to the lessons, mentally arranging and practicing the material to be learned, taking explanations to facilitate subsequent study programs, ensuring their level of understanding and asking for help when they do not understand the material. On the other hand, the unmotivated students do not exhibit the above-mentioned behaviors (Pintrich and Schunk, 2002). Besides, Cook (2008) reports one of the reasons for the better achievement of some L2 learners than others is because they are better motivated. Motivation is a short-term issue, from moment to moment in the classroom; SLA research has given less emphasis to it, as Cook and Schmidt (1991; as quoted in Cook, 2008) points out ones learning is determined by his/ her motivation.

In general, as the above scholars suggested, motivation and foreign/second language learning are interrelated to each other. The reason behind this is that without motivation of students, the teacher could not teach the target language. Furthermore, better-motivated learners are successful in their EFL achievement.

Statement of the Problem

Teachers' motivational techniques in teaching English are crucial in engaging students in the classroom. Students' engagement EFL learning and their achievement are determined by the perception of teachers towards motivational techniques and the range of employing those techniques in EFL classroom. EFL teachers are not only to educate the target language but also to making the process EFL learning as exciting as likely to engage the students in the learning process.

Dornyei (2005) and Dornyei and Cheng (2007) asserted that motivation is one among many factors that cause success or failure on students' EFL achievement. Some of the de-motivating factors in students' learning are the teacher's character, commitment, ability, and teaching method.

Besides, there are also various possible factors in students' motivation to learn English and achieve well in their EFL achievement. Some of these are teachers' usage of appropriate motivational techniques; the teaching materials (Syllabus) in terms of providing appropriate tasks, exercises, the purpose of the students to learn the language, students' attitude towards the language, and others (Harmer, 2001, and Cook, 1991).

Moreover to this, the reason why many students achieve low in their EFL learning as many students are they have no to practice the language that makes them involved in learning English (Berihanu 2000, cited in Long and Poter). Instead, teachers' set the same instructional pace and content for everyone by lecturing, explaining a grammatical point, leading drill work or asking questions of the whole class, and giving much notes. Since teacher-fronted lessons favor a highly conventionalized variety of conversation, one rarely found them outside classrooms and they may also limit the quality of talk students engage in.

However, the current language theories have been suggested that knowledge is constructed, discovered, transformed, and extended by students (Hopkins, 2002).

If so, the main role of teachers is not to be dominant like what has been mentioned above but create conditions within which the students can construct meaning from what they are learning. This may, in turn, enable them to practice and refine their negotiation, organization and communication skills, define issues and problems, and develop ways of solving them (Johnson, 1994). The conditions created by teachers will be realized if, among other things, students are put in groups. That is to say, group activities like role-play, discussion, problem solving, in line with using appropriate techniques of motivation etc could be used as a means to get the learners actively involved in the learning process and internalize the language communicatively.

In support of this, the recently shift with the field of language learning and teaching greatly focuses more on learner centered teaching approaches than teacher centered ones (Berihanu, 2000). In the learner-centered approach, adequate motivation should be employed to get students learn the target language effectively.

Though all these have been said by foremost authors and many descriptive survey researches have conducted on these techniques, employing motivational techniques and look the effect they have has not been investigated. As a result, the researcher is inspired and let both the teacher and the students practically look the effect of these techniques on students EFL achievement. This was done as many students thought teachers who used these techniques in EFL class room is killing of time.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study is to examine the effect of motivational techniques on students' EFL achievement.

Hypotheses

In view of the discussion made above, this study attempted to examine the effect of motivational techniques on the two groups (experimental and control) EFL achievement between two hypotheses listed below.

The Null Hypothesis (H0)

There would not be statistically significant difference between the mean score of students in the experimental group and control group in their EFL achievement due to the use of motivational techniques for experimental class and conventional teaching learning process in the control group in EFL classroom.

The Alternative Hypothesis (H1)

There would be statistically significant difference between the mean score of students in the experimental group and control group in their EFL achievement due to using motivational techniques employed for experimental class and conventional teaching learning process for control group in EFL classroom.

II. METHODOLOGY

The Research Design

The primary concern of this study is to examine impact of motivational techniques on students' EFL achievement. In order to find the effect it has, quasi-experiment was designed. Quantitative method was used in order to obtain the relevant data. Document review and test were used to obtain quantitative data. Thus, quantitative data analysis was used to examine the hypothesis set.

Population of the Study

The targeted population of the study was Tach Gayint Woreda, Tatek Lessira Secondary, and Preparatory School 2009 E.C grade 11 students. The school has six grade 11 sections that accommodate 301 students (114 male and 187 female). Each section has 40 to 45 students. It has also 156 (46 female and 110 male) teachers.

The researcher believes that working on the EFL achievement of grade 11 students is essential to help them perform well as only one year is left to take university entrance exam.

On the other hand, the rest grade levels i.e.9, 10, and 12 were not considered since the number of students assigned in grade 9 was large (N=60 to 65), and grade 10 and 12 will leave the school before the completion of the study.

Sample, Sampling Techniques, and Grouping of the Participants

Sample and Sampling Techniques

At this school, from the six grade 11 sections, two are social science, and the rest are natural science student. From these sections, two intact classes from natural science were selected randomly as it helps to have equal chances to be selected for the study.

In addition to the students, all grade 11 EFL teachers (N=2) were included. The rationale of including all teachers is they were involved during designing the test at document review so that they could check how far the test administered after teaching the experimental group was valid and reliable with respect to the test administered in the process of EFL teaching and learning of the school.

Grouping of the Participants

Grouping of sections in to the experimental and controlled group was made following right after their first semester consolidated rooster (document) was reviewed. The result from reviewed document revealed that both groups were at the same level of EFL achievement. In such a way, selected sections were grouped into two using lots so that two intact classes have equal probability of becoming either an experimental or control group. Then, one class was assigned as experimental group (N= 40) and one class was also control group (N=40).

The Experimental Group

In order to examine the potential effects of motivational techniques in EFL classroom, quasi-experimental was designed.

To teach the experimental class, students' textbook, and teachers' guide in the regular classroom instruction was used. The rationales of using text book in a regular period for teaching were, first, since the study aimed at showing if motivational techniques employed in EFL classrooms can be exercised and fruitful as long as teachers understand and appreciate the important role of using them, exhibit good character, have commitment and ability to employ, and use various teaching methods according to the language content they planned to practice in practical EFL classrooms. Secondly, as the researcher described in the statement of the problem, the worrying issue that calls for the necessity of this study was students' EFL achievement (teacher made tests and exams) designed from the textbook. Thirdly, the study also aimed at showing how those techniques are practically exercised using the tasks of the textbook in the process of EFL teaching. Fourthly, the selected units to employ motivational techniques were considerably sufficient to use the textbook as a teaching material so that the teachers could practically demand the study.

After selecting the material, the researcher himself was teaching the experimental group. This was done because he wanted to intensively employ the techniques with full commitment in line with his research intention. In addition, teaching the experimental group lasted in "sixteen" weeks as the stated time is enough to conduct the study.

Selected Motivational Techniques Employed for Experimental Group

The researcher employed the following motivational techniques in EFL classroom for experimental group. These are;

- ❖ Students were made to set their own goal they need to attain as a result of learning a language in general and set objectives for each lesson so that they would be purposeful in their learning with respect to the stated objectives in particular. However, to make students design effective goals and objectives, first students were let design their own goals/objectives. And checked whether they wrote vague goals such as improve my grammar, learn words, etc.

- ❖ Second, they were provided examples of specific objectives, for instance, explaining issues related to water shortage, reading a text and answering questions, practicing skimming a text and speed-reading, etc and let students design their own specific objectives based on the given examples. This was done as they can learn from the given examples and designing specific short-term goals/objectives for the lessons and let them more immediate, and therefore easier to focus on (Schunk and Swartz, 1993).

❖ Students were let involve in a small-group activities and pair work with appropriate group norms as it boost students' self-confidence and are excellent sources of motivation (Long and Porter, 1985). To do this, first the researcher explained that they would be effective if they work through the close collaboration and communication with their classmates. Then, he encouraged students to share experiences, to create healthy competition spirits amongst them, and remind them, as errors are natural parts of EFL learning.

❖ Students were given motivational feedback like let them correct themselves, peer corrections, or provide clear explanation of their language errors. They were helped to increase their satisfaction and encourage positive self-evaluation (Harries, 2010). In addition, they were verbal prized, encouraged when answer question, try to speak English, when try to speak and face a kind of problem, alternatives were given and so on. Their written activities were frequently assessed and given immediate feedbacks for homework, written assignments, etc.

❖ Students were encouraged to use English/the target language both inside and outside the classroom through providing various social issues for oral and written activities on sport events at the stadium like made them write a report on the events made during the celebration of "Arbecho's day", and on traditional, cultural events with respect to tasks available in the textbook. To do these, the researcher tried to give them the idea that English is extremely important in their academic life because they have been learning English and other courses in English. It is a medium of instruction. They were advised as English plays a vital role in some future careers to communicate in English. For instance, to be an engineer, medical doctor, computer system programmer, etc; they need to be good readers, speakers, listeners, and writers in English. Generally, he convinced them using English in/out of the classroom help them become effective in their future career in general and achieve their EFL achievement in particular.

❖ Not all students have the same experience of learning a language. One may interested to read, write, and other may prefer working in-group on different language skills. (Akberet, cited pintrich and schunk 2002). In order to keep all students motivated, the researcher gave them some notes (language inputs) to tasks they do so that students with different preference will each get time focused on things they like best. By doing so, the researcher could create an enjoyable English classroom atmosphere.

❖ Effective tasks must have some consequences or relevance to the students' language achievement (Pica and Doughty, 1985). To do this, the researcher let students learn by doing, writing, designing, and solving. Students' enthusiasm, involvement, and willingness to participate affect the quality of students' involvement as an opportunity for learning.

❖ Encourage interaction among the learners providing speech activities like asking them to collect information on current affairs that are related to the topics they were learning, to discuss about their like and dislikes, and so on through selecting interesting topics in addition to the topic found in their textbook. For example on section A11.6, there is a report writing section that students are expected to write a paragraph about NGO. First the researcher let them discuss in-group about NGOs, make them take out lists of sectors, which are working in FHI; Tach Gayint project from the mind map given in the textbook. After they put some of the sectors, he invited them to ask the organization about the sectors, number of projects, and budget flow. In addition to this writing section, students could also developed speaking as they had language inputs to make an interview.

❖ Recognize students' effort and achievement so that they can develop their personal confidence through providing oral or written rewards.

To do this, as the experiment was conducted after six months of the academic year, it helped the researcher to know the name of every student. So, when they participate, or let them involve in any activities, he called by their names, so that they felt being acknowledged.

The Controlled Group

While the experimental group was treated by selected motivational techniques discussed above based on the contents found in the textbook in the regular class hours, the controlled group was taught in usual classroom instruction that the above techniques were not employed.

Data Gathering Instruments

The main data gathering tool used to achieve the objective of this study were, document review and administering tests.

Document Review

Document i.e. students rooster was reviewed to know both groups (experimental and control) first semester EFL achievement before treatment. The rationales for using this tool were, first it helps to compare the current EFL achievement of the two groups. Second, instead of administering pretest, which is common for experimental research to study on specific skills, document was reviewed to relate with the aim of this study i.e. the effect of motivational techniques on students' EFL achievement (classroom tests and exams).

Test

Test was administered for both groups to see whether there was statically significant difference between the experimental and control groups after the experimental group was taught by selected strategies and control group was taught by the usual teaching practice/ instruction.

Data Gathering Procedures

As explained above, a document review-test design was conducted for this study.

To know whether students in both groups (experimental and control) are at the same level of EFL achievement, document (students' rooster) was reviewed. To do this, first the researcher got permission from the school director and students record officers. Then, the two groups' (experimental and control group) first semester score in English subject was recorded. After recording and arranging their score, it was set in excel to analyze in SPSS 20. The test was administered after the sixteen weeks consecutive teaching to measure the experimental group EFL achievement. And all the content of the test had been taken from their textbook during the training. Accordingly, the test was constructed on the basis of the principles of English testing methods of our school i.e. designing exams more than three items like matching, choice, control, guide, or free writing items with respect to integrating the whole language skills. To check its appropriateness, reduce the marking problems, and minimize personal bias so that the test would be reliable and valid, two English teachers of this grade level involved, as they were involved in the previous exam analyzed in the document review in particular and have experience in designing such tests in the process of teaching English in general.

Procedures of Data Analysis

The quantitative data from reviewed document and test were analyzed using an EXCEL spreadsheet. The analyses were made using mainly independent sample t test. They were meant to investigate whether there was any significant difference in EFL achievement test score between the two groups. Eventually, SPSS 20 version analysis were used to further refine the significance difference of the two groups using P value (sign 2-tailed) and the t- calculated with respect to the value of t-table.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE DATA

The purpose of the study was to examine the effect of motivational techniques on students EFL achievement and their perception towards motivational techniques.

In this chapter, an attempt is made to offer presentation of the result and discussion of the data collected using, document review, test, and questionnaire. The results obtained and discussions made afterwards are presented here under. In each sub-section, an attempt was made to present the data first and followed by a general discussion of the results at last.

Results of Document Review

As shown in chapter three, students level of English achievement were identified using their result they scored by referring students rooster (document) (see appendix H). Accordingly, the outcome from document review revealed that both groups (the experimental and study) groups were found at the same EFL achievement. The following table describes the data from the document review outcome.

Result from Descriptive Group Statistics of Document Review

Descriptive Group Statistics of Document Review

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control Group	40	51.32	7.26	1.14
Study Group	40	50.85	5.92	1.30

According to the above table, the result got from the mean value of the control and the study group was almost the same 51.32 and 50.85 correspondingly. Despite the fact that, it is impossible to say that there was noteworthy dissimilarity between the language achievements of both groups by only looking mean values of each group.

So as to know if there is a significance difference between the two groups, an independent samples t-test is sought. Table 3 below displays the results independent sample test of the document review result.

Results from Independent Sample t test of Document Review

Inferential Statistics of Document Review

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Document review result	Equal variance assumes	.273	.603	.322	78	.749	.475	1.47	2.49	3.41
	Equal variances not assumes			.322	75.17	.749	.475	1.47	2.46	3.41

The significance of t-table=2.000

According to Table-3, the P- value (level of significance) of the reviewed document for equality of variances is greater than 0.05 (sig=.603).

This clearly showed the row data should be taken for further analysis. Similarly, if the significance of t calculated is bigger or identical to the significance of t-table with a given level of freedom (df), we can infer that there is significant difference between the EFL achievement of the groups (experimental and control) being compared. Furthermore, if the value of t table is greater than the t-calculated, it is possible to generalize that the EFL achievement of both group is not significantly different. Likewise the significance difference of the two groups is true when the value of p is below 0.05 (*the cut point of significance*). On the other hand, we can say there is no significant difference when the value-p is bigger than 0.05. According to this, the calculated-t of the result from students rooster was less than the value of t-table with 78 degree of freedom (*calculated-t = 0.322, t-table = 2.000, df = .78, mean difference= 475*).

Accordingly, we can conclude that there was no significant difference between the language achievement level of the study group and the control group (p=0.322). It is, therefore, with this consideration that the rest of the study was carried out.

Test Result after Training

The experimental teaching, which lasted for eight consecutive weeks, was conducted on the basis of the selected motivational techniques for study group, and conventional EFL classroom (teachers’ usual instruction) that was practiced to the control group. Afterward, in order to measure the achievements of the both group (the study and the control) after treatment, the test was administered and t-test was selected for the statistical calculation of the score. The table below describes the group data of the test results of both groups.

Graphic Group data of the Test result

Graphic Group data of the Test result

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Test result	Control group	40	50.85	7.61	1.20
	Study group	40	61.55	6.69	1.05

Based on the above table, the mean scores of test administered after teaching the experimental group and the group which was teaching in the usual teaching method are 50.85 and 61.55 correspondingly. From this it is possible to understand that the achievement of the study group is greater than the control group (which was teaching in the usual teaching method)

Nonetheless, according to the above information, it is difficult to generalize by simply looking the differences of the mean score of the two groups.

As a result, looking the result of the independent sample t test is essential.

Independent Sample T-test of the Test Result

Inferential Statistics of Test Result

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Tests result of both groups	Equal variances assumed	.299	.586	6.67	78	.00	10.70	1.60	13.89	7.50
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.67	76.73	.00	10.70	1.603	13.89	7.50

As it is described above - in Table-5, the value of t-calculated was 6.67; it is greater than the value of t-table, 2.00 with 78 degree of freedom. The mean disparity between the test results of the study and the control group to be bring into being 10.70

At this point, the mean result of the experimental group is greater than the control group by the described value. As well as the value the value of p is 0.00 that is under 0.05 (the cut point of significance).

The above computed statistics of the test outcome assured that the EFL achievements of study and the control group are significantly different.

In view of that, the experimental group that was teaching by selected motivational techniques performed significantly higher than the control group taught in a conventional EFL classroom (teaching in usual classroom).

Thus, on the bases of the above data we can deduce that EFL teaching with selected motivational techniques employed for the experimental group in EFL classroom are effective than teaching by conventional (teaching in natural classroom) in the control group.

Hypothesis Testing

This study had two hypotheses that would be tested.

The null hypotheses (Ho) states, there will not be significant difference between the two groups (experimental and control) EFL achievement due to the motivational techniques employed to the study group.

The alternative hypotheses (H1), on the other hand, states that there will be significant difference between the groups

(experimental and control) EFL achievement due to the motivational techniques employed to the study group.

According to the statistical data obtained from descriptive group statistics and t-test (indicated in table 4 and 5), both groups (the experimental and control group) are significantly different which means the experimental group achieved by far more than the control group. Based on this, the void premise is discarded and the alternate premise is established ($p < 0.05$).

Besides the tested hypothesis above on the test result of the two groups, the result was also confirmed the theoretical sayings of the following authors. Such as Madrid's (2002) described that, the actions that take place in the classroom are likely to increase, maintain, students motivation. Motivation has long recognized as one of the key factors that determine the L2 achievement and attainment (Dornyei and Cheng 2007). Moreover, Cook (2009) also asserted that one reason for some L2 learners achieving better than the other is certainly, because they are better motivated.

IV. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

As it is shown in the test result above, a comparison has made in the EFL achievement of the experimental and the control group. The result of the EFL achievement of the experimental group is found by far greater than that of the control group one. Based on that, it is understood that there is a significance difference in the EFL achievement of the experimental group and the control group. The significance of difference is confirmed by statistics. As a result, it is logical to say this difference is the result of the motivational techniques employed for the experimental group.

V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATION

Summary

This study was mainly concerned with examining the effects of motivational techniques on students' EFL achievement. The study was conducted at Tatak Lessira Secondary and Preparatory School grade 11 2009 E.C academic year students. From the total of six sections, two were taken randomly and assigned one as experimental and other as a control group by lots to have independent chances to be selected. Referring to other researchers' work (Arey, Jacobs, and Rezavich, 2002; Gall, and Borg, 2003) recommendations, Haylay (2015) also recommended to use intact groups, or classes of students. Therefore, the researcher used quasi-experimental research for this study. To reach at valid conclusion, the researcher used document review i.e. students' rooster and test.

The main objective of reviewing the document was to know the EFL achievements of both groups before treatment. Finally, to look the improvements made by the experimental group, and compare with the control group (learning in the natural classroom instruction), test was administered for both groups. In order to see the significance level of the test result of both groups; descriptive and inferential statistics was computed.

The material used for both groups were the textbook in the regular class hours. Then, the experimental group was treated by the selected motivational techniques during the experiment; whereas the control group was taught in natural EFL teaching and learning process of the school.

The results of the reviewed document revealed that students' EFL achievement of both groups were almost at the same level before the experiment. However, after the treatment, students at the experimental group perform significantly higher than the control group because of the employed techniques.

Conclusions

Based on the results found, the following conclusions were made. The findings from the test results showed that the students in the experimental group made a statistically significant difference in their test result. From this, it can be implied that the selected motivational techniques have an effect on the improvements of students' EFL achievement.

Therefore, the alternative hypothesis (H1) of this study which states that there would be a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control group students in their EFL achievement as a result of the use of motivational techniques was accepted and the Null hypothesis (H0) which states that there would not be a statistically significant difference between the two groups in their test results due to the motivational techniques practiced in the experimental class was rejected.

Recommendations

Based on the above conclusions made from the findings, the following recommendations have been made.

- ❖ It is crucially helpful to make students aware that using motivational techniques would not be time consuming rather employing those techniques help them improve their EFL achievement
- ❖ When students' EFL achievement improved, teachers will have also a chance for further education; beneficiary in their career structure development and capable in any competition. Hence, this research recommends that they need to employ motivational techniques in EFL classroom.
- ❖ Teachers are strongly advised to support their learners learning process to maintain continuing motivation for the teachers' use of motivational techniques as it has a great importance in terms of increasing students' EFL achievement.
- ❖ Students should also cooperative when teachers practicing motivational techniques as they help them to improve their EFL achievement.
- ❖ What is more is the school should also fulfill the necessary preconditions for teachers and students' to use

motivational techniques exhaustively in EFL classroom. For instance, the number of students assigned for each section.

Conflicts of interest

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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A Critical Review of the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis: Theoretical, Conceptual and Empirical Issues

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Abstract—The Unaccusative Hypothesis (Perlmutter 1978; Burzio 1986) posits that intransitive verbs are not homogenous, but can be further divided into unaccusative verbs and unergative verbs. This distinction has ever since become a topic of heated discussion not only in the field of theoretical linguistics, but also in applied linguistics. Oshita (1997, 2001) proposes the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis to delineate the mental representation and developmental path of L2 acquisition of unaccusatives. This hypothesis suggests that unaccusatives are first misanalysed by L2 learners as unergatives and L2 learners have to undergo a three-stage process before they can truly acquire the distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives. This hypothesis also predicts a U-shaped pattern in the non-target passivization and avoidance of unaccusatives by L2 learners of different levels. This study is focused on the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis with L2 English as its main example. It first of all gives a lengthy account of this hypothesis by introducing its framework, foundations, content and predictions. Then it points out that the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis is theoretically innovative, but conceptually inadequate and empirically controversial. Finally, this study calls for more studies to test and improve the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis.

Index Terms—The Unaccusative Hypothesis, the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis, critical review

I. INTRODUCTION

The Unaccusative Hypothesis (hence shortened as the UH) was first proposed by Perlmutter (1978) in the framework of the Relational Grammar and later integrated by Burzio (1986) into the Government and Binding theory. This hypothesis suggests that intransitives are not a homogenous group, but can be further divided into two subgroups: unaccusatives and unergatives. Semantically, the sole Noun Phrase (hence shortened as NP) of unaccusatives plays the role of theme, while that of unergatives acts as the agent. Syntactically, the sole NP of unaccusatives is mapped to the object position at the D-structure, whereas that of unergatives falls onto the subject position at the D-structure. Therefore, the surface subject of unaccusatives is derived from the underlying object through the NP movement, while that of unergatives is base-generated as the subject. The differences between unaccusatives and unergatives can be seen more clearly by comparing them with transitives, as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
 THEMATIC AND STRUCTURAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN UNACCUSSATIVES, UNERGATIVES AND TRANSITIVES

	Unaccusatives	Unergatives	Transitives	
	The ball dropped.	The baby cried.	The baby dropped the ball.	
Thematic role	Theme	Agent	Agent	Theme
D-structure	Object	Subject	Subject	Object
S-structure	Subject	Subject	Subject	Object

With respect to the verb's argument structure, unaccusatives and unergatives are different from each other, despite the fact that both of them have only one argument. Again this difference between unaccusatives and unergatives becomes clearer when they are compared with transitives, as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
 ARGUMENT STRUCTURE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN UNACCUSSATIVES, UNERGATIVES AND TRANSITIVES

	Unaccusatives	Unergatives	Transitives
Argument structure	\emptyset (y)	x (\emptyset)	x (y)

In Table 2, X stands for the external argument, y the internal argument and \emptyset no argument. It can be seen that transitives have both an external argument and an internal argument. In contrast, unaccusatives have an internal argument but no external argument, whereas unergatives have an external argument but no internal argument.

According to Levin and Rappaport Hovav (1995), the distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives is semantically determined and syntactically represented. It is worth noting that the distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives is linguistically universal in that it exists not only in English, but also in other human languages such as Chinese. Of course, the specific syntactic manifestations of unaccusativity may vary with languages.

The distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives is not only a topic of heated discussion in theoretical linguistics, but also in the field of second language acquisition (hence shortened as SLA). As Deguchi and Oshita (2004) point out, the acquisition of unaccusatives is one of the most extensively studied L2 lexical issues. It is a topic that has been explored by many researchers in various combinations of L1 and L2, e.g., L2 English by L1 Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Italian, Spanish (Hirakawa, 2000; Hwang, 1999; Ju, 2000; Mo, 2012; Oshita 1997, 2000, 2001; Yip, 1995; Zobl, 1989), L2 Chinese by L1 English (Xue, 2007; Yuan, 1999), L2 Japanese by L1 English (Hirakawa, 2000), and L2 Spanish by L1 English and Turkish (Montrul, 1997, 2004, 2005).

As far as English as a second language (hence shortened as L2) is concerned, the distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives is not readily observable on the surface because both types of verbs canonically appear in the NP-V structure. Moreover, this distinction is not explicitly taught by L2 teachers. Therefore, it is of great importance to investigate whether L2 learners can acquire this distinction. Although it is generally agreed that L2 learners can acquire this distinction (Hirakawa, 2000; Oshita, 1997; Zobl, 1989), it is debatable when they can acquire it. Some researchers believe that L2 learners, guided by Universal Grammar (hence shortened as UG), are aware of this distinction from the very beginning of their L2 learning (Hirakawa, 2000; Mo, 2012; White, 2003). Others, however, argue that L2 learners are not aware of this distinction until they reach the intermediate stage of their L2 learning (Deguchi and Oshita, 2004; Oshita, 1997). They suggest that UG is not accessible in the initial stage of L2 acquisition of English unaccusatives.

II. UNACCUSATIVE-RELATED PHENOMENA IN L2 ENGLISH AND OTHER LANGUAGES

It is found that L2 learners tend to behave differently with English unaccusatives from unergatives. Oshita (2001) lists seven unaccusative-related phenomena in L2 English. Firstly, L2 learners tend to produce and accept ungrammatical and contextually inappropriate passive unaccusatives (e.g., **¹An accident was happened* or **The snow was melted*). This tendency is called passivization or overpassivization. It is the most conspicuous and most extensively studied unaccusative-related problem in SLA. Secondly, L2 learners are reluctant to accept unaccusatives presented in the canonical NP-V sentence (e.g., *A letter arrived* or *People's life expectancy has increased*). This tendency is called avoidance. It is much less observable than passivization, because it only surfaces in judgment tasks. Thirdly, L2 learners are more likely to produce or accept unaccusatives in the V+NP structures with or without an expletive (e.g., *There/*It/∅ happened an accident*). Fourthly, nontarget phenomena with unaccusatives are more noticeable among L2 learners at intermediate and even higher proficiency levels. Fifthly, unlike unaccusatives, unergatives are rarely passivized or used in postverbal NP structures, or judged as ungrammatical in the NP-V order. Sixthly, despite phenomena One to Five, most of the unaccusatives are used correctly in the target NP-V order. Seventhly, a U-shaped development is observed in the acquisition of unaccusatives, notably, with respect to the avoidance phenomenon.

It is also found that L2 learners tend to make the distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives in Chinese, Japanese, Spanish and other target languages. For example, L2 learners tend to associate the V-NP order more with Chinese unaccusatives than unergatives when the NP is indefinite.

III. OVERVIEW OF THE UNACCUSATIVE TRAP HYPOTHESIS

The Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis (hence shortened as the UTH) is important for two reasons. First, it attempts to bring several unaccusative-related interlanguage phenomena together. Second, it is the first hypothesis to address the developmental path of L2 acquisition of unaccusatives.

A. Framework

According to Sorace (2000), the Principles and Parameters Theory is still the most productive framework for the research on the syntax-semantics interface, despite the advent of the Minimalist Program (Chomsky, 1995). Since unaccusativity is a typical case of the semantics-syntax interface (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995), Oshita (1997) situated the UTH within the framework of the Principles and Parameters Theory (Chomsky, 1981). The Principles and Parameters Theory assumes that the structure of natural language grammar has lexical and syntactic components. An overall outline of such a structure is schematized in Figure 1.

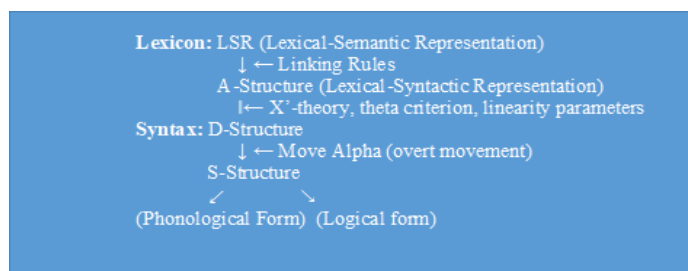


Figure 1. Structure of Grammar (Oshita, 1997)

¹ Note: The * symbol stands for an error.

Figure 1 shows that grammar consists of two major components: lexicon and syntax. The lexicon contains the semantic and syntactic information of lexical items. According to Pinker (1989) and Levin and Rappaport Hovav (1995), the Lexical-Semantic Representation (hence shortened as LSR), which encodes the syntactically relevant aspects of verb meaning, is a conflation of semantic primitive elements such as ACT, CAUSE, GO, and STATE. The Lexical-Syntactic Representation, which is typically called an argument structure (hence shortened as A-Structure), encodes the syntactically relevant argument-taking properties of a verb. It contains information such as the number of arguments required by the verb and their relationship with the verb as external or internal argument.

The LSR does not map to the A-structure directly, but through the mediation of linking rules. According to Pinker (1989), linking rules are “mechanisms that create the syntactic argument structures associated with a given thematic core” (p. 74). For example, agent is linked to subject and theme of a causative verb to object. Pinker suggests that linking rules are universal and can be applied to different languages. They form part of the innate knowledge of mankind.

The syntax contains information about how the arguments in the argument structure are represented at the syntactic level in terms of grammatical relations. There are two levels of syntactic representations: the D-structure and the S-structure. According to Oshita (1997), the D-structure is the initial syntactic representation to which arguments of A-Structure are projected, while the S-structure representation is obtained by movement of constituents from one syntactic position to another. Phonological form is the level at which representations include only phonetic features, while logical form is the level at which representations include only semantic features (Radford, 2000). They are enclosed in parentheses because they, according to Oshita (1997), are irrelevant to the issue of unaccusativity.

B. Foundations

The foundations of the UTH lie in linking rules, which are responsible for mapping the LSR to the A-structure. According to Levin and Rappaport Hovav (1995), there are four types of linking rules: the Immediate Cause Linking Rule, the Directed Change Linking Rule, the Existence Linking Rule, and the Default Linking Rule. These linking rules apply to verbs of different semantics.

The Immediate Cause Linking Rule posits that “the argument of a verb that denotes the immediate cause of the eventuality described by that verb is its external argument” (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 135). This rule applies to unergatives such as *laugh*, as shown in Figure 2.

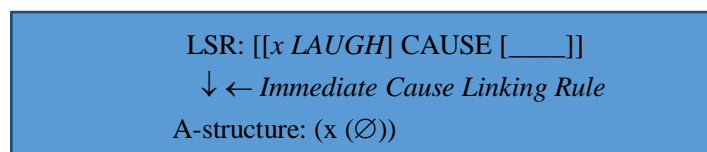


Figure 2. Lexicon of Unergatives Mediated by the Immediate Cause Linking Rule (Oshita, 1997)

In the LSR of the unergative verb *laugh*, the entity x is immediately responsible for the laughing event. Therefore, it is projected as the external argument (x) of the verb.

The Directed Change Linking Rule posits that “the argument of a verb that corresponds to the entity undergoing the directed change described by that verb is its internal argument” (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 146). This rule applies to unaccusatives of directed motion such as *fall*, as shown Figure 3.

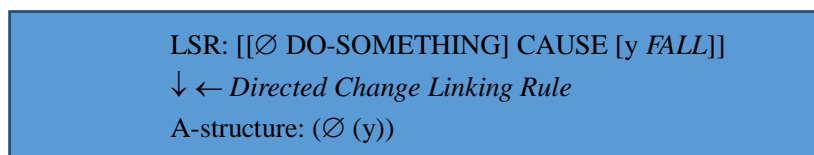


Figure 3. Lexicon of Unaccusatives Mediated by the Directed Change Linking Rule (Oshita, 1997)

In the LSR of the unaccusative verb *fall*, the entity y is not the causer of the falling event, but simply undergoes the directed motion. Therefore, it is projected as the internal argument (y) of the verb.

The Existence Linking Rule posits that “the argument of a verb whose existence is asserted or denied is its internal argument” (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 153). This rule applies to unaccusative verbs of existence and appearance or disappearance, as shown in Figure 4 and Figure 5 respectively.

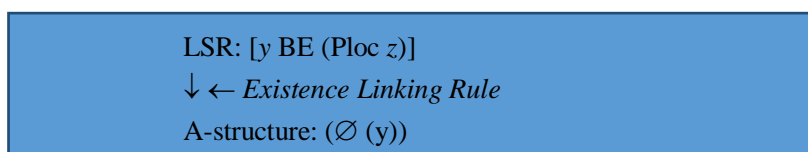


Figure 4. Lexicon of Unaccusatives (existence) Mediated by the Existence Linking Rule (Oshita, 1997)

LSR: [y COME TO (not) BE (Ploc z)]
 ↓ ← *Existence Linking Rule*
 A-structure: (∅ (y))

Figure 5. Lexicon of Unaccusatives (appearance/disappearance) Mediated by Existence Linking Rule (Oshita, 1997)

In both cases, *z* is a non-obligatory argument, which stands for a spatial or temporal location and normally appears with a preposition in syntactic structures. The entity *y* in the LSRs of both the existence verbs and the verbs of appearance or disappearance is projected as the internal argument (*y*) in their A-structures.

The Default Linking Rule posits that “[a]n argument of a verb that does not fall under the scope of any of the other linking rules is its direct internal argument” (Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 1995, p. 153). It applies to verbs that are not covered by any of the other three linking rules.

Levin and Rappaport Hovav suggest that these linking rules are universal and innate. They project all unergative verbs as (*x* (∅)) at the A-structure and all unaccusative verbs as (∅ (*y*)) at the A-structure, in spite of the great semantic differences within each verb class.

Oshita (1997) argues that the linking rules posited by Levin and Rappaport Hovav are effective for L1 acquisition, but are not fully applicable to L2 acquisition. He posits the Single Argument Linking Rule, which hypothesizes that “the single obligatory nominal argument of a verb is its external argument” (p. 220). Oshita notes that this linking rule is not innate or correct because it only takes notice of the number of arguments that a verb takes, but is insensitive to semantic notions such as immediate causation or directed change that the argument denotes.

Figure 6 and Figure 7 illustrate how the Single-Argument Linking Rule projects the A-structures of unergatives and unaccusatives, using *laugh* and *fall* as examples.

LSR: [[*x* LAUGH] CAUSE [____]]
 ↓ ← *Single Argument Linking Rule*
 A-structure: (*x* (∅))

Figure 6. Lexicon of Unergatives Mediated by the Single Argument Linking Rule (Oshita, 1997)

LSR: [[∅ DO-SOMETHING] CAUSE [*y* FALL]]
 ↓ ← *Single Argument Linking Rule*
 A-structure: (*y* (∅))

Figure 7. Lexicon of Unaccusatives Mediated by the Single Argument Linking Rule (Oshita, 1997)

The A-structure in Figure 6 is the same as the one in Figure 2. In contrast, the A-structure in Figure 7 is critically different from the one in Figure 3 because what should be projected as the verb’s internal argument is now in the external argument position. It is evident that the Single Argument Linking Rule does not affect the A-structure of unergatives negatively, but generates a wrong A-structure for unaccusatives. Specifically speaking, it subsumes unaccusatives under unergatives by projecting identical unergative A-structures for both.

Oshita attributes the occurrence of the non-target Single Argument Linking Rule to the fact that both types of intransitives, namely unaccusatives and unergatives, canonically appear in the NP-V word order in the input. He suggests that L2 learners might be deceived by the surface similarity between unaccusatives and unergatives, failing to perceive the semantic difference between the argument of unaccusatives and that of unergatives.

C. Contents

The UTH is a three-stage developmental model. At the first stage, L2 learners fail to distinguish unaccusatives from unergatives, due to the non-target Single Argument Linking Rule. Oshita calls it a stage of lexical confusion, because unaccusatives are misanalyzed and misrepresented as unergatives, as shown in Figure 8.

LSR Correct
 ↓ ← *Single Argument Linking Rule
 A-Structure Incorrect
 ||
 D-Structure Incorrect

Figure 8. First Stage of the UTH (Oshita, 1997)

The incorrect A-structure affects the subsequent syntactic derivations. The D-structure and S-structure are both incorrect, because what should be projected as the verb's object at the D-structure is represented as its subject, and there is no trace in the object position at the S-structure. Paradoxically, this misrepresentation of unaccusatives as unergatives enables the learners to use unaccusatives without any apparent difficulties, because it exclusively generates the superficially target-like NP-V word order. For this reason, the learners' grammar at this stage appears to be observationally adequate.

At the second stage, L2 learners become awakened to the natural linking rules such as the ones posited by Levin and Rappaport Hovav (1995). They replace the non-target Single Argument Linking Rule with the target ones and correctly reanalyze unaccusatives as verbs with an internal argument but no external argument. This reanalysis, however, presents them with a new challenge concerning syntactic derivations of sentences with unaccusative verbs. According to the Extended Projection Principle, every finite English sentence must have a subject at the S-structure (Chomsky, 1981). Therefore, the syntactic challenge facing L2 learners is to map a D-structure with an object but no subject onto a plausible S-structure. For this reason, Oshita calls this second stage a stage of syntactic confusion, as shown in Figure 9.

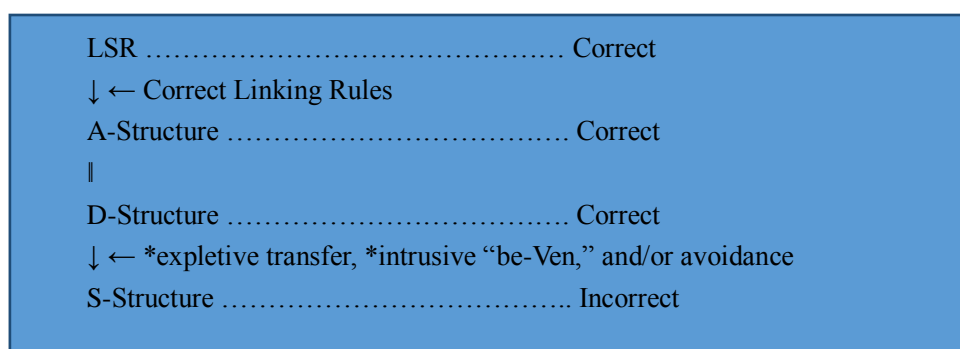


Figure 9. Second Stage of the UTH (Oshita, 1997)

Oshita suggests that there are three possible syntactic solutions for L2 learners. The first one is to transfer an expletive from the lexicon of L1 and insert it in the S-structure subject position (e.g., **Came a strange man* or **It came a strange man*). This transferred expletive may be null or overt. But this solution is only possible for L2 learners whose L1 contains such a lexical item. The second solution is to move the NP argument generated in the D-structure object position to the S-structure subject position. In doing so, however, some L2 learners overgeneralize the passive rule to overtly mark this NP movement. This results in the passivization of unaccusatives (e.g., **A strange man was arrived*). The third solution is to avoid unaccusatives in the canonical NP-V word order. The avoidance is caused by the learners' strong association a direct internal argument with the verb's object position.

Oshita suggests that when L2 learners unlearn these three non-target syntactic operations, they reach the third and final stage of grammatical development with respect to unaccusatives. That is, they are out of confusion both lexically and syntactically. They become native-like in the generation of unaccusative constructions, as shown in Figure 9.

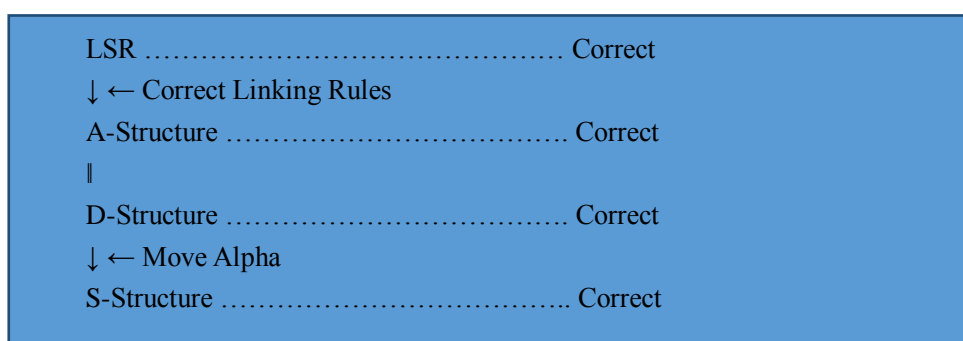


Figure 10. Third Stage of the UTH (Oshita, 1997)

To sum up, the UTH divides L2 acquisition of English unaccusatives into three stages. At the first stage, unaccusatives are misanalyzed by L2 learners as unergatives at both the lexical and syntactic levels. At the second stage, the lexical representations of the unaccusatives become correct, but the syntactic representations of these verbs are still wrong. At the third stage, unaccusatives are correctly analyzed and represented at both the lexical and syntactic levels. It must be noted that although the introduction of the UTH is exemplified with L2 English (Oshita, 1997), this hypothesis is also applicable to L2 acquisition of unaccusatives in other target languages (Oshita, 2001). As different target languages have different syntactic rules for unaccusatives, the non-target interlanguage phenomena in L2 Chinese or other languages won't be the same as those observed in L2 English. Such differences won't affect the validity of the UTH.

D. Predictions

Based on his UTH, Oshita (2001) made five general predictions on the grammatical development of interlanguage systems. Prediction One is summarized as common syntactic behaviors of unaccusatives and unergatives. It states that learners at low and even intermediate levels of L2 proficiency will use these two types of intransitives in the same syntactic environment. Prediction Two is summarized as unique syntactic errors with unaccusatives. It states that syntactic errors are more likely to afflict unaccusatives than unergatives, because the former is subject to initial misanalysis and later reorganization while the latter is not. Prediction Three is about the timing of the appearance of unique syntactic errors. It states that syntactic errors exclusively observed with unaccusatives should become apparent only after this verb class is correctly distinguished from the unergative class. Prediction Four is about the attainment of unaccusative-specific target syntactic structures. It states that the target syntactic structures possible only with unaccusatives can be fully acquired only after the two classes of intransitives are correctly differentiated from each other. Prediction Five is about the developmental patterns. It states that U-shaped developmental patterns may emerge with respect to particular target syntactic structures.

IV. CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE UTH

A. Theoretical Innovation

The UTH is an important theoretical endeavor in SLA in that it is the only theory that addresses the L2 representation and development of unaccusatives. The other two relevant theories are the Unaccusative Hypothesis, which posits the split between unaccusatives and unergatives, and the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis, which suggests that different unaccusatives have different strengths of unaccusativity. These two theories were first put forward in the field of theoretical linguistics and later proved to be psychologically real by the evidence of L2 learners (Oshita, 1997, 2001; Montrul, 2004, 2005). Therefore, they are not SLA theories in the strict sense. The UTH, however, is specially proposed to unveil the L2 acquisition process of unaccusatives. Given the fact that no SLA theories have done this before, it is safe to say that the UTH is a rare, precious theoretical effort.

The UTH is innovative in that it attempts to bring several unaccusative-related interlanguage phenomena together and explain them within one unified theory. That is, all the non-target interlanguage phenomena stem from the unique semantic and syntactic properties of unaccusatives, the L2 acquisition of which undergoes a three-stage process of semantic confusion, syntactic misrepresentation and full acquisition. The inclusiveness of the UTH is important because it shows that the seemingly separate issues are actually related to each other and have deep, intertwining reasons. Philosophically speaking, it is an attempt to move beyond the surface of the issues under investigation so as to reach the essence of theirs. Therefore, the UTH is a bold step in the right direction as far as the theoretical construction of the SLA is concerned.

B. Conceptual Inadequacy

According to Chomsky (1995), the grammar comprises a lexicon and a computational system which has independent modules such as syntax, phonology, morphology and semantics. However, the understanding of the human language also depends on the given context or grammatical situation. Based on the work of White (2009, 2011a, 2011b), Rothman and Slabakova (2011) provide a visual conceptualization of L2 knowledge and interfaces as shown in Figure 11.

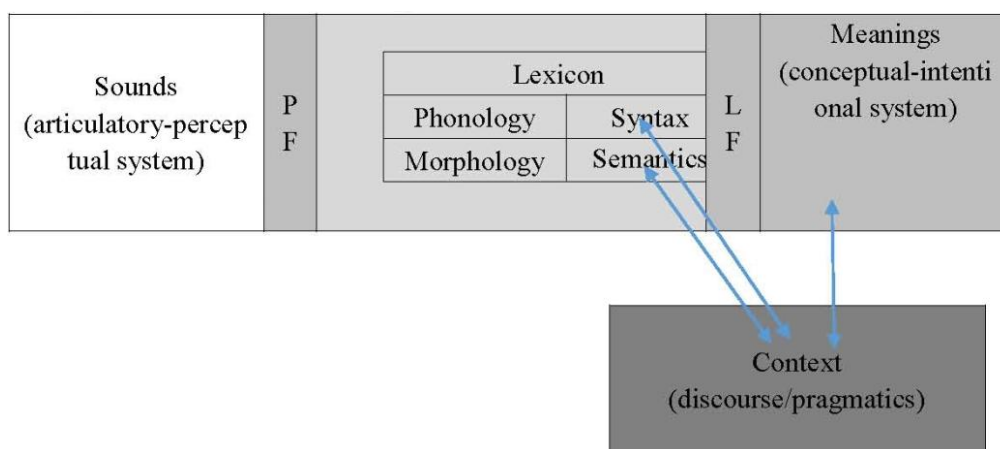


Figure 11. L2 Knowledge and Interfaces (Rothman and Slabakova, 2011)

The interfaces in grammar can be divided into grammar internal interface and grammar external interface. The former refers to the syntax-semantic interface and lexicon-syntax interface, while the latter involves syntax-discourse interface, semantics-discourse interface and others. The Interface Hypothesis (Sorace and Filiaci, 2006; Sorace and Serratrice, 2009) suggests that the interfaces are all problematic for L2 learners, but not in the same way. The grammar

external interface may pose a greater challenge to L2 learners than the grammar internal interface.

Situated in the framework of the Principles and Parameters Theory, the UTH views the L2 acquisition of unaccusatives as an issue at the lexicon-syntax interface. Therefore, it falls into the category of the grammar internal interface or narrow interface. It does not examine the issue at other interfaces. This may become the conceptual inadequacy of the UTH.

Since the UTH is only concerned with the grammar internal interface, it tends to view unaccusative-related interlanguage phenomena only as lexical confusions and syntactic difficulties, excluding the potential influence of other factors. Take the overpassivization of unaccusatives in L2 English for example. The UTH suggests that the passivization of English unaccusatives is caused by L2 learners' attempt to mark the NP from the D-structure to the S-structure with the English passive morphology *be+Ven*. However, many other studies have shown that the picture is much more complicated in that factors other than the syntax are also involved. The contributing factors to the overpassivization may include discourse context (external causation), semantics (subject animacy), L1 morphology (verb alternation), so on and so forth (Ju, 2000; Chung, 2016; No and Chung, 2006; Zhao and Ge, 2017).

C. Empirical Controversy

Although numerous studies have been conducted on L2 acquisition of unaccusatives, most of them are focused on overpassivization. Only a few of them attempted to test the validity of the UTH only to arrive at mixed results.

Deguchi and Oshita (2004) tested the validity of the UTH by focusing on avoidance and passivization in L2 English. They administered a grammaticality judgment task to four groups of Japanese learners: elementary, low-intermediate, intermediate and advanced. They found that the low-proficiency learners did not distinguish between unaccusatives and unergatives while mid-proficiency learners did. However, the mid-proficiency learners made the unaccusative/unergative distinction in passivization but not in avoidance. In other words, the acceptance of the passive structure emerged before the tendency to reject the active unaccusative sentence. This occurrence order was opposite to the UTH, which suggests that passivization is a subsequent development of avoidance. Deguchi and Oshita took this as evidence that the UTH needed to be revised. With respect to the developmental patterns, the prediction based on the UTH was disconfirmed because no U-shape was found. Deguchi and Oshita attributed the lack of U-shape to the poor composition of the low and low-intermediate learners and the wrong conceptualization of U-shape. They did not consider it as a serious challenge to the UTH. In short, Deguchi and Oshita concluded that the UTH was verified, but it needed to be revised with respect to the timing of appearance of avoidance and passivization. However, they did not suggest how to revise it.

Xue (2007) tested the UTH by seeking evidence from L2 Chinese. He investigated how native speakers of English acquired Chinese unaccusatives. He administered a written production task and a grammaticality judgment task to L2 learners of low, intermediate and advanced levels. Results of these tasks showed that most of the low- and even intermediate level L2 learners treated unaccusatives and unergatives in that they associate both types of verbs with the NP+V structure, but not with the V+NP structure. This suggests that these L2 learners did not syntactically distinguish unaccusatives from unergatives in that both types of intransitives are syntactically represented as unergatives. When reaching the final stage, not all, but only some advanced learners showed a native-like mastery of Chinese unaccusative usages. These findings supported the UTH's predictions that L2 learners tend to misanalyze unaccusatives as unergatives at the initial stage and the target-like grammar becomes attainable only after they correct this misanalysis. When it comes to the developmental patterns, however, Xue found that the overall performance of the intermediate learners was not significantly worse than that of the low-level learners. Therefore, a plough-shaped instead of a U-shaped developmental route is observed. In brief, Xue's study basically supported the UTH, but questioned the existence of the three-stage U-shaped developmental pattern.

Purdy (2010) sought evidence for the UTH by conducting an event-related potential (ERP) study to investigate whether neural responses changed with increasing proficiency. Three groups of Chinese learners of English, who were measured to low, intermediate and advanced in English, were shown grammatical sentences containing passive, unergative, or unaccusative verbs, and ungrammatical sentences containing incorrectly passivized unaccusative and unergative verbs. The low-level Chinese learner group responded similarly to violations of unaccusative grammaticality and violations of unergative grammaticality, suggesting that they, as predicted by the UTH, did not distinguish between unaccusative and unergative sentences. The intermediate group, however, showed no difference between processing streams for unergative versus unaccusative stimuli, which did not conform to the prediction of the UTH. The advanced group showed no difference in their response time to violations of unaccusative grammaticality and violations of unergative grammaticality, thus lending support to the prediction of the UTH. In addition, since the intermediate group did not perform any worse than the low-level group in the test, there did not exist a U-shaped curve across the three learner groups. The unexpected performance of the intermediate group and the non-existence of the U-shaped pattern led Purdy to conclude that the UTH was only partially supported.

Mo (2012) used a written production task and a grammaticality judgment task to investigate the passivization, avoidance, postverbal NP and transitivization issues among Chinese L2 learners of low, lower-intermediate, intermediate and advanced levels. He found that the low and lower-intermediate learners distinguished between unaccusative verbs and unergative verbs in terms of passivization, avoidance, postverbal NP and transitivization. The intermediate learners made the distinction in passivization, postverbal NP and transitivization, but not in avoidance,

whereas the advanced learners made the distinction in postverbal NP, but not in passivization, avoidance and transitivization. That is to say, the low and lower-intermediate learners can distinguish between unaccusatives and unergatives at the A-structure and the D-structure, but haven't established the correct S-structure for unaccusative verbs. The intermediate and advanced learners can not only establish the correct A-structure and the D-structure for unaccusative verbs, but also the correct S-structure. The intermediate learners lag behind the advanced learners in establishing the correct syntactic structures for unaccusative verbs. Mo concluded that Chinese learners started to acquire the distinction between English unaccusative verbs and unergative verbs at the low level. This finding runs counter to the first prediction of the UTH that low-level L2 learners can't make the distinction. In addition, Mo didn't find any U-shaped pattern in any non-target phenomenon among Chinese L2 learners.

V. CONCLUSION

This study is focused on the UTH, which is proposed by Oshita (1997, 2001) to describe and predict L2 acquisition of unaccusatives. After introducing the framework, foundations, content and predictions of the UTH, this study conducts a critical review of this hypothesis and arrives at three findings. First, the UTH marks a theoretical breakthrough in SLA in that it makes an initiative attempt to integrate several seemingly unrelated interlanguage phenomena of L2 unaccusatives in one framework and explain their mechanisms in a related way. Second, the UTH is conceptually narrow, because it limits the L2 acquisition of unaccusatives to syntactic difficulties. Now many researchers have begun to undertake a multi-factorial approach to investigate this issue. Third, the UTH has only received partial support from empirical studies. The elusiveness of the U-shaped development has caused a lot of controversies.

More studies are needed in the future to test the validity of the UTH or to revise it. Three suggestions can be made for them. First, more studies should focus on the low-level L2 learners to see if they, as claimed by the UTH, misanalyse unaccusatives as unergatives. As the low-level L2 learners are associated with the first stage of the UTH, their performance will be crucial to the verification or falsification of this hypothesis. The importance of the first stage to this hypothesis can be seen from the fact that three out of the five predictions made by the UTH are concerned with the first stage. Second, future studies should compare L2 learners of different levels to see if they follow a U-shaped developmental pattern in their acquisition of unaccusatives. Finally, future studies are advised to investigate the online processing of unaccusatives and unergatives by L2 learners. With the development of science and technologies, research methods should be updated so as to collect new types of data to examine the long-standing disputed issue in a more in-depth way.

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Dealing with Anxiety in Foreign Language Learning Classroom

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Abstract—Anxiety is a major factor that handicap learners' cognition in learning. Learners in foreign language learning (FL) suffer from anxiety due to various reasons. Studies found that higher level of anxiety affects the learning process and lowers down learning motivation. In light of research literature, this paper aims at finding out the most serious reasons of FL learning anxiety and its effects on learners' FL learning process. The study draws on the existing scholarship in the theorizing for anxiety in FL learning settings. The study followed the qualitative method of research. The findings reveal that anxiety negatively affects the learning and achievements of students. This study also suggests effective techniques to help learners get rid of FL learning anxiety in classroom situation.

Index Terms— anxiety, motivation, foreign language

I. INTRODUCTION

Anxiety is as old as human being himself due to life's demand and pressures at least to fulfill his primary needs. It can be productive if it does not exceed certain limits, but to go beyond the positive lines, it becomes destructive. In the context of education students have anxiety in the different stages of his studies. As this study concerned, it tackles the issue of the anxiety in foreign language learning classroom. Anxiety in general may be termed as a psychological or physiological state resulting from physical, emotional, behavioral and cognitive factors. Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1983) define it as "a psychological construct, commonly described by psychologists as a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object". When learning a foreign or second language is concerned, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986 & 1991) viewed it as a complex and multidimensional phenomenon of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to FL classroom learning. It is the worry and arousal of negative emotional reaction during second language learning (MacIntyre, 1999 as cited in Lucas, Miraflores and Go, 2011).

Horwitz (2001) classifies anxiety into three distinct categories: trait anxiety, state anxiety and situation-specific anxiety. FL anxiety is 'situation-specific' (MacIntyre, 1998) and it is negatively correlated to FL learning achievement (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994; Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1986). Anxiety, one of the major affective factors, does not function independently, rather it functions interdependently. It is related to learners' other personality traits too, for example introvert learners are found having more anxiety issues than extrovert ones (Brown, Robson & Rosenkjar, 2001). Gardner in his socio-educational model correlates anxiety with attitude and motivation paradigm, whereas Chao (2003) finds significant correlation between emotional intelligence and FL anxiety. Learners with anxiety fail to demonstrate their FL linguistic competence properly. (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994). Dorney (2005) mentions anxiety as one of the vital factors that shape learners' success in mastering an FL.

Anxiety may be understood through some external symptoms such as hesitation, verbal staggering, perspiration, increased heartbeat, confusion, tension, inconsistent speech, and so on. In some cases, they seem to hesitate, shake, choke and to some extent lose psychological and physical control. Anxiety leads to participatory inhibition. In FL classroom, anxiety-stricken students lose confidence and isolate them from the participating students. Liu and Jackson (2008) found significant correlation between students FL anxiety and their unwillingness to communicate.

Thus Anxiety is understood as suffering or distress to the mind caused by fear of danger that threatens the person. General anxiety is an extreme stress about day-to-day matters. It is more imaginative and it dominates the way we think about work, study, people, and daily activities in the different aspects of life. As foreign language anxiety is concerned, different scholars look at it from different perspective. It has become of great significance to solve the problems that hinder the achievement of the students in learning a foreign language especially where no environment for practicing the language. The interest in overcoming foreign language anxiety experienced by learners is urgent and a must as a scarce literature and studies are available on such topic. It is a real problem that deters our efforts as teachers of English language teaching the language in a foreign language setting. Therefore, a study as such is of a great interest.

II. RATIONALE

The main objective of this study was to find out if EFL learners afraid and worried while learning FL in the classroom and other different education settings. It is an attempt to address the causes and consequences of such feeling as observed in the behavior of students while responding to questions, participating in the classroom activities or answering exam. It means that the study is trying to explore the reasons behind the different types of negative feelings that characterize the behavior of students with distress in FL learning classroom. The other significant objective of this study was to give more importance to the to the most common causes of FL learning anxiety ranging from test anxiety to strict classroom environment, through the cultural background, to the interference of the mother tongue, fear of negative evaluation, perfectionist tendency, learners' stylistic preferences, personality traits and ending with learners' linguistic capacity. The study is to provide the teachers as well as the learners with feedback about how to deal with anxiety in FL learning classroom in different situation. The findings of this study will help those interested in FL teaching and learning to find out the proper treatment for the problems addressed in this study. The important objective of this study was to find the most common factors beyond anxiety of learners in FR classroom and the extent these factors play in hindering the roles of learners, teachers, parents, and educators. This study followed the qualitative research methods, the teacher's reflexive experience, with the inclusion of the findings of the existing scholarship. The study is an attempt to contribute to the understanding of the causes of the anxiety of learners in FL classroom and hereby to address the possible solutions for such a disappointing educational problem taking in consideration how this anxiety affect the achievement of students and hinder the efforts of teachers from realizing the educational goals.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study is conducted to answer two main questions: What are the most common factors that causes of anxiety for learners in foreign language classroom? How to deal with the factors that cause anxiety in FL classroom and overcome their consequences?

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The problem of anxiety of learners in classroom has been addressed largely by researches as it affects the overall outcomes of education and likewise for learners of a foreign language that was a need to investigate the issue of anxiety. The need for such a study is an increasing demand for learners, teachers, parents and educators as well. Learning a foreign language has become a demand in many countries all over the world and this increasing interest is faced by challenges of which anxiety in classroom is the most dominant question. The problem anxiety of learners in a FL classroom can be due to many factors as previous studies concluded such as test anxiety, strict classroom environment, cultural background, interference of the mother tongue, fear of negative evaluation, perfectionist tendency, learners' stylistic preferences, personality traits and learners' linguistic capacity. This study gets its importance from addressing these issues and gives the solutions on how to reduce and/or overcome the negative impact of the factors that causes anxiety for learners of FL in the classroom. The result of this study will contribute into how to make the classroom an educational environment for foreign language learners without anxiety. More importantly, this study introduces Pedagogical implications regarding classroom environment and giving feedback and thus helping the teachers and learners equally have less distressed classroom environment.

V. CAUSES OF FL ANXIETY

To address the first question of the study it has been found that there are several major factors that commonly cause anxiety in foreign language learning classroom. FL anxiety is a very crucial issue that has to be taken seriously in order to facilitate FL learning. Undoubtedly it is a complex mental phenomenon and no specific reason can be referred to this phenomenon as it stems from multiple interrelated issues. In this paper we are going to mention some most common causes of FL learning anxiety.

Test anxiety: Test anxiety is one of the major problems faced by learners in general and learners of foreign languages in particular. This problem comes to the surface ant time during the academic year whenever a teacher announces for an evaluation or test. It is one of the most common and serious anxiety types in language learning especially in academic context relating to the fear of failing a test. Several studies asserted the negative effects of anxiety on students in the exam settings which make them feel worried, afraid and confused while responding to the exam questions. Students sometimes set unrealistic goal and thus add more pressure to their overall academic stress (Kralova and Petrova, 2017). Most of the learners participating in different FL anxiety studies reported to suffer much from anxiety when they are to take a formal test or put into any formal evaluative situation. According to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), FL anxiety reaches its highest degree in a test context. They are tensed about making mistakes in front of their classmates, getting corrected by the teacher in front of others, and getting their performance published openly.

Strict classroom environment: Strict formal classroom environment is a significant reason of anxiety (Hashemi, 2011) which leaves debilitating effect on learners' motivation and leads to further anxiety. If the teacher is too judgmental, and harsh, it might lead to learning anxiety in FL classroom (Samimy, 1994; & Aida, 1994, as cited in Lucas, Miraflores and Go, 2011). Instead of harsh and non-cooperative teacher's approach, students expect some

positive and supportive response and feedback from the teachers. Palacios (1998) further states that teachers' unsupportive attitude, lack of sympathy and time for individual attention makes it increasingly difficult for learners to cope with the FL classroom situations which leads to higher degree of FL learning anxiety. Young (1994) claims that the teachers' unnatural methods of error correction, interaction and other classroom procedural issues might arouse learners' FL anxiety.

Cultural background: Learners' socio-cultural background is said to impact in creating anxiety when found widely distant from target language socio-cultural background. Horwitz (2001) emphasized that the cultural differences should be kept in mind during the classroom practice as it may potentially lead to learners' anxiety. For example, Ohata (2005) investigated FL anxiety in Japanese context and revealed that Japanese cultural norms or expectations influence the emotional difficulties and English learning anxiety of Japanese learners. In expressing ideas, Japanese are hesitant, not assertive; and this culturally developed tendency seems to cause anxiety in their communication with their fellow learners and others. A similar case can be referred to Saudi Arabian context as Mohamed and Omer (2000) mentions the Arabs' implicit way of communication, in which the speakers expect others to understand the hidden message of their speech. This non-expressive, implicit and introvert style may pave the way to communication apprehension which is characterized by the fear and anxiety in maintaining communication with others.

First language interference: In monolingual FL context where FL has no real life use and necessity, learners are supposed to have higher degree of FL anxiety. In such context classroom is the only place where the learners have opportunity to practice FL, but ironically they show little enthusiasm in grabbing that limited opportunity; rather they prefer to continue in their L1. They find it stressful communicating in FL owing to its no practical out of class use. For example in Saudi Arabia, though the importance of English as an FL is on the rise, it has very little practice in social contexts.

Fear of negative evaluation: Learning an FL is a "profoundly unsettling psychological proposition" (Guiora, 1983: 8) and evaluation intensifies it. Fear of negative evaluation, let it be by their fellow learning peers or by the instructors, is one of the major anxiety-causing factors. Worde (2003) defined it as learners' anticipation of being judged negatively in any situation. Language classroom is always anxiety-causing for the students because it involves constant competition and regular evaluation of learners' competence and performance. They are scared of being negatively judged by their peers and teachers and so, they prefer to avoid evaluative situations (Lucas, Miraflores and Go, 2011), and also in classroom situations they are highly disinclined in responding to evaluative questions, participating in discussion or making an oral presentation and rather remain silent (Liu, 2006).

Perfectionist tendency: Perfectionist tendency from both teachers' and students' sides lead to learning anxiety. Many classroom situations demand perfect response from the learners and create learners' anxiety (Hashemi, 2011). Apart from demanding perfect classroom responses, assignments, tight schedules, obligations to meet certain course requirements, producing overall whole class better test score are the other factors that pressurize a teacher, and this pressure automatically passes to the learners. On the other hand, students' concentrating on absolute accuracy in order to achieve outstanding test scores stresses themselves and suffer from anxiety. **Learners' stylistic preferences:** It is a covert truth that a match between learners' learning style and teachers' teaching style should go hand in hand for better output in FL classroom situations. Teachers' sensitivity of the learners' learning styles and difficulties is important, and lack of such sensitivity may cause FL anxiety. Oxford (1999) terms such mismatch of learners' learning styles and teachers' teaching style as 'style wars', and anticipates that this 'style wars' may lead to a rise in FL learners' anxiety.

Personality traits: Personality traits such as being extrovert or introvert play significant role in FL anxiety. This extrovert-introvert dichotomy has grabbed the attention of the experts in the area of psycholinguistics. Extroverts by default like to talk, socialize and take risk. They care little about others' criticism and judgment. Introverts on the other hand avoid participating in discussion, socialization, and in fact, they prefer to isolate themselves from others. Studies such as Brown, Robson & Rosenkjar (2001) discloses that introverts suffer more from FL anxiety compared to extroverts.

Learners' linguistic capacity: Though learners' FL anxiety may be analyzed in terms of individual language skills such as reading, writing (Saito et al., 1999) and listening (Elkhafifi, 2005) skills, it is associated to speaking skills to the largest extent (Zheng, 2008). Price (1991) mentions that a remarkable number of participants in his study considered oral presentation to be most anxiety provoking. Learners with better language skills are found proactive and prompt in classroom activities participation, but on the other hand low-skilled ones tend to avoid and add to their anxiety.

VI. FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The finding and results of the study address the second question on how to deal with the anxiety in foreign language learning classroom. The answer to this question come out with Pedagogical implications such as:

Testing: Testing is a very common but important academic affair. In FL classes, formal test or evaluation is the most widely practiced form of assessment. As mentioned earlier in this paper that most of the learners feel anxious about test; teachers may prepare learners for test by giving them academic and mental support. They can present test as a simple but necessary curricular activity for the learners. Teachers can convince the learners that the test score is important, but it is not everything, and so the learners better concentrate on learning as much as possible without worrying about test. Instead of one or two major tests, there could be some shorter versions of tests as classroom activity and less formal

quizzes. In some cases, alternative assessment can be used. Moreover, it should not be always emphasized by the teachers, parents and educators that the tests and passing them is closely associated with the success or failure of the future life of the learner because this increases their fear and anxiety. It is better to inform them that test is only a measurement tool to check the extent of achieving the course objectives.

Classroom environment: There must be a relaxing, comfortable and motivating environment in the class, and the teachers have to take the main responsibility in doing so. They have to ensure a safe and welcoming classroom (Zheng, 2008). There may be a set of rules in the classroom, and students may have some roles in determining the classroom rules. Teachers' considerate and empathetic behaviors, easy but effective ways of presentation, interesting and engaging activities etc. can play a vital role in relieving learners' anxiety. Classroom demands such as everyday tasks, assignments, quizzes may be decided based on the learners' actual capacity. Instead of individual work and presentation, there could be group work and group presentation, because working in group relieves individual stress and the individuals start having a being-worthy feeling which in the long run helps learners get rid of anxiety and makes them confident. Moreover, working in a group, learners can discover their hidden capabilities, and develop mutual respect for each other.

Giving feedback: Giving feedback is an everyday teacher's task and the nature of feedback can facilitate or debilitate learners' motivation and performance. It can be anxiety-inducing or anxiety-reducing. It is suggested that the teachers' feedback should always be positive and encouraging. While correcting errors, teachers may correct only those mistakes that the learners will understand and can avoid in their next attempt. Ensure that making mistakes is a part of the learning process and in no ways can it be an indicator of failure (Elkhafaifi, 2005). Teachers should motivate the learners not to humiliate their classmates for their mistakes, because making mistakes is a common human tendency. It can be good idea to give feedback as a group not individuals, and in case individual feedback is required, teachers can give individual feedback during their counseling hours so that students do not have the fear of losing face in front of others. Apart from teachers, institutional policy and framework are required to be flexible and inspiring. Overload of assignments, extracurricular projects, higher expectations etc. are expected to be within the pleasant limit of the learners. Parental cooperation can be planned and materialized to deal with learners' anxiety in general and FL anxiety in specific. It is more required here in FL classroom to have a type of integration and cooperation between teachers, parents, and education officials where an appropriate and encouraging educational environment can be created.

VII. CONCLUSION

Recently teachers of foreign languages and educators showed more interest in studying the issue of anxiety as the teaching of foreign languages is enjoying more attention in an era of globalization. The study of such a problem is an urgent demand for the teachers to enable them to overcome the anxiety of learners in the classroom. The results of this study can provide teachers and learners with basic solution through the diagnosis of the problem and finding out the proper solutions that address the issue more closely and clearly. This study showed that FL anxiety is a constant issue in the arena of language learning and teaching which flows from multiple factors and the factors are interrelated to each other. The results of this study revealed the causes beyond classroom anxiety in foreign language classes and highlighted the most common factors that can result in negative consequences which affect the learning process. The learners, teachers, parents and educators complain about such situation and sought a great demand for what hinder their efforts in achieving the required outcome of teaching FL. The factors are both external and internal in nature, so it is not possible to define and understand in simple linear way. Moreover, learners for their individual difference factors, suffer a varied nature and degree of it. To help learners come out of this dismay. Teachers have to play the major role. Understanding the learners, their affective factors, preferences, socio-cultural background and motivation can help teachers to adopt effective strategies, create learning and learners centered friendly environment. To sum up we recommend large scale primary researches in different FL contexts in order to better understand FL anxiety and help learners to get rid of it. Recommendations of this study should help the teachers of FL create a supportive, encouraging, and thriving teaching environment. This study just drew the attention to the problem, and there still much to be investigated about anxiety in FL classroom and therefore future studies in this area are required particularly studies of quantitative nature.

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A Study of the Attitudinal Resources in the Movie Reviews of *The Wandering Earth*—From the Perspective of Appraisal Theory

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Abstract—With the flourishing development of mass media, the industry of movie is now encountering a brand-new time. Meanwhile, as a special category of evaluation discourse which is closely related with movie, movie review is worthy of further study and appealing more and more attention. Movie reviewers tend to adopt a lot of appraisal resources especially attitudinal resources in their movie reviews, and it is of great value to study the appraisal resources in movie reviews under the framework of Appraisal Theory. Therefore, this thesis aims to analyze the attitudinal resource in movie reviews based on a corpus of 10 movie reviews of *the Wandering Earth*.

Index Terms—appraisal theory, attitudinal resource, movie review, the Wandering Earth

I. INTRODUCTION

A. *The Background of the Research*

A film review, as we know, is the analysis of and commentary on a movie including the director, the actors, the language and any other aspects. It aims to introduce the film and evaluate it, help the director improve his or her capacity and promote the development of movies. It has a great impact on the development of the film market. In the meantime, it can influence the understanding and appreciation of film viewers of the film. Nowadays, with the thriving of movie industry and the popularity of film reviews, people all over the world tend to check the film review before they decide whether or not to see a film. This is because it can provide them with some information about what the movie is about and if it is worth seeing. It is also seen as the driving force of the film industry today. The function of film review determines that this kind of discourse has abundant evaluative resources as well. In this sense, movie reviews are well worth exploring.

B. *Objectives of the Study*

As a matter of fact, film review, as a new type of discourse, has attracted many researchers' attention in recent years. There have been many studies on movie reviews from various perspectives. However, there are few studies about movie reviews that are from the perspective of Appraisal theory.

The appraisal framework, developed by Martin and White and their colleagues in the 1990s and 2000s, provides for analyses of meanings by which texts convey positive or negative assessments, by which the intensity or directness of such attitudinal utterances is strengthened or weakened and by which speakers/writers engage dialogistically with prior speakers or with potential respondents to the current proposition. These meaning making resources are grouped together as the "language of evaluation" on the grounds that they are all means by which the speaker's/writer's personal, evaluative involvement in the text is revealed as they adopt stances either toward phenomena (the entities, happenings, or states of affairs being construed by the text) or toward metaphenomena (propositions about these entities, happenings, and states of affairs) (White, 2015). Appraisal Theory, since it was put forward, has attracted much attention from researchers. It has been widely used to analyze literary criticism, art criticism historical discourse, and advertising discourse and so on. Many studies have been done about appraisal theory from the above-mentioned perspectives while movie reviews have rarely been studied from the perspective of Appraisal Theory. This thesis attempts to study film reviews with appraisal theory and focuses on the distribution of the attitude sub-systems in English film reviews.

C. *Organization of the Thesis*

The present paper includes six chapters.

Chapter one explains a brief background, the objectives and the significance of this study. And the organization will also be considered.

Chapter two is concerned with a brief review of the film review, and introduces the previous study of Appraisal Theory and film review at home and abroad.

Chapter three aims to explain the Appraisal Theory, which is the analytical framework of the present study.

Chapter four is the main body of the present study, in which the chosen film reviews are analyzed, especially

attitudinal resources in details. The author analyzes the 10 English film reviews of *The Wandering Earth*. The author will also give some characteristics and reasons for such distribution.

Chapter five is the conclusion, in which the author will summarize major findings of the present study. Then the author will put out the limitation of the study and suggestions for further study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the author will first discuss the overview of the film review. Then Appraisal theory will be presented and the application of Appraisal theory will be reviewed.

A. *An Overview of the Film Review*

1. The definition of the film review

The film review is a kind of discourse dealing with the evaluation of something about a movie. It is an introduction and evaluation of the movie or a study and explanation of the form and content of the movie (Hu, 2009: 176).

According to Wikipedia, a film review includes the plot summary and evaluation of a movie. It has an great impact on people's decision.

2. The function of the film review

The purpose of the film review is to attract the attentions of the readers to inform the readers of the information about the movie, to facilitate readers understanding of the movies theme and to convey the reviewer's opinions of the movie (Li, 1989)

The readers can get the whole outline of the movie after reading the film reviews. And this will give the audience the basis judgement on the worthwhile of the movie. Thus the function of film review is shown on. *The Wandering Earth* described the story happens in a disastrous future where the world government plans to physically move Earth away from destruction and start a centuries-long voyage to a new solar system. But humanity faces annihilation almost immediately, when scientists discover that Earth is on a obvious collision course with Jupiter.

B. *An Overview of Appraisal Theory*

1. The development of Appraisal Theory

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), one of the major schools of linguistics, is created by Halliday in the 1960s and the early year of the 1970s. Language has three metafunctions: ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function. (Martin and White, 2008:7). In the year 1991 to 1994, Martin and White were engaged on the Write it Right literacy project, after that, they developed and established Appraisal theory. In the next year, Martin, White, Joan Rothery, Caroline Coffin and many other scholars, tried their efforts to the refinement and development of Appraisal theory. They applied appraisal analysis into analyzing several subject areas, which are narratives, literary criticisms, news reports and legal discourses (Martin & White, 2008)

As has been introduced above, Appraisal Theory is not all by itself, but it is based on SFL, and it is the development and extension of interpersonal meanings in SFL.

2. The previous study of Appraisal Theory

Many scholars, at home and abroad, have made great efforts to the development of Appraisal Theory.

Abroad, Peter White (1988) applied Appraisal Theory to analyzing media discourse in newspapers and magazines. Especially, dialogic expansion and contraction of the engagement resources put into analysis.

Martin (2001) analyzed the rave review with Appraisal Theory, whose data were some reviews about pop music, books and videos from a website.

At home, the Appraisal Theory has been applied to many fields. Many scholars have paid great attention to the analysis of attitudinal resources under the Appraisal Theory.

Li Zhanzi (2001) wrote a paper entitled *Broadening the Framework of interpersonal Meaning in Functional Grammar*. The author explored the multiple means to realize interpersonal meaning. She suggested that people should analyze a discourse not only at the level of clause, but also at the level of the whole discourse. In her another paper, *Appraisal Theory: Applications and Problems in Discourse Analysis*, written in 2004, the author analyzed commercial, historical and autobiographical discourses with Appraisal Theory.

Wang Zhenhua (2001) wrote a paper named *Appraisal Systems and Their Operation: A New Development in the Systemic Functional Linguistics*. The author presented the background of Appraisal Theory, the theoretical framework and its operation.

So far, limited number of studies in China is devoted to investigating the evaluative resources in the film review in light of Appraisal Theory. Only a few scholars analyzed the film review under the attitudinal resources of Appraisal Theory. Therefore, the author decides to from the perspective of appraisal theory study attitudinal resources in the movie reviews of the *Wandering Earth*.

III. DESCRIPTION OF THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Attitude consists of these three sub-systems Attitude, Engagement and Graduation, and each of them can be further divided. In this part, the author will first introduce attitude and its three sub-systems on the whole, and then will give a

specific explanation of the system of Attitude.

A. *Appraisal Theory*

Established by Halliday, SFL has become one of the most vital modern linguistic branches through nearly 40 years of expansion. It serves as a milestone in language study, and has been widely extended to be more and more comprehensive and systemic. However, SFL also has its deficiency that it pays less attention to the semantic meaning of evaluation in the discourse. As for SFL, ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function are three meta-functions of language. Among these three basic functions, the interpersonal function is only concerned with communication while neglecting affect. Seeing this deficiency, Martin and his colleagues put forward AT in the 1990s. They lay emphasis on emotion and communication, and argue that interpersonal meaning also contains writer's/speaker's attitudes towards people, things, or events. AT is a further development and extension of interpersonal meaning, ranging from the lexical-grammatical level to the discourse semantic level.

Evaluation is a fundamental function of language and plays an essential role in linguistic study. AT is constructed on the basis of evaluation, and mainly concerns with "the kinds of attitudes that are negotiated in a text, the strength of the feelings involved and the ways in which values are sourced and readers aligned" (Martin & Rose, 2003: 22) In this definition, three sub-systems of AT are advocated, that are Attitude, Graduation and Engagement.

Within the framework of AT, Attitude is the core. It is used to source feelings and grade feelings, through which way Engagement and Graduation can be specified individually. Engagement is the source of Attitude dealing with the matter how Attitude resources are negotiated in a community. Graduation is the strength of attitude, modifying Attitude resources by means of force and focus. (Martin & White, 2005).

Attitude can be used to describe people's feelings from the following three perspectives: emotional responses, judgments of behavior and evaluation of things. The system of Attitude can be divided into three regions of feelings, that are, "Affect", "Judgment" and "Appreciation" (Martin & White, 2005: 35).

B. *Attitude*

According to Martin and White, Attitude indicates the resources that bear the writer/speaker's inter-subjective values or evaluation towards a specific person, an object or a category of social/natural phenomenon, either abstract or concrete.

As has been indicated, Attitude can be used to describe people's feelings from the following three perspectives: emotional responses, judgment of behavior as well as evaluation of objects. There are three sub-categories of Attitude that have been made clarified by this definition, namely, Affect, Judgment and Appreciation.

1. *Affect*

Affect is concerned with semantic resources for construing emotion. By means of Affect, the writers/speakers can indicate how they are manipulated to the object person incidents or situation in an emotional way. As has been indicated, affect is mainly deals with "registering negative and positive feelings: do we feel sad or happy, bored or interested, anxious or confident?" (Martin White, 2008: 42).

By way of classifying Affect, Martin and White (2008) actually drew on the following six elements. Here are the six relative factors. (1) Affect can either be negative or positive (e.g. the audiences hate the movie vs. the audiences love movie). (2) Affect can be construed as mental process/state or behavioral surge meaning that emotions may be depicted as internal mental activities or surge of paralinguistic manifestation (e.g. audiences felt sad about the scene vs. the audiences wept over the scene). (3) Affect can be constructed as reacting to or directed at some certain trigger or constructed as a general undirected mood for which a person may raise the question "Why are you feeling that way?" (e.g. the audiences are pleased by the scene of reunion vs. the audiences are sad about the scene of reunion). The process might last up to a decade. We believe in local science fiction productions and we are willing to wait. (4) Affect is gradable. The emotional feelings can be graded towards "the higher valued end of intensity or towards the lower valued end, or somewhat in between, that is, they provide variables of high, low and median values. (5) Affect can be generally divided into realis and irrealis Affect. (6) Realis affect can be mainly divided into three subsets: un/happiness, in/security, and dis/satisfaction.

2. *Judgment*

Judgment refers to the semantic resources that construct people's attitudes towards others' behavior typically by reference to some series of social norms, such as conventions, laws, and systems of value, etc. Generally speaking, judgment can be classified into those oriented to "social esteem" as well as those dealing with "social sanction".

As Martin and White (2008) have pointed out that "judgement resources are aimed at normality (how unusual someone is), capacity (how capable they are) as well as tenacity (how resolute they are); Judgement resources of sanction are aimed at "veracity" (how truthful someone is) and "propriety" (how ethical someone is). If the variables are loaded with too much negative social esteem, they will be reduced in the esteem of their community. On the contrary, if the variables are loaded with much positive social esteem, they will be improved in the esteem of their community. The jump into sci-fi reflects Chinese filmmakers' growing budgets and confidence to deal with topics previously monopolized by Hollywood. That is to say, Judgment of social esteem has neither moral nor legal implication. In contrast with social esteem resources, Judgment of social sanction deals with the theme related with legality and morality (White, 1998: 35). If people plus too much negative social sanction in their evaluation, they would encounter

the hazards of religious or legal punishment. When it comes to social sanction, it can be further divided into two sub-systems, veracity and propriety. The system of veracity is related with the question of how truthful someone is, while the system of propriety concerns how ethical someone is. The country’s first blockbuster set in space, “The Wandering Earth,” opens Tuesday amid grandiose expectations that it will symbolize the dawning of a new era in Chinese filmmaking.

3. Appreciation

Appreciation variables are the semantic resources for positive and negative evaluations of objects, processes, states of affairs and natural phenomena. With Appreciation, Martin and White turn to meanings construing assessments of things, that is, Appreciation is thing-oriented. This element distinguishes Appreciation from Affect and Judgement.

According to Martin and White (2008:56), Appreciation can be further stratified into the following three systems, namely, reaction, composition and valuation. Reaction includes two aspects: impact and quality. Impact is adopted to assess how the things grasp people’s attention; quality is utilized to evaluate how the things please people. Composition is divided into balance and complexity. Balance is the appropriative principle through which the balance of "things" is evaluated; complexity is the approve principle adopted to analyze how complicated the "things" are. Valuation is meant to appreciate the value of the things, including how innovative, authentic and timely they are. “China’s first domestic sci-fi blockbuster *The Wandering Earth* has dominated the box office and online film review sites during the Chinese New Year holiday. It is one in a series of ambitious, big-budget films dealing with a genre that has been beyond the reach of most filmmakers here, technically and financially. *The Wandering Earth* has a never-seen-before element in its plot. The Earth, as we know it, is being lifted into another solar system. Whoa! The film looks highly stylized, at par with Hollywood standards, even beyond, at times. Both *The Wandering Earth* and *Crazy Alien* are adapted from works by Liu Cixin, the writer who has led a revival in science fiction here, becoming the first Chinese champion of the Hugo Award for the genre in 2015. Li’s novels are sprawling epics and deeply researched. That makes them believable fantasies about humanity’s encounters with a risky universe.” Like Hollywood space movies where Americans are depicted as the only ones capable of saving humanity, here Chinese astronauts are the single adventurers among the global space community determined to finish the hard task of fending off the apocalypse. Chinese cultural virtues of duty, humility, self-sacrifice, and loyalty, both to family and society as a whole.

IV. DATA AND ANALYSIS OF ATTITUDINAL RESOURCES

In this chapter, the author will explain the source of the corpus and analyze attitudinal resources in the Movie Reviews of the *Wandering Earth*.

A. *The Corpus*

The present study collects the data from English mainstream newspaper and magazine websites and Chinese authoritative newspaper and magazine websites. In order to be more objective, the author will select 8 English film reviews from websites of famous English newspapers, magazines and forum which are The New York Times, South China Morning Post, Forbes, The Verge, Financial Times, The Guardian, Flicks.com, News 18. These kinds of newspapers are all influential, authoritative, and widely read by native people. And the magazine and forum presents the masses’ ideas towards the movie. Then the author will select another 2 Chinese film reviews from official newspapers. This can make the collected data more objective and comprehensive. All these qualify film reviews can be the target data of the present study.

B. *Analysis of Attitudinal Resources in Film Reviews of the Wandering Earth*

TABLE 3.1

Media	Affect	Frequency	Judgement	Frequency	Appreciation	Frequency
People’s Daily	12	24%	16	32%	22	44%
Xinhua’s Daily	10	19.61%	15	29.41%	26	50.98%
South China Morning Post	15	23.81%	20	31.75%	28	44.44%
The New York Times	16	23.53%	22	32.35%	30	44.12%
Forbes	18	24.66%	25	34.25%	30	41.10%
The Verge	15	20.27%	26	35.14%	33	44.59%
Financial Times	12	23.08%	18	34.62%	22	42.31%
The Guardian	16	23.19%	24	34.78%	29	42.03%
Flicks.com	10	19.23%	18	34.62%	24	46.15%
News 18.com	9	20%	15	33.33%	21	46.67%

As can be seen from table 3.1, among the 10 Chinese and foreign media reviews on *The Wandering Earth*, the most frequent one is appreciation, which accounts for the attitude system. The overall mean was 44.64%. Judgment appears less frequently, accounting for the attitude system. The overall mean was 33.23%; Affect appears least frequently, accounting for attitude. The system average was 21.9%. The analysis of both English and Chinese film reviews of *The Wandering Earth* has been discussed.

And the statistics has also been figured out. The author will summarize this chapter in the following part:

Firstly, in terms of Attitude system, the respective distribution of Affect, Judgement, Appreciation resources in both

English and Chinese film reviews of *The Wandering Earth*, the proportion of Affect resources accounts for the smallest quantity of the three systems of Attitude values, and the proportion of Appreciation resources is the largest, followed by Judgement resources. And the explicit affect, explicit judgement and explicit appreciation take the majority of each value. The reason for these features of appraisal resources is that the writers want to give the readers an impression of objectivity, so they try to avoid employing affective or emotional resources when writing film reviews.

Secondly, after analyzing the features of Attitude resources in both English and Chinese film reviews of *The Wandering Earth*, the author has found out some features of both English and Chinese film reviews. The conclusion is as follows: English and Chinese film reviews both are a special kind of discourse. They tend to be more subjective, but due to different cultural backgrounds, Chinese film review is more subjective than English film review. Although the writers try to avoid emotional resources affecting on the readers, they still use lexical words of judgement and appreciation, which belong to writers' subjective opinions. We can also discover that the film directors and actors are often judged from the perspective of capacity, and the people described in the films are often evaluated in normality in English film reviews. For Chinese film review, the reviewers judge film directors and actors from the perspective of capacity and persons are often evaluated from the perspective of tenacity. As for the lowest subjective resources, appreciation values, the reaction and valuation appreciation take the majority quantity of the whole appreciation values in both English and Chinese film reviews of *The Wandering Earth*.

V. CONCLUSION

The current study explores the evaluative features, specially focusing on the attitudinal resources in both English and Chinese film reviews of the movie *The Wandering Earth*. The film review as a kind of genre is seldom analyzed by linguistic scholars under Appraisal Theory. After careful analysis of the data, the distribution of attitudinal resources can be presented. And the author analyzed the reasons for such occurrence. The thesis is concluded with a contrastive analysis of the realization of interpersonal meaning between English and Chinese film reviews.

After a careful analysis of film reviews of *The Wandering Earth*, the author has arrived at some conclusions, and the major findings are as follows:

Firstly, English film review as a special kind of discourse has two characteristics. For one, English film review is a bit subjective. Since the reviewers use a lot of words of judgement and appreciation, it is considered as objective. The other feature is that the film directors and actors are often judged from the perspective of capacity and persons described in the movie are often evaluated from the perspective of propriety.

Secondly the contrastive analysis of attitudinal values between English and Chinese film reviews of *The Wandering Earth* shows that attitudinal resources are employed to fulfill the interpersonal function. When the reviewers write the film reviews, affect values are used to convey the writers emotional response to the movie, which would share their own feelings with the readers. Therefore, after reading the film reviews, the reviewers can get along with the readers through the reviews.

Thirdly, the author finds that the affect resources in film reviews of *The Wandering Earth* take account for the smallest proportion, judgement and appreciation resources are shown on be the dominant Attitudes among 40 film reviews. The reason for this linguistic feature in film reviews of *The Wandering Earth* is that the authors of both English and Chinese film reviews pay more attention to the human behavior and objects than people's emotional feelings. They want to give the reader an impression of objectivity, in order to make the reviews persuasive and convincing, thus giving the readers worthwhile information out the movie. In other words, the reviewers focus more on the truthfulness of this historical story. They try to use the objective words to make sure the readers.

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Reading Tasks Analysis and Students' Perception: An Approach to Task-based Language Teaching

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Abstract—In task-based language teaching, task is classroom activity which emphasizes target language use and focuses on meaning. In teaching reading, the role of task is pivotal. It helps to provide context for students to read as reading activity in real-world. The concept of task is, however, complex in which it has some types and criteria. Different task may result in different effectiveness to teach reading. This study is aimed at exploring the use of different tasks to teach reading and seeking for students' perception about the use of those tasks. The data were obtained from a study involving 36 students of one of senior high schools in Padang. There were five different tasks designed based on task-like criteria. At the end of every meeting, the students were given a reading test to check their comprehension quality toward the text. A task perception questionnaire was then deployed to the students in order to find out their view toward the tasks. The data were analyzed and discussed descriptively. The result of analysis indicates that, in general, the five different tasks help the students to comprehend the text. However, based on the average score of reading test, drawing task appeared to be the most effective task due to some important reasons. The result of questionnaire also confirmed that, in all aspects, drawing task is positively viewed by most of the students.

Index Terms—task-based language teaching, TBLT, reading task, students' perception

I. INTRODUCTION

Generally speaking, asking students to read a text comprehensively in classroom is somewhat difficult. The students are usually lack of not only skills but also purposes to read and comprehend the text as reading in the real-world. In classroom context, there is a tendency that the students read without purpose (Willis and Willis, 2007). As the result, students are less interested toward reading activity, and comprehension of the text is unlikely to appear. To cope with this issue, there should be a proper method which can create purposeful reading situation in the classroom.

Task seems to be one of effective tools to get the students into a purposeful reading situation. Task provides context for the students to read which enables them to focus mainly on meaning of the text (Willis and Willis, 2007). In addition, as a meaning-focused activity, task can improve students' language skills (Ellis, 2003). Based on these arguments, it can be concluded that task can help the students to understand text better as it provides context to read like reading in real-world activity, and improves students' language skills since it focuses on meaning.

Some previous studies on task-based implementation have strengthened the importance of the task and have reported that it gives positive impact on students' language skills development and motivation (Danyan, 2016; Xuehua, 2016). As for reading skill, most of the studies reveal that task-based language teaching is effective to be used in teaching reading (Nahavandi, 2011; Chalak, 2015; Mubarok & Sofiana, 2017; Irfan, 2017; Dollar, 2017). Hence, it can be inferred that the role of meaningful task in teaching reading is important since it positively affects students reading comprehension quality.

Despite of its effectiveness, there are still other flanks of task-based which remain uncultivated. One of them is the effectiveness of different tasks designed. Principally, it is not easy to design the task since the concept of it is, to some extent, complex. In TBLT, task has criteria; it focuses on meaning, it should be engaging, it should have clear outcome and priority of completion, and it reflects to real world activity (Willis and Willis, 2007; Ellis, 2003). In addition, it has many types which are classified based its nature (real-world and pedagogical task), the extent to which it can be used for any topics (listing, ordering, matching, comparing), and based on its starting point/source (personal knowledge and experience, problems, visual stimuli, spoken and written text, children activities, and integration of these starting points). Due to this complexity, different task designed will result in different effectiveness in teaching reading to the students.

This study is therefore aimed at exploring the effectiveness of different tasks used in teaching reading. To confirm the result of task effectiveness analysis, students' perception about those different tasks was also taken into consideration.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Task in TBLT Perspective*

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) is teaching method which primarily uses meaningful task to engage students in learning and as core unit planning and instruction to accomplish the goal of language teaching and learning (Richards and Theodore, 2001; Willis and Willis, 2007). As such, task is extremely important in TBLT. However, definitions of task which have been offered in literature are quite different in scope and formulation (Branden, 2006). Therefore, in the context of language teaching and learning, including in TBLT perspective, the nature of task should be settled.

Firstly, task is activity where the target language use by the students is necessary for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome (Willis, 1996; Branden, 2006). In this sense, task does not mainly get the students to use target language form correctly since it will restrict their communicative language production ability. Instead, task is an activity which provides opportunity for the students to use target language to negotiate meaning; to clarify, to confirm, to agree/disagree, and etc.

Secondly, Ellis (2003) argues that task is a work plan which requires the students to process language pragmatically. It means that task is activity which insists the students to use target language as a resemblance to how people use the language in real life situation to interact with each other. In addition, Nunan (2004) argues that task is classroom work which involves students to comprehend, manipulate, produce, or interact in the target language. However, their attention should also focus on mobilizing grammatical knowledge to express meaning. Moreover, Branden (2006) also argues that form focused activity in task should not be excluded. Based on these arguments, it can be inferred that task should promote the students to use target language communicatively. However, attention to language form should not be neglected as it is also important. Thus, meaning and form are proportionally considered in TBLT. But, meaning focused-activity should come before form-focused activity.

To conclude, it can be said in nutshell that task is classroom activity which stimulates the students to use target language for interaction with each other. While meaning is primarily important to interact during task completion, the students should not ignore the importance of language form they display during target language production.

B. *Task's Characteristics*

In TBLT, task can be characterized in order to be easily acknowledged. Firstly, task should have the notion of engagement (Willis and Willis, 2007). In other words, task should have engaged the students. The notion of engagement is paramount. Without engagement or interest, the students are unlikely to focus on meaning or outcome of the task. It violates the nature of task itself whereas meaning is primary. Once the students engage with the task, then communicative language use occurs at ease. Accordingly, student-task engagement is pivotal.

The next characteristic is that task should enable the students to mainly focus on meaning and subsequently on form (Willis, 1996; Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Branden, 2006; Willis and Willis, 2007). An activity preceded by language forms introduction is less task-like one. Since communicative target use depends on vocabulary mastery, introduction on topic-related vocabulary is helpful for the students to complete the task. In addition, a gap should also be presented to motivate the students to use target language and focus on meaning. However, as Branden (2006) and Nunan (2004) argue, priority should be set between meaning-focused and form-focused activity. Meaningful language use implies the establishment of relevant form-meaning mapping (Branden, 2006). Accordingly, students should also pay attention (consciously or unconsciously) to language form while trying to focus on meaning.

Task is also said as activity with an outcome (Willis, 1996; Ellis, 2003; Willis and Willis, 2007). In this respect, the outcome should be communicative one or non-linguistic outcome (Willis, 1996). It means that the outcome should require the students to use target language as communicative as possible. Having students to write or remember a sentence to be presented with their pairs is less communicative outcome. On the other side, asking the students to have a complete survey or complete family member of their pairs is, to some extent, communicative outcome. Moreover, according to Ellis (2003), the outcome of the task also indicates to when the students are said to have completed the task. It is related to another criteria of the task namely priority of completion (Nunan, 2004; Willis and Willis, 2007). Thus, when the students have, for example, identified all family members, it can be said that the task has been completed and learning activity can be moved into the next stage.

The last but not least, task should relate to real-world activity or real-world process of how language is used (Ellis, 2003; Willis and Willis, 2007). In other words, task should be authentic which reflects to language use and to things people do in real life situation. According to Willis and Willis (2007), there are three levels of authenticity of the task namely meaning level, discourse level, and activity level. In meaning level, task gives students opportunity to engage in producing meanings which will be useful in the real world. The students will usually stretching language resource and use language which has been familiar to them to express the meaning. In discourse level, task enables the students to practicing kinds of discourse occurred in everyday life. At the activity level, task reflects to activity which easily occurs in real life situation.

On different place, Ellis (2003) argues that there are two levels of authenticity namely situational authenticity and interactional authenticity. Situational authenticity is the extent to which the task precisely corresponds to real world activity. However, some tasks may not completely reflects to real world activity but it manifests sort of relationship to real-world activity. This task is called to have interactional authenticity since it promotes students to use target language

communicatively as in real-world situation. Based on the arguments, it can be seen that Willis and Willis' meaning level and discourse level is quite similar with Ellis' interactional authenticity since it gives the students opportunity to use language to interact. On the other hand, Willis' and Willis' activity level is similar with Ellis' situational authenticity. In nutshell, it can be assumed that these two experts share the same idea about task authenticity in TBLT.

C. Task's Types

Task can be distinguished based on its type. At first, task can be categorized into real-world task (*target task*) and pedagogical task (*classroom task*). Real-world task refers to the use of language beyond classroom or what the learners are supposed to be able to do in the real world. On the other hand, pedagogical tasks are those occur in the classroom or the things learners do with target language in the classroom which precisely resembles target task or simply provides communicative language use as in real-life situation (Nunan, 2004; Branden, 2006). Based on these definitions, it can be argued that target task is the task whereas the learners are expected to do and experience in the real-world. Pedagogical task, on the other side, is a task which either real-world task or approximate the real-world task sense in term of target language use.

Beside the extent to which the task resembles real-world activity, task can also be distinguished based on its appropriateness to be used for almost any topic or theme. According to Willis (1996) and Willis & Willis (2007), there are some variety of tasks which can be adopted and used for any topic. It includes listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem solving, sharing personal experiences and creative task. These tasks involve cognitive process of the students. These topic-based tasks can potentially raise students' motivation when they are asked to suggest their own topic in the process of learning.

Moreover, task can be differentiated based on its starting point or main source. According to Willis (1996), there are some sources which can be used as starting point to design a task. It includes personal knowledge and experience, problems, visual stimuli, spoken and written text, children activities, and integration of these starting points. In this present study, starting point of task is written text, i.e. reading reading text since it dealt with teaching reading. In other words, the task is designed and adjusted based on reading text. It is also known as text-based task.

Text-based tasks require the students to process the text for meaning in order to achieve the goal of the task (Willis, 1996). It implies that the students have to comprehend the text to be able to complete the task. Through the present of the task, it engages the students in reading activity itself by listening or discussing the meaning of the text using communicative language. In different place, Willis and Willis (2007) argue that text-based tasks are designed to give the students purpose to read in the classroom context as reading in the real life situation. In the real life, people read for several purposeful reasons; either the topic is interesting, want to learn more about the topic, want to compare their opinion with text authors, or to simply satisfy their curiosity. Text-based tasks, in nature, are intended to bring these purposeful reasons to read to the students in the classroom context.

There are some tasks varieties which can be designed based on text. It includes restoration task, jumbled task, memory challenge task, jigsaw task, and comparison task (Willis, 1996). On the other hand, Willis and Willis (2007) also propose other varieties of text-based task such as reading task, discussion task, prediction task, students as question master task, general knowledge task, corrupted text task, and recycle text task. All these tasks require the students to read the text comprehensively to subsequently come to task completion process. They all are useful in order to engage the students with reading text.

In the current study, some text-based tasks have been designed and some of them were adopted from Willis (1996) and Willis and Willis (2007). The tasks are presented in the following table.

TABLE 1
TEXT-BASED TASKS

No	Task	Description
1	Gap filling task (corrupted text)	Identifying words/phrases omitted from or added to a text
2	Making a simple timeline task (ordering task)	Identifying correct order of events in the text to show to other pairs
3	Memory challenge tasks (cognitive task)	After a single brief exposure to the text, students list/describe/write about what they can remember from the text to show to other pairs
4	Drawing task (creative task)	Drawing pictures which represent their comprehension of the text and predicting the end of the story through pictures
5	Making a simple script task (creative task)	Create a simple drama script to be played based on the text. The ending of the story is scripted differently as creative as possible from its original version

Based on the table above, it can be seen that there are five tasks which have been used to teach reading to senior high school students. Tasks like gap filling and memory challenge task were directly adopted from the experts while others (making simple script, drawing task, making simple script) were designed based on criteria of task-like activity and based on cognitive regulation of the students (creative task and ordering task).

III. METHOD

This is a descriptive study aimed to describe and analyzed the use of different tasks in teaching reading and students' perception about the tasks. This study is a part of an experimental research regarding task-based implementation. It was

conducted in one of senior high schools in suburb area in Padang, Indonesia. The participants involved were 36 students. They were taught by using task-based language teaching (five different tasks for five meetings) and were given a reading test in each task at the end of the meeting. The test was in form of short answer response which covered some reading comprehension skills such as identifying text purpose, detail information, reference words, making inference, and guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words.

In addition to the test, the students were also given tasks perception questionnaire in order to see how they perceive different reading tasks which have been assigned to them. The questionnaire consists of 20 items. It was designed using Likert scale and based on four aspects which reflect to the criteria of a task-like activity in TBLT. The aspects are whether or not the task is interesting, has clear outcome, focuses on meaning, and provides opportunity for the students to use target language. The result of the questionnaire was then analyzed quantitatively.

IV. RESULTS

A. Reading Comprehension Score on Different Tasks

There were five kinds of reading task designed based on the text that the students learnt with. The tasks were gap filling task, making a simple timeline task, memory challenge task, drawing task, and making a simple drama script task. At the end of every meeting, the students were given a reading test in form of short answer response to check their comprehension about the text they read. The students' reading comprehension scores of each task are presented below.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' READING COMPREHENSION SCORE UNDER DIFFERENT TASKS IMPLEMENTATION

No	Tasks	Mean	Max	Min	St.dev	Sum
1	Gap Filling (Corrupted task)	90	100	80	9.5	3240
2	Making Timeline (ordering task)	88	100	70	11	3165
3	Memory Challenge (cognitive task)	80	85	75	3	2880
4	Drawing (Creative task)	95	100	70	9	3420
5	Making a simple Script (creative task)	86	100	80	7	3100

The table above illustrates the students' reading comprehension score under different tasks implementation. Based on the table, it can be seen that the highest mean score was in the implementation of drawing task (95). It is followed by gap filling task (90), Making simple timeline (88), making simple script (86), and memory challenge task (80). The highest score in all tasks but memory challenge task was 100. The minimum score was 80 in gap filling task and making a script task, 70 in making timeline task and drawing tasks, and 75 in memory challenge task. Based on the average score of each task, it can be underlined that drawing task helps the students to understand text easier.

B. Students' Perception about Different Tasks

A questionnaire intended to find out students' perception about the different tasks was deployed. The result of the questionnaire analysis is presented below.

1) Gap Filling Task

TABLE 3
THE RESULT OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON GAP FILLING TASK

Aspect	Responds				N
	SA	A	D	SD	
Interesting	9 (25%)	25 (69%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Has clear outcome	13 (36%)	23 (64%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Focus on meaning	15 (42%)	20 (55%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Provide target language use	13 (36%)	22 (61%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)

Based on the table above, it can be seen that most of the students have positive perception about filling gap task. An overwhelming proportion of the students agreed and strongly agreed that gap filling task is an interesting task (94%), focuses on meaning (97%), and provides opportunity to use target language (97%). In term of task outcome, the students all together strongly agreed and agreed that gap filling task has clear outcome (100%). However, there were two students (6%) who considered that gap filling task is not interesting. Besides, there was one student (3%) in each who disagreed that gap filling task is a meaning-focused task and provides opportunity to use target language.

2) Making a Simple Timeline Task

TABLE 4
THE RESULT OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON MAKING SIMPLE TIMELINE

Aspect	Responds				N
	SA	A	D	SD	
Interesting	12 (33%)	22 (61%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Has clear outcome	18 (50%)	18 (50%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Focus on meaning	11 (30%)	24 (67%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Provide target language use	16 (44%)	20 (56%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)

In light of the table above, it can be seen that most of the students strongly agreed and agreed that making a simple timeline task was an interesting task (94%) and focused on meaning (97%). All of the students also strongly agreed and agreed that making a simple timeline has clear outcome (100%) and provides opportunity for them to use target language (100%). On the other way around, there were two students (6%) who disagreed that making a simple script was interesting. Moreover, one student (3%) admitted that making a simple timeline was not a completely meaning-focus activity.

3) Memory Challenge Task

TABLE 5
THE RESULT OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON MEMORY CHALLENGE TASK

Aspect	Responds				N
	SA	A	D	SD	
Interesting	15 (42%)	20 (55%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Has clear outcome	17 (47%)	17 (47%)	2 (6%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Focus on meaning	19 (53%)	17 (47%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Provide target language use	13 (36%)	23 (64%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)

The table above illustrates the students' perception toward memory challenge task. Based on the table, it can be seen that a lot of students strongly agreed and agreed that memory challenge task was interesting to them (97%), and it has clear outcome (94%). They were all strongly agreed and agreed that memory challenge task was meaning-focused activity (100%) and gives them opportunity to practice using target language (100%). However, there was a student (3%) who disagreed that memory challenge was interesting. Likewise, there were two students (6%) who disagreed, admitting that the outcome of memory challenge was not clear to them.

4) Making a Simple Drama Script

TABLE 6
THE RESULT OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON MAKING A SIMPLE SCRIPT TASK

Aspect	Responds				N
	SA	A	D	SD	
Interesting	12 (34%)	21 (58%)	3 (8%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Has clear outcome	13 (36%)	23 (64%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Focus on meaning	11 (30%)	24 (67%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Provide target language use	16 (44%)	19 (53%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)

It can be seen from the table above that most of the students strongly agreed and agreed that making a simple script task was interesting (92%), focused on meaning (97%), and provides target language use (97%). In term of task outcome, all of the students were strongly agreed and agreed that making a simple script task has a clear outcome (100%). Alternately, there were three students (8%) admitted that making a simple script was not an interesting task. Moreover, a student (3%) disagreed with the statement saying that making a simple script provides opportunity to use target language.

5) Drawing Task

TABLE 7
THE RESULT OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON DRAWING TASK

Aspect	Responds				N
	SA	A	D	SD	
Interesting	21 (58%)	14 (39%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	36 (100%)
Has clear outcome	23 (64%)	12 (33%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Focuses on meaning	22 (61%)	13 (36%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)
Provide target language use	22 (61%)	13 (36%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)	36 (100%)

Based on the table above, it can be seen that most of the students (97%) showed their strong agreement and agreement with each identified task aspect namely interesting task, task has clear outcome, task focuses on meaning, and task provides target language use. Conversely, there was a student (3%) who strongly disagreed, saying that drawing task was not completely interesting task. Moreover, there was a student (3%) who showed disagreement in each of the aspect namely the clarity of the outcome, meaning focused, and providing target language used.

V. DISCUSSION

Based on some important findings above, the current study needs further discussion. To begin with, based on students' average score on each task, it was found that drawing task has the highest mean score (95) compared with every other task which had been implemented. In this respect, drawing task is said to inherently have one of task-like criteria namely real-world activity reflection (Gidoni & Rajuan, 2018). In other words, drawing task is authentic. According to Ellis (2003:6), there are two kinds of authenticity level for every designed task in TBLT, i.e. situationally authentic and interactionally authentic. Situationally authentic refers to every task which is easily found in the real-world. Meanwhile, interactionally authentic is addressed to real-world activity which requires people to actively interact

(using communicative language) during the activity. Drawing task is said to have these two levels of authenticity. It is one of the tasks which people do in real life situation (situationally authentic) and it encourages people to interact actively when it comes to drawing explanation and in the process of drawing itself. These authenticities lead into engagement, interest, and motivation of the students in learning.

On the other way around, the other four tasks which basically also help students in comprehending the text are less authentic compared to drawing task, especially gap filling task, and making a simple timeline. According to Willis and Willis (2007), gap filling task is useful in reading comprehension but it is an artificial task which focuses more on language form than the meaning of the language. The result of perception questionnaire confirms this statement since there were no more than half of the students (42%) who strongly agreed that gap filling task get the students to focus on meaning. The more interactionally authentic task, that is making a script task, however, is not easily found and conducted by every individual in real life situation. It can also be seen from the result of questionnaire whereas only 36% of the students strongly agreed that this task has clear outcome. In other words, the students were not familiar with this task. Accordingly, in term of situational authenticity, making a simple script task is less authentic compared to drawing task.

The finding on students' questionnaire perception also confirmed and strengthened the authenticity of drawing task. A large proportion of the students (61%) strongly agreed that drawing task focuses on meaning and provides opportunity to use target language (these all are manifestation of real-world activity). Real-world activity is usually interesting and focuses on meaning. In addition, authenticity of the task results in the clarity of task outcome. Since it is easily found and is conducted by many people in real life situation, 64% of the students (the highest percentage among the other tasks) strongly agreed that the outcome of drawing task is clear to them. However, based on the questionnaire, it was found that there was a student(3%) who strongly disagreed or completely objected that drawing task is interesting whereas none of the students shares the same opinion on the other four tasks. The objection on drawing task can be caused by many factors. One of them is learning style preference or students' creativity level.

Secondly, drawing task is simply interesting (Altun, 2015; Elliot, 2007). It is also indicated by the result of task perception questionnaire. There were 58% of the students (the highest percentage among the other tasks) who strongly agreed that drawing task is an interesting task. Some possible explanations can be proposed. According to Gidoni & Rajuan (2018), drawing task is interesting since it breaks the routine of reading comprehension classroom. Generally, in many reading classrooms, the students are asked to read and comprehend the text. Subsequently, they are given some comprehension questions to be answered related to the content of the text. This instructional teaching method resulted in boredom and motivation level of the students. Drawing task, which is authentic, appears to offer rejuvenation toward reading classroom activity. Hence, it attracts students' interest immediately.

In addition, drawing task is interesting since the students need less effort in order to conduct drawing activity than, for example, writing a summary of the text (Elliot, 2007). In its implementation, drawing task is proportionally a simple task. It requires the students to present their comprehension of the text in the papers in form of relevant pictures. Good and skillful readers appear to have more understanding and are likely to draw in a very detail way. On the other hand, poor readers are likely to have minimum comprehension of the text but they still can draw based on their own proportion of understanding. The other four tasks such as memory challenge tasks, making simple timeline and making a simple script tasks demand complex cognitive ability to get the tasks done. According to Willis (1996:80) memory challenge task requires the students to notice and remember things they have read in the text in fast reading. Thus, students with low cognitive ability will get difficulties in memorizing text's details. It is proven by the highest score of each task whereas in memory challenge task, the students' highest score was 85 (the lowest among the other tasks). Likewise, making a simple script, which is basically a creative task, requires the students to incorporate other tasks such as listing, ordering, and matching to complete the task (Willis and Willis, 2007; Mao, 2012). Due to this complexity, these tasks turn into less interesting task. The result of perception questionnaire proves it since there were only 25% of the students (the lowest percentage among other tasks) who strongly agreed that gap filling task is an interesting task. Meanwhile, only 34% of the students strongly agreed that making a script task is an interesting to them.

Then, drawing task in the current study is interesting because it involves prediction task to predict the possible ending of the story. According to Willis and Willis (2007), integration of prediction and drawing task is lively and enjoyable activity. Prediction help the students in reading by providing context to read (students continue to think) and by guiding them into reading process. In addition, it prompts speculative discussion which ends in the intense use of target language communicatively. This once again disgorges into meaning focused activity. On the flipped side, in the other four tasks, prediction activity was not overtly involved. Communicative language use simply relies during the process of task completion itself. Accordingly, speculative discussion, which is interesting in nature, is not as lively as in drawing task. It can also be seen from the questionnaire whereas less than half (50%) of the students strongly agreed that the other four tasks provide opportunity for them to use target language. It is significantly different with drawing task whereas 61% (more than half) of the students strongly agreed that it provides language use communicatively.

Lastly, drawing task actively engaged students (Elliot, 2007) since it focuses on meaning. Based on the questionnaire of perception, it is also found that 61% of the students strongly agreed that drawing task focuses on meaning. When the students draw, they have to visualize information they obtained from the text before translating it into series of picture. The information can be accepted either as literal meaning or elaborated or extended as personal interpretation. This

process allows the students to be actively engaged with the text to find out the intended meaning of the author. It is somewhat different with the other four tasks, especially those who were less meaning-focused task and less authentic such as gap filling task.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study has discussed the effectiveness of text-based tasks which have been used in teaching reading comprehension to senior high school students. Text-based tasks require the students to read the text before coming to task completion. This type of task is extremely helpful in order to engage the students with their reading text. Based on this study, it was revealed that the most effective task which helps to promote students' reading comprehension quality is drawing task. Compared to every other task which has been implemented, drawing task fulfills task-like criteria at the most. In other words, drawing task is the most authentic, interesting, and engaging task. In addition, the outcome of drawing task is familiar and very clear to the students. It implies that in designing the task, especially in TBLT practice, teachers should think over the criteria of task-like activity, i.e. interesting, has clear outcome, focuses on meaning, and reflects to real-world activity. Moreover, task which closely resembles real-world activity is essential. However, when it is difficult to closely resemble and bring real-world task into classroom activity, task which promotes interaction or communicative target language use in the classroom can also be used as an alternative for language teachers to enhance their students' language development.

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Gothic Writing Technique and Yin-Yang Theory in *The Fall of the House of Usher**

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Abstract—In both theoretical and practical senses, Gothic writing techniques and Yin-Yang theory share many similarities. To some extent, Gothic writing techniques can be explained by Yin-Yang theory and their application in Gothic fictions can be transferred to corresponding regulations in Yin-Yang theory. This paper mainly looks into the similarities and dissimilarities of them, specifically in Edgar Allen Poe's *The Fall of the House of Usher*. This paper studies this two terms from a philosophical perspective.

Index Terms—Gothic writing technique, Chinese Yin-Yang, philosophical perspective

I. GOTHIC WRITING TECHNIQUE IN THE FALL OF THE HOUSE OF USHER

A. A General Introduction of Gothic Writing Technique

Gothic writing technique is a writing method widely used in Gothic fictions, mainly referring to the adoption of words and expressions related to death and darkness to create a sense of horror. To fully understand Gothic writing technique, we need to take a look at the origin and development of Gothic fictions. Gothic fictions originated from British novelist Horace Walpole who first applied it in his novel *The Castle of Otranto*, which is also titled *A Gothic Story* in its second edition. Gothic fictions are a genre or mode of literature that combines fiction, horror and Romanticism, and sometimes is referred to as Gothic horror. The influence of Gothic novels depends on a delightful kind of horror, an expansion of Romantic literary joys that were relatively new at the age of Walpole's fiction. Other long-lasting characteristics initiated by Walpole in Gothic fictions including melodrama and parody. It can be dated back to England in the latter part of the 18th century and had much success in the 19th as can be seen through Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein* and the works of Edgar Allan Poe. Bram Stoker's *Dracula* is another world-known example in this genre, which dated to the end of Victorian age. The word "Gothic" refers to those buildings constructed in the Medieval, in which many of Gothic stories were set. This ultimate form of romanticism was very prevalent in Germany as well as Britain.

Representatively, the fundamental characters of Gothic novel include an innocent virtuous kind pure beautiful young woman, a hero, a scoundrel, a foolish footman, jokers, and a clergy hierophant, etc. The setup of the Gothic fiction is also a significant character itself. The stories usually happened in a castle, a monastery, an abbey, or some other, primarily religious mansion, and it is conceived that this building has hidden facts in it, be it related with the people living in there or the things happened in there. From the beginning of one Gothic fiction, the audience should be anticipating the depressing and horrifying scenery and get ready to be immersed in it. A London review of the *Castle of Otranto* made the significance of setting in Gothic fictions quite manifest. "He describes the country towards Otranto as desolate and bare, extensive downs covered with thyme, with occasionally the dwarf holly, and lavender, stretch around like wild moorlands"(Wikipedia September 29th). The mournful *Castle of Otranto* was described by Mr. Williams as "an imposing object of considerable size...has a dignified and chivalric air. A fitter scene for his romance he probably could not have chosen"(Wikipedia September 29th). Likely, De Vore said, "The setting is greatly influential in Gothic novels. It not only evokes the atmosphere of horror and dread, but also portrays the deterioration of its world. The decaying, ruined scenery implies that at one time there was a thriving world. At one time the abbey, castle, or landscape was something treasured and appreciated. Now, all that lasts is the decaying shell of a once thriving dwelling"(Wikipedia September 29th). Therefore, the Gothic fiction would not exist if the pre-set background depiction were eliminated.

In modern literature, the concept of Gothic fictions has been enormously widened; some scholars view it as natural revelation of female's fear towards uneven society, while others prefer to regard it as the release of the authors' twisted

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sexual desire. But no matter what kind of view, they have one thing in common, and that is in text type, they believe it is an open system across time and space and national borders. In their viewpoints, Gothic fictions are not a settled literary genre in history, but rather an ordinary horror fiction form. This fiction form has lasted till now, not only including the universally acknowledged classics, but also including the ghost stories and horror fictions, even some horror sexual fictions. American scholar Fredrick Frank made his review in *Guide to the Gothic III: An Annotated Bibliography of Criticism*, “Perhaps the best direction in the study of the Gothic novel in the new century is to looking for a blend between the traditional view and radical view” (Wikipedia September 29th). The term “Gothic” is inseparably connected with the history, and it is also a history of words. Meanwhile it is a prefab, self regenerative term, which can be used to represent a series of situations and acceptance. In order to critics and the general reader to keep vitality, the term “Gothic novel” is best understood as both having the literary tradition of space and time, and transcending the limitation of time and space. These remarks probably could be considered as the most proper comments on modern Gothic fictions.

B. Application of Gothic Writing Technique in the Novel

In *The Fall of the House of Usher*, Poe applied Gothic writing technique in characterization, environment setting and plot designing.

Firstly, Poe made himself as an observer of the story, to be more specific, a survivor. His description of the master of the house of Usher, namely Roderick Usher, occupied a prominent position at the beginning of the novel. In his words, Roderick “gave evidence of nervous agitation”; “his reserve has always excessive and habitual” (Poe, 2005, p. 4). And after the author entered the house of Usher, he made an even more vivid description of Roderick, not only covered his appearance but also his vocal features.

“Yet the character of his face had been at all times remarkable. A cadaverousness of complexion; an eye large, liquid, and luminous beyond comparison; lips somewhat thin and very pallid, but of a surprisingly beautiful curve; a nose of a delicate Hebrew model, but with a breadth of nostril unusual in similar formations; a finely-molded chin, speaking, in its want of prominence, of a want of moral energy; hair of a more than web-like softness and tenuity; these features, with an inordinate expansion above the regions of the temple, made up altogether a countenance not easily to be forgotten” (Poe, 2005, p. 7). “His voice varied rapidly from a tremulous indecision to that species of energetic concision” (Poe, 2005, p. 11). These words depicted the master of house of Usher as a bizarre and weird character with very obvious Gothic features. While reading these lines, readers can not help themselves but feel the irresistible coldness from the character, which is an important feature of Gothic writing technique. Besides Roderick, another main character even more significant in the novel is Roderick’s sister Lady Madeline. Her appearance is initially attached with death, because Poe’s first words about her are “...to the severe and long-continued illness indeed to the evidently approaching dissolution of a tenderly beloved sister...” (Poe, 2005, p. 17) and at the night of the narrator’s arrival at the house, she passed away even before the author got a chance to meet her. However the shadow of her death never faded away in the novel, until her final reappearance in the climax of the novel. Continual evidences found either by her brother or the narrator claimed that this young lady had never really rested in peace. And the most amazing part is, regardless of all the evidences, the readers are never sure about her death, and her reappearance in the end satisfies readers’ desire for horror and more. This is just a tip of the iceberg that reveals how excellently Poe applied Gothic writing technique.

Secondly, Gothic writing technique usually arranges the story in medieval buildings and *The Fall of the House of Usher* is no exception. At the beginning of the novel, Poe made detailed descriptions about the house of Usher and the surroundings. “Its principal feature seemed to be that of an excessive antiquity” (Poe, 2005, p. 2). He repeatedly used these words “dull” “dark” “soundless” “melancholy” “a sense of insufferable gloom” (Poe, 2005, p. 1) to render the environment around the house and then he depicted the inside of the house as “an air of stern, deep, and irredeemable gloom hung over and pervaded all” (Poe, 2005, p. 1). The whole tone of the novel has been settled by these descriptions and just by the first few pages, Poe successfully made his readers feel the house is a place of darkness and death.

Thirdly, in plot designing, the most distinguishable Gothic writing technique with Poe’s personal touch is symbolism. For instance, “...a barely perceptible fissure, which, extending from the roof of the building in front, made its way down the wall in a zigzag direction, until it became lost in the sullen waters of the tarn” (Poe, 2005, p. 8). “...the fissure rapidly widened—there came a fierce breath of the whirlwind—the entire orb of the satellite burst at once upon my sight...” (Poe, 2005, p. 21). Throughout the novel, this kind of symbolism is everywhere, which gives hints of the depressing development of the story. All the symbols Poe used in the novel have one thing in common—they were all descending, deteriorating, and rotting, just like the house itself and finally they all collapsed and disappeared into the black and lurid tarn in front of the house of Usher.

II. YIN-YANG THEORY IN THE FALL OF THE HOUSE OF USHER

A. A Gist of Yin-Yang Theory

Yin-Yang is an ancient concept of Chinese philosophy used to demonstrate how opposite or contrary elements are interdependent or interconnected in the natural world and how they influence each other in their interrelationship. Many natural dualities are thought to be the physical manifestations of Yin Yang concept, for instance: male and female, day and night, hot and cold, life and death. The concept exists in the origins of many branches of Chinese

classical science and philosophy, as well as being a primary guideline of traditional Chinese medicine and a central principle of different forms of Chinese martial arts and exercises, such as baguazhang, t'ai chi, qigong and I Ching (Wikipedia September, 29th).

Yin and yang can be thought of as complementary forces interacting to form a dynamic system in which the whole is greater than the parts. Everything has both yin and yang aspects, for instance shadow cannot exist without light. Either of the two major aspects may manifest more strongly in a particular object, depending on the criterion of the observation (Wikipedia September, 29th).

The relationship between Yin and Yang is often described in terms of sunlight playing over a mountain and a valley. Yin (literally the “shady place” or “north slope”) is the dark area occluded by the mountain’s bulk, while yang (literally the “sunny place” or “south slope”) is the brightly lit portion. As the sun moves across the sky, yin and yang gradually trade places with each other, revealing what was obscured and obscuring what was revealed.

Yin is characterized as slow, soft, yielding, diffuse, cold, wet, and passive; and is associated with water, earth, the moon, femininity and nighttime (Wikipedia September, 29th).

Yang, by contrast, is fast, hard, solid, focused, hot, dry, and aggressive; and is associated with fire, sky, the sun, masculinity and daytime (Wikipedia September, 29th).

Originally, Yin-Yang theory was applied in Chinese traditional medicine. Yin and yang applies to the human body. In traditional Chinese medicine good health is directly related to the balance between yin and yang qualities within oneself. If yin and yang become unbalanced, one of the qualities is considered deficient or has vacuity. However, the concept of Yin-Yang has been widened gradually and applied in construction, religion and other aspects.

B. Analysis of the Novel in Perspective of Yin-Yang Theory

At the beginning of the novel, Poe repeatedly used “dull, dark, and soundless” “melancholy” “a sense of insufferable gloom” “iciness, a sinking, a sickening” “a black and lurid tarn” (Poe, 2005, p. 1) to emphasize the Yin elements around the house of Usher, and in this way, rendering the horrifying environment. Then the description of the inside decoration of house of Usher and its master further shed light upon the Yin feature of the house itself and the people living in it. From the novel we can tell that the principal feature of the house seemed to be that of an excessive antiquity, and the master of the house was morbid and mentally-disordered. Both of them were full of Yin characteristics, and that is how Poe set a depressing and irredeemable tone for the entire novel. Some specific depiction of Roderick, as his facial feature, is the vivid manifestation of Yin features, for instance: “the ghastly pallor of the skin, the miraculous luster of the eye” (Poe, 2005, p. 7). Yet, one character with the most distinguishable Yin feature should be Roderick’s sister, lady Madeline who first came to the view of the readers as “indeed to the evidently approaching dissolution of a tenderly beloved sister” (Poe, 2005, p. 9) and not after long was taken by death and settled in the vault (although she was probably not dead). Both of the two characters were bothered by sickness be it mentally or physically. From the perspective of Yin-Yang theory, this means they were overwhelmed by Yin factors and thus they probably would end up with death. Then Poe used a series of hints to suggest that the climax is approaching, and no one could resist the aggressive sense of horror. These hints include a disturbing poem titled “The Haunted Palace”, the low and apparently distant, but harsh sound, etc. Finally the climax came with the sentence “we have put her living in the tomb” (Poe, 2005, p. 18)! and thus reveals the reappearance of Lady Madeline in front of the door. The rest of the novel just took up two paragraphs, but contains the climax and ending of the novel, Lady Madeline eventually dead as falling on her brother, which also caused the death of Roderick. Till now, the Yin factor has taken over the entire house. Death, thunder storm outside the window, uneven night, all these Yin factors contribute to the sense of horror in readers’ minds. From the development of the novel we can tell that Poe applies increasingly obvious Yin elements to add horror to the novel, and reaches the peak with the ultimate Yin finale, the eternal death.

A specific Gothic writing technique that Poe applied in his novel stands out above others, and that is symbolism. It also corresponds to the Yin-Yang theory. A remarkable instance can demonstrate the point. There is a black and lurid tarn in front of the house of Usher when the author first saw it “with a shudder even more thrilling than before” (Poe, 2005, p. 3) in his words. From these descriptions we can get that the lurid serves as the core of Yin factor, and the following development of the novel confirms our inference. “...the still waters of the tarn. Its evidence—the evidence of the sentience—was to be seen, he said, in the gradual yet certain condensation of an atmosphere of their own about the waters and the walls.” (Poe, 2005, p. 12) Here we can say, the gathering atmosphere around the lake is Yin elements, and the accumulation of that indicates the upcoming horror. Finally, the ending of the novel specifically pointed out that the tarn is the core of Yin factors. “...my brain reeled as I saw the mighty walls rushing asunder—there was a long tumultuous shouting sound like the voice of a thousand waters—and the deep and dank tarn at my feet closed sullenly and silently over the fragments of the “House of Usher” (Poe, 2005, p. 21). All the death and horror ended up in the sullen and silent tarn, therefore indicated that the Yin factors aggregated into one object. The Yin factor took over everything and left the remaining sense of horror in the readers’ mind.

III. SIMILARITIES AND DISSIMILARITIES BETWEEN GOTHIC WRITING TECHNIQUE AND YIN-YANG THEORY

A. Similarities in Theoretical Sense

The similarities of Gothic writing technique and Yin-Yang theory mainly concentrated on the involvement of

negative elements. With Gothic writing technique authors applied in their novels, negative elements as horrible death or haunted castle are used to render the environment, and in this way, set up a vivid imaginary dimension for the readers. In Yin-Yang theory, ancient Chinese people divided the whole world into Yin and Yang, and the Yin side of the world consists of things practically identical to the symbols in Gothic writing techniques. So from this perspective, Gothic writing techniques and Yin-Yang theory have the similar essentials in theoretical sense.

B. Similarities in Practical Sense

In terms of applicability, we can see that Gothic writing techniques are used in literature works, and as stated before, we can also use Yin-Yang theory to analyze Gothic fictions. So they both can be applied in the critic of literature works. In general, Gothic writing techniques are applied by the authors through expanding the Yin elements and surpassing the Yang elements to build the sense of depression, gloom and horror.

In Poe's *The Fall of the House of Usher*, this similarity is quite apparent. The surroundings around the house of Usher are filled with Yin elements, which set the fundamental tone for the entire novel. And one significant symbol in the novel, the black and lurid tarn, is set as the core of Yin in the novel. With the development of the story, its power gathers and accumulates, we can tell this trend from this part: "Its evidence—the evidence of the sentence—was to be seen, he said, "In the gradual yet certain condensation of an atmosphere of their own about the waters and the walls" (Poe, 2005, p. 2). In the end, the Yin core became the destination of everything, and finally crushed the remaining Yang factors, "...the deep and dank tarn at my feet closed sullenly and silently over the fragments of House of Usher" (Poe, 2005, p. 21). Another notable Gothic figure is the very House of Usher itself. "Its principal feature seemed to be that of an excessive antiquity" (Poe, 2005, p. 2). From this sentence, the readers immediately get the feeling that Yin is one of the most obvious features of the House of Usher. And yet another one thing adds to the degree of Yin attribute is "a barely perceptible fissure, which extending from the roof of the building in front, made its way down the wall in a zigzag direction, until it became lost in the sullen waters of the tarn" (Poe, 2005, p. 4). This one feature combines one Yin factor with the core of Yin around the house and thus became the fishing touch of the entire novel.

Hence, we can say that Gothic writing techniques can be explained by Yin-Yang theory and their application in Gothic fictions can be transferred to corresponding regulations in Yin-Yang theory. In both theoretical and practical senses, Gothic writing techniques and Yin-Yang theory share many similarities.

C. Dissimilarities between Gothic Writing Technique and Yin-Yang Theory

The similarities between Gothic writing techniques and Yin-Yang theory have been covered in the previous chapters. Therefore in this chapter, we would focus on the dissimilarities.

For starters, their definition and origin are widely divergent. Gothic writing techniques were originated in 18th century Britain as a literature style, and then popularized by authors in Europe. When it arrived in American, Poe became the first novelist who created the Gothic writing technique with American feature in it. In its later development, it experienced a period of ignorance; literary critics equaled Gothic fictions to erotic works. However, in current literary world, a bunch of talented writers made great achievements with Gothic fictions, and the concept of Gothic has been enormously widened. Nowadays, basically all fictions with horror factors can be classified as Gothic fictions. Besides literature creation, it is also extensively applied in literary critic.

On the other hand, Yin-Yang theory was an ancient philosophical concept concluded by Chinese sagas. It conceives many principles of philosophy that inherited by generations of Chinese people. At the beginning it was applied in traditional Chinese medicine. Chinese doctors healed people through adjusting the balance between Yin and Yang in human body. This theory contains a very significant principle of Chinese philosophy, which is harmony. To keep harmony, human beings need to adjust the balance between Yin and Yang, thus they can maintain a steady state and avoid catastrophe. In the later centuries, this concept has been expounding to other fields such as architecture and religious belief. The most distinguished development of Yin-Yang theory probably is Taoism; it further divided the world into five basic elements, which are fire, wood, water, gold, soil. All these factors impact and suppress each other and finally return to harmony.

Therefore, we can tell the major differences between Gothic writing techniques and Yin-Yang theory. The former is a writing style and a critic method in literature, the latter is a philosophical concept and covers a larger range in the universe.

IV. CONCLUSION

Edgar Ellen Poe (1809-1849), American novelist and poet, was recognized in much of the world as the pioneer in Gothic fictions. Hundreds of editions of his Gothic fictions have been published. Scholars have written thousands of books and articles about his plots, characters, themes, and language. He is so well known in the world and many of his fictions has been adopted to films and presented on the big screens.

His miraculous way to stir the horror and darkness inside human hearts left millions of people a deep impression. View his unique Gothic writing technique from a philosophical perspective makes the readers have a clearer understanding towards his writing clue, and thus makes his fiction even more interesting.

It is also inspiring to know that there is a possibility to analyze a literature work with a foreign ancient philosophy concept, which offers one more choice when it comes to literature comment.

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The Contents and Values of Parts of the Body Related Idiomatic Expressions in Yorùbá

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Abstract—In this paper, we examine the contents and values of Yorùbá idiomatic expressions that relate to the parts of the human body in social interactions with a view to establishing their communicative value in Yorùbá socio-cultural discourse. A few research efforts on proverbs and idiomatic expressions have studied the scope of their usage in Yorùbá music, the new mode of their usage in political arena and those that relate to *Egungun* among speakers of Yorùbá language. None, however, have examined the contents of the Yorùbá idiomatic expressions in relation to the parts of the human body. This, therefore, is the preoccupation of the study. Our data for this study comprised thirty purposively selected idioms in Yorùbá language which are used frequently, especially among the elders, in social interactions. The idioms were classified into three domains which captured roughly the major divisions of the human body. The three major parts altogether ensure, in scientific parlance, the homeostasis and viability of the human body. The paper adopted the Ethnography of Communication model as its theoretical framework. Results from the study showed that almost every part of the human body is capable of being used to construct profound and thought-provoking idiomatic expressions which can enhance poetic and rhetoric vigour as well as serve as cultural fillip meant to rekindle the flagging interest of the youths in Yorùbá culture so as to save the Yorùbá language from extinction.

Index Terms—idioms, idiomatic expressions, Parts of the Body, Yorùbá Culture, social Interaction

I. INTRODUCTION

The human body, according to Wikipedia (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/human>), 'is the structure of a human being. It consists of the entire structure of a human body which constitutes what is generally termed the parts of the body'. It is composed of different types of cells which ensure, in scientific parlance, body homeostasis and viability. The human parts of the body comprise the head which includes majorly the eyes, the nose, the hair, the lips, the tongue and the teeth. The human parts also comprise the neck, the trunk, the arms, the legs and the feet. Apart from all the aforementioned human parts, there are other organs of the body that lie inside or within the internal human body which are equally vital to human virility. They include: the heart, the lungs, the kidney, the bile, the brain and all other glands of the body as well as the hormones produced by those glands. But, existing research studies into the human body have shown that it is either the exclusive study area of human anatomists and physiologists or the exclusive study area of linguists and language experts with reference to phonology and morphology.

However, none of the previous studies in those areas mentioned have explored the rich linguistic resources inherent in the human body to isolate and explicate the fecund Yorùbá idiomatic expressions which can serve as a fulcrum of intellectual enquiry for the learners of the Yorùbá language, most especially the youths. According to the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (2000), 'idioms are a group of words whose meanings are different from the meanings of the individual words'. They are expressions which have figurative and metaphorical meanings. They are conventionally understood by a particular speech community. Idioms, by their nature, hardly ever mean exactly what the words say. In general terms, they are meant to embellish and reinforce expressions in any communication event. In this paper, we argue that almost all of the human organs are a rich source of linguistic discourse in the domain of idiomatic expressions. We argue also that they constitute a veritable tool of linguistic discursive expressions in the explication of Yorùbá ideas and concepts.

Yorùbá Idioms

The Yorùbá idioms and idiomatic expressions, from ages, have remained a fecund source of the collective wisdom of the elders. They constitute a rich linguistic fountain from which elders in the community draw their salient facts in a discourse. Short and poignant with underlying meanings, idioms are expressions that are natural to a native speaker of a language. Lawal *et al* (1997) aver that a 'proverb is an idiom of a sort, a tightly condensed representation of a fairly comparable and rather large group of possibilities of socio-cultural experience'. Like the proverbs, idioms have deep and embedded meanings which may, sometimes, sound gibberish, rubbish or like a string of linguistic *hocus-pocus* to either the non-native speakers of the language or those with a superficial mastery of, or proficiency, in the Yorùbá language. Idiomatic expressions are mostly used by the elders among the Yorùbá people because of their age, vast

experience and status in the community. This does not imply, however, that the younger ones are forbidden from deploying the rich linguistic artefacts. But, oftentimes, they refrain from using them for fear of inappropriate usage and, consequently, being mocked and reprimanded by their age-mates and the elders respectively.

In addition, Yorùbá idioms are used to complement written or spoken discourse with a view to enhancing the quality of that piece of discourse. For, it is believed that an expression that is lacking in idiomatic expression is like an insipid stew that is lacking in necessary ingredients which otherwise could have given it an exquisite taste. Any expression that is not interspersed with the appropriate idiomatic expression usually sounds bland, insipid and uninspiring like a childish talk. This is why the youths in the Yoruba sub-ethnic group are always encouraged to imbibe the habit of studying Yorùbá idioms so that they can use them to add stylistic felicity to their spoken and written expressions. And, for those who register for Yorùbá as a school subject, they are rigorously drilled by their subject teachers in order that they may be familiar with the usage and meanings of the Yorùbá idioms, and thus, become competent users.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED WORKS

Studies on proverbs and idiomatic expressions are many and varied. See Ajayi, Lawal, and Raji, (1997), Salawudeen, (2001), Akanmu, (2002), Akinmade, (2012), Owomoyela, (2012), and Adesina, (2015). From those studies, a few deductions can be drawn. First, idioms and proverbs represent the rich source of a people's wisdom and are transmitted from generation to generation. They are part and parcel of the linguistic idiosyncrasies of the traditional African people, most especially the elderly ones. Second, the use of idioms and proverbs forms a part of the discursive strategies employed by the elders to draw home their points. Consequently, idioms are not really peculiar, or restricted to, any particular community, but form an integral part of the speech repertoire among the elders in the Yorùbá sub-ethnic group. Third, they are utilized in day-to-day interactions of Yorùbá elders to communicate social, ethical, cultural and intellectual values which guide and control the lives of those who understand them. Finally, their usage either in speech or in written form is rare or, at best, infrequent, most especially among the up-coming generation of the speakers of Yorùbá language. This is as a result of their exposure to western education and foreign culture. For instance, in his study, Akinmade (2012) laments over the decline in the use of proverbs in the oral expressions among the Oñdó people in the southwest part of Nigeria as a result of the influence of western culture on the youths which inhibits the utilization of Yorùbá proverbs among the speakers.

He, therefore, admonishes all stakeholders in the education sector to take the bull by the horns by ensuring that the time-honoured relic of the Oñdó people is not thrown inside the dustbin of history. While we empathise, as it were, with Akinmade's (ibid) observation on the declining patronage accorded Oñdó proverbs, we, however, want to submit that this discouraging phenomenon is not peculiar to Oñdó proverbs alone. Among the speakers of the other Yorùbá dialects too, a glaring absence of the use of idioms and proverbs in the speech and writing of Yorùbá folks is noticeable either when they interact with elders or among their peers or when they write essays in Yorùbá language. It is intriguing to note that whenever they use any of the idioms or proverbs, they tend to use them inappropriately, thus, betraying their gross lack of exposure to the aspect of the rich and fecund Yorùbá socio-cultural heritage.

Similarly, studies carried out by Lawal (1997) and Adesina (2015) examine the use of proverbs within the intellectual ambit of pragmatics. While Lawal (op cit) study is a pragmatic study of selected pairs of Yorùbá proverbs which focuses at identifying the illocutionary acts performed by the selected proverbs, Adesina's (op cit) focuses on the pragmatic use of some proverbs that are related to *egúngún* cult among the speakers of Yorùbá language. The *egúngún* cult, according to him, is one of the notable gods among the Yorùbá whose main preoccupation is to entertain guests at important social events. The use of proverbs that are associated with *egúngún* in Yorùbá culture, according to Adesina (op cit), 'has become very popular among the Yorùbá and those constructed on *egúngún* seem to inhabit a variety of spaces in the Yorùbá socio-cultural experience'. Believed to have created a virile and resourceful means of verbal expressions, his study examines the dynamics of constructing proverbs that are associated with *egúngún* cult whose meanings are beyond their prepositional contents. He, therefore, proposes a purely pragmatic approach to the use and interpretation of the selected proverbs.

Akanmu (2015) also, in his paper, examines the communicative adaptability of proverbs in political discourse. The paper discusses some political issues which utilize new and deviant idioms and idiomatic expressions in a number of socio-political contexts. According to him, the idioms utilized in the paper reflect the dynamism and modernity-constrained stylistic choices in Yorùbá. Motivated by the popular saying that 'the world is a global village' which imposes new global communicative challenges on the Yorùbá people, especially the politicians and their followers and, encouraged by the dynamic characteristic of every language, Akanmu (2015) stresses that Nigerian politicians and their followers have developed novel and rather quaint idioms in their sloganeering repertoire which are worth being given intellectual attention. The study, therefore, is a radical departure from the old traditional method of analyzing idioms. Rather, the study attempts at examining a new trend in the usage of idioms and idiomatic expressions in the domain of politics.

But, our argument is that while the new idioms and idiomatic expressions 'reflect dynamism and modernity-constrained stylistic choices in Yorùbá', they, nonetheless, do not reflect the beliefs and world-views of traditional Yorùbá people in whose mouths the proverbs taste the sweetest. Besides, the new idiomatic expressions which constituted data for his study only represent a reflection of modern-day language use among the upcoming or younger

generation. None of the studies reviewed above have, as a matter of fact, investigated the contents and values of either the proverbs or idioms that utilize the body parts in social interactions. The present study is significant in the sense that our exploration into the study of parts of the human body reveals that the study of human anatomy and physiology is not to be seen as the exclusive purview of human anatomists and physiologists alone. Rather, it must be considered as constituting a fertile ground on which sociolinguists also can exploit to explicate the communicative and discursive relevance of Yoruba idioms in Yoruba socio-cultural milieu. It is against this backdrop that we consider thirty Yorùbá idioms which are associated with the human organs and show how they are utilized to explicate deep and profound ideas in communication events.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study was carried out within the theoretical construct of the Ethnography of Communication which was propounded by Dell Hymes (1962). The framework studies communication within the ambit of social and cultural practices and beliefs of the particular members of a speech community. It is a theoretical construct which recognizes the intrinsic interface of language and culture. Hymes' (1962) framework accords a high priority to the relation of language to the society as the former cannot be divorced from the latter and, for the latter to thrive, the former is indispensable. In this study, we strongly believe that a deep understanding of cultural norms is necessary for the interpretation of Yorùbá idiomatic expressions as those idioms, by their nature, hardly ever mean exactly what they communicate and thus require native competence to interpret them appropriately.

IV. DATA SOURCE

The Yorùbá ethnic group belongs to the Niger-Congo ethnic tribe in the southwest part of Nigeria. It is an ethnic group renowned for its vast cultural heritage one of which is the deft use of proverbs and idiomatic expressions which are compact in size, yet so recondite in meaning. Idioms are in a legion, and they are utilized mostly by the elders in the society to embellish and reinforce their speech and writing. Idioms are used by Yorùbá elders in a discourse not only to 'drive their points home' Lawal (op cit), but also to garnish and add stylistic vigour, flavour and vitality to expressions. The idioms and idiomatic expressions that constitute the data for this study were collected from informants who were native speakers of the language since usage of idioms in social interactions is mostly found among them, and, according to Lawal (op cit), among the Yorùbá, 'proverbs taste sweetest in the mouth of very old people'. Some textbooks on Yoruba idioms and proverbs were also consulted. The data comprised thirty idioms in Yorùbá language with their literal and metaphorical corresponding English language translation. The data were classified into the three major constituent parts of the body namely: the head (and its parts), the trunk (and its parts) and the internal organs which all combine together to ensure the viability of the human body. The data, the usage and the analysis are shown below:

V. DATA PRESENTATION AND USAGE

This section is devoted to the presentation and usage of our data. The idioms treat such thematic preoccupations as: anger, betrayal, danger, love, destruction, death, anxiety and a host of other psychological and emotional issues that man is confronted with.

A. Idiomatic Expressions That Relate to the Head and Its Parts

In this section, we examine some idiomatic expressions which relate to the head and its component parts. The component parts include, but are not limited to, the ears, the eyes, the nose, the hair, the lips, the tongue and the teeth. For want of space, we will not be able to explicate all the component parts that constitute the head. The head and its component parts are essential organs in the body, because they give form to the human structure. In other words, without them, human beings remain formless-and, in fact, lifeless. A Yorùbá idiomatic expression which lends credence to the essential nature of the head likens an earless head to a splinter of wood (*Etí ò sí, orí dápólà igi* meaning the absence of the ear-lobes from the head has made the head to appear like a splinter of wood). Some of the idiomatic expressions that relate to the head and its parts are discussed below.

1. *Forí kólé agbón* (Literarily, use the head to collect the hornet's nest but metaphorically, to stir the hornet's nest). It means to be in a serious trouble. This idiomatic expression is used either to warn a person to steer clear of trouble or to make jest of someone who, either through carelessness or stubbornness, has put him/herself in a serious trouble.

2. *Gbé àgbòndò lówó* (Literarily, to hold one's chin but metaphorically, to be idle). The chin, according to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2004), is 'the part of the face below the mouth and above the neck'. It is believed to be a passive organ as it is not classified among the major organs in the human body. Perhaps, because of its passive or not too prominent function it plays in human physiognomy, its usage in Yorùbá cosmology conjures idleness, passiveness and inaction. So, when someone is described as holding the chin with their hands, such a person is being referred to as having been idle, inactive or indolent. Such occasions when the idiomatic expression may be used include, but not limited to, the off-peak period at work-place or during any of industrial action periods like picketing and sit-down strike moments. Such occasions demand that the workers ignore workplace rules and regulations, abandon their duties and

throw the workplace into a state of disarray. Similarly, the idiom is used to refer to a jobless person who only watches helplessly the unfolding events of life.

3. *Forí gbárí* (Literarily, to knock one's head with another person's but metaphorically, to be in contest with someone). This idiom is used when someone is in a struggle to gain control or power with someone else. It is also used when some contestants are slugging it out with others in a competition such as: beauty, writing, sporting or political contest. The English translation is given as locking horns together or to be at logger heads.

4. *Gbòntí nù* (Literarily, to shake off the ear-lobes but metaphorically, to fail to heed warning). It is used to express complete disregard to something or to treat something as unimportant. Other synonyms in this category include: *Kofí ògbòin sí* and *Feti pa laba*. In this context, *eti* (the ear drum) which is the human organ for hearing is used. This means that the ear which is used for hearing may be used to incline to warnings or to ignore warnings as exemplified in the above idioms.

5. *Kárí bọnú* (Literarily, to hide one's head but metaphorically, to bury one's head in shame/sorrow). The head is an easily recognizable part of the body. In human anatomy, the head is at the top of the human body. It carries the trunk, the arms, the legs and the feet. So, when the head which is supposed to occupy the front and easily recognizable position is now buried down, it means that a reproach or a matter of shame is involved.

6. *Lù lógo ẹnu* (Literarily, to hit someone's mouth with a rod but metaphorically, to laud someone). The underlying or metaphorical meaning of this idiom is incongruous with its ordinary, denotative meaning. The expression, *Lù lógo ẹnu*, from its primary or literal context of use, gives the picture of a person being hit in the mouth with a rod. So, it is possible for someone who is not a competent user of Yorùbá idiomatic sayings to interpret the above idiomatic expression as meaning that the referent is being struck in the mouth with a heavy object. But, the metaphorical or secondary higher level interpretation of the idiom is far from its denotative meaning. The expression, *Lù lógo ẹnu*, is understood by every competent user of the Yorùbá language to mean: to praise or to commend someone for a worthy or laudable effort. The expression is, therefore, used to laud, eulogize or extol a good deed performed by someone.

7. *Fimú finlẹ* (Literarily, to use the nose to sniff the ground but metaphorically, to investigate). The idiom means to carry out surveillance on someone or to investigate, especially a crime. The nose is positioned beneath the eyes and its major function is to breathe as well as to sniff for something. When the latter meaning is meant, as we have it in this context, an act of surveillance or intelligence report is involved.

8. *Fètè òkè lu todò* (Literarily, use the upper lip to hit the lower lip but metaphorically, engage in a conversation/talk). The lips constitute an essential part in the human body. They are two: the lower and the upper lips. They are the two soft edges at the entrance of the mouth. They function prominently in the articulation of certain consonant sounds. The idiomatic expression, *fètè òkè lu todò* can be used in two different contexts: positive and negative. When the Yorùbá affirm the upper lip 'hits' or articulates with the lower lip, it implies an oral communication, in the form of conversation or discussion, has taken place. The idiom can also be applied to an instance of chattering when the two lips are engaged ceaselessly as in, for instance, two children or two housewives chattering away or at each other in an excited manner. Conversely, when there is no engagement or articulation of the upper and lower lips, a state of complete silence is connoted.

9. *Korò ojú sí* (Literarily, to show bitterness with the eyes but metaphorically, to express annoyance or anger with somebody). The human eyes are two organs on the head which human beings see with. As important organs in the human body, the eyes construct different discursive strategies. They can be used, for instance, to connote anger, warning, pleasantness or to fix a tryst. The idiomatic expression in this context connotes a state of annoyance at somebody for an act of misdemeanour or wrong-doing. In other words, the idiom is applied when a feeling of smouldering anger is expressed to someone for a certain misdeed. It can also be used to express utter indignation or displeasure at, for instance, ill-treatment or unfair dealing in some business transaction.

B. Idiomatic Expressions that Relate to the Trunk

Our data in this section comprise idioms that relate to the trunk. In human anatomy, the head is believed to attach to the trunk. According to human anatomists, the appendicle portion of the human body consists of limbs, the arms and the legs (see: <https://www.pulib.sk/web/subor.1>). Essentially, most of the parts comprising the trunk are used for locomotion. The idiomatic expressions below are drawn from parts of the human body of which the arms, the legs and the hands play major roles.

1. *Jin lésẹ* (Literarily, to hit on the leg but metaphorically, to betray): This idiomatic expression means to betray someone, to defraud or to behave insincerely or dishonestly to others. The expression can be better understood with some examples from the Holy Bible. For, in the Holy Bible (Gen, chapter 25 verses 24-34) Jacob, the twin brother of Esau was referred to as a traitor and a betrayer because he was believed to have betrayed his twin brother on three different occasions. At birth, the Bible recalls that while Jacob was given birth to, after the birth of Esau, he (Jacob) was said to have taken hold of Esau's heel (Gen. 25: 26), hence, Jacob the betrayer. All the activities of Jacob throughout his life pointed to his treacherous and traitorous instincts. One of such was when he made Esau sell his birthright on a platter of pottage (see Gen. 25: 27-34). Another occasion was when he fraudulently stole the blessings meant for his twin brother-Esau (see Gen. 27: 18-40). The expression, therefore, is used to describe an act of betrayal, conceit, conspiracy and mischief.

2. *Pàkùrò lójúgun* (Literarily, to crack the palm kernel nuts on someone else's shin but metaphorically, to display wickedness to someone). The shin is a part of the human body at the front of the leg below the knee. The portion in the human body is scarce of the flesh because a thin layer of flesh covers the shin bone. This, therefore, makes the pain excruciatingly felt when someone hits it against an object. The pain is more excruciatingly felt when, out of sheer wickedness, a person decides to hit his fellow human being on the shin with a striking object. The expression is used to describe or state a wicked act; for, it is sheer wickedness for someone to crack the palm kernel on the shin of another person. It is only someone whose sense of humanity or feeling is completely dead that can behave wickedly and cruelly to other people. The idiomatic expression is therefore used to refer to a devilish, godless, vicious and vile person.

3. *Fọwọ rọgi igbàgbé* (literarily, to hang onto a forgotten tree but metaphorically, to be dead or forgotten). This idiomatic expression is used for a dead person. When a Yorùbá person euphemistically wants to refer to a dead person, he says that the deceased has hung on to a forgotten tree. Other synonyms for the expression include: *Gbèkuru jẹ lówọ ẹbọra* (To collect mashed bean cakes from the spirits), *Papò dà* (Change position) and *Wàjà* (enter the ceiling). All of the expressions are euphemism of death. The idiomatic expression is heavily embedded to hide meaning from the young folks, especially when the death of an elderly person is announced.

4. *Gbe nígbònwósókè* or *Gbe ní ìgunpá sókè* (Literarily, to lift someone up by the elbow but metaphorically, to assist especially, with finance). The lexeme, *ìgbònwọ* or *ìgunpáin* Yorùbá means elbow. The elbow is an important part in the human body. According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of current English (2000), an elbow 'is the joint between the upper and lower parts of the arm where it bends in the middle'. It is connected to the bones that join the biceps. In the context of its use, the idiomatic expression connotes the act of assisting, supporting or helping others in need of help, especially financial help. The idiom can be applied to someone who needs help in the time of adversity or trouble in order to lift the problem(s) off his/her shoulders.

5. *Fesẹ wonsẹ* (Literarily, to match legs together but metaphorically, to be in contest with someone). This is a Yorùbá idiomatic expression which verbalizes the act of struggling with an opponent in the race for a coveted prize. The legs upon which the entire body parts rest perform a locomotive function. They are used to walk. The idiom is used to indicate that two or more people in a contest are squaring it up between or among themselves for some prize.

6. *Fapá jánú* (Literarily, to snap the stomach with the arm but metaphorically, to agitate for something). When this idiom is in use, the context of its usage is mostly the one which is suggestive of disdain, anger, protest and unyielding stubbornness, as, for instance, in a display of unyielding stubbornness by members of a trade union against their employers. This demonstration of protest against perceived injustice is often expressed by trade unionists, human rights activists and those associated with seeking redress for unfair treatment. It can also be used when an individual stubbornly refuses to yield or shift ground on account of indignation or anger.

7. *Fọwọ òsì júwe ònà ilé funní* (Literarily, to use the left hand to show the way to someone but metaphorically, to dismiss). In Yorùbá worldview, the left hand signifies disdain or insult. For instance, it is forbidden that the left hand is used to give or offer an item to another person. Neither is it desirable to receive an item from another person with the left hand. When the left hand is outstretched to collect a material from another person, the giver quickly withdraws his hand, because the gesture is considered in Yorùbá land as a taboo or as a token of impoliteness. The left hand too is used to decline an offer as well as to dismiss a fact. It is also used to treat a matter disdainfully. In the context of its usage, the idiom which is euphemistic in nature means to dismiss an employee from work, to humiliate by relieving a person of his/her job, or to treat another person discourteously and disdainfully.

8. *Sun rárà ẹsẹ* (Literarily, to render elegy with the feet but metaphorically, to engage in an aimless wondering). This idiom constructs a seemingly contradictory phenomenon; hence, it may seem incomprehensible to anyone who is not well-grounded in Yorùbá idiomatic expressions. For, the feet are not body organs for singing. They are far from performing a singing activity. Rather, they are used to tread the earth and perform sporting activities. But in this context, it means to wander or walk aimlessly. The idiom is used for a jobless loafer who goes about aimlessly.

9. *Ìrọwọ, ìrọsẹ* (Literarily, both hands and legs beginning to drop but metaphorically, effortlessly; easily; peacefully). The adage that two good heads are better than one is most apposite in this context. This is because what two heads (two persons) will reason out together is far more likely to produce an acceptable proposal than when a head (a person) or an individual is involved in a decision making. Similarly, when the hands and feet are involved in the execution of a task, the Yorùbá believe that the task will produce a successful outcome. Therefore, the idiom, *ìrọwọ, ìrọsẹ*, means an effortless accomplishment of a task. It is used to refer to the outcome of a task which has produced a remarkable success, but with much less effort. For instance, an amicable settlement of a dispute in an industrial relations context or a settlement in a domestic hassle all fall within the context of this idiomatic expression.

10. *Fàyà ràn* (Literarily, to use the chest for support but metaphorically, to persevere). The chest is believed to be the appropriate body organ that is used to lift a heavy load before the load settles on the head. In weightlifting, for instance, it is normal that while the weightlifter lifts up the weight, he first places it on his chest for him to be able to lift the object of weight aloft. So, the idiom, *fàyà ràn* (bear burden with the chest), is an indication that the chest is an important body part that bears the burden of any kind. This is not surprising as the portion of the human body houses such vital organs as the heart, the lungs and the liver. The idiom therefore means to endure or to persevere.

C. Idiomatic Expressions that Relate to the Internal Organs of the Body

The internal organs constitute the vital body organs that are found inside the stomach. They help in the homeostasis of the human beings. Majority of them constitute those that human beings cannot live without. Others are less vital which implies that human beings can live without them. Some of the internal organs which constitute a veritable source of Yoruba idiomatic expressions include: the heart, lungs, stomach, kidney, diaphragm, spleen, liver, pancreas, the bile and the large and small intestines. Below are some of the Yorùbá idiomatic expressions that relate to the internal organs of the body.

1. *Fẹ̀dẹ̀ lórí òrònró* (Literarily, to place the liver on top of bile but metaphorically, to be at peace with someone). Both the liver and the bile are vital internal organs in the body. While the liver is edible, the bile is not, because of its bitter taste. Placing the liver atop the bile conjures a contrasting yet soothing image. The effect produced by the two organs can be likened to the contrast between water and fire, but the combination of which produces a soothing or a less hazardous effect, to a Yorùbá adage, the water quenches the ranging venom of the blazing fire. Therefore, the combination of the sweet edible liver and the bitter inedible bile paradoxically produces a soothing effect. In the context of its usage, the idiomatic expression means to maintain peace and tranquillity, especially in a dispute or in an argument. It is also used to advise someone with frayed nerves due to smouldering anger, bitterness or animosity to sheathe the sword and embrace peace. It is an idiom that is often used in a rancorous situation to advise the warring parties to temper anger with calm.

2. *Fẹ̀jẹ̀ sínú, tutọ́ funfun jáde* (Literarily, to conceal the blood and spit out white saliva but metaphorically, to express deception). This idiom expresses a contrasting pair. The contrast expressed in each of the NP (Noun Phrase) gives an overall effect of deception. The first segment of the NP (*fẹ̀jẹ̀ sínú*), for instance, conjures up the image of blood with its red colour concealed within, and which sharply contrasts with (*tutọ́ funfun*), that is, emit the spittle which is assumed to be white in colour. There is even a contrast between *sínú* (within) in the first segment of the idiom and *jáde* (outside) in the second segment. So, the idiom is a funny bundle of seeming contradictions. But, the seeming contradictions are not without their heavily embedded meanings. Because of the paradoxical image which the idiom conjures, its meaning is expectedly couched in protean evasiveness. The idiom is used to describe the speech or action of someone as lacking in truth, veracity and transparency. It is also used to refer to the chameleon-like proteanness in someone's conduct. Therefore, a person who is parsimonious with the truth or who says the exact opposite of his/her intention is mostly associated with the idiom.

3. *Gbókàn sókè* (Literarily, raise the heart aloft but metaphorically, to be agitated). The heart which perhaps is the most vital of the organs of the body resides in the left side of the chest. It pumps blood around the body. It is so sensitive and so vital to human existence that doctors often advise to treat it specially by refraining from any habit or activity that is capable of rendering it dysfunctional. Some of those activities or habits include excessive consumption of salt, alcohol and cigarettes. Again, people are advised to refrain from things that can trigger nervousness such as engaging in risky ventures which can cause nervousness and emotional instability. In the context of its usage here, the idiom connotes any action or activity that can instigate nervousness, giddiness or a state of emotional and psychological imbalance. When someone is faced with a complex and, sometimes life-threatening challenge, the tendency is that their actions may betray anxiety, restiveness and restlessness. That moment is, literally, when the heart takes a momentary flight from its natural habitat. The heart returns to its closet only when the cause or source of the trouble finally and completely disappears. The idiom is a piece of advice that no one should engage in any task that can cause the heart to suffer excessive trepidation.

4. *Fẹ̀jẹ̀ wẹ* (Literarily, to bathe in blood but metaphorically, to be in grave danger). The blood is symbolic of danger, though it also symbolizes life. In this context, to bathe with blood is to be in grave danger. It is a cautionary statement to an indiscreet or a heedless person to desist from his/her incautious and impetuous habit. The Yorùbá adage that says, 'the dog that strays into the lion's den will get itself bathed in or soaked with its blood' is a good illustration of the idiom in this context. It is only an impetuous and imprudent person who will dare an armed soldier when he does not have any means of self defence. Therefore, any unarmed person who stupidly challenges a well-kitted person to a duel may be said to be attempting to bathe in his own blood.

5. *Onifun kan bíi tejò* (Literarily, to have one intestine like that of a snake but metaphorically, A glutton). Literally, it means a person with one long intestine. Anatomically, a normal human being does not have an intestine. Rather, he/she has two loops of a long tube in the body between the stomach and the anus. The two loops are classified as the small and large intestines. This implies that a normal human being possesses two long intestines where food passes from the stomach first, from the small intestine and, finally, to the large intestine. So, possession of a single intestine by a human being constitutes physiological abnormality. The idiomatic expression above is used to describe a person whose eating habit is abnormal. It is used to describe a person with an extremely rapacious eating habit. It refers to a glutton who easily gets hungry as soon as he/she eats one round of a meal. The idiomatic expression is an adroit reference to the snake which is believed to possess a rapacious eating habit because of its possession of one long intestine.

6. *Gbogbé ọkàn* (Literarily, to receive the cut/injury of the heart but metaphorically, to be perplexed). Due to its sensitive nature as well as its centrality to the existence of every human being, the heart is often protected against any hazard to it. In this context, an incident that is capable of inflicting a serrated injury to the heart must have been a very serious one. For instance, the death of a loved one at the prime of life, dismissal from a work-place, a colossal loss or

deferred hope is enough to cause a blistering injury to the heart. The Holy Bible underscores this fact when, in Proverbs 13: 12, it says: ‘hope deferred makes the heart sick’.

7. *Só sìnì lènu, buyò si* (Literarily, to fart in someone’s mouth and at the same time pour salt in it but metaphorically, to be in confusion). To fart is to release the gas or air from the bowels through the anus. When released either silently or loudly, its offensive odour permeates the atmosphere in which it is released. When a fart is released into someone’s mouth, a state of discomfort that may likely provoke puke is created. The addition of salt, however, makes the feeling all the more unpleasant and provocative. The idiom in this context describes a knotty, nasty, perplexing and confounding situation. It is used to paint a confused state of affairs. When one is faced between the devil and the deep blue sea or when one is confronted with a difficult situation where there are two unpleasant choices to make, the idiom comes readily in mind.

8. *Sẹ léegun èyìn* (Literarily, to break someone’s backbone but metaphorically, to cut someone’s source of livelihood). The backbone or the spine is an important organ in the body. It ensures body stability and virility. An injury to the spine through an accident or an infection can cause spinal cord injury. When it occurs, the victim loses mental and physical agility and thus becomes a mere vegetable. The idiom is used to describe a situation in which someone’s source of power or means of livelihood has been destroyed and is thus, left with little or no hope of survival just in the same manner as a spinal cord injury victim has a very slim hope of enjoying a normal life again.

9. *Fisó kínnkín bàdí jẹ* (Literarily, to allow little fart to spoil the buttocks but metaphorically, to act foolishly). The idiom is used when someone squanders a big opportunity through sheer carelessness, lack of restraint or complete recklessness. The idiomatic expression comes in handy when there is a golden opportunity awaiting someone and one is only an inch to grab the opportunity but, owing to indiscretion and impetuosity, misses the opportunity by the whiskers. The underlying meaning in this idiomatic expression is that it is always dangerous to treat important issues flippantly because an opportunity comes but once.

10. *Su sága* (Literarily, to defecate on the chair but metaphorically, to stain or lose one’s integrity). This euphemistic expression is a derivative of a Yorùbá expression that, *ìgbà tóyìnbó bá fẹ̀ lẹ̀ ló n su sága*, meaning that the white man defecates on the chair when he decides to take his leave (from a place). The context of usage of the idiom is when someone, especially a guest or an occupant of an office leaves an unpleasant memory in the wake of his/her exit. Expectedly, a visitor is expected to leave fond memories for his/her guests in the wake of their departure. This benign gesture is, therefore, expected of an occupant of a position of responsibility that he/she should leave behind remarkable footprints on the sand of time for his/her patrons and successors because of the popular Yorùbá belief that the rain can beat someone back into the same house from which one has taken a cover in more than one time. The implication is that one should not destroy the ladder that one has used to climb up to the top, for, the same ladder will be required when ascending. This implies that in whatever position of responsibility we find ourselves, we should demonstrate a high sense of integrity by not staining or losing it.

VI. FINDINGS/DISCUSSION

Our findings from this study thus far showed that the Yorùbá idioms are many and varied, and treat different thematic preoccupations. Besides, they constitute an important aspect of the traditional Yorùbá orature. Rendered in great solemnity, Yorùbá idioms treasure in the expressions of almost all aspects of human activities. In other words, they are utilized to express short and compact sayings of universal relevance. As a speech genre in the linguistic repertoire of the speakers of the Yorùbá language, Yorùbá idioms express the rich and fecund facilities of the Yorùbá people from the southwest part of Nigeria. They also constitute models of verbal economy among the elders in whose mouths idiomatic expressions taste the sweetest. From the data presented in this study also, it is evident that there is hardly any part of the human body, from the external organs to the internal organs, that does not construct pithy and laconic expressions that are profound in meaning and elegant in style. They construct the collective wisdom of the elders in the society with such thematic preoccupations that are primarily meant to teach, to warn, to admonish and to build up good and noble character traits in the minds of the present generation of the youths.

Furthermore, the need to inculcate the understanding of Yorùbá idioms in the minds of the youths in the society is informed by the youths’ neglect of the time-honoured cultural values of the Yorùbá norms and their unashamed preference for the foreign language and culture. This unusual preference for foreign culture, to say the least, has contributed largely to the diminishing status of the indigenous languages in Nigeria as a whole. For, according to Ohiri-Anichie (2014), ‘many of the indigenous languages are endangered today due to neglect and denigration as over twenty five percent of children below the age of eleven are unable to speak their parents’ indigenous languages’ let alone deploy the fecundity of the indigenous idioms in their spoken and written expressions. Many literate Nigerian parents themselves have helped the matter either as they usually discourage their children from speaking in any other code than the English language which they regard as the language of the elite group in the society. (<https://www.vanguardngr.com/2014/02/400-nigerian-indigenous-languages-endangered/> assessed Jan. 3rd, 2017)

VII. CONCLUSION

We examined in this paper the contents and values of selected Yorùbá idiomatic expressions that relate to the parts of the human body. We argued that a research into the human body should not be the exclusive study area of human anatomists and physiologists alone. Linguists and language experts as well can explore the rich linguistic resources inherent in the human body to isolate and explicate the fecund Yorùbá idiomatic expressions which can serve as a fulcrum of intellectual enquiry for the learners of the Yorùbá language, most especially the youths. Our concern for undertaking this study may not be unconnected with the dwindling rate at which the traditional Yorùbá culture, of which the idioms occupy a significant place, is being treated flippantly. It is our humble opinion that the study will go a long way to rekindle the flagging interest of the youths in Yorùbá culture as this will help in saving the Yorùbá language from impending extinction.

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Research on the Phenomenon of “Chinese Culture Aphasia” among the College Students in China—Based on a Survey Study of Heilongjiang Bayi Agricultural University^{*}

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Abstract—In an era of globalization, our societies have become increasingly multicultural. And along with the deepening reform of college English teaching in China, cultural teaching plays a more important role in the cultivation of students’ humanistic qualities. A questionnaire and a cultural test paper were conducted to investigate the phenomenon of the “Chinese Culture Aphasia” of college English teaching in Heilongjiang Bayi Agricultural University. According to analyses of the research, English teachers of our university have tried to study its causes and explore the ways to integrate Chinese culture into English teaching to fully promote students’ humanistic qualities. In the process of teaching, the language skills teaching and the humanistic education will be united to cultivate students’ cultural critical thinking, to develop their international cultural horizons, to realize the curriculum ideology of the “whole-person education” in English teaching.

Index Terms—Chinese culture aphasia, College English teaching, teaching model, intercultural communication

I. INTRODUCTION

The inextricable relationship between language and culture determines their inseparability in language teaching. Compared with cultural teaching with humanistic nature, college English teaching in China has long paid more attention to the instrumental nature of language, such as, grammar teaching and communicative function training. As a result, the humanistic function and cultural transmission of language teaching are in the ignore state. In recent years, the cultural teaching in college English teaching has been greatly improved. English teachers process to strengthen the cultural input in teaching, to a great extent, which promote the language teaching and enhance the interesting and practices of teaching. But in some ways, it only pays attention to spread the target-language culture, the native culture, especially Chinese traditional culture has not been well integrated into the college English teaching in China. The result is that students lack of communicative abilities to express Chinese culture in English. There is a serious culturally literacy gap between Chinese and western cultures in teaching which leads to the phenomenon of “Chinese Culture Aphasia”.

Professor Cong (Cong Cong, 2000) from Nanjing University firstly proposed the existence of “Chinese Culture Aphasia” in English education in his article ““Chinese Culture Aphasia’: Defects of English Teaching in China” published in *Guangming Daily* on October 19th 2000. He mentioned that many young Chinese scholars with a considerable degree of English had always failed to show the profound cultural literacy and lacked independent cultural personality in their communication with foreigners. He also found that some doctoral students with high levels of basic English language skills and Chinese cultural knowledge who once entered the English communication context, they immediately presented “Chinese Culture Aphasia” which referred to the shortage of Chinese cultural knowledge, especially traditional Chinese culture and the inability to express Chinese culture in English. Through his research, professor Cong believed that the phenomenon of “Chinese Cultural Aphasia” was closely related to the ability to English expressions of Chinese culture.

The fourth nationwide high-level forum on the Reform and Development of Foreign Language Education was held in March 2019. Professor Wang (Shouren Wang, 2019) presented some problems in the cultivation of intercultural competence in foreign language education in China, that are: attaching more importance to foreign cultures while neglecting Chinese culture; emphasizing on language micro skills instead of mode of discourse; focusing on knowledge accumulation rather than critical thinking education. Nowadays, students are expected to be ambassadors of cultural exchanges who can introduce Chinese culture with thousands of years of civilization to foreigners who are interested in to have a comprehensive and in-depth understanding of the Chinese nation.

A research was conducted to study the non-English majors’ abilities to express Chinese culture in English and their degree of Chinese Culture Aphasia in Heilongjiang Bayi Agricultural University. The study intents to improve students’

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intercultural awareness and competence with both target culture and native culture through integrating Chinese culture in college English teaching.

II. METHODOLOGY

The survey aims at investigating the existence and the extent of Chinese Culture Aphasia in college English teaching of Heilongjiang Bayi Agricultural University, at testing students' intercultural communication abilities and English learning interest in integrating Chinese culture in the college English courses. And then, in accordance with the research analyses, teachers will try to find out the suggestive solutions to improve the cultural teaching in College English Teaching.

A. Objectives

In order to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the students' cultural accomplishments and their abilities to express Chinese culture in English, a questionnaire survey and a test paper were conducted in May, 2019.

B. Subjective

210 non-English majors from different schools of Heilongjiang Bayi Agricultural University were involved in the survey. They major in different disciplines, including Accounting, Computer Science, Marketing, Economics, Sociology, Mathematics, Biology, Mechanical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Civil Engineering. They are sophomores and are still taking the English course.

C. Instruments

There is one questionnaire and a cultural test paper for research.

1. Questionnaire

In order to get the first-hand information, the questionnaire was conducted. Its purposes are to investigate the participants' attitude towards Chinese culture, to understand students' abilities to express Chinese culture in English, to learn their needs and suggestions on the improvement of their abilities to express Chinese culture in English, etc. It consists of 10 questions and are anonymously collected. From the first to the ninth question, only one answer can be chosen. The last one question has more than one answer to be chosen. The Likert scale was adopted in some questions in the form of "strongly disagree, somewhat disagree, uncertain, somewhat agree and strongly agree" respectively, so as to show students' attitude towards the content of the survey more objectively. 210 papers were all collected. The recovery rate is 100%.

2. Test

The author designed a paper for testing the students' abilities to express some specific items of Chinese culture in English. It includes three parts. The first part is translating 30 representative Chinese cultural-specific words into English which refer to Chinese festivals, food, history, politics, geography and so on. Two points can be got if one term is translated correctly. The second part is short answer which requires students to briefly introduce "Chinese Peking Opera, four treasures of study, four famous embroideries and four famous grottoes" in English. 2.5 points can be got if one term is partly translated and 5 points corresponds to the perfect answer. The third part introduces Chinese scenic spots and historical sites. The total score of the test paper is 100 points. The test lasted within 45 minutes. The students are not allowed to look up dictionary to examine their actual ability to express Chinese culture in English.

III. RESEARCH RESULTS AND MAIN FINDINGS

The data and results of the questionnaire and tests are analyzed in order to put forward several suggestions for inputting Chinese culture in college English teaching.

A. Findings and Discussions of the Questionnaire

10 questions were listed in the questionnaire to survey the students' attitudes to Chinese culture in English in Heilongjiang Bayi Agricultural University. The Likert Five Scales was used in the multiple choices. The subjects were asked to tickle one of the five degrees of agreement.

1. Students' recognition and attitudes to learn Chinese culture in English Course

Question 1,2,3,8 and 9 are classified as students' recognition and attitudes to learn Chinese culture in English. The results of the questions of the questionnaire have been presented below.

TABLE 1.
RESULTS OF Q1

Question	Option	Number	Percentage
1. You know a lot about Chinese culture.	strongly agree	31	14.76%
	somewhat agree	99	47.14%
	uncertain	62	29.52%
	somewhat disagree	17	8.10%
	strongly disagree	1	0.48%

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF Q2

Question	Option	Number	Percentage
2. You would like to introduce Chinese culture in communicating with westerners.	strongly agree	107	50.95%
	somewhat agree	76	36.19%
	uncertain	23	10.95%
	somewhat disagree	3	1.43%
	strongly disagree	1	0.48%

TABLE 3.
RESULTS OF Q3

Question	Option	Number	Percentage
3. It is necessary to learn how to express Chinese culture in English.	strongly agree	91	43.33%
	somewhat agree	71	33.81%
	uncertain	21	10.00%
	somewhat disagree	19	9.05%
	strongly disagree	8	3.81%

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF Q8

Question	Option	Number	Percentage
8. Are you satisfied with the content of Chinese culture in the English courses?	strongly agree	20	9.52%
	somewhat agree	56	26.67%
	uncertain	98	46.67%
	somewhat disagree	28	13.33%
	strongly disagree	8	3.81%

TABLE 5.
RESULTS OF Q9

Question	Option	Number	Percentage
9. Chinese culture should be integrated into the English courses.	strongly agree	90	42.86%
	somewhat agree	86	40.95%
	uncertain	17	8.10%
	somewhat disagree	9	4.29%
	strongly disagree	8	3.81%

According to the above data (Table 1), 47.14% of the students somewhat agreed and 14.76% of them strongly agreed that they knew a lot about Chinese culture. As shown in the question 2 (Table 2), 87.14% of the students (50.95% strongly agree and 36.19% somewhat agree) held positive attitudes on introducing Chinese culture to foreigners in communicating. Most of the students (43.33% strongly agree) (Table 3) believed that it was necessary to learn how to express Chinese culture in English in class. In question 8 (Table 4), only 9.52% of the students satisfied greatly with the content of Chinese culture in English courses and 46.67% of them were uncertain. The majority students' attitudes (42.86% strongly agree, 40.95% somewhat agree) (Table 5) to the integration of Chinese culture in the English courses are positive. All in all, most of the students have a positive attitude towards learning Chinese culture in English and they are likely to be cultural ambassadors who bring Chinese culture to the people from other countries.

2. Students' practical skills of learning Chinese culture in English

Question 4 and 5 investigated students' abilities to introduce Chinese culture in English and the difficulties they met in learning.

TABLE 6.
RESULTS OF Q4

Question	Option	Number	Percentage
4. Can you introduce Chinese culture in English?	very difficult	99	47.14%
	difficult	98	46.67%
	less difficult	13	6.19%
	no difficulty	0	0%

TABLE 7.
RESULTS OF Q5

Question	Option	Number	Percentage
5. What are your main difficulties in expressing Chinese culture in English?	lack of cultural knowledge	48	22.86%
	language skills deficits	136	64.76%
	others	26	12.38%

From the results of question 4 (Table 6), it clearly shows that 93.81% of students had difficulties in introducing Chinese culture in English. 46.67% of them thought it was difficult and 47.14% of them was very difficult. When asked the main difficulties they met in expressing Chinese culture in English (Table 7), 64.76% of students indicated that they had deficiency in language skills.

3. The sources of learning Chinese culture in English

Textbooks are the important materials in college English teaching and also the main source of students' English input.

TABLE 8.
RESULTS OF Q6

Question	Option	Number	Percentage
6. The college English textbook you use contains a lot of Chinese culture.	strongly agree	27	12.86%
	somewhat agree	62	29.52%
	uncertain	42	20.00%
	somewhat disagree	69	32.86%
	strongly disagree	10	4.76%

It can be seen from the figures of the Question 6 (Table 8), just 12.86% of students strongly agreed that the textbooks containing a lot of information of Chinese culture.

TABLE 9.
RESULTS OF Q7

Question	Option	Number	Percentage
7. What are the main sources of learning to express Chinese culture in English?	textbook	41	19.52%
	extracurricular reading materials	32	15.24%
	teacher's lecture	84	40.00%
	internet websites	44	20.95%
	others	9	4.29%

There are various opinions concerning the main sources of learning to express Chinese culture in English. 19.52% of students (Table 9) expressed that they learned the English version of Chinese culture from textbook and 40% of students thought that teacher's lectures were the main sources of learning. 15.24% of the students chose extracurricular reading materials as the source of learning and choice of internet websites took 20.95%. The figures reflect their diversity of learning and also indicate that Chinese culture teaching is inadequate and insufficient in college English teaching.

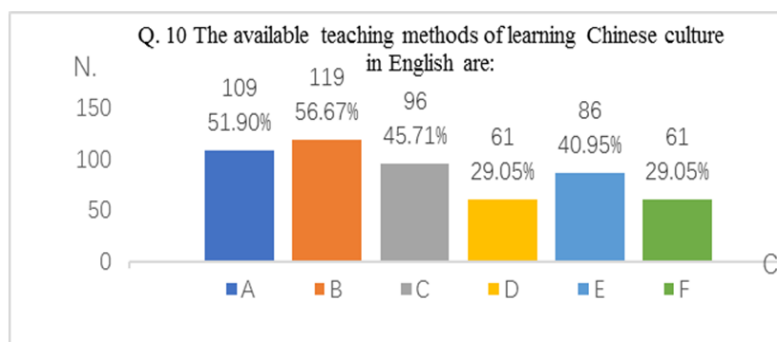


Figure 1. Results of Q10

As for the answers of Question 10 (Figure 1): the available teaching methods of learning Chinese culture in English, most of the students expressed their expectations on some useful ways to improve their learning skills. The bar graph above shows that 51.90% (109 of the subjective) of students chose answer A (lectures on cultural vocabulary). And answer B that is cultural topics (accounting for 56.67%). 45.71% (96 students) of them liked to learn it in situation dialogue. 29.05% (61 of them) of students wanted to have group discussion and 40.95% (86 students) of them would like to learn it through cultural contrast and comparison between English and Chinese. In addition, answer F that is to practice listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating took 29.05% (61 students).

According to the analyses of the results, it can be drawn a conclusion that most of the students have certain interest in learning Chinese culture in English and hold positive attitudes to it.

B. Findings and Discussions of the Test Paper

In order to get the details and study the real situation of Chinese Culture Aphasia of college students in Heilongjiang Bayi Agricultural University, a Chinese culture test paper was made to analyze their expressing level of Chinese culture in English. The cultural test paper consists of three parts. However, the results of the test are not satisfying, especially the last two parts.

1. Analysis of the first part of the test paper

The first part of the test paper was used to analyze students' abilities to express the Chinese culture-specific items in English. The words and phrases cover Chinese ideology, literature, idioms, food and festivals, and so on.

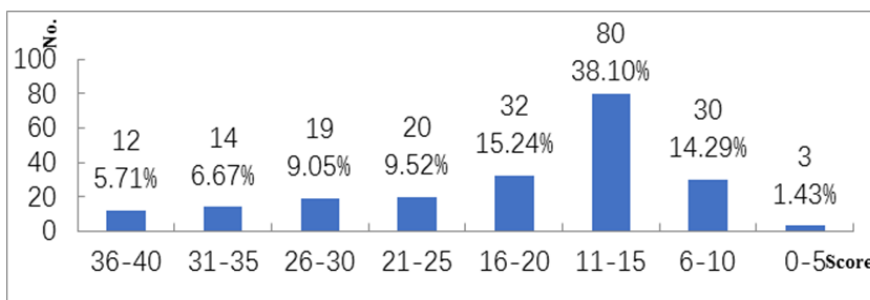


Figure 2. Total Score of the First Part

The results of the first part of the test (Figure 2) indicate that 30 common words can be translated into English with an average accuracy of 13.61%, dominated by 11-15 points, accounting for 38.10%, with the highest score of no more than 40 points (the total score is 60 points) and the lowest score of 5 points. The worst three translated words were “the terracotta warriors” (2.24% getting correct), “sustainable development” (The accuracy is 4.81%) and “filial piety” (5.31% being correct). The best three translated words were “the Great Wall” (88.81% is correct), chopsticks (54.41% getting correct) and Peking Opera (90.18% is correct). The three most unanswered words were “the terracotta warriors” (89.16%), “the National People’s Congress” (84.81%) and “cupping” (85.42%).

According to the data, students’ abilities to express Chinese culture in English is not optimistic. Some words or phrases they can accurately translate is probably because that students usually read and use these words in daily life and they learned the English version of these Chinese vocabularies in high school English textbooks. This also shows the importance of introducing English expressions of native culture in teaching. That means only understanding Chinese culture cannot solve the “one-way” in cross-cultural communication, students also need to have the abilities to express their native culture in English.

2. Analysis of the second part of the test paper

For the second part of the test paper, students were required to translate four Chinese proper items in English and paraphrase them in some simple words or phrases with their own opinion. The second part mainly examines the students’ basic knowledge of Chinese culture and whether they can give a brief introduction in English. The total score is 20 points. However, the students’ answers are not satisfactory.

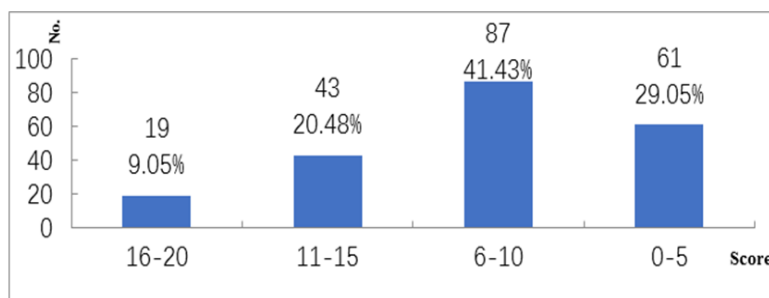


Figure 3. Total Score of the Second Part

As can be seen from the bar graph above (Figure 3), almost the half of students (87 of them, accounting for 41.43%) got 6-10 points and 29.05% of them (61 students) had the very low points (only less than 5 points) in the second part. As for “four treasures of study”, “four categories of Peking Opera”, “four famous embroideries” and “four famous grottoes”, most of the students wrote the corresponding contents in Chinese. While as for the simple introduction in English, only few students could give a comprehensive answer. However, there were still some students who were unable to answer them in Chinese, which indicated that the students were short of their native cultural knowledge. The results indicate that they do not know Chinese culture deeply and let alone using them to have conversations with foreigners correctly.

3. Analysis of the third part of the test paper

Students were asked to write a short paragraph to introduce one of the Chinese scenic spots or historical sites in English. In the third part of the test paper (Full mark is 20 points), 85.71% of the students could not accurately introduce it (69.52% were 6-10 points and 16.19% were 0-5 points).

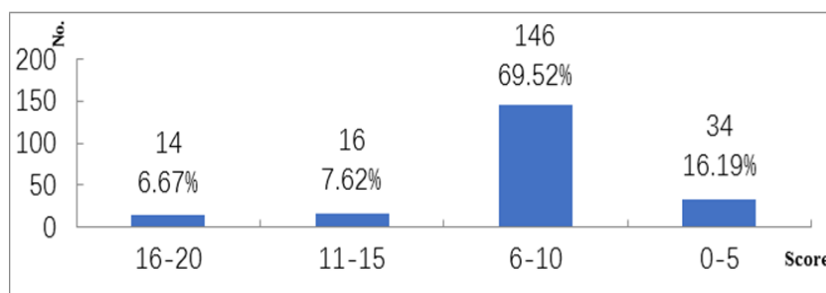


Figure 4. Total Score of the Third Part

According to the bar graph (Figure 4), the score illustrates that most of the students have no idea about the English expression of Chinese culture. Some of them translated it literally, some interpreted it freely, and most of them did not know what to do. The causes of this problem probably because that most of the students cannot see or hear the English expressions of these Chinese culture in the process of learning English for many years. And this is an inevitable result.

In general, most students lost many points in the cultural test paper. The results show that the majority of the students grasp little about some relevant English expressions of Chinese culture. Even if they have a certain understanding of some Chinese culture, they have poor performance in expressing typical Chinese culture in English. The inadequate input of Chinese culture in college English teaching directly causes the Chinese Culture Aphasia.

IV. SUGGESTIONS FOR INTEGRATING CHINESE CULTURE IN COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

Many people may hold a view that as Chinese college students, there is no difficulty in acquiring Chinese culture. However, the results of the questionnaire and the test paper have proved that there is a considerable number of students in China who have an inadequate understanding of Chinese Culture and have poor performance in translating it in English.

The research results of the questionnaire and the test paper indicate that students' abilities to express Chinese culture in English cannot be acquired naturally in the process of learning English and they need guidance from teachers in and after class. The situation of Chinese Culture Aphasia among students in Heilongjiang Bayi Agricultural University is worrying. Chinese Culture Aphasia has a direct relationship with the neglect of native culture in many aspects, such as, society, curriculum, teachers and students themselves, etc. Therefore, some various efficient and effective methods need to be used to input Chinese culture in college English teaching in China.

A. To Reform the Current Curriculum of College English

In terms of higher education, the curriculum setting is very important. It should not only meet the needs of society to cultivate the technical talents, but also meet the needs of the long-term development --- the cultivation of humanity and morality.

When facing the phenomenon of Chinese Culture Aphasia, on the one hand English teachers in China should reflect the relationship between the teaching goals and the teaching content of College English and research on students' learning aims and their needs in cross-cultural communication, and on the other hand, they can make more scientific training plan and increase the proportion of Chinese culture in the teaching content to change the existing phenomenon of Chinese Culture Aphasia.

According to the principle of "connecting disciplines", the curriculum of college English courses should be optimized. In order to change the phenomenon of separation between English courses and other disciplines, especially history and culture, etc., so some culturally relevant instructions can be offered to break the barriers between courses. In college English curriculum development, teachers should emphasize the significance of Chinese culture in the compulsory courses, and besides, some optional courses concerning Chinese culture can be set, such as, Chinese philosophy, Chinese traditional custom, Chinese history, cross-cultural communication, and so on. Thematic teaching or lectures and discussions are conducted according to the principle of relevance, practicability and comparability, so as to deepen students' understandings of Chinese culture and improve their abilities to accurately express Chinese culture in English.

B. To Adjust the Teaching Content

We live and work in an increasingly multicultural world in which we will need increasingly sophisticated cultural skills. Classroom teaching is the major channel for college students to learn English, so English teachers should not only develop students' basic language skills, but open their minds about all kinds of cultures.

There are two ways which can be used in teaching. Firstly, all aspects of language are closely related to culture. Therefore, students can dig out the relationship between language and culture through comparison and contrast in the aspects of vocabulary, text, grammar, and so on. For example, when learning vocabularies, in order to enrich students' cultural knowledge, some related interpretation of cultural messages can be introduced. And when learning the text, the analysis of the linguistic points and paraphrasing the sentences are not the main parts. Some cultural instructions,

similarities and differences between cultures can be given so that students could have deeper and better understanding of the text.

On the other hand, the content of Chinese culture should be increased in all kinds of teaching materials to completely reverse the phenomenon of Chinese Culture Aphasia. Some learning materials which can reflect and represent Chinese culture are used in teaching. And the choices of the related materials should be systematic and representative to introduce the most typical part of Chinese civilization. And at the same time, the content which contains the fundamental elements of Chinese culture should be close to students' daily life and can arouse their interests and easy to understand for most of the college students. For instance, from the texts related to *Classic of the Way and Virtue*, *The Book of Changes*, Tai Chi, Cuju and other activities, we can see that the Chinese people not only have the talents of invention and creation, but also have a kind of wisdom of life that to live in harmony with nature. From those of *Sunzi's Art of War* --- an ancient classic on war, Zheng He's seven voyages to the Western Seas which aim to make friends with and spread peace to other countries near and far, we can learn that the Chinese people's eternal prayer for a peaceful life. The Chinese arts, such as pure porcelain, free-flowing calligraphy, colorful Peking Opera reveal the inner world of the Chinese people and represent their unique sense of aesthetics. In this way, it is bound to strengthen students' memories and optimize the effect of cultural communication. Learning Chinese culture in English expression is an interesting process that brings a valuable understanding of Chinese culture.

C. To Create a Research-based Learning Classroom

Intercultural communication is a two-way communication. Shaped by different cultural backgrounds, people understand and judge things in different ways. What we consider normal in one culture can be entirely not in another. So, misunderstandings always occur when I use my meanings to make sense of your reality. That's to say, people should not only learn foreign cultures, but also spread their own culture. In this way, people can come to realize that there are many cultural differences and step outside of their own culture and be open and respectful to others to understand each other better.

The teacher is expected to be a guide and helper rather than an expert in cultural teaching. Teachers should change their teaching ideologies and insist on the combination of language teaching and culture teaching. Flexible teaching methods are adopted and various modern teaching means are used to create a research-based learning classroom in our university. In order to cultivate students' abilities to intercultural communication, the integration of Chinese culture into college English teaching should be concerned from the perspective of cultural teaching. The contrast and comparison approach can develop students' awareness of cultural differences between two languages. In the process of comparison, learners are required to have a view of cultural relativity, that is we can neither say one culture is superior or inferior to another culture. They can objectively understand Chinese and foreign cultures and have an open and flexible thinking mode. In teaching process, teachers guide students to realize that all kinds of cultures are equal and encourage them to think independently to develop their critical thinking skills. It can enhance students' rational understanding of human cultures. Chinese culture and other cultures have apparent differences. No major cultural systems are perfect. They have their own merits and shortcoming. We need to respect others, understand others, and learn from others.

V. CONCLUSION

Many teachers and students have misunderstandings of learning English that should mainly focus on improving language skills, therefore cultural teaching has been overlooked for a long time. This does great harm to cultivate students' intercultural communicative competence.

Nowadays, cultural teaching has been a hot topic in English teaching. It will be doomed to failure or decline if you only know your own culture and ignore other cultures. Those with genuine respect and love for their own culture will certainly respect and love excellent parts of others. In today's multicultural world, it is very important when we have to interact with people from other cultures. The educated can have a high degree of national cultural identities in learning. And it is necessary for each student in China to learn how to introduce Chinese culture in English to foreigners. Students, especially college students should shoulder the responsibility of introducing Chinese culture to foreigners and keep an open heart toward friends and cultures from others countries.

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An Investigation into the Association between Learning Autonomy, Language Anxiety and Thinking Style: University Students in Focus

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to investigate the association between learning autonomy, language anxiety and thinking style. Thus, the study deals with the basis of autonomous learning along with the importance and different related concepts. To attain this objective, a survey research design was employed. The participants of the study were 598 undergraduate students (287 males and 311 females) enrolled in the department of English language at Debre Tabor University, Bahir Dar University, and Gondar University. To gather the information Horwitz and Cope's, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, Sternberg's Thinking Styles Inventory, and Learner Autonomy Questionnaire developed by Zhang and Li were used. The findings indicated that non-parametric test was liable to be used in order to study the research hypotheses. Using Spearman correlation coefficient, the association was found between autonomy and language anxiety among Ethiopian university students. The other research question was an attempt to determine if there was the association between learner autonomy and thinking style which was confirmed through the use of Spearman correlation coefficient. Ultimately, the affinity between language anxiety and thinking style was addressed through the use of Spearman test which confirmed this association. Finally, it was recommended that pedagogical implications are needed to account for second or foreign language teaching and learning as well as textbook writers and curriculum designers.

Index Terms—association, language anxiety, learning autonomy, thinking style

I. INTRODUCTION

The amalgamation of autonomous learning with respect to different thinking styles and varied levels of anxiety yields a huge burden on the language learners' burdens seeing that such an integration triggers their responsibility and taking charge of their own learning process (Ashenafi, 2017). One of the important learning abilities of students is to monitor their own learning process and take charge of their development (Paw, 2014). Despite the fact that the area of autonomous learning has been addressed by different researchers, little attention has been paid to this field, particularly when considering this variable in relation to other psychological barriers. It is almost evident that becoming proficient, or sometimes independent of learning context, requires incorporation of techniques (Suminar, 2019; Dochy, 2017). Students make use of variety of techniques which highlight the varied use of their thinking styles while putting these styles into action is not free of stress, anxiety, and learning-impeding elements (Zhou, 2016). Also, the perspectives of students, who play a major role in debilitating learning abilities, toward their own experiences has not been elicited so far to the best knowledge of the researchers.

Thus, it seems comfortable to accommodate studies of this kind to make use of students' attitudes toward their autonomy, thinking styles, and anxiety when it comes to learn a foreign language. Hence, the current study endeavors to tackle all these concerns and provides useful suggestions for both teachers and students to exclude the probable problems in this regard. Consequently, implications of this study would be of great importance to English-related administrators to draw their attention towards the issue of autonomous learning and problems embedded in this domain which is the overall purpose of the current examination.

It seems necessary to open up opportunities for both teachers and students to get the knowledge of their roles with respect to their active engagement in conditions such as the ones occurring in anxious-based circumstances despite the fact that most of the students prefer to fully involve in teacher-assigned tasks to fulfill their educational needs. Also, reviewing these roles and importance of autonomy as well as influential conditions are presumed to be necessary. Accordingly, this study gave an account association between learning autonomy, language anxiety, and thinking style. It identifies the basis of autonomous learning along with the importance and different related concepts. It is hoped that the findings of this study fulfill the gap of those areas which have remained contentious and intact.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The study of foreign language learning has made new opportunities for researchers to draw their attention towards new concepts which change the language learning behaviors. One of the most important explanation in the field of

language learning is learner autonomy which has changed its direction from traditional teacher-based learning approach to modern learner-based learning. Such a shift in terms of responsibility of teachers to language learners is called “learner autonomy.” Miller (2014) assumed that the “major goal of the promotion of self-access learning is the fostering of autonomous learning” (p. 78). Another explanation of autonomy is put forth by Benson (2015) as the extent to which one is able to control the learning aspect. In the same vein, Dang (2012) explains autonomy as “a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action” (p. 16).

In the process of teaching and learning academic context where new developments have been discovered, a lot of researchers have concentrated on the issue of superiority among language learners from the perspective that some learners excel others, and such a difference of learning capabilities can be attributed to a number of factors such as the level of autonomy, the stress, language anxiety, and so on (Daniel, 2018 as cited in Davey, 2007). Such a belief is taking by students, they will opt for taking new responsibilities which were neglected previously. Students should be aware of the fact that teachers are not reachable anytime and this coerces them to choose the ways based on their own attitudes and thoughts. In addition, recent developments of foreign language learning studies have emphasized the role of teachers in assisting students how and what to choose learning items. Students should be given guidelines and instructions of how to take their own responsibilities and monitor their progressions through making a stress-free environment (Little, 1991).

Today, studies have highlighted the need for scrutinizing the factors which deal with learning barriers which affect the overall independence and decision-making procedure of students including the gender, anxiety, stress, and so on. Language anxiety is believed to be a major component in language learning (Quote, 2017). The three major aspects should be taken into consideration so as to reduce the learner anxiety, namely; relatedness, perceived completeness, and a sense of learner autonomy (Zhou, 2009). In addition, autonomy is a teacher-and-student link where the teacher guides, gives the instructions, enlightens the vague ways, and directs the students based on which students can set their goals and attain their progression (Killen, 2013). Knowing that gaining success in this long process of monitoring, developing, and evaluating oneself for learning requires extended psychological pressure, students differ from one another in terms of their learning level.

Similarly, one of the purposes of the current study is to elicit students’ perspectives towards their experiences of autonomy in classrooms and their reactions based on their level of anxiety and those elements which might enhance their autonomy in language learning. The role of teachers is not ignorable within the autonomous learning condition as teachers are the essence of providing an atmosphere through relying on which students can offer new decisions. Relying on self which is referred to as autonomy is achieved through employing different strategies. Students vary in the way they think of their own and their learning potentials, and decisions they make are different. Therefore, thinking style is another feasible notion to be investigated in relation to autonomy. Another objective of the current study is to find out the possible association between autonomy and thinking style among the participants.

On the whole, developments in the field of foreign language learning has led to a renewed interest in enhancing an idea of how independent and autonomous learning can influence learners’ performance with respect to the related factors. There has been a consensus over the benefits of autonomous learning as it makes the learners for individual decision-making. On the contrary, there is insufficient number of studies on the possible association between learning autonomy, language anxiety, and thinking style even at the tertiary level. In case, the importance of the topic and paucity of available evidence regarding learner autonomy, language anxiety, and thinking style in the Ethiopian context, the current study reveals to focus on this neglected area of research through eliciting the perspectives of Ethiopian English as a foreign language students.

Research Questions: To explore the association between learning autonomy, language anxiety, and thinking style among the Ethiopian university students, the following research questions were taken into consideration:

➤ Is there any significant association between learning autonomy and language anxiety among university students?

➤ Is there any significant association between learning autonomy and thinking style among university students?

➤ Is there any significant association between language anxiety and thinking style among university students?

To address the above-mentioned research questions, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

➤ There is no significant association between learning autonomy and language anxiety among university students.

➤ There is no significant association between learning autonomy and thinking style among university students.

➤ There is no significant association between language anxiety and thinking style among university students.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Research participants are the units of analysis as they are the sources from which research data are being collected (Higson Smith, 2000). Therefore, data analysis should reflect an accurate picture of the research participants. In light of this, the analysis and the general discussion of this study revolved around at the government university students. Hence, the subjects of the study were 2019 university undergraduate students.

B. Design of the Study

In this study, survey research design which applies quantitative method of data collection (quantitative approach) was employed. Here, correlation is a measure of the extent to which two variables are related. If an increase in one variable tends to be associated with an increase in the other, then this is known as a positive correlation. If an increase in one variable, tends to be associated with a decrease in the other, then this is known as a negative correlation. When there is no association between two variables, this is known as a zero correlation. This study was an ex-post-fact to design because there was no treatment at all.

In addition, the current study sought to explore whether there was affinity between autonomy, anxiety, and thinking styles among university students. Since such a relation is liable to be investigated through running the correlational tests, one can demonstrate that the study follows a correlational design which concentrates on studying the variables in relation to one another. And the rationally why the quantitative approach was employed is that it enabled the researcher to see the issue under study from quantitative perspective. And the nature of the problem and the research objectives invited the researcher to use this research method.

C. Population and Sampling Techniques

In Ethiopia, particularly in the Amhara National regional state, there are ten government universities. From those, Debre Tabor University, Bahir Dar University, and Gondar University were selected purposively for its ease of accessibility of information for the researcher. And the other reason why purposive sampling was employed is that to make the study more manageable and complete within the available time. There were 430 male and 484 female students in the selected universities in fifteen sections in this year. The total number of undergraduate university students' population in the area of the study (selected universities) were 914.

The rationally why the students were included as target population is that to see the association between learning autonomy, language anxiety and thinking style in their own academic context. Depending on the 'Rule of 100' by Gorsuch (1983), & Kline (1979), which recommends that no sample should be less than 100, and the sample population of this research consisted of 598 undergraduate students. The researcher made use of the stratified random sampling method in which each university was considered as one separate strata.

Richard Schmidt (2002), noted that Stratified sampling is a probability sampling technique where the researcher divides the entire population into different subgroups or strata, then randomly selects the final subjects which are proportionally from the different strata. The questionnaires were distributed randomly among these participants. Thus, this sample size was sufficient to obtain accurate and reliable results. The participants consisted of male and female students enrolled in the department of English language at Debre Tabor University, Bahir Dar University, and Gondar University in Ethiopia.

D. Instruments

Different research instruments and materials were employed to gather the necessary data. These instruments were selected because of their suitability for gathering important data for the study. Each of these instruments is briefly described below.

1. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

So as to check the participants' level of foreign language anxiety, the foreign language class room anxiety developed by Horwitz and Cope's (1986) was employed in this research project. The scale consisted of 33 items which were developed on five-point likert scale (strongly agree; agree; neither agree nor disagree; disagree; strongly disagree). The validity of the scale was confirmed by the research supervisor. As for the reliability of the test, it was piloted with 20 students who had the similar characteristics as the participants of this study. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was calculated to be 0.71 for this test. This value indicated that the foreign language classroom anxiety scale was reliable.

2. Sternberg's thinking Styles Inventory

Similarly, Sternberg's thinking styles inventory (1997) was employed to check the students' thinking styles. This test consisted of 104 items and was developed on likert seven-item type ranging not at all well to extremely well. This scale went under the same validation and piloting procedure as the previous tests. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was calculated to be 0.87 for this test which showed a good level of reliability.

3. Questionnaire

To get additional information to the data obtained from the students through the FLCAS, and STSI, questionnaires were used as data collection instruments and were designed to collect relevant data from the sample university students. To account for the participants' autonomy in foreign language learning context, the researcher used the 'Learner Autonomy Questionnaire'. This scale was developed by Zhang (2004) and it consisted of two parts involving eleven items organized on rating scale five-item scale ranging from never to always and ten multiple choice questions. As with the validity of the previous test, this scale was confirmed to enjoy validity by two researchers in Gondar University. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was calculated to be 0.8 for this test. Since the reliability index of 0.8 proved to be acceptable, the researcher utilized it in his study.

E. Procedures

The current study aimed at finding out the association between three variables; learner autonomy, classroom anxiety, and thinking styles of EFL learners. To accomplish the purposes of this study, the following procedures were followed:

1. Data Collection

The study was carried out among EFL students of Debre Tabor University, Bahir Dar University, and Gondar University. Here, the researcher asked permission from the concerned bodies of these universities and explained the purpose of the study before conducting those instruments. In the next step, the three questionnaires administered in the pilot study were distributed among the participants of the main study. They were asked to complete the questionnaires at the given time according to the instructions provided.

After the results of the questionnaires were collected, non-normality of the relevant data was confirmed through running One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test; thus, Spearman correlation coefficient was applied to test the research hypotheses. Finally, the analysis of the data was reported in descriptive and inferential levels.

2. Pilot Study

To assess the feasibility of the study and measure the internal validity of the aforementioned questionnaires, a pilot study was conducted on 20 university students who met all required conditions. At the first stage of this study, the pilot subjects were asked to fill out the three questionnaires regarding the classroom anxiety, thinking styles, and learner autonomy at the given time. Then, the subjects were asked for feedback to identify ambiguities and difficulties. The analysis of the data gathered from the pilot study revealed that the questionnaires are internally valid and the study is feasible.

F. Data Analysis

For the current study, the researcher employed quantitative method (data was analyzed through quantitative method) to see the issue under study from quantitative perspective. The responses obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed, and described quantitatively through descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS version 17. Percentage, and frequency were run to determine the learners' autonomy. Also, having collected the data through distributing the questionnaires, the data were analyzed using pertinent tests. At the first stage, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to determine normal or non-normal status of the variables distribution. Later on, Spearman correlation coefficient was employed to study each research question. Results in this regard were reported in the following section.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section deals with the analysis and discussions of the data collected from subjects to seek answers for the basic research questions raised in the statement of the problem. The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between learning autonomy, language anxiety and thinking style.

Accordingly, 210 EFL undergraduate university students responded to the questionnaires as a sample were assumed to be adequate for the analysis. The analysis was made in terms of the basic research questions raised in the first chapter of the study. The data collected from all the subjects of the study were analyzed through using descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, and correlation coefficient.

A. Descriptive Statistics

1. Statistical Population Considering Gender Variable

The following table and its relevant descriptions reveal the gender variable status in studied statistical sample.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS' GENDER VARIABLE DIFFERENTIATED BY MALE AND FEMALE

		F	%	VP	CP
Valid	Male	287	47.99	47.99	47.99
	Female	311	52.01	52.01	52.01
	Total	598	100	100	100

N.B. (F= Frequency, %= Percent, VP= Valid Percent, CP= Cumulative Percent)

As it can be indicated from the above table (Table 1), participants' gender distribution was different by male and female. The statistical sample comprises 287 males and 311 females that revealed 47.99 percent and 52.01 percent respectively. From here, it is possible to conclude that more participants were female. That means when we compare the male distribution to the female ones, the male distribution is less than that of the female distribution regarding to this study.

2. Statistical Sample Considering Marital Status Variable

The following table (Table 2) reveals the descriptive study of statistical sample regarding Marital Status Variable.

TABLE 2:
PARTICIPANTS' MATERIAL STATUS

		F	%	VP	CP
Valid	single	510	85.3	85.3	85.3
	married	88	14.7	14.7	14.7
	Total	598	100	100	100

N.B. (F= Frequency, %= Percent, VP= Valid Percent, CP= Cumulative Percent)

In the above table (Table 2), the distribution of the sample by marital status is shown. Concerning to the data indicated from the forgoing table (Table 2), one can concluded that most of the participants were single. Accordingly, among 598 people, 510 (85.3%) were single and the rest were 88 (14.7%) married. From here, we can understand that 14.7 percent showed that few of the participants were married.

3. Statistical Sample Considering Age Variable

The following table and the related descriptions indicate the age variable status in assumed statistical sample.

TABLE 3:
RESPONDENTS' AGE VARIABLE DIFFERENTIATED BY LEVEL OF AGE

	F	%	VP	CP
V < 18	66	11.04	11.04	11.04
18-30	532	88.96	88.96	88.96
Total	598	100	100	100

N.B. (F= Frequency, %= Percent, VP= Valid Percent, CP= Cumulative Percent, V= Valid)

The above table shows the frequency distribution of the sample based on the age group. As it can be displayed, out of 598 people, 66 (11.04%) were under 18 years of age, and the rest were 532 (88.96%) between 18 and 30 years old.

B. Inferential Statistics

To determine the normality of data, 'Kolmogorov –Smirnov' test was used. As it can be seen from the table below (Table 4), the Sig value for all three variables is less than 0.03 and the result is that the assumption of normalization of the samples is not accepted at the 3% error level. In other words, samples do not follow the normal distribution, and the result is that non-parametric methods were used to test the research hypotheses.

TABLE 4:
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST FOR RESEARCH VARIABLE

	LA1	LA2	TS
N	598	598	598
Normal Parameters	M	1.64	2.171
	SD	0.17	0.408
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	0.23	0.27
	Positive	0.21	0.17
	Negative	-0.25	-0.13
Test Statistic		0.18	0.29
Sig. (2-tailed)		0.0c	0.0c

N.B. (LA1= Learning Autonomy, LA2= Language Anxiety, TS= Thinking Style, M= Mean, SD= Standard Deviation, N= Number)

As a result, Spearman correlation coefficient was used to examine the association between variables.

1. Hypothesis One

Null hypothesis: There is no significant association between learning autonomy and language anxiety among university students.

Alternative hypothesis: There is a significant association between learning autonomy and language anxiety among university students. Statistical hypothesis: {H₀: r =0, H₁: r ≠ 0

TABLE 5:
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN LEARNING AUTONOMY AND LANGUAGE ANXIETY

		LA1	LA2	
Spearman's rho	Language Anxiety	Correlation Coefficient	1.0	
		Sig.(2-tailed)	0.35	
	Learning Autonomy	N	598	598
		Correlation Coefficient	0.35	1.0
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.0	-
		N	598	598

N.B. (LA1= Language Anxiety, LA2= Learning Autonomy, N= Number)
Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As the data is shown from the above table, the correlation coefficient between two variables (language anxiety and learning autonomy) is 0.35. The Sig value is less than 0.03. From here, it is possible to say that there is a significant direct relation between the two variables. In other words, the hypothesis of the research is accepted at the 3% error level. There is a significant association between learning autonomy and language anxiety among Ethiopian university students.

2. Hypothesis Two

Null hypothesis: There is no significant association between learning autonomy and thinking style among university students.

Alternative hypothesis: There is a significant association between autonomy and thinking style among university students.

Statistical hypothesis

{H₀: r =0, H₁: r ≠ 0

TABLE 6:
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN AUTONOMY AND THINKING STYLE AMONG ETHIOPIAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

		LA	TS
Learning Autonomy	Pearson Correlation	0.28	0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	0.01
	N	598	598
Thinking Style	Pearson Correlation	0.28	0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01	-
	N	598	598
Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

N.B. (LA= Learning Autonomy, TS= Thinking Style, N= Number)

According to the data which were indicated from the above table (Table 6), the correlation coefficient between the two variables (thinking style and learning autonomy) is 0.28. The direct association between these two variables is owing to the Sig value less than 0.03. That means, the research hypothesis is accepted at the 3% error level, here, it is possible to deduce that there is a significant relation between learning autonomy and thinking style among university students.

3. Hypothesis Three

Null hypothesis: There is no significant association between language anxiety and thinking style among university students.

Alternative hypothesis: There is a significant association between language anxiety and thinking style among university students.

Statistical hypothesis:

$$\{H_0: r = 0, H_1: r \neq 0\}$$

TABLE 7:
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN LANGUAGE ANXIETY AND THINKING STYLE

		TS	LA
Spearman's rho	Thinking Style	Correlation Coefficient	0.21
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01
		N	598
	Language Anxiety	Correlation Coefficient	0.21
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01
		N	598
Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

N.B. (TS= Thinking Style, LA= Language Anxiety, N= Number)

As it can be seen in the above table, the correlation coefficient between thinking style and language anxiety is 0.21. The direct association between these two variables is due to the Sig value less than 0.03. As the findings of the study revealed, the direct affinity between the two variables is significant, in other words, the research hypothesis is accepted at the 3% error level; that is to say, there is a significant association between language anxiety and thinking style among university students here in Ethiopia.

V. DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the association between learning autonomy, language anxiety and thinking style. The results from the analysis of data from questionnaires are discussed in line with some empirical findings. As it was stated earlier, three research hypotheses were developed to address the feasible nexus between learner autonomy, thinking style, and language anxiety. Followings are demonstrations in this regard.

1. The first research question determined the association between autonomy and language anxiety among Ethiopian university students. The level of significance was obtained as 0.0. Since ($p < 0.03$) or sig was less than 0.03, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. Here, one can conclude that there is a relation between autonomy and language anxiety among university students. From the study, participants claimed that they feel anxious doing such tasks and the positive relation between autonomy and anxiety was confirmed. The finding of this study tends to agree with the one reported by Killen (2013).

The results of Chan (2001) support the outcome of this research question positing that guidance should be provided to learners to reduce the amount of stress or anxiety-exerting factors within the learning context. Another idea which can be stated is that teachers' awareness of learners' autonomous learning plays a key role in reducing or increasing the anxiety among them. From here, it is possible deduce that anxiety is viewed as an important factor which debilitates the extent to which students tend to experience and develop their sense of autonomy in language learning setting (Ngan, 2014). Moreover, Habtom's (2015) investigation revealed that foreign language classroom anxiety significantly mediated the association between autonomy and English language achievement; so, classroom anxiety and learners' autonomy are correlated with one another.

Concerning this, the results of the study overlap what have been discovered earlier by Young (1998). "Severe performance anxiety mitigates against autonomy and motivation, though mild anxiety may sometimes enhance them" (Young, 1998 as cited in Oxford, 2003, p. 83). Nevertheless, a study seeking to discover the relation between anxiety and language learner autonomy was conducted by Shingle (2005) where no significant relation was found between anxiety and autonomy levels of EFL learners. Similarly Sarris (2015) conducted an experiment on high school students and concluded that a very small negative correlation existed between levels of anxiety and participants' willingness to take charge of their learning which was not statistically significant.

The findings of the study was not consistent with what Kabiri (2018) he confirmed affinity between learners' anxiety and autonomy levels, the correlation was reported as being negative and high levels of anxiety were associated with low levels of autonomy. However, this is consistent with Liu (2012) found that learners' anxiety has a significant but negative relation with their autonomy. Hence, teachers need to help students achieve the level of fluency through assigning a variety of tasks which accelerate their learning pace simultaneously. This is confirmed by the idea that anxiety might impede the language learning from fully engaging in activities, resulting in poor performance and weakened achievement.

2. The second research question was proposed to explore if there was association between learner autonomy and thinking style. Here, Spearman correlation coefficient test which was obtained as 0.28, it was found that there is a positive relation between learning autonomy and thinking style among university students. This maintained that autonomous language learners are more capable of making associating, placing new words into a context, structured reviewing, using mechanical techniques who are also talented in practicing, reviewing, and analyzing the target language. These findings are consistent with the view of Little (2012) who emphasized that the link between thinking styles and learner autonomy is very close so that one can judge how autonomous learners are from the styles they employ in learning.

Similarly, the results of the study are consistent with the views of Zhang and Sternberg (2006) who suggest that problem solving and decision making abilities which are also the characteristics of autonomous learning are correlated with learners' thinking styles. In the same context, Negari (2013) research revealed that there were significant correlations between self-attitude to autonomous language learning and most of the subcategories of thinking styles. When it comes to the context of language learning, it seems very crucial to take into consideration different thinking and learning styles which students use to learn the inputs. The affinity between language anxiety and thinking style was addressed through the use of Spearman test which confirmed this positive relation.

3. In line with the third research question, Zhang (2009) found out that there was a positive relation between conservative style and anxiety, but creativity generating styles, and the external style (a preference for working with others as opposed to working alone) were negatively related to anxiety. The results obtained from different studies (Seif, 2003; Razavi & Shiri, 2005) were in line with this finding emphasizing that various forms of thinking styles adopted and incorporated by foreign language learners, regardless of their gender and level of education, are in direct association with the level of their anxiety. As opposed to what have been found in the study, Heidari, and Mohammad's (2017) study showed that though there was a correlation between thinking styles subcategories and test anxiety, the association was determined as being significantly negative. It also indicated that the males and females' performance on thinking style questionnaire and test anxiety was significantly different. On the whole, the way students attempt to choose their learning depends to a large extent on the level of their anxiety.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results and discussions of the findings of the study, it is possible to conclude that the results showed that non-parametric test was liable to be used to study the research hypotheses. Using Spearman correlation coefficient, a relation was found between learning autonomy and language anxiety among university students. The purpose of the study was so as to examine the affinity between learner autonomy, language anxiety, and thinking styles among EFL students. The first major finding drawn was the positive affinity between learning autonomy and language anxiety among university students. The second conclusion drawn was the positive relation between learner autonomy and thinking style. Also, the third finding suggested the association between language anxiety and thinking style.

Notwithstanding the numerous studies conducted in the field of autonomy, little attention has been drawn toward the links among these variables. This study could fill this gap through considering two other variables, namely, language anxiety and thinking style which suggested that both teachers and students need to account for the psychological issues such as the anxiety while trying to learn a foreign language. In addition, findings of the study could compensate for previous similar studies in that the role of students' use of strategy in language learning, namely, their thinking styles was identified to be the important factor for autonomous learning. The researchers believe that further investigations and experiments into such association are required to broaden the understanding of autonomous learning. Finally, it is recommended that pedagogical implications are needed to account for second or foreign language teaching and learning as well as textbook writers and curriculum designers.

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A Comparative Study of the Translation of Material Culture-loaded Words of *Hongloumeng* in the Light of Skopostheorie

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Abstract—*Hongloumeng*, one of the masterpieces in China, a splendid history of classical literature, carries a large amount of Chinese traditional culture elements and culture-loaded words. This paper will apply skopos theory as the theoretical framework and analyze the translation of material culture-loaded words in Yang Xianyi and Gladys Yang's translation of *A Dream of Red Mansions* and *The Story of the Stone* by David Hawkes. And then the author will try to list some representative culture-loaded words and reveal that how the skopos influences the translators' choice of translation methods and strategies in translation, and what effect or effects can be achieved. Some conclusions can be drawn.

Index Terms—*Hongloumeng*, Skopostheorie, culture-loaded words, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Language can help people pass information and promote their communication as well as spread culture globally. Translation is often regarded as the bridge for the communication between different languages and cultures. There are a large number of cultural factors in literary works, especially reflected by the culture-loaded words. Culture-loaded words could carry out language and culture information under different language backgrounds. Therefore, the translation of culture-loaded words in literary works can help target language readers get a better understanding of the culture elements of source language country, and promote cultural communication between different countries.

Hongloumeng is said to be a great encyclopedia of Chinese culture because it involves nearly every aspects of the culture. It is always full of charm to its readers. As it is such a great book that the translators have to tackle various translation problems arising from the cultural gaps in the translation process. While, translating *Hongloumeng*, one of the greatest realistic Chinese classic works, still remains an attractive and formidable venture for many ambitious translators. It has already been translated into different versions in about twenty-seven languages. The latest two translated texts are *A Dream of Red Mansions* by Yang Xianyi and his wife, Gladys Yang and *The Story of the Stone* by David Hawkes and his son-in-law John Minford respectively. Both of the two versions are very successful and are highly praised by the translators and translation theorists, most importantly, by the readers in china and abroad. Since then, many scholars and translators begin to compare and contrast those two English versions of *Hongloumeng* to find out the effective way in translation practice.

This study attempts to explain that the skopos theory influences the choice of translation strategy and to analyze the translation strategies used in translating the culture-loaded words in *A Dream of Red Mansions*. Under the influence of the skopos theory, the translators choose different translation strategies under different rules and achieve the translation goal by means of the readers' proper understanding of the source text through the translated version.

The practical significance of the study is to make the translators pay more attention to translation of culture-loaded words in the process of translation, and focus on the choice of translation strategies under different culture context in the light of the skopos theory. As choosing a proper translation strategy could help the target language readers get a better understanding of culture-loaded words in the source text, and it could also facilitate the culture transmission between different countries.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As culture-loaded words are embodied with a nation's cultural characteristics, the translation of them could be the reflection of a nation's traditional social culture and development. It is necessary to master the two languages and be familiar with the two cultures.

A. Definition of Culture-loaded Words

People from different countries form a quite different cultural tradition for the reason of different geographic position, living environment, religious belief, historical and cultural background, lifestyle, and thinking manner. When referring to lexical system, it is called culture-loaded words. For the definition of culture-loaded words, scholars defined it differently.

For some famous foreign scholars, Mona Baker pointed that “The source language word may express a concept which is totally unknown in the target culture. The concept in question may be abstract or concrete; it may relate to a religious belief, a social custom, or a type of food. Such concepts are often referred to as culture-specific” (Mona Baker, 2000). While Louis B. Salomon considered the culture-loaded words as “vocabulary blanks” and “semantic defaults” (Lado, 1957). Some other scholars also defined them as “key words” “culturally bound or culturally conditioned words”.

In China, some scholars defined it differently. Hu Wenzhong offered that “Culture-loaded words refer to those in a specific culture sphere. They are the direct or indirect reflections of ethnical cultures” (Hu Wenzhong, 1999). Zhou Zhipei defined it as “The word (phrase) that is embedded with the meaning of a cultural particular to a certain socio-cultural community, whose referent is an unique thing or conception in the language in question, and therefore has no corresponding equivalent in other languages” (Zhou et al. , 1987).

Although there are so many definitions about culture-loaded words, all the definitions refer to the same kind of words which can express cultural meanings. Culture-loaded words are embedded with meaningful cultural connotations, and should be paid more attention when translating them from source text to target text.

B. Studies on Material Culture-loaded Words Translation

Culture-loaded words are encoded with the specific culture of a country or a nation. Referring to the translation of culture-loaded words, there are many experts and scholars who have done relevant researches in this field both in China and abroad.

1. Studies on material culture-loaded words translation abroad

With the development of globalization, the translation of culture-loaded words has been taken into account until mid-20th century. Many specialists and scholars have devoted themselves to the study of the translation of culture-loaded words. Eugene Nida put forth the theory “functional /dynamic equivalence”, which pointed out that the translator was responsible to shed light on the source culture information so as to help the target readers understand it better (Nida, 1964). Meanwhile, he raised a fresh concept “functional isomorphs”, which could provide help to solve problems in the process of translating culture-loaded words (Nida, 1993). Lawrence Venuti focused on whether a translator encourages expressing unique characteristics of the source culture in the target language (Venuti, 1995). Meanwhile, he raised a “resistance” translation strategy to take the target readers bodily into the different flavor of the source culture and made them realize the divergent “cultural schema” in human's mind (Venuti, 1992).

In Snell-homby's opinion, an integrated translation approach should not confine to certain forms, but should consider translation from an overall perspective. She also held the view that the translators had better not only be proficient in the bilingual application but also live in a bicultural backdrop (Mary Snell-homby, Zuzana Jettmarova, Klaus Kaindl, 1995).

2. Studies on material culture-loaded words translation in China

For the study of translation of culture-loaded words, Chinese scholars are not laggard behind. At the same time, many experts recognize the similar questions about the translation of culture-loaded words and study on them. Wang Dongfeng, who put forth the concept of “cultural default”, indicated that the absence of some cultural messages should be taken into consideration in the process of translation. He reckoned that impulsively employing domestication strategy to impose concepts and tastes of the target culture on the source culture was depriving the readers of their right to know (Wang, 1997).

In the opinion of Guo Jianzhong, domestication and foreignization were two important strategies in translating culture-loaded words, and these two strategies complemented each other. How to choose the translation strategy depended on the translation purpose and the target readership (Guo, 2000).

Wang Zuoliang pointed out the difficulties in cultural translation under stylistics in his book *Translation: Experiments and Reflections*. He put forward the view that in different genres of texts, different strategies should be applied to for the translation of culture-loaded words (Wang , 1984).

Some other Chinese scholars had also focused on the study of culture-loaded words. For example, Feng Yulu had written the book named *Cultural Connotation of Words and Their Translation*, Xu Wensheng and Zhu Zhanghua had published *Cultural Connotation of Metaphorical Phrase and Its Interaction with Translation*, etc.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this chapter, the theoretical basis of this paper---the skopos theory and two translation strategies will be talked about, which plays an important role in translating.

A. The Skopos Theory

The skopos theory is an important translation theory which was put forth and completed gradually in 1970s. It is the center of the functionalist translation theory which is firstly developed in Germany. The main representatives of this theory are Katharina Reiss, Hans J. Vermeer, Justa Holz-manttari, and Christiane Nord.

“Skopos” is a Greek word which means purpose or intention, and is defined as a translation theory by Hans J. Vermeer (Vermeer, 1978). As this theory is formed on the basis of function of both the source text and target text, it is

called skopos theory. Skopos theory regards source texts as information provider, and provides a new viewpoint in translation. It plays a positive role in the process of translation. According to Vermeer, the skopos of translational acting determines the strategy for reaching the intended goal (Vermeer, 1978).

The core concepts of skopos theory include skopos, brief of translation, loyalty and adequacy. Skopos refers to the translation purpose, which is decided by the translator. The skopos will be different due to the translation action and translation process. Just as Nords' viewpoint of sender-oriented and reader-oriented. Therefore skopos is one of the core concepts of skopos theory. The brief of translation refers to the guidance of choosing translation method or strategy. The brief of translation will provide the idea on how the source text should be translated or what kind of translation should be applied. That is to say, the translator determines the translation skopos. Loyalty rule holds the view that the translator should respect the original author's communicative purpose in the translation process. It requires the translator to remain the original culture flavor in the translation process.

Skopos theory includes three rules: skopos rule, coherence rule and fidelity rule. Skopos rule, as the primate rule, holds that translation purpose determines the choice of translation strategy and translation strategy should provide service to translation purpose. Coherence rule emphasizes that target text should be adequately coherent to source text so as to make the readers understand the translation content. Fidelity rule requires the inter-textual coherence between source text and target text.

B. Domestication and Foreignization

Domestication and foreignization are two contrastive and complementary translation strategies. Schleiermacher points out that either the translator leaves the author in peace, as much as possible, and moves the reader toward him; or he leaves the reader in peace, as much as possible, and moves the author toward him (Venuti, 2004:101). The former refers to foreignization while the latter refers to domestication.

IV. COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE TRANSLATION OF MATERIAL CULTURE-LOADED WORDS IN THE LIGHT OF SKOPOSTHEORIE

In this chapter, the author will approach the translation of the material culture-loaded words of *Honglouloumeng* within the theoretical background of the skopostheorie and will strive to explore what kinds of methods and strategies are taken to solve the translation problems arising from the cultural gaps.

In this paper, the data are mainly collected from *Honglouloumeng* by Cao Xueqin published by Sanqin Publishing House, from the first two volumes of *A Dream of Red Mansions* by Yang Xianyi and Gladys Yang (is hereinafter referred to as The Yangs), published by Foreign Languages Press, and from the first three volumes of *The Story of the Stone* by David Hawkes (is hereinafter referred to as Hawkes), published by Penguin Books.

Now we will turn to the material culture. All societies produce and exchange material goods so that people can feed, clothe, shelter, and otherwise provide for themselves. This system is known as the material culture. As is known to all, China and England culture differ greatly in terms of material culture. This poses various translation problems. The translation of *Honglouloumeng* into English is especially the case since the modern English readers are unfamiliar with some of the materials produced and used in the Qing Dynasty, let alone to inform English readers with the translation. By analyzing the following examples, we will see what methods are employed by the Yangs and Hawkes who are assigned to different tasks, and whether their translations are adequate.

(1) 左边几上文王鼎匙箸香盒;右边几上汝窑美人觚,觚内插着时鲜花卉,并茗碗痰孟盒等物。 (chapter 5)

On the left-hand table were a tripod, spoons, chopsticks and an incense container; on the right one, a slender-waisted porcelain vase from the Juchow Kiln containing flowers then in season, as well as tea bowls and a spittoon.

(The Yangs)(p43, Vol I)

On the left-hand one was a small, square, four-legged ding, together with a bronze ladle, metal chopsticks, and an incense container. On the right-hand one was a narrow-waisted Ru-ware imitation gu with a spray of fleshly cut flowers in it.

(Hawkes)(p96, Vol I)

The underlined phrases refer to the furnishings in ancient Chinese noble families. The expressions for the same furnishings cannot be found in English. That is to say, there exists a cultural gap between Chinese and English.

In the Yangs' translation, the intratextual coherence is basically achieved through literal translation since there is no difficulty for the target addressees to understand the translation. However, the cultural peculiarity contained in the original has lost since the "tripod", "spoons" and "chopsticks" are culture-free things which can not provide the readers with the Chinese exotic flavors. In this sense, the translators fail to meet the requirement of the Skopos.

In Hawkes' translation, "鼎" is transliterated into "ding" with extra information to present readers with its size, form and external appearance. Additional information is also given in the translation of "匙" and "箸" to show readers such things are different from the metal ladle and wooden chopsticks they are familiar with. It is obvious that in his version, Hawkes conveys the cultural information embedded in the original. Judging from their respective Skoposi, the Yangs translation is not adequate, while Hawkes' is.

(2) 宝玉的意思即刻要叫人烫黄酒,要山羊主血黎洞九来。 (chapter 31)

He would have called someone at once to heat Shaohsing wine and fetch pills compounded with goats blood.

(The Yangs) (p451, VolI)

Bao-yu was all for calling one of the maids and getting her to heat some rice wine, so that Aroma could be given hot wine and Hainan kid's-blood pills.

(Hawkes)(p108, Vol. II)

“黄酒” is a kind of yellowish rice wine with low alcohol. “山羊血黎洞丸” is a kind of mixture of over ten kinds of herbal medicines with the goat's blood. These two are peculiar to China. Thus we cannot expect a literal translation of them which makes no sense to English readers.

In the Yangs' version, the translators interpret “黄酒” as “Shaohsing wine” which is unfaithful to the source text in terms of form. However, Shaoxing is famous for the production of “黄酒”. Then this translation may arouse readers' association. As for “山羊血黎洞丸”, the translators interpret it as “pills compounded with goat s blood” at the expense of its Chinese name but succeed in conveying its connotation. In this sense, both the intertextual coherence and intratextual coherence are achieved.

In the Hawkes' version, since intertextual coherence is subordinate to intratextual coherence, more efforts are made to achieve the latter. “黄酒” and “山羊血黎洞丸” are paraphrased into “some rice wine” and “Hainan Kid's-blood pills”, which helps readers by reducing the difficulty in understanding. In so doing, the translators' Skopos is fulfilled.

(3) 林黛玉笑道：“大节下怎么好好的哭起来？难道是为争粽子吃争恼了不成？”

(chapter3)

“What' all this crying during the festival? ” asked Tai-yu mockingly, “Are you fighting for sticky rice dumplings?”

(The Yangs)(p455, VolI)

“Crying on a holiday? What's all this about? Have you been quarrelling over the rice-cakes?”

(Hawkes)(p113, VolI)

As a traditional food of Chinese people with a long history, “粽子” is not known to English readers. By comparing these two versions, we find the translators have no choice but to interpret “粽子” respectively as “sticky rice dumplings” and “the rice-cakes”. Since dumplings and cakes are common food for English readers, they will have no difficulty in understanding. So far, the intratextual coherence in both the Yangs' version and the Hawkes' version has been achieved. In an attempt to achieve the maximum intertextual coherence, the translators use “sticky” as modifier to bring English readers closer to the real food. Comparatively speaking, the Yangs' version is more faithful to the original than the Hawkes' version since the former produces a more exact description of for readers' minds. However, given their different purposes. In the Yangs' version and The Hawkes' version, we should say both of them have fulfilled their tasks. In source text, the underlined Chinese phrases are valuable herbal medicines with a variety of functions.

In the Yangs' version, in order to achieve the intertextual coherence, the translators translate the first two medicines literally and interpret the last two according to their functions. Unfortunately, since the literal translation of the first two medicines makes no sense to English readers, it fails to convey the Chinese culture as the skopos required. Conversely, the free translation of the last two medicines informs English readers that ancient Chinese people cured diseases with such medicines. According to the Skopostheorie, the literal translation in the Yangs' version is inadequate translation, while the second part is adequate.

In Hawkes' version, the translator goes beyond keeping the literal meaning of these medicines to interpret their functions in their names. Strictly speaking, such translation is not quite faithful to the original, but the translator has succeeded in accomplishing the intratextual coherence required by the skopos in this translational action.

In the above examples, both the Yangs and Hawkes mainly paraphrase the culturally strange materials. When the Yangs combine the intertextual coherence with the intertextual coherence in their translation, they are able to fulfill their purpose well. However, guided by his Skopos, Hawkes puts more weight on the intertextual coherence to produce a target text meaningful and communicative to his readers.

Translating such words, just as Newmark has pointed out, usually adopts the transference, and in the case of Chinese “pinyin”. Yang Xianyi reserves the source language color by using the ancient names which appear in the source text, while Hawks turns all of them into modern names in Chinese, which is comparatively familiar to the target readers.

(4) 正值王夫人与熙凤在一处拆金陵来的书信。

(chapter 3)

She found her and Hsi-feng discussing a letter from Chinling.

(The Yangs) (p51, Vol I)

They found her closeted with Wang Xi-feng, deep in discussion of a letter which had just arrived from Nanking.

(Hawkes)(p109, Vol I)

当日地陷东南，这东南有个姑苏城。

(chapter1)

Long ago the earth dipped downwards in the southeast, and in that southeast part was a city named Kusu. Present-day Soochow.

(The Yangs)(p6, Vol I)

Long, long ago the world was tilted downwards towards the southeast; and in that lower-lying south-easterly part of the earth there is a city called Soochow.

(Hawkes)(p51-52, Vol I)

For fear that modern westerners may be puzzled by the ancient name Chinling, he changed it to Nanking, which is Chinese famous city known to many westerners. However, this easy accessibility makes a part of source culture missing. Foreigners may assume that Nanking has always been called like this in the Chinese history. Yang reserves this historical color by translating as Chiming, thus sending a message that Nanking has other names in ancient China. In this case, we can not evaluate whose translation is better. Each of them caters for a type of readers. Yang's translation is more accurate, thus may be more valuable for those specialists who want to explore the original culture. Hawks limited globalization is more pleasing to readers who just read the novel for fun.

From the examples above, we see that Yang tends to reverse the features of the source text by copying the original plus extra explanation in the form of footnotes globalization, while Hawkes always tries to avoid footnotes and adopts limited changing the original names to the modern names that are familiar to westerners. Each of the versions is suitable for a specific group of readers.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, the author has made a systematic research into the translation of material culture-loaded words in *Honglouloumeng* under the framework of Skopostheorie. Through my research and study, the following major findings are revealed:

First of all, due to different translation skopos, the Yangs and David Hawkes adopted different translation strategies in translating culture-loaded words in *Honglouloumeng*. Yang's intentions were to (a) present Cao Xueqin's works as they are. (b) introduce and spread Chinese traditional culture and classic literature to the west. (c) serve as a help for the research of *Honglouloumeng* and draw the readers' interest to the original text, spread Chinese traditional culture and classic literature to the west. Thus, in translating culture-loaded words, the Yangs adhered to the source language text strictly and tended to use the technique of foreignization-copying the original text, transliteration and extratextual explanation. The Yangs' source culture oriented attitude, which pays great attention to the intertextual coherence, is underlying their way of handling culture-loaded words of *Honglouloumeng*.

In contrast, Hawkes purposes were to (a) faithfully transmit the thoughts and effects in a vivid and fluent language. (b) popularize *Honglouloumeng* among the western readers with the focuses on readability and acceptability. So Hawkes was much more readers-oriented, domesticating most of culture-loaded words by means of assimilation, deletion and globalization. He also attached more importance to intratextual coherence.

Secondly, Skopostheorie can open up a new horizon for us in translation criticism. In translation, we should pay more attention to the study of Skopos since the Skopos of the translation determines the extent of equivalence.

Thirdly, Chinese translators should endeavor to transmit and preserve the cultural elements embedded in the source text in translating Chinese into English.

To sum up, this paper introduces a new perspective of looking at the issue of translation strategy, and provides a way to assess a translated text by examining whether the translators choice of a certain strategy fulfills his purpose. The author hopes that the detailed case study can give translators some suggestions on how to choose an appropriate translation strategy in their translation, which may be helpful for future research of Chinese-English literary translation. But due to the limited time and the shortage of related references, the research into the translation of material culture-loaded words of *Honglouloumeng* is far from being complete. It is the writers' sincere wish that a thorough and deeper study of this subject can be made in the future.

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Interplay of Fantasy and Realism in Salman Rushdie's *Midnight's Children*

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Abstract—Fantasy and realism are the traits to be found in every culture and individual. Fantasy was often dismissed for being a thing associated with children. This was a practice found to be rampant in the past or it was rather a matter of the past so to say. After centuries of oblivion, people have started giving importance to fantasy when there is a lot of chaos in the society. Fantasy as a genre that helps us to band together, explain, change and form an opinion on reality. Fantasy can surely tempt the human desire, for more than the familiar world of the readers, into ease, anyway from reality and communicate with immense imagination that the readers can connect to. With this in mind, the paper tries to analyze Rushdie's *Midnight's Children* the bizarre and the fantastic blurs the boundaries between the real and plausible in the novel, thereby problematizing the identities of gender, parenthood, and nationality, and renders the readers into a state of uncertainty by incorporating oblique references or links. It also aims to critically analyze and discuss how the lines between fantasy and reality are blurred in literature. The importance of this study is to connect the fine line of fantasy with reality in literature and to present perceptions to the readers on how literature is understood differently by different people.

Index Terms—fantasy, realism, myth, history, Salman Rushdie

I. INTRODUCTION

As a genre Fantasy is difficult to define. Scholars have been discussing its definitions for years. The term has been a matter of regular critical speculation, there is no settlement on a unique definition (Clute & Grant, 1997). That is pretty understandable: fantasy has accelerated through current times and continues to be evolving, the place sub-genres are created and move each other. Boyer et al. (1979) trusts that “fantasy, as a literary genre, is composed of works in which non-rational phenomena play a tremendous part” (p.3). This implies that the events, in some cases, places and beings, could not have happened or could not exist in accordance with our truth and does no longer apply to our natural laws. Fantasy is a genre that one locates under one massive umbrella referred to as non-realistic literature, the different being practical literature.

In realistic literature, the world is just like the one we stay in, according to our natural laws. The world's past and current are an actual copy of our reality. What we read in realistic literature ought to have been real; it would no longer conflict with our view of reality. Broadly (2015) described as “the faithful representation of reality”, realism in literature is the attempt to represent difficult matters truthfully, besides artificiality and heading off artistic conventions, implausible, individual and supernatural elements. The non-realistic literature on the other hand, has a separate view of reality; something we know can't or will now not happen.

Fantasy is generally characterized by a departure from the accepted guidelines by which men and women understand the world around them; it represents that which is not possible and does not go with the parameters of our recognized reality. Fantasy usually describes those tales that would not happen in actual life, regarded as make-believe. Modern fantasy provides a break with reality like the possibility of flying vehicles from other worlds. For this to succeed, the author desires to suspend the readers' disbelief of the plot and characters. These tales involve magic, or a quest, or precise vs. evil. One of the most apparent advantages of fantasy is that it approves that the world can be seen in different lenses with the use of imagination. It takes a hypothetical situation and invites readers to make connections between his imaginary state of affairs and their personal social reality.

The understanding of truth is relative and not the same for all, as each literary realist works and their criticism reflects on this idea. One of the essential conceptual adjustments that the modernists introduced was once the perception that truth is relative, that is, that it can't be fully knowable or communicable, but can only be approached from a relative viewpoint and is no longer same to all. This constituted a colossal departure from the dominant perception of reality as

conceivable, knowable, verifiable and communicable. Realism is the trustworthy or true representation of reality. It is representative of any daily life situation generally involving middle and lower classes (most people are not regarded as the “upper class”).

The important referent of literary realism is ostensibly, reality. Fantasy fiction, for instance, maybe a kind of deformation of reality that creates its very own reality, whereas literary realism seems to be a representation of something concrete, something “real”, that is reality. On the surface, literary realism would seem to presume upon a set of guidelines supposedly associated with real-life, to reality, outside of fiction. We have a tendency to evaluate, as readers, a literary text as if it had been “real life”. A common understanding of realism is that it is marked by ‘maximum verisimilitude’ (Jakobson, 1971, p. 38). This viewpoint is frequently also thinking of as a key attribute of the genre of literary realism.

II. METHODOLOGY

Literary realism is fiction, however, no matter what referent it should recommend. Iser (1971) opines that “the basic and deceptive assumption is that fiction is an antonym of reality. It is a source of confusion... when one seeks to define the “reality” of literature” (p.85). Reality is both its staple and its outcome. The interaction with a textual analysis amounts to a “real journey and has the plausible of making the reader react to his personal ‘reality’, so that this same fact may additionally then be reshaped” (Iser, 1971, p.85). To put it in a different way, fiction draws on, imitates and inscribes reality, irrespective of genre, and nourished by virtue of its subject and in supplying expertise in itself, has the potential of fixing our understanding of reality.

Fantasy too can open up many one of a kind chances and writers are in a position to deliver complex ideas on a symbolic degree that would be difficult to convey otherwise. Besides that, fantasy works grant a fresh perspective on the real world. The myth genre entails a distinct way of apprehending existence but it is no much less true than realism. Fairy stories and different tales of fantasy frequently get a horrific rap.

There was a time when the West was undergoing a tremendous crisis as to what should be the nature of reality to present the things around. With this fractured consciousness, it was believed that the present crisis cannot be adequately dealt with or delve in without the active engagement of fantasy because even the so-called reality was put under scrutiny. So, there was an acute need for an alternative medium that could address the issue in a very legitimate way. This sort of epistemological break has to do with the western school of thought when every available thought was put under thorough scrutiny. This, in a way, gave birth to the ‘make-belief’ world where reality was not given that much importance.

Concise Oxford Dictionary defines ‘Fantasy’ as “the faculty or activity of imagining improbable or impossible things. It is a genre of imaginative fiction involving magic and adventure.” There are various ways that fantasy writers build their worlds. Some novels begin and end in a fantasy world, for instance, *The Hobbit*. Others start in the real world and move into a fantasy world like *Alice in Wonderland* or *Peter Pan*. Another type of fantasy is set in the real world but elements of magic intrude upon it as in *Mary Poppins* or David Almond’s *Skellig*. In a fantasy, realistic settings are often called primary worlds while fantasy settings are referred to as secondary worlds. On the other hand, Fantasy is traditionally associated with dreaming, with the working of the unconscious mind, the mind is not fully controlled in itself or its materials, a body of writing which is suitably characterized by the term ‘indulgent’. In it, there appears to be no compulsion for the writer to go by the empirical observation as a testimony of his work in order to judge the nature of reality. What is noticeable, humanly plausible, tends to be absent. Unlike realist fiction, it lacks structure, form, coherence, and order. Now, the question arises how can we justify fantasy? Magic realists have employed fantastic elements at a grand level in their works so as to give it a new flavor. All the more it can be said this was done when the so-called reality which was supposed to constitute the framework of a novel was put to question.

The writer is indulgent when he fails to respect the contingency of the real world when he does not relate his art and imagination to reality when he fails to pay due heed to the nature of our experience. He lets his imagination take flight, and ends by committing himself only to excess and extravagance. In fantasy, there appears to be no compulsion for the writer to relate his work to empirical observation, to what we may know or guess about the nature of reality. What is observable, plausible, tends to be absent. Fantasy takes the art out of ‘art and imagination’.

Realism has become then a kind of assertion of faith on the part of writer and critic, and fantasy has become associated with defeatism, abdication of responsibility, untruth, moral pessimism, and it exhibits a distinct lack of faith. We emerge with the notion that the novel has a fundamental commitment to reality, this commitment itself becoming a moral obligation for the novelist, so that he is, as it were, obliged to be a moralist in order that the critic may be a moral man.

Ian Watt (1957) in his book *The Rise of the Novel* proclaimed that “the correspondence between a literary work and the reality it imitates” (p.6) is an issue which the novel raises more sharply than any other literary forms. There has been a lot of criticism poured on it to validate this claim made by Watt. If we pay kin attention to the bunch of writings available on the theory of fiction, we can see many critics insist on the importance of reality. Frank Kermode (2000) is one such critic who in his book *The Sense of an Ending* places more emphasis or gives more importance on reality by saying that “The novelist accepts need, the difficulty of relating one’s fictions to what one knows about the nature of reality, as his done” (p.133). He is of the view that novel as literary form “operates as a structure of reality, which must

be present in fiction in the form of contingency, and without an unshakeable respect for this contingency the writer will sink into fantasy” (Salter, 1972, p. 285). And this very structure is supposed to be guided by reality or else it will sleep into some kind of bizarre or hyperreal position. In *Language of Fiction* David Lodge, too, talked of the relation between reality and fiction. He further adds that we cannot ignore the fact that novel as a genre is rooted in the convention of realism, and the novelist is seen as a structure of reality or the one who shapes the reality to which we all have access.

III. DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

Realism and Fantasy are the two traits replete with every culture and society (which we find almost in every culture and society). The latter genre is said to create a make-believe world by a way individuals perceive the around them and it engages elements which are at times inexplicable through the known parameters of reality. On the other hand, fantasy describes those stories that could not happen in real life, also known as make-believe. It is available in various genres like Fairy Tale, Epic Fantasy, Heroic Fantasy, Comic Fantasy, Magic Fantasy and Modern Fantasy. It is basically a narrative that talks about a setting which is not realistic in nature, and it sets in the medieval universe, and often opens with mythical or supernatural elements which becomes the prominent elements of the plot, theme or setting.

In order to understand this complexity of realism and fantasy, it becomes necessary to read Garcia Marquez’s *One Hundred Years of Solitude* which is a direct source of inspiration for Rushdie himself. In one of his interviews, he confesses to having inspired by Marquez.

I was born in the city of Bombay... once upon a time. No, that won't do, there's no getting away from the date: I was born in Doctor Narlikar's Nursing Home on August 15th, 1947. And the time? The time matters, too. (Rushdie, 1983, p.3)

And thus opens Rushdie’s magnum opus with a fantastical tone in the city of Bombay where the narrator-protagonist takes birth at the stroke of midnight hours. The phrase ‘once upon a time’ anticipates fantasy. For over thirty-odd years, the novel has earned admiration from the reader, influencing contemporary writers, artists, and inspiring adaptations to the stage and screen. The element of fantasy is seen as a facet in the novel. Allegorically it also points to the fact that this very year both the narrator and the country he belongs to gets free from the clutches of the British. And the other is the birth of the narrator-protagonist at the same hour. The course of the novel narrates the parallel story of both.

Rushdie does mentions that it is going to be a tale “of so many stories --- intertwined live events” --- and of “--- so dense a commingling of the improbable and the mundane” (Rushdie, 1983, p. 4). This makes it obvious that the author is keen on clubbing the improbable and the mundane thereby hinting at things that might appear to be fanciful and fictitious. Rushdie resorts to fuse these two extremes and “opposing ends of the fictional spectrum into another kind of symbiosis” (Dhar, 1985, p. 17). One does not fail to comprehend the oscillating nature of the narrative between fact and fantasy which makes the text a fascinating read. One does not fail to observe that the author is freeing himself from the complex plot of a well-structured novel. The novelist shows his keen interest in history by adding up to something and give a new dimension to the narrative. He appropriates history in his narrative by calling on his memory which holds the utmost importance so far the complexity of the text is concerned.

The narrator Saleem reminds the reader with the fact that it is a story about:

a mythical land, a country which would never exist except by the efforts of a phenomenal collective will – except in a dream we all agreed to dream ... India, the new myth – a collective fiction in which anything was possible, a fable rivalled only by the two other mighty fantasies: money and God. (Rushdie, 1983, p. 50)

In this incredible land, where everything is possible, monsters, wdayans, djinns abound here and the distinction between the real and the dream world is persistently blurred, forcing the reader into a position of perpetual uncertainty.

Saleem’s adroitness is felt everywhere. Though he promises to tell everything but most part of it remains wrapped in the ‘filmy curtain of ambiguities’. Memory being illusory is a known fact to him. He fumbles sometimes but his rudimentary details amuse the readers. This amusing state does not last for a long time as it is punctured when he explains the role of memory:

Memory’s truth, because memory has its own special kind. It selects, eliminates, alters, exaggerates, minimizes, glorified, and vilified also; but in the end it creates its own reality, its heterogeneous but usually coherent version of events; and no sane human being ever trusts someone else’s version more than his own. (Rushdie, 1983, p. 292)

It may well be noted that Saleem inherited a fragmented style of narration from his grandfather who has the habit of seeing things bit by bit. His grandfather being a trained medical practitioner was once invited to treat a young girl, but he was not allowed to examine the girl fully, instead the girl’s female attendants held a sheet with a small hole in it. And the doctor was supposed to examine the patient through the hole. This is how his grandfather gains partial access to the girl’s body. The whole episode covertly indicates the fragmentary image of India that Adam Sinai has been carrying in his imagination. So, the hole in the sheet performs the role of a mediator between the patient and the doctor. The word ‘hole’ has been used symbolically on several occasions to clear out in the novel present situation which demands multiple interpretations.

He often employs memory as a medium of forming alternate history that debunks the mainstream history as being untrue and artificial. His social critique continues as he also presents how the appearance and reality differed in a

nation's own account of it,

Divorce between news and reality: newspapers quoted foreign economists – PAKISTAN A MODEL FOR EMERGING NATIONS – while peasants (unreported) cursed the so-called 'green revolution', claiming most of the newly- drilled water-wells had been useless, poisoned, and in the wrong places anyway; while editorials praised the probity of the nation's leadership, rumors, thick as flies, mentioned Swiss bank accounts and the new American motor-cars of the President's son. The Karachi *Dawn* spoke of another dawn - GOOD INDO-PAK RELATIONS JUST AROUND THE CORNER?" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 464)

The narrator wishes to maintain maximum truthfulness to pen down his accounts. At the same time, he is also aware of the complexities that he might encounter: "I must describe, as nearly as possible in spite of this curtain of ambiguities, what actually happened..." (Rushdie, 1983, p. 113)

One cannot miss the reference to Padma's response to the Reverend Mother's ability to enter into her daughter's mind. So, the Reverend Mother has now access to the mind of her daughter where she visits "Emerald's dreams, and found another dream within them-Major Zulfikar private fantasy of owing a large modern house with bath beside his bed" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 69). This very act is utter incredulous seemingly not possible to happen in reality, but it is made possible by creating a make-belief world where everything is possible. Padma lends her ear to the whole episode passively without offering any comment as if she is not bothered about the credibility of the matter.

Later when he mentions "the fog of guilt" hanging around his mother's head, he is certain that "Padma would believe it, Padma would know what I mean" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 218). We need a Padma like interlocutor to make the fantastic look real. Mary Pereira and Padma are made to believe that Half snake – half-man Dr. Schaapsteker is another fantastical character who said to have possessed power of being immune to snake bites. It is also believed that he was the "child of an unnatural union between a woman and a cobra" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 188) which is again something that cannot be performed in reality. These events are no less than improbable or superstitious in nature. One could dismiss these for being a preposterous matter.

The most incredulous fact in the narrative is when Saleem is bestowed with the magical power to communicate with his fellow midnight's children on account of being born on the day India got independence from the British Raj. This magical power brought him in close contact with Shiva, Parvati and other children of midnight who are also equipped with the same power and they are having forums in Saleem's head. Often, they fight over what to do with their magical gifts and Saleem can let them in or out. Similarly, in *Satanic Verses*, Saladin Chamcha possesses the gift to become anything people want him to. He is an actor who can imitate voices and who once starred in a radio playing all the thirty-six parts without anybody recognizing it was one person. Upon his arrival in England, he not only changed his name to make it sound like English but his look as well.

The prophecy made by Ramram Seth that Amina Sinai is going to have "a child with two heads" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 461) leaves her panic-stricken. Such a strange prophecy makes her clueless, and it even takes a heavy toll on her health. Many of the prophecies that Mary Pereira does mention are about the fortune tellers prophesy about "the birth of a two-headed son" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 241), sadhus awaiting the arrival of "the Blessed One" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 241), little girls speaking in "the languages of birds and cats" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 461). These small events are testimony of the fact that the narrative has fantastical elements in abundance. Things that are impossible or improbable are being referred to in a number of places in the narrative.

We come across a serious issue when a Prime Minister is found seeking the help of astrologers in drafting the country's first Five Year Plan or when a young woman with a consciously secular bringing gives in to the prophecy of a Raman Seth with the cobrawallah, monkeyman, bone-setter surrounding him. Instead of hesitation, one finds a belief in the supernatural that cuts across class, caste and gender lines. As Saleem puts it, even a "literate person in this India of ours" is not "immune from the type of information I am in the process of unveiling" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 273).

In the novel, the author employs the technique of magic realism to present their story before his readers. It quintessentially implies reality to be fantastical than to be real, so magical reality. The birth of the protagonist, Saleem Sinai whose birth coincides with that of India is given a mythical shape as the two born at the stroke of midnight on 15th August 1947, so his life is supposed to be magical. This event places him in such a position that he is even being addressed by none other than the first prime minister of India, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru to congratulate him on his birth,

Newspapers celebrated me; politicians ratified my position. Jawaharlal Nehru wrote: 'Dear Baby Saleem, My belated congratulations on the happy accident of your moment of birth! You are the newest bearer of that ancient face of India which is also eternally young. We shall be watching over your life with the closest attention; it will be, in a sense, the mirror of our own.' (Rushdie, 1983, p. 167)

Rushdie does talk about Indian politics and history through fictionalizing it, and this he does by performing a historian as well as a novelist at the same time.

But that was nine years later... meanwhile, early in 1957, election campaigns had begun: the Jan Sangh was campaigning for rest homes for aged sacred cows; in Kerala, E.M.S. Namboodiripad was promising that Communism would give everyone food and jobs; in Madras, the Anna-D.M.K. party of C.N. Annadurai fanned the flames of regionalism; the Congress fought back with reforms such as the Hindu Succession Act, which gave Hindu women equal rights of inheritance... in short, everybody was busy pleading his own cause; I, however, found myself tongue-tied in the face of Evie Burns, and approached Sonny Ibrahim to ask him to

plead on my behalf. (Rushdie, 1983, p. 256)

He neatly weaves the national history to the personal narrative which does revolve around the protagonist.

Rushdie's comingling of history and fiction problematizes the narrative to such level to make it difficult for the readers to make a distinction between what is real and unreal. He plants Shiva to play a part in the General Elections of 1957 without taking names of the party. He does critics Indian political system as being corrupted,

One member of the Midnight Children's conference played a minor role in the elections. Winkie's supposed son Shiva was recruited by- well, perhaps I will not name the party, but only one party had really large sums to spend- and on polling day, he and his gang, who called themselves Cowboys, were to be seen standing outside a polling station in the north of the city, some holding long stout sticks, others juggling with stones, still others picking their teeth with knives, all of them encouraging the electorate to use its vote with wisdom and care...and after the polls closed, were seals broken on ballot-boxes? Did ballot-stuffing occur? At any rate, when the votes were counted, it was discovered that Qasim the Red had narrowly failed to win the seat; and my rival's paymasters were well pleased. (Rushdie, 1983, p. 308)

Thus, we see how Rushdie is not taking the name of any political party directly but only hints to it and leaves it the readers to formulate their perspective. Here one can also notice on that part of Rushdie who is trying to establish an alternative political history of the 1957 elections, thus problematizing the mainstream political history. His narrative appears to be a fine document of a social and political critique of the contemporary time. The connection between Saleem and history is established through one in the text when he says,

I was linked to history both literally and metaphorically, both actively and passively, in what our (admirably modern) scientists might term 'modes of connection' composed of 'dualistically-combined configurations' of the two pairs of opposed adverbs given above. This is why hyphens are necessary: actively-literally, passively-metaphorically, actively- metaphorically and passive- literally, I was inextricably entwined with my world. (Rushdie, 1983, p. 330-331)

He employs true historical facts by using magic realism to make history appear fantasy while the narrative is oscillating between fact and fantasy. India's defeat in the Indo-China war is synonymous with his defeat as he is being projected as the familiar cry of the day 'Saleem is India, and India is Saleem'. He narrates in depth the details his own defeat in M.C.C;

On October 20th, the Indian forces were defeated- thrashed- by the Chinese at Thag La ridge. An official Peking statement announced: *In self-defence, Chinese frontier guards were compelled to strike back resolutely.* But when, the same night, the children of midnight launched a concerted assault on me, I had no defence. They attacked on a broad front and from every direction, accusing me of secrecy, prevarication, high handedness, egotism; my mind, no longer a parliament chamber, became the battleground on which they annihilated me. (Rushdie, 1983, p. 414)

Within the western concept of fantasy, the supernatural is clarified as a projection of human fears. Saleem observes that he is "not speaking allegorically; what I have fair composed and (perused out loud to dazed Padma) is nothing less than the literal, by-the-hairs-of-my-mother's head truth" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 278). Saleem may well be a doubter like his maker Rushdie, but this does not make him resistant to the mysterious puzzles of the marvelous. Together with Rushdie, Saleem withstands for the rural world over the urban like Marquez is affirmed to have done. The distinction lies in that where a Padma or Mary might gulp down marvelous happenings without the scarcest faltering, Saleem might require to legitimize his position through philosophical contention. But the whole thrust of Saleem's contentions into maintaining and complement the presence of other points of view on what is, which might damage common ideas of truth, "Reality can have metaphorical content; that does not make it less real" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 278).

Unlike the initial tellers and listeners of tales like folk tale, Rushdie cannot take the marvelous with no consideration. Saleem uses a method replete with "matter of fact descriptions of the outre and bizarre, and their reverse, namely heightened, stylized versions of every day" to point out a distinction in "attitudes of mind" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 303) - a method and perspective that he confesses to possess borrowed from Shiva his twin midnight's kid. Whereas he permits Padma and Jewess to participate fully within the marvelous, Saleem Rushdie remains at a distance.

In Rushdie's novel, postmodernist skepticism is rigorously counterbalanced against premodern belief through the good use of the working-class interlocutor Padma. Her credulous responses to Saleem's subtle self-consciousness provide proof of the "miracle-seeking consciousness" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 147) of the Indian lots. Although Rushdie imitates pre-modern, he doesn't stop to possess affectionateness for it. He combines the condition of fantasy - "the reader's hesitation within the presence of the supernatural" (Rushdie, 1983, p. 183) with a supernatural clarification of events as in pure marvelous. Against Saleem's pessimism is Padma's religion altogether things miraculous, like new moons, strange happenings, prophecies, strange coincidences.

The use of fantasy by magic realists as has been discovered earlier is meant to question the place of reality in literature. Rushdie's magic realist mode is, by his own admission, a method to beat the constraints of the history of the historical testimony of a young boy's unreliable memory. However, his strange commingling of the improbable and the mundane" may be seen as an effort to relinquish a glimpse into alternative aesthetics during which art doesn't get to imitate life. Oriental narratives grow out of the semi-mythical universe. Here the strange and unbelievable isn't solely the natural material of fiction however the freaky and uncanny is additionally accepted as the 'real'. Miracles and

imperialities, of the type Midnight's youngsters, abound with are accepted, at some levels, without much doubt.

However, the novel places two views side-by-side suggesting that it is impossible to translate one in terms of the opposite. This can be totally different from fantasy wherever a fragile tension is maintained between a natural and supernatural clarification of events. Rushdie's answer is to place the two views through Saleem associated Padma to uphold the supernatural as an equally valid perspective even if some won't be able to access it.

Fantasy, then, is a medium that helps us to maintain a delicate balance between the real and unreal and the tension as well. So, the dichotomy of real and unreal is not new in literature. "Fiction uses facts as a starting-place and then spirals away to explore its real concerns, which are only tangentially historical" (Rushdie, 2010, p. 409).

IV. CONCLUSION

Here in Rushdie's narrative the bizarre and the fantastic blurs the boundaries between the real and plausible in the novel, thereby problematizing the identities of gender, parenthood, and nationality, and renders the readers into a state of uncertainty by incorporating oblique references or links. All these are possible due to the element of fantasy that the novel formulates. The element of fantasy is impeccably penned down by Rushdie which makes the readers amusing. Now that we have moved to an age where it is very difficult for us to discern the boundary between real and unreal. Rushdie is one such writer whose works have often been appropriated in both postmodernism and postcolonialism.

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On Improper Machine Translations in Press Reports*

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Abstract—Machine translation, also known as automatic translation, is the process of converting one natural language (source language) into another natural language (target language) by using networks. There are some language errors in current machine translation in news releases. Having compared human translators' translation texts and machine translation results, improper machine translation results are found. They are inaccurate use of words, rigid sentence patterns and unclear expression of specific cultural meanings. Accurate machine translation needs the assistance of human translators.

Index Terms—artificial intelligence, machine translation, language errors

I. INTRODUCTION

Background

The research history of machine translation can be traced back to the 1930s. In the early 1930s, the French scientist G.B. Alchouni came up with the idea of machine translation. In 1933, the Soviet inventor Trotansky designed a machine to translate one language into another. In 1949, W. Weaver published the Memorandum of Translation, which formally proposed the idea of machine translation (Tian Jiangbo, 2018). In 1954, (Georgetown University) of Georgetown University in the United States, in collaboration with IBM Company, completed the experiment of English-Russian machine translation with IBM-701 computer for the first time, demonstrating the feasibility of machine translation to the public and the scientific community. Thus, the prelude to the study of machine translation has been opened.

It is not too late for China to start the research. As early as 1956, the state included the research of machine translation in the national scientific work development plan. In 1957, the Institute of languages of the Chinese Academy of Sciences and the Institute of Computational Technology conducted experiments on Russian-Chinese machine translation, which translated nine different types of more complex sentences. From the 1950s to the first half of the 1960s, machine translation studies were on the rise. For military, political and economic purposes, the United States and the former Soviet Union had provided substantial financial support for machine translation projects. However, due to the geopolitical and economic needs, European countries have attached great importance to the research of machine translation. Machine translation has been on the upsurge for a while. In this period, machine translation has entered an optimistic period of prosperity.

Google Translation is one of machine translation websites that has many users. It is a multilingual translation of text, voice and image (Liu Qiyuan, 2016). The essence of Google translation is based on multi-language parallel corpus, combining statistical and mathematical methods, to construct big data analytical model to mine the inherent laws between different languages. Google translation is not limited by the number of words in the original text, and has a super-retrieval function, which is engaged in almost all industries of translation. In 2016, Google replaced all-product line translation algorithms with neural network-based machine translation systems, using state-of-the-art training techniques to improve translation quality (Una Zhang, 2018).

Chinese researchers focus on vocabulary and grammar research of machine translation, researching on sentence pattern errors, and political language translation, but few achievements have been made in news language translation of machine translation. For example, Lin Xiaoping (2018) published the small clause complex theory under the framework of Chinese-English machine translation error analysis (Wu, Yonghui, Schuster, Mike, Chen, Zhifeng, etc., 2016). It analyzes the characteristics of small compound sentences and translation methods, as well as the various aspects of language in machine translation errors. Studying machine translation from the perspective of computer application, Xu Xuehui (2018) from Beijing Foreign Studies University published *Chinese-English translation Quality Evaluation of*

* **Fund projects:** Jiangxi Colleges Liberal Arts Programs "Press release machine translation between English and Chinese language error analysis", "Mobile learning in college English vocabulary learners: an empirical study of metacognitive strategy training" (YY19223); Jiangxi Educational Reform Subject (JXJG - 13-8-19); Jiangxi 13.5 Planning Project (Numbers: 17ZD030) and 13.5 (17 TB118);

Neural Network Machine Translation. Jiang Baoxuan from Beijing Foreign Studies University published *Diagnostic Evaluation of Chinese-English interpretation quality of Neural Network Machine Translation* in 2016.

At present, under the influence of economic globalization, news of a country would spread widely around the world. With the help of machine translation, press releases of a country are translated into many languages. But translation errors may also exist in these influential press releases. According to *Analysis of Lexical and Syntactic Errors in English-Chinese Machine Translation* (Yin Jiao, 2017), Google, Youdao and Bing translations have 22 linguistic errors.

In order to further reduce the translation problems, it is necessary to further study the language errors in news articles. From the perspective of linguistics, this paper will study improper linguistic machine translations in press releases to find a better way to use machine translation.

II. CHARACTERISTICS OF NEWS LANGUAGE

News translation must be analyzed in combination with the specific features of news text. With the development of translation technology, news language has new features.

A. General Characteristics

The first feature is using new words and acronyms (Li Qiang, 2019). Acronyms are one of the main word-formation methods in modern English newspapers and periodicals, especially active in news headlines. Acronyms not only have the characteristics of concise word-making and convenient use, but also have strong vitality. English acronyms are formed by omitting or simplifying the original words by selecting the appropriate syllables or letters or numbers of the words. In the collection of news, English-speaking countries will involve many proper nouns, such as longer names and institution names.

The new words in news English reports are also accompanied by the rapid development of society and the emergence of new things, such as swine flu, avian flu, bird flu, SARS, AIQaida, shared unisex between men and women (Guo Jin, 2018). Acronyms are frequently used in news English. Words are refined. The amount of information is large, such as OPEC-The Organization of Petroleum Exporting Country Organization of Petroleum Exporting countries, IMF-international Monetary Fund International Monetary Fund.

The second characteristic is simple and plain (Rob Vandenberg, 2018). News is reported in easy-to-understand words. Therefore, the news sentences will usually not adopt complex sentence structures. For example, the "Located in southeastern Tibet at an average altitude of 3, 100 meters, Linzhi is now the fourth prefecture-level city in the Tibet autonomous region. (Guo Jin, 2018).".

The third characteristic is that news translation needs to be completed in a short time. What the news conveys is the real event. And the event information often has the timeliness. The core information in news reports will not exceed a few hundred words, and these hundreds of words must condense a lot of connotation and information.

B. New Characteristics in Intelligence Artificial Age

With the development of new media, the original artificial news production mode no longer adapt to the development of the times. Artificial intelligence news is based on computer programs and big data analysis, presenting the characteristics of standardized content, strong timeliness and hidden position, completely overturning the traditional news interview, writing, editing, proofreading and other links, making news production simple, personalized and time-free (Zhang Liang, 2019). News language has the following two features.

1. Novel, entertaining, and diversified expressions

On May 23, 2017 China Youth Daily on WeChat news "首战告负! 柯洁不敌阿尔法狗, 胜天半子还可能吗". In the article, using the flexible turn of the actual combat, AlphaGo, in the upper right corner, started the battle again, "AlphaGo, stirring a pool of spring water. Now, the last three disks of the game are only two, and the HAPPY ENDING..." is more popular in the article. In the end, it's also a joke that if you need to enhance a little, there may be a foreign aid to consider. The hall is still three seconds to the battlefield... "It's almost impossible to see in traditional media.

2. Endless new words

Neologisms are a microcosm of the changes of the times and social progress. New words emerge in endlessly, creating new examples in English news reports. After being imitated and reaching a considerable degree of universality, they are gradually absorbed into the dictionary and officially become part of modern English. For example:

Kidult (a blend of kid and adult) refers to a so-called grown-up who doesn't want to grow up (or at least act like an adult) and would instead prefer so-called "children's" stuff for entertainment, like cartoons, toys, comic books, Disney movie s, etc. (The Economist, 2014, Political Friends, Religiously Different)

A mixture of Kidult (kid and adult) refers to people who appear to be adults but don't want to grow up (or at least don't want to act like adults), who are more likely to choose children's entertainment, Such as cartoons, toys, comic books and Disney movies.

III. LANGUAGE ERRORS IN MACHINE TRANSLATION

A. Low Accuracy in Vocabulary Translation

Many words express the same meaning, while the same word, depending on the word order and the speaker's tone of voice, can represent the opposite meaning. It is an unqualified challenge for intelligent translation machines programmed by logical judgment. Let's take an article from Agence France-Presse (Agence France-Presse) on May 16, 2019 as an example.

The team, led by FIU biologist Matthew DeGennaro, identified the guilty receptor as Ionotropic Receptor 8a, or simply IR8a.

FIU is the abbreviation of Florida International University. And IRU8a originates from the abbreviation of a scientific and technological term. Therefore, when Chinese-English translation, we should deal with the understanding error caused by acronyms. In the process of translating acronyms into Chinese, the full name of acronyms should be translated and sometimes further explained. The following table is a comparison between Jinshan translation and manual translation of the previous paragraph (MAO Xiaoli, 2019).

原文	人工翻译	金山翻译
The team, led by FIU biologist Matthew DeGennaro, identified the guilty receptor as Ionotropic Receptor 8a, or simply IR8a, through a process of elimination that began in 2013 when DeGennaro was able to create the world's first mutant mosquito, removing a gene to investigate how its absence affected the insect.	这个研究小组由佛罗里达国际大学的生物学家马修·德根纳罗领导。小组通过排除法，确定了这种罪魁祸首的受体为亲离子受体 8a，简称 IR8a。这个排除法实验从 2013 年就开始了，当时德根纳罗移除了（蚊子的）一种基因，得以创造出了世界上第一只变体蚊子，为的是研究缺少这种基因对蚊子的影响	该小组由金融情报室生物学家马修·德根纳罗(Matthew DeGennaro)领导，通过 2013 年开始的消除过程，将这种负罪感受体确定为嗜离子受体 8a(简称 IR8a)，当时 Degennaro 能够制造出世界上第一只变异蚊子，去除一种基因，以调查它的缺失对昆虫的影响。

As can be seen from this table, all the names of the acronym FIU are not translated in Jinshan translation. It also mistranslated FIU into financial intelligence. In the translation of IR8ad below, it is word-to-word translation. The manual translation accurately translated FIU into Florida International University.

Human translation can avoid misunderstanding caused by improper acronyms in machine translation. For example, in the press conference of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs from 2015 to 2017, the phrase "一带一路", translated from Chinese to English by premier Li's translator Sun Ning, is different from that translated by Google.

原文：我们大力拓展对外合作，“一带一路”得到广泛的响应。特别值得一提的是，我们着力构建以合作共赢为核心的新型国际关系，正在走向结伴而不结盟的对外交往新路。

Sun Ning's translation: We made energetic efforts to expand external cooperation, and our initiative to establish a Silk Road Economic Belt and a 21st Century Maritime Silk Road won support from a lot of countries. It is particularly worth mentioning that focusing on building a new type of international relations featuring win-win. We are taking a new path of external relations characterized by partnership rather than alliance.

Google translation: We have made great efforts to expand our cooperation, and the "One Way" initiative has received a wide range of responses. Particularly worth mentioning is that we focus on building a win-win cooperation as the core of the new international relations, is out of a joint and non-aligned foreign exchange.

In the first part, the translation method of the central word "一带一路" is different for the original text. Sun Ning translated "一带一路" into "a Silk Road Economic Belt and a 21st Century Maritime Silk Road", and Google translation translated it into the "One Way". Therefore, Google translation is inaccurate since the original information cannot be delivered clearly (Zhou Yang, 2017).

Next, Mr. Sun Ning translated "得到广泛的响应" into "won support from a lot of countries" and Google translated it into "received a wide range of responses". Both expressions are feasible from grammar, but their specific meanings are different. In Sun Ning's translation, "响应" is understood as "support" the initiative to establish a Silk Road Economic Belt and a 21st Century Maritime Silk Road put forward by China. Google translation has translated it into a "response". In the light of the "New international relations based on co-operation and co-winning", the expression should be a friendly and positive relationship between China and the relevant countries.

Therefore, the translation "won support from a lot of countries" is more in line with what Foreign Minister Wang Yi wishes to emphasize. At the same time, it can be seen that "走向" in the "走向结伴而不结盟的对外交往新路" does not mean "walk". It refers to the development of Chinese foreign communication characterized by partnership rather than alliance. From the viewpoint of word use, Foreign Minister Wang Yi vividly shows the developing direction of Chinese diplomacy since both expressions are conveyed accurately, and Chinese language habits are considered.

B. Some Grammar Errors in Translation

Although machine translation based on neural network has replaced the statistical school as the main research method in the field of translation. the word error rate and grammar error rate of machine translation still exist. Here is an example of grammar error.

原文：2015 年，我们将保持进取势头，拓展全方位外交,在坚定维护国家利益的同时，不断扩大与世界各国的

共同利益。

Sun Ning’s translation: In 2015, we will continue to forge ahead and expand round diplomacy. While steadfastly safeguarding our national interests, we will work to expand the common interests we have with other countries in the world.

Google translation: In 2015, we will maintain the momentum of progress, expand all- round diplomacy, while maintaining national interests at the same time, continue to expand with the common interests of the world.

From the syntax, the subject of "拓展", "保持", and "不断扩展" are all "我们". To represent a series of actions, several verbs are connected after the same subject. The speaker had an impulse to express himself. At the same time, the compact sentence structure can also reflect how the subject describes the action, how to emphasize the personal subject itself. However, English expression habits are different from Chinese expression habits because there are so many verbs after the same subject. Sun Ning divided one original sentence into two separate sentences. Google translation missed the subject of the last clause because it wasn't broken down into sentences.

C. Lack of Natural and Fluent Sentence Structures

At present, machine translation at home and abroad mainly adopt literal translation, using simple sentences for daily communication, resulting in a lack of fluency in sentence structure. (Wang Ge, & Hua Nan, 2013).

原文	Google	human
22 岁的甘晓晨毕业于国际新闻专业，她在今年的求职过程中感到些许不轻松。	22-year-old Gan Xiaochen graduated in international journalism, and she felt a little uncomfortable during the job search process this year	Gan Xiaochen, 22, a graduate majoring in international journalism, has had a tough time finding a job this year
“她发现身边的求职者都是些海归，他们语言能力强，举止优雅，拿着一流的学位。”在四大会计师事务所的一次集体面试中，我发现 3 /8 的求职者都有海外留学经历。	“She found that the job seekers around her are all returnees. They have strong language skills, elegant manners, and hold first-rate degrees. "In a collective interview with the Big Four accounting firms, I found that 3/8 of the job applicants had overseas study experience.	She found that the job seekers around her were all overseas returnees with good language skills, polished manners, and a first-class degree. In a group interview for the Big Four accounting firm, I found three out of eight job applicants had overseas study experience.

In the first half of the sentence, there is no significant difference between machine translation and human translation. However, in machine translation, "些许不轻松" is translated into " a little uncomfortable ". "些许" corresponds to "a little" in Chinese, which is used to modify "不轻松". But it is translated into " a little uncomfortable" in Google translate, which is not accurate to its original meaning. By comparison, it is not difficult to find that machine translation is not good in dealing with the relationship between sentences. For example, Google translates "她发现身边的求职者都是些海归", into ““She found that the job seekers around were all returnees.” The meaning “海归”is ignored.

This requires the translator to intervene manually according to the original text and the machine translation. Otherwise, the translated text will be full of errors. To sum up, artificial intelligence can provide a lot of benefits to us in machine translation, there is still a big gap between artificial intelligence and artificial translation. It cannot displace human translation.

IV. CONCLUSION

According to the general characteristics of news language and its latest changes, this paper makes a comparative analysis and finds that there are still some problems in current machine translation, such as inaccurate words, rigid sentence patterns, unclear expression of specific cultural meanings, etc. Therefore, in order to further reduce translation problems, it is necessary to further study the language errors in news reports.

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The Effects of Collaborative Writing on EFL Learners' Writing Skills and Their Perception of the Strategy

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Abstract—This mixed-method study observes the effects of collaborative writing strategy on EFL learners' writing skill and their perception of the strategy. The population consists of 80 students from a public senior high school in West Sumatra, Indonesia. The samples, which were selected by using cluster random sampling, were categorized as the experimental and control class. Each class were taught with different teaching strategies, experimental class was taught by using collaborative writing strategy and the control class was taught by using conventional teaching strategy. The data were collected through writing tests and interviews to measure the students' writing skill and their perception of collaborative writing. The result of the analysis reveals that collaborative writing strategy has helped students in generating their writing ideas and activating the students' background knowledge of the topics assigned to them to develop in their writings. The result of this study also highlights the students' positive perception on collaborative writing strategy.

Index Terms—mixed-method study, collaborative writing, learners' perception, writing skill

I. INTRODUCTION

There are many popular strategies that teachers can adopt in teaching writing to help their students accomplish their writing tasks well. One of the strategies is collaborative writing. According to Barkley et al (2005), collaborative writing is a strategy that requires students to work in pairs or triads to write a formal paper together. This strategy will allow students with varying abilities to work together in completing a writing assignment (Storch, 2005). Then, he adds that in collaborative writing students may work together include all stages of writing process, started from initial stage (brainstorming ideas), second stage (gathering and organizing information the ideas into an outline), third stage (drafting the writing), fourth stage (revising), and last stage (editing the writing into a good writing). McDonough et al (2015) argue that although writing together, each student is responsible to reach a higher quality of individual writing. In addition, collaborative writing also provides an opportunity for the students to generate ideas and give peer feedback (Shehadeh, 2011; Dobao, 2012; Kesler et al., 2012; ShinWanTeow, 2014).

Some studies have been conducted to measure the effectiveness of collaborative writing for the writing process (Shehadeh, 2011; Ghufon & Hawa, 2015; Jalili & Shahrokhi, 2017). Those studies find that collaborative writing contributes to improving students' critical thinking and developing their writing products in terms of the content, organization and vocabulary, but not in term of achieving accuracy of writings. Other findings related to students' perception on collaborative writing implementation by Shehadeh (2011), Dobao & Blum (2013) and Khodabakhshzadeh & Samadi (2017) reveal that collaborative writing strategy was able to improve students' motivation, vocabulary, and comprehension of the topic and to change some of the students' ineffective writing habits.

Despite its positive impacts, collaborative writing is however not so popular in many schools in Indonesia, especially at the school where this study was conducted. The teacher's emphasis on the student's writing product has neglected the opportunities to enable students to work collaboratively. Leaving the students to focus on the mechanic aspects and generic structures, their critical thinking was not developed and the values of collaborative work were not nurtured among the students. Thus, this current study is aimed to investigate the effects of implementing collaborative writing strategy on students' writing skill as well as their perception on this strategy.

II. TEACHING WRITING STRATEGIES

Ur (2003) mentions that the goal of teaching writing is let the student acquires the capabilities and skills in order to compose various types of written texts properly in their own language. Besides, one of the most important long-life

skills that should be own by students is writng effectively. In teaching writing, teachers must consider the appropriate strategies, writing resources, and supporting materials that help both teacher and students in learning process.

Dealing with a particular strategy to teaching writing is commonly among teachers in order to meet a range of learning objectives (Eggen and Kauschak, 2012). Eacott (2007) states that a strategy is a set of constructive practices in achieving specified expectations. For more detailed, constructive practices refer to the progressive activities that involve students in teaching writing, and the specified expectations refer to the objective of teaching writing. Particularly, the use of strategies in teaching writing gives an opportunity for the teachers to facilitate their students in developing ideas and organizing them into a good writing. Thus, the teacher must be able to implement this strategy well in order to reach the expectations.

III. COLLABORATIVE WRITING

Collaborative writing is defined as two or more people are jointly composing, editing and drafting the complete text of a document based on their ideas (Spring, 2007). In the same vein, Barkley et al (2005) state that in collaborative writing, since the class was divided into some groups, group members compose a paper together. Each of them participate in initial stage (brainstorming ideas), second stage (gathering and organizing information the ideas into an outline), third stage (drafting the writing), fourth stage (revising) and last stage (editing the writing into a good writing), which are the stages of writing process. It is supported by McDonough et al (2015) who claim that students' responsibility on each steps of collaborative writing process reaches a higher quality of writing. The group works on each stage of collaborative writing can produce better writing rather than individuals' work (Barkley et al, 2005). In addition, Gousseva-Goodwin (2000), Storch (2005) and Wiglesworth and Storch (2007) also find that the students' taught to write collaboratively achieve higher scores than those taught to write individually. This means that collaborative strategy is effective in enabling students to accomplish a higher quality of writing products.

The main core of collaborative writng is a process of a pair of students or a group of students in producing a writing where cooperating and contributing of the group members plays an important role. So, the product of the writing will be better than before and also result social interaction between both teachers and students. In collaborative writing process, teachers as a facilitator need to provide how a group or pairs of students give review to each member of the group, searching for help from others, discussing and negotiating strategies about the concern of writing (Kessler et al., 2012). In response to the need for structural guidelines, Murray (2006), Storch (2009) and Mulligan & Garofalo (2011) suggest some guidelines of collaborative writing in order to allow students not only to do the different task in the same writing, but also simultaneously check and correct others' work.

Some researchers have conducted the investigation on collaborative writing implementation (Storch, 2005; Shehadeh, 2011; Dobao, 2012; Fong, 2012; Biria and Jafari, 2013; Ghuftron & Hawa, 2015; Jalili & Shahrokhi, 2017; Khodabakhshzadeh & Samadi, 2017). Those studies show the benefit of using collaborative writing for teaching and learning process. Storch (2005) finds that collaborative writing helps students in improving their quality of writing as well as providing an opportunity to generate ideas and feedback from one to another student. Similar finding is reported in Shehadeh (2011), Dobao (2012) and Fong (2012). Other studies find that practicing in pairs improves the overall quality of learners' writing even though the fluency of written text does not change significantly (Biria & Jafari, 2013). Furthermore, McNenny and Roen (2008) claim that despite the students various background, collaborative writing encourages students to work together and respects one another.

Other findings are related to the students' perception on collaborative writing implementation. In a long-term study, Shehadeh (2011) states that most of the student express positive attitudes on collaborative writing and enjoy the experience. Then, Dobao & Blum (2013) claim that collaborative writing provides more opportunity for the students to broader their horizons in terms of sharing ideas and knowledge. In addition, Khodabakhshzadeh & Samadi (2017) find that the students hold positive views towards collaborative writing because this strategy was able to boost their motivation, prompt them to apply peer-feedback during study, obtain comprehensive view over the topic change ineffective writing habits and learn more vocabulary. To sum up, collaborative writing has given positive effects on not only the students' writing skill but also their perception of the collaborative writing itself.

However, in many teaching writing process, teachers still tend to use conventional teaching strategies. Generally, in conventional teaching of writing, teacher asks the students to compose such a text freely in limited time without considering the stages of writing process itself (Gibbons, 2002). Then, teachers rarely give brainstorming to stimulate students' ideas so that they can share their ideas before being expressed in written form (Wiggins & McTighe (2007). Other stereotype pattern of conventional teaching of writing to EFL learners is that the teacher gives a topic and the students write a paper on it (Lestari, 2008). Students, then, work alone without getting any guidance from the teacher to develop and express their ideas properly. Moreover, the conventional strategy does not prompt the students to be mindful of other writing aspects either such as content, grammar, mechanic, vocabulary and organization.

In many other cases, for writing tasks, it is also found that teachers only focus on grammar rules in order to prepare their students to face test or examination (Mokhtar, 2016). Thus, students were assigned to memorize English grammar rules and vocabulary and apply their translation skills. Furthermore, conventional teaching can also be characterized as a face to face teacher-centered learning (Lesiak, 2015) because the learning process is dominated by direct and unilateral instruction. It does not facilitate class discussion or exploration of the concept involved. Thus, in teacher-

centered learning, students highly depend on the teacher in receiving new knowledge. In conclusion, this type of learning often results in creating passive students who lack creativity and interaction.

IV. METHOD

This mixed method study is aimed at finding out the effects of collaborative writing on EFL learners’ writing skills (quantitative) and their perception of the strategy (qualitative). The main independent variable in this study, is collaborative writing and the dependent variable is learners’ writing skill. This study employs a writing test (post-test) and interviews as the method of data collection. A post-test is implemented in the class after eight meetings of treatment. Then, a semi-structured interview was conducted to 14 students who were selected randomly.

Eighty students of a public senior high school in West Sumatra, Indonesia were involved in this study. Then, the samples were selected by using cluster random sampling. The 26 students in the experimental class were taught by using collaborative strategy and the 27 learners in the control class were taught by using conventional teaching strategy.

Two instruments were used in this study; writing test and interview. After completing eight meetings of learning and teaching writing, the participants in both experimental and control classes were assigned to write hortatory exposition text to measure their achievement in writing skills. Then, three general questions of semi-structured interview were obtained to elicit students’ perception on the implementation of collaborative writing.

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Findings

What is the effect of using collaborative writing strategy into the EFL learners’ writing skill?

For answer the first question, SPSS version 24 was used with independent sample test, and the result of t-test is shown in the table 1 below:

TABLE 1.
THE SUMMARY OF T-TEST ANALYSIS OF WRITING TEST IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASS

	Experimental Class	Control Class
	N : 26	N : 27
Data	μ : 81.35	μ : 74.26
	SD : 5.374	SD : 5.332
$t_{observed}$	4.819	
t_{table}	1.675	
Conclusion	$t_{observed} > t_{table}$	

From the table above, it can be seen that the result of the t-test analysis indicates that the value of $t_{observed}$ is 4.819 which higher than t_{table} 1.675 (df=51; α = 0.05; SD=1.471). It means the students who were taught by using collaborative writing had better writing skill than those who were taught by using conventional teaching. Moreover, if it is looked at the mean score of students’ writing of both groups, the mean score of the students who were taught by using collaborative writing (81.35) is higher than those who were taught by using conventional teaching (74.26). Thus, it indicates that collaborative writing gives better results than conventional teaching strategy in teaching writing. This happens because the students in experimental class are given more opportunities to think critically and objectively about a topic than the students in control class. By discussing the topic in the group, the students learned how to generate their ideas. As a result, alternative hypothesis (Ha) is accepted and the null hypothesis (Ho) is rejected.

What is the EFL learners’ perception of collaborative writing?

For the second research question, the students in experimental class (N=14) were interviewed. The format of the interview was semi-structured and learners were encouraged to explain their view in detail. There were three general questions asked in the interview to address the research objectives.

The first answer indicates that the majority of the respondents (n=10) have a positive view of collaborative writing and perceive it to be helpful in developing their writing skills. For instance, HH stated, “Working in the group is fun. We can help each other and share much information related to the topic. Sometimes we can laugh together when we cannot guess our friends’ idea”. While four respondents (n=4) disagree that it contributed some significant effects on their writing skills .One respondent (n=1) sees that collaborative writing did not give much impact on enabling all members in her group to engage in the group discussion during the learning process. For example, HS said, “Some students did not pay attention when the others share their ideas”. Then, two respondents (n=2) report that they prefer to keep silent even if they disagree with other group members’ opinions because they did not want to offend their friends and were unwilling to get into arguments. For example, SL said, “When we had different ideas on a topic assigned by our teacher, we usually had difficulties to decide whose ideas would be chosen. This sometimes cause conflicts among us”. And the last respondent (n=1) states that during the collaboration process, the group discuss in Bahasa Indonesia. KA states, “In group discussion, I used Bahasa Indonesia since I feel difficult to communicate in English”. It appears that their limited English language proficiency creates barriers to conduct group discussions in English.

As shown in table 2, the first question of semi-structured interview was answered by 14 respondents of the experimental class. Ten respondents (71.43 %) stated that collaborative writing had contributed positively to the

improvement of their writing skill. Meanwhile, four respondents (28.57 %) claimed that the implementation of collaborative writing did not give any significant effects on their writing skills.

TABLE 2.
THE PERCENTAGE OF COLLABORATIVE WRITING EFFECTIVENESS ON WRITING SKILLS

Question	Agree	Disagree
Do you think that collaborative writing is an effective strategy to accomplish a writing task?	71.43 % (n=10)	28.57% (n=4)

The second question informs that most of the respondents (n=8) could improve their writing skills as seen through the development of their vocabulary, better content, greater grammatical accuracy, and a variety of writing styles. For example, GA said, *"I learned many vocabularies when we discussed a topic. I also learned how to write better sentence with different words to explore the content of a text"*. Furthermore, some respondents (n=3) believe that collaborative writing has helped increase their confidence in writing. For instance, IEP said, *"I disliked writing because I did not know what to write. By using collaborative writing I felt that I get more ideas and I did not feel scare about the grammar and vocabulary in writing a hortatory text anymore"*. In addition, several other benefits were identified by other students (n=3) who saw the strategy helpful to engaged students with the sociocultural features of collaborative writing, specifically the co-construction of knowledge and language, where students discuss about the best way to articulate their meanings in the target language. For instance, BPN expressed, *"During the collaboration I could combine all of groups' opinion and decide whether it is right or wrong, useful or un-useful"*. He further adds that *"learning about other people's opinions was important"*. In a similar viewpoint, HH states *"the opportunity to discuss and talk to each other about the best way to speak English in expressing his thoughts and ideas"*.

As shown in the table 3, the second question of semi-structured interview was answered by 14 respondents in the experimental class. Eight respondents (57.16 %) stated that the positive changes occurred in their writing include a wider range of vocabulary, better content, greater grammatical accuracy, and a variety of writing styles. Then, three respondents (21.43 %) felt that collaborative writing increased their confidence in writing. Furthermore, three respondents (21.43 %) corresponded with sociocultural of collaborative writing.

TABLE 3.
THE PERCENTAGE OF THE ADVANTAGES OF COLLABORATIVE WRITING IMPLEMENTATION

Question	Better writing	Increase confidence	Co-construction
What does the advantages that you get from the implementation of collaborative writing?	57.16 % (n=8)	21.43 % (n=3)	21.43 % (n=3)

Then, the third question of semi-structured interview indicated that there were obstacles faced by the students in implementing collaborative writing. Some respondents (n=5) felt taking a longer time to finish the writing task in a group than they done it individually. Then, other respondents (n=4) felt that the domination of discussions by certain group members became a problem that occurred in implementation of collaborative writing. Furthermore, some respondents felt (n=5) that the unfair distribution of work, differences in opinion and learning style caused conflicts among the members of group.

As shown in table 4, the third question of semi-structured interview was answered by 14 respondents in the experimental class. Five respondents (35.71 %) states that the obstacle that they faced in collaborative writing is due to their preference of working individually to collaboratively. Then, four respondents (28.57 %) felt that the domination of certain group members occurred in the discussion. In addition, five respondents (35.71%) have conflicts due to their differences on learning style and opinions.

TABLE 4.
THE PERCENTAGE OF THE ADVANTAGES OF COLLABORATIVE WRITING IMPLEMENTATION

Question	Work individually	Domination of certain group member	Conflict due to the differences
What does the obstacle that you get from the implementation of collaborative writing?	35.71 % (n=5)	28.57 % (n=4)	35.71 % (n=5)

B. Discussion

The Effect of Collaborative Writing on EFL Learners' Writing Skill

This study reveals that collaborative writing gives some benefits to students' writing. First, it may help a group of students to use the potential strength of all its members to accomplish their work. This finding can be considered consistent with Widodo's (2006) insight that each student may accomplish one section of the tasks with regards his/her

area of strength. For example, one member of the group is good at organizing the ideas while another is very good at vocabulary. So, we can say, they can collaborate and get benefits from each other, the group members, while doing a writing task.

Second, it helps group members to get used to do peer-review when completing their writing project. By pairing different learners with different proficiency levels together it can be expected that the transferring of different kind of knowledge among pairs will take place. These results support earlier remarks by Shehadeh (2011) and Sajedi (2014) who claim that collaborative writing impact on students' writing performance in second language significantly, especially in content, organization, vocabulary, but grammar and mechanic are not included. In line with Dobao & Blum (2013), the students in experimental class get a lot of chances to get in touch with the group members and share their thought and ideas about the content of the writing task; mechanic, cohesion, coherence, grammar, paragraph organization, etc. As a result, they produce an appropriate and properly writing viewed from the grammar, coherence and lexicon.

Third, collaborative writing motivates students in considering their audiences when there is an opinion and feedback about a topic that they are going to write in their writing. As a result, they consider and change the content, manner and other components of writing likes vocabulary. While, they are more focus and pay attention of feedback they got in establishing their knowledge.

Then, students can build and develop their critical thinking skills. In groups, students may be unable to automatically evaluate the writing critically, but through step by step process, they will learn how to evaluate their writing and critique their peer' pieces of writing. As Stapleton (2001) maintains, critical thinking can be promoted through content familiarity and schemata (prior knowledge) because these shape the range and depth of argumentation. For example, if students are familiar with the content, they have a greater chance of refining their ideas and provide critical feedback on their peers' pieces of writing.

To conclude, collaborative writing can be used to build a supportive learning atmosphere for students and provide them with an opportunity to experience the process of writing collaboratively. That is why collaborative writing can optimize mutual benefits in a stress reduced classroom atmosphere and give better result in students' writing skills (Gaith, 2002).

EFL Learners' Perception in Implementing of Collaborative Writing

From the survey findings and interview responses, the majority of respondents had a positive perception on the use of collaborative writing in the classroom in terms of a variety of aspects. In terms of motivation, students felt that collaborative writing had improved their confidence to write in English. This finding echoed the results of past research such as Shehadeh (2011) whose subjects found collaborative writing to enhance their self- confidence, and Yong (2006) who proposes that collaboration fosters self-confidence. Two socio-cultural constructs commonly identified in collaborative writing, the co-construction of knowledge and language, were also cited by students as major benefits.

Most of the respondents agreed that they discussed about the best way to use the target language to express their ideas, in terms of grammar, vocabulary, sentence structure, and spelling among others. This corresponds to instances of language or language-related episodes identified in Swain (2007) and utilized as a variable in a number of studies on collaborative writing. It is shown, for instance, that frequencies of language-related episodes corresponded to quality of written text produced (Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Furthermore, the interview responses suggest that the respondents perceived collaborative writing to have a positive impact on their grammar.

VI. CONCLUSION

The results of this study show that collaborative writing gives positive effect on EFL learners' writing skill significantly. Besides, EFL learners get positive perception on collaborative writing itself, especially in writing motivation, peer-feedback, topic comprehending, habits and enriching of vocabulary. This findings give advantages for teachers who implement collaborative writing strategy in the classroom. It also helps the teachers to compare this strategy to another strategy (individual writing strategy). As collaborative writing strategy proves to have significant effect on EFL learners writing skill, it can be adopted as an alternative strategy in teaching writing.

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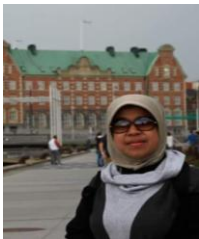
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Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

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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.

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