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A Pragmatic Analysis of Vague Language in the News Articles on the Iraqi Security Crisis

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Abstract—There is a well-known belief among linguists and discourse analysts saying that vague language is one of the common features of political language. In order for the linguists to include vague language within the domain of linguistic analysis, they started formulating vagueness within the principles of the pragmalinguistic theory. However, the pragmatic perspective had not been paid much attention yet. With the accelerated events in the Middle East, the best way to get information is to appreciate some news items because they are objective facts that are accessible and easy to comprehend for everybody (Pan, 2012, p. 2530). Iraq has witnessed many periods of serious escalation among which is the one started in April 2014 in which, the ISIS influence started expanding suddenly and rapidly causing infrastructure damage and casualties. The present paper aims at investigating vague expressions in news articles on the security situation in Iraq in the period mentioned above by means of Grice's cooperative principle to find out the purposes vague language serves and its effects on these news articles.

Index Terms—vagueness, news, cooperative, maxims, articles, pragmatic

I. INTRODUCTION

Generally speaking, an expression is pragmatically vague when it leaves some of the semantic features unspecified. For example, *person* is not specified concerning the features of [male] vs [female] and [old] vs [young] (Channell, 1994). An expression is vague if (a) it can be contrasted with another word or expression which appears to render the same proposition, (b) it is purposely vague or if (c) the meaning arises from intrinsic uncertainty (Channel, 1994, cited in Wenzhong and Jingyi, 2013, p. 104). *Intrinsic uncertainty*, here, does not mean that the speaker/ writer is ignorant of certainty. Rather, vagueness carries a sense of indeterminacy in language use. This indeterminacy is the speaker's/ writer's choice; a choice to use a vague expression rather than a precise one for one purpose or another (Channell, 1994, pp. 196-198).

Speaking or writing, we rarely express ourselves very clearly, precisely, or explicitly about what we mean. In many times, we are vague, indirect, and unclear about just what we are committed to. Superficially speaking, this appears to be an inadequacy of human language (Jucker, 2003, p. 1738). Ideally, there is a common assumption that the language which is imprecise and vague should be avoided as a defect whenever possible. However, for several linguists, this notion of language is rather plain. Precise language is not necessarily more efficient than vague language and vagueness could be a positive feature of human language (Jucker, 2003, p. 1738). Moreover, too much precision can, sometimes, lead to time wasting and inflexibility since vague words are often enough to present a meaningful message and no vague language is used for delivering a negative connotation. Thus, vagueness is an important part of everyday language. There is a common knowledge that the language is supposed to be both formal and concise in order to directly convey the facts and information to readers. However, vagueness attracts more attention and raises the reader's suspicions and, therefore, the reader starts searching deep in the report to achieve a better understanding than when the language is not vague (Stubbs, 1986, p.1; Williamson, 1994, p. 4869; Van Deemter, 2010, p. 10 and Sabet and Zhang, 2015, p. 4).

In language, vagueness is neither all "bad" nor all "good" because the most important thing is that vague language is used appropriately. The appropriateness of vagueness differs from one text to the other. A medical report, a legal contract, an academic paper, a political radio interview or a casual chat all differ in their degree of vagueness. Thus, the variation in the precision of utterances in the contexts is part of the speaker's communicative competence, and interpreting such expressions is a natural part of language use (Jucker, 2003, p. 1738). Accordingly, understanding the nature and role of vagueness in language is critical to an understanding of language itself (Channell, 1994, p. 3).

From a pragmatic perspective, there is a growing awareness of the contradiction between vagueness and Grice's cooperative principle; no vague language occurs without violating the Gricean maxims. Some scholars believe that the vague language is a sort of violation of Grice's cooperative principle, which often leads to failure of communication; whereas others have opposite views in this respect (Pan, 2012, p. 2530).

The news articles, especially the ones which present hard news (spot news and breaking news), are dynamic and the situation reported is often changeable. Sometimes the reporters are unable to get all the facts immediately for one reason or another. Thus, they resort to vague language to protect them from making false statements (Wahyuningsih, 2014, p. 16).

This paper is intended to investigate and pragmatically analyze the vague language in news articles on the Iraqi security crisis in the period after April 2014 in which, the violent and chaotic Islamic State of Iraq and Syria or al-Sham (also referred to as ISIS or ISIL) seized Mosul (Iraq's second city) and started advancing rapidly towards Baghdad and other cities. This kind of corpus has been chosen for analysis for two reasons. The first reason is a socio-political one; at that time, the events took place rapidly and abruptly. Thus, such news articles are supposed to be loaded with details which people in general seemed to be raring for and eager to know since the ISIS forces, at that time, represented a serious source of threat not only for Iraq and its surrounding countries, but for other vast areas in the world. The second reason is a linguistic one; the rapidity, abruptness and importance of the events that such news articles tackle put the news agencies in a sort of race towards achieving scoops. Such an achievement could sometimes be accomplished on the expense of clarity and, thus, vagueness could easily become a feature in the language of such texts. The confusing and shocking climate at that time would so probably lead the reporters to adopt vague language in their articles.

It is worth mentioning that it is not part of the present research paper claim that news articles on the Iraqi security crisis show more or less instances of vagueness (or any of its types) than any other comparable or incomparable corpora. The aim is to find out the purposes that vague language serves and its effects on these news articles. The pragmatic analysis for the news articles is based on the theoretical framework developed from Grice's cooperative principle.

The corpus consists of eight rather long news articles on the Iraqi security crisis which belong to the period after April 2014. The articles have been chosen randomly (except the fact that they tackle the crisis mentioned earlier) and downloaded from four famous broadcasting websites (www.associatedpress.com, www.reuters.com, www.cnn.com and www.bbc.com) and subjected to careful analysis.

II. VAGUENESS VS AMBIGUITY

It is worth clarifying the idea that vagueness and ambiguity are different concepts. In spite of being two varieties of interpretive uncertainty, ambiguity and vagueness differ both in their essential features and in their significance for the semantic theory and the philosophy of language (Kennedy, 2012, p. 508). Ambiguity is for an expression to have more than one meaning, but vagueness involves uncertainty about the meanings of particular terms. Dealing with an ambiguous expression, we have more than one meaning to assign depending on certain criteria, but it is often difficult to decide on the meaning of a vague expression since no choices are available (Gillon, 2004, p. 394 and Kennedy, 2012, p. 508).

Ambiguity is associated with bits of utterance related to any of the levels of linguistic analysis, starting from phonemes to discourses, and these written or spoken bits of utterance are characterized with more than one meaning. The following is an example from the 1980s British comedy series *A Bit of Fry and Laurie* (created by Stephen Fry and Hugh Laurie) (Kennedy, 2010, p. 517):

Fry: "You have a daughter, I believe."

Laurie: "Yeah, **Henrietta**."

Fry: "Did he? I'm sorry to hear that. That must've hurt."

(Kennedy, 2010, p. 517)

The example above illustrates a case of phonological ambiguity making use of the pronunciation of the name *Henrietta* and the sentence *Henry ate her* (Kennedy, 2010, p. 517).

An example of lexical ambiguity is between the name *Nancy* and the British slang term *nancy*, which means *weak* when used as an adjective:

FRY: "Something I've always been meaning to ask you: How did you manage to keep Nancy for so long?"

LAURIE: "I've never been nancy."

(Kennedy, 2010, p. 517)

III. TYPES OF VAGUE LANGUAGE

According to Channell (2000, cited in Cai-yan and Lu-ting, 2014, p. 820- 822) vague language can be classified into three types as follows:

1. Hedges. According to research, hedges have been derived from Zadeh's "fuzzy set theory" in 1965. According to this theory, an individual is in the set to a certain degree rather than being in the set or not. Hedges have become a focal point of study since then and many scholars have tried defining them from different viewpoints (Yue and Wang, 2014, p. 50). Lakoff (1973, cited in Yue and Wang, 2014) has given us the most well-known definition of hedges as being "words whose meaning implicitly involves fuzziness, whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy" (Yue and Wang, 2014, p. 50). According to Prince *et al* (1982, cited in Cai-yan and Lu-ting, 2014, p. 821), hedges consist of two categories as follows:

A. Approximators. They are words or phrases that can affect the truth value of the proposition by changing, rectifying the original meaning or, sometimes, setting a range for changes. They are used to vaguely refer to amounts, times, dates and refer, also vaguely, to factual information, such as quantities and times (Cai-yan and Lu-ting, 2014, p. 821). Approximators, on their turn, are sub-classified into:

- **Adapters.** They are the words or phrases that speakers or writers can use to help them express some uncertain meanings and then make their utterance more close to reality. The expressions in this category can modify the language which is close to the truth value of the proposition. It includes words and phrases such as *almost, a little bit, sort of, kind of, somewhat, really, to some extent*, etc. (Cai-yan and Lu-ting, 2014, p. 821 and Yue and Wang, 2014, p. 50).

- **Rounders.** They are words or phrases used to make a range for adjustments in language mostly being the modifiers of numbers and figures. These expressions help the hearer to get a range of information instead of the precise definite information. Such words and phrases are *around, nearly, about, between, approximately, roughly*, etc. (Cai-yan and Lu-ting, 2014, p. 821 and Yue and Wang, 2014, p. 50)

B. Shields. They “are fuzzy words or phrases that affect the degree of the speaker’s commitment to the true condition of Proposition” (Yue and Wang, 2014, p. 50). Rather than changing the original meaning of language, shields can make the tone more indirect (Yue and Wang, 2014, p. 50). They are also sub-classified into two categories:

- **Plausibility shields.** They are the hedges which people use to indicate that the information they provided is not absolutely true. They can easily be “achieved with modal verbs which can soften the tone and hesitation words which can express a reserved and prudent attitude” (Yue and Wang, 2014, p. 50). Such shields include *I think, I suppose, I am afraid, probably, as far as I can tell, seem, I’m afraid* etc. (Cai-yan and Lu-ting, 2014, p. 821).

- **Attribution shields.** They are expressions, such as according to, it is said that, it seems to, presumably, ...says that..., as is well known, the possibility would be...etc., which people use to indicate that they are not sure about the accuracy of information they provided and then achieve the goal to save their face. They are mostly manifested in third person viewpoint expressions leading opinions to be expressed through a third person.

Generally speaking, hedges are the words or phrases which have the job of making things fuzzier or less fuzzy and they represent the core of vague language. The effect of hedging exists in the interpretation of the utterance rather than in the semantic meaning of the utterance itself. The interpretation of the utterance depends on the context, the semantic meaning of the sentence uttered, the particular hedges used and the belief system of the receiver (hearer/ reader). Moreover, hedging could sometimes give an indication of the speaker/ writer’s intentions (Fraser, 2010, p. 25).

2. **Vague words.** In the explanation of vague language, there is the notion that vague words are vague themselves. In reference, they are the words whose meanings are imprecise, uncertain or indefinite (Pan, 2012, p. 2531). Vague words are the ones that are unable to refer to accurate information and their main characteristic is the uncertain boundaries of the word itself. Williamson (1994) states that “vague words often suffice for the purpose in hand, and too much precision can lead to time wasting and inflexibility” (p. 4869). As for Wahyuningsih (2014), vagueness, this way, can be a vague noun or reference used to refer to entities. Examples are *and things, something, such, anything, thing, what is name, stuff, like, whatever, sort of*, or any word in the language that creates inquiry and elicits questions for further information (p. 8).

3. **Vague implication.** Vagueness by implication refers to those utterances which have accurate expressions but are often misunderstood. In this kind of vagueness, there is an exact number or a plural number name with vague meaning or it can be round number used without strict accuracy (Wahyuningsih, 2014, p. 9). Thus, the vague implicature is vague not because of lack of information or unclarity; it is vague because its meaning is unspecified or underspecified in the context which might very probably lead to misunderstanding or even wondering about something. An exact number or a plural number name or an apparently precise sentence can be used and understood to have a vague meaning (Wahyuningsih, 2014, p. 9). For example, “Officials are concerned, she said, because the river, which was measured at 38 feet Wednesday afternoon, was not expected to crest until Wednesday night.” (From CNN, June 28, 2006, cited in Pan, 2012, p. 253).

The phrase **38 feet** can be either precise or vague, depending on how readers think the practical length; whether more or less than the number (Pan, 2012, p. 253).

IV. THE COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLE

Grice (1975) has come with the theory of conversational implicature describing how people interact with each other in conversation by working out the implied meaning behind utterances (pp. 41- 58). He proposed the concept of implicature to indicate the inferred nonliteral meaning distinguishing between what is said and what is meant, implied, suggested, etc. Moreover, he proposed the cooperative principle which is essentially the theory about how people use language to have better communication. The statement of the principle is “make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged” (Grice, 1975, p. 45). To further illustrate the cooperative principle, Grice (1975) puts forward four categories of maxims and the relevant sub-maxims:

1. The maxim of quality

Try to make your contribution one that is true, specifically:

- Do not say what you believe to be false.
- Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

2. The maxim of quantity

- Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purpose of the exchange.
- Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

3. The maxim of relevance

Make your contribution relevant.

4. The maxim of manner

Be perspicuous and specifically;

a. Avoid obscurity

b. Avoid ambiguity

c. Be brief

d. Be orderly

Grice (1975, pp. 45-46)

The cooperative principle describes what actually happens in a conversation; when we speak we generally have something like the cooperative principle and its maxims in our mind to subconsciously guide us. We try to say things which are true, relevant, as well as informative enough, and in a clear manner. Hearers will also try to interpret what is said to them in this way (Pan, 2012, p. 2532).

News items can be considered as a type of conversation in which reporters are speakers and the readers are hearers. Accordingly, reporters may flout the four maxims of the cooperative principle. Thus, "English news should be created more clearly (manner), truthfully (quality), give amount of information (quantity) and directly address the target consumers (Relation)" (Pan, 2012, p. 2532).

News is, then, better to be dealt with precisely and implicature should be avoided. However, it is difficult to find out a piece of English news that follows the maxims. Reporters have a tendency for vagueness in order to present current affairs or social phenomenon in a skillful and technical way for readers who are allowed to freely understand the news item which becomes more reasonable and easier to understand (Pan, 2012, p. 2532).

V. THE ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The present paper aims at investigating and pragmatically analyzing the use of vague language in news articles the topic of which is concerned with the Iraqi security crisis. It goes beyond dispute that the security situation in Iraq has witnessed serious escalation in the period after April 2014 when important Iraqi cities have been conquered by the ISIS. The security events in Iraq have topped the headlines in the media and reporters have done everything possible to win the competition like in reporting what has been going on in Iraq. For this purpose, the reporters have mainly relied on some linguistic tools one of which is vagueness. Thus, vague language has been carefully investigated and pragmatically analyzed in eight news articles on the Iraqi security crisis belonging to that period in particular. Grice's cooperative principle and its maxims have been adopted for the pragmatic analysis. The articles have been downloaded from the internet from different broadcasting corporations. In the corpus analysis, two aspects of the texts have been put into consideration. First, the researcher's socio-political knowledge as an Iraqi citizen who has witnessed different critical periods in the history of Iraq starting from the 80s' Iraqi-Iranian war. This kind of knowledge has helped a lot in figuring out how much information available in the text for vagueness to exist or not. Second, the linguistic domain of the text represented by the linguistic concept of vagueness itself together with its types. The types of vagueness have been identified depending, first, on the definition of each type and, second, on a particular reading process. This reading process is characterized by reading the whole news article twice, and sometimes thrice, to get a precise general view about the amount of information available to cover the topic of the article and then reading each sentence as a unit by itself focusing mainly on the degree of clarity to identify whether there is any kind of vagueness in the sentence. This way, no difficult indecisive cases have appeared where it is difficult to decide whether there is vagueness or not or which type of vagueness used.

Concerning the frequency of occurrence of vague language instances, there have been 190 instances of vague language in the eight articles analyzed. These instances have been investigated and pointed out depending on the three types of vague language discussed earlier. The following table shows the distribution of the 190 instances of vague language among these three types:

TABLE I.
THE FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE OF EACH TYPE IN THE EIGHT ARTICLES

hedges	vague words	vague implicature
101	35	54

The following table shows the distribution of the 101 instances of hedging on its types:

TABLE II.
THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE 101 INSTANCES OF HEDGING ON ITS TYPES

approximators		Shields	
adapters	rounders	plausibility shields	attribution shields
28	50	11	12

According to the statistics above and depending on Grice's cooperative principle together with its maxims, the following points of analysis can be derived:

1. Flouting the maxim of quality. One of the most conditional features of news reports is accuracy; without which the reputation of the news agency or broadcasting corporation is threatened. However, it is sometimes difficult for the reporters to figure out the vivid reality of the piece of news which they report. Thus, to avoid inexactitude, inadequacy and incompleteness of the information, reporters resort to vague words and shields (a subdivision of hedges).

Vague words, on the one hand, give very little portion of the truth and, sometimes, supply only confused part of the truth. Shield (plausibility and attribution shields), on the other hand, are used to indicate that the information provided is not absolutely true or that speakers/ writers are not sure about its truthfulness. As a result, violation of Grice's quality maxim occurs because, in this case, the reporters are not sure that at least some of the pieces of news components are not false and they cannot provide adequate evidence to support their statements. In news articles on the Iraqi security crisis, vague words have occurred 35 times and shields have occurred 23 times. Accordingly, the quality maxim has been flouted 58 times.

Consider the following extracts from the news articles on the Iraqi security crisis in which the flouting of the quality maxim is apparent. The first extract contains vague words, the second has plausibility shields and the third has attribution shields.

The United States' former Cold War foe Russia has been conducting airstrikes in Syria against opponents of its closest regional ally Bashar al-Assad, ... (Stewart and Isabel, 2015).

Russia has also joined a Baghdad-based intelligence cell along with Iran, Iraq and Syria that has provided information on Islamic State targets.

Iraqi Prime Minister Haider al-Abadi faces intense pressure from the ruling coalition and powerful Shi'ite militias to request Russian air strikes on Islamic State, (Stewart and Isabel, 2015).

The word *opponents* is mentioned without naming even one of those opponents, the word *information* is too generic and there is no indication to the kind of information or its source and the word *pressure* could refer to multiple facets of pressure but none of these facets is specified. Obviously, there is clear doubt about the truth of the pieces of news provided because the reporters try to evade more details to prove the truthfulness of their statements.

The Iraqi government is believed to command hundreds of thousands of US-trained and US-armed security personnel, so on paper they ought to be able to easily overcome a militant group ... (From the Section Middle East, 2014).

The phrase is believed shows that the reporter lacks an adequate evidence for his statement; otherwise, he/ she would have avoided this plausibility shield and provided, at least, an authentic source for the piece of news.

Iraqi forces backed by U.S.-led airstrikes drove Islamic State militants out of the center of Ramadi on Monday and seized the main government complex there, according to military officials, who said insurgents are still dug into pockets of the city west of Baghdad (Salaheddin, 2015).

The phrase *according to military officials* is an example of an attributive shield through which, the reporter directs the responsibility of truthfulness away from him/ her. Accordingly, the reporter is neither sure of the truthfulness of the statement nor has a piece of evidence to support it.

2. Flouting the maxim of quantity. According to this maxim, the contribution should be as informative as is required; neither more nor less than is required. Using vague language in news articles on the Iraqi security crisis has led to flouting this maxim. The flouting occurred for two reasons. The first is the use of vague language through approximators (a subdivision of hedges which has occurred 78 times) for both of its types; namely adabters (occurring 28 times) and rounders (occurring 50 times). Approximators have provided less than the required information because the information they provide is hardly close to reality, indefinite and imprecise. Thus, there is always a missing component of reality. Consider the following extract which contains adabters (written in bold letters) and rounders (underlined):

Dozens of people including 60 children, have died on the mountain, Iraqi Ministry of Human Rights spokesman Kamil Amin said it was possible that as many as 500 Yazidis had been killed. The ministry had also heard reports -- but had not confirmed -- that **some** had been buried alive...

It's difficult to be accurate about these numbers We have heard **some reports** from activists and local journalists that **some families** were buried alive.

CNN is unable to authenticate reports regarding the Yazidi death toll or the allegation that **many** were buried alive.

Amin said Kurdish forces were able to break the siege by ISIS and help thousands of stranded Yazidis board trucks, ...

In total, U.S. military aircraft have delivered more than 74,000 meals and more than 15,000 gallons of fresh drinking water, Centcom said.

Iraqi security forces have been able to airlift about 100 to 150 people a day off Sinjar Mountain... But time is running out for many who cannot reach airdropped supplies (From the Section Middle East, 2014).

The adabters *some*, *some reports*, *some families*, and *many* in the extract above neither provide definite numbers nor specify clear indication about the families or reports. Thus, the vagueness here is caused by absence of essential details for the reader to understand. For example, why certain people have been killed while the others have been buried alive and the numbers for each group are indefinite. On the same way, the rounders (*dozens*, *as many as 500 Yazidis*, *thousands of stranded Yazidis*, *more than 74,000 meals and more than 15,000 gallons* and *about 100 to 150 people*) elude the reader and deprive the news from objectivity because of the lack of exact information. This way,

approximators (both adabters and rounders) create deficiency in the amount of information provided causing the quantity maxim to be flouted.

The second reason behind the flouting of the quantity maxim is vague implication which has occurred 54 times. Thus, the quantity maxim has been flouted 132 times in the eight news articles on the Iraqi security crisis analyzed. Vague implication has flouted the quantity maxim by providing more information than the required through giving precise numbers of logistic, military and geographical issues that the majority of readers cannot comprehend. Such details usually lead to vague interpretation because they could be misunderstood or wrongly estimated especially by unprofessional readers or those who have little knowledge of military, political and Iraqi geographical issues. The following are example extracts which have such vague implication instances:

Six months later, the militants launched an assault on the Iraqi second largest city, Mosul, to the north. Thirty-thousand soldiers dropped their weapons and fled when confronted by an estimated 800 gunmen. Emboldened, the militants advanced southwards, towards the capital (Williamson, 1994).

Sixty-nine hostages were rescued in the action, which targeted an Islamic State prison 7 kilometers north of the town of Hawija... (Rasheed and Hameed, 2015).

The phrases *six months*, *thirty thousand soldiers*, *800 gunmen*, *sixty nine hostages*, and *7 kilometers* are exact numbers the absence of which does not affect the accuracy of the news. Such details lead to vagueness because the majority of the readers do not, for example, expect what a *six months* period of fighting and anticipation, *Thirty-thousand soldiers* to drop their weapons and flee, and *800 gunmen* might mean for, for example, an official military person or even a normal Iraqi citizen. Thus, they give more than the required information which leads to vagueness because the reader would so probably wonder what they represent and might even misunderstand such details.

3. Flouting the maxim of relevance. In many instances, the reporters have gone beyond the limited range of the relevant details that they need to provide the readers with. Consequently, they have flouted the maxim of relevance. The flouting occurred as a result of 54 instances of vague implication when the reporters have given exact strict statistics and details as indications to logistic, military, geographical and time issues (which have also led to flouting the quantity maxim as mentioned earlier). Many readers do not really understand these numbers and in many cases, especially the non- Iraqis who read news articles on the Iraqi security crisis for general awareness of what is going on in the world as a whole, and they go through them quickly without considerable attention. Careful reading of the news items makes clear that the omission of the details in the cases of vague implication does not really affect their informative feature. Thus, such details can be categorized as irrelevant, as in the following example extract:

American aircraft struck five targets within five hours Sunday, including armed vehicles and a mortar position, U.S. Central Command said.

Iraqi officials said U.S. airstrikes Saturday killed 16 ISIS fighters, and an Iraqi airstrike in Sinjar killed an additional 45 ISIS fighters, Iraq state media reported (Yan and Starr, 2014).

In the extract above, the phrases *five targets*, *five hours Sunday*, *armed vehicles*, *mortar position*, *Saturday*, *16 ISIS fighters* and *45 ISIS fighters* could mean nothing for many or could have different implications and interpretations depending on the personality, background knowledge and interest of the readers. Thus, they become vague and, to some extent, irrelevant.

4. Flouting the maxim of manner. The maxim of manner requires the information to be brief and orderly in addition to avoiding obscurity and ambiguity. Flouting the manner maxim has occurred due to the existence of instances of three types of vagueness: shields (as a subdivision of hedges), vague words and vague implication. First, shields (plausibility and attribution shields) have occurred frequently, 23 times, creating a sort of obscurity which has caused the flouting of the manner maxim. The following is an example extract:

Security services are drowning in data, overwhelmed by the quantity of people and emails they are expected to track, and hampered by the inability to make pre-emptive arrests in democratic countries. Criticism had focused on the failure to more closely follow the two brothers One had been convicted on terrorism charges and the other was believed to have linked up with al-Qaida forces while in Yemen. Both were on the U.S. no-fly list, according to a senior U.S. official... (Abdul-Zahra, 2015).

Both *expected to* and *believed to* are instances of plausibility shields and *according to* is an attributive shield. This type of hedges gives the sense of ambiguity about the authenticity of the pieces of news. Thus, the maxim of manner is flouted.

Second, there have been 35 instances of vague words which are vague by themselves and add obscurity to the text and, therefore, have led to flouting the manner maxim. See the following example:

In their effort to create a caliphate across parts of Iraq and Syria, ISIS fighters have slaughtered civilians as they take over cities in both countries.... In another instance caught on camera, a man appears to be forced to his knees.... They force the man at gunpoint to "convert" to Islam... (Karadsheh, Barbara and Holly, 2014).

The words and phrases in the example above are vague since they create obscurity and confusion for the readers; for *parts of Iraq and Syria* the reader may ask him/ herself about these parts which the ISIS want to build their *caliphate* in, the word *civilians* does not give a clear indication about the kind of civilians slaughtered or why they have been slaughtered, *cities* is a too generic expression and does not give any idea about the names or, at least, the nature of

these cities, the verb *appear* is obscure by itself since it does not give a definite meaning and the phrases *a man* and *the man* are also generic giving no clue about the identity of that man or why he has been tortured.

Third, vague implications have occurred 54 times leading to flouting the maxim of manner because the reporters have not been brief and have given precise detailed information which many readers might mistakenly estimate or underestimate. For example:

American aircraft struck five targets within five hours Sunday, including armed vehicles and a mortar position, U.S. Central Command said.

Iraqi officials said U.S. airstrikes Saturday killed 16 ISIS fighters, and an Iraqi airstrike in Sinjar killed an additional 45 ISIS fighters, Iraq state media reported (From the Section Middle East, 2015).

The phrases *five targets, five hours, including armed vehicles and a mortar position, 16 ISIS fighters* and *45 ISIS fighters* give statistical and detailed military information which could be interpreted and captured differently by different readers. Thus, they have created vagueness and led to flouting the manner maxim.

Accordingly, the manner maxim has been flouted 112 times in the eight news articles on the Iraqi security crisis analyzed. The table below gives the number of times each maxim has been flouted:

TABLE III.
THE NUMBER OF TIMES EACH MAXIM HAS BEEN FLOUTED

Quality Maxim	Quantity Maxim	Relevance Maxim	Manner Maxim
58	132	54	112

The statistics in the table above, classify the four maxims into two categories. In the first category occur the maxims of quality and relevance since they are very close in their frequency of occurrence and in the second occur the maxims of quantity and manner for the same reason.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of vague language, from the view point of Grice's four maxims, in eight news articles on the Iraqi security crisis has revealed the following conclusions:

1. Concerning the three types of vague language, discussed earlier in the present paper, reporters of news articles on the Iraqi security crisis have used the three types with a considerable frequency of occurrence (as stated in table I). In many cases, reporters find it difficult to find the exact words to describe the events. Thus, they resort to vague language which has, consequently, caused the flouting of the four cooperative maxims without exception. After April, 2014, the events started rolling rapidly and the world in general, and the Iraqis in particular, were in a state of astonishment for the fast and easy fall of Mosul with the control of the ISIS. The majority, especially in Iraq, kept wondering how this happened in an overnight. People were also wondering about the role of the Iraqi army that was supposed to have been armed, equipped and trained at the direct supervision of the United Nations. It is worth saying here that the men of power in the Iraqi government started accusing each other for this catastrophe and some have accused foreign powers of conniving with some ISIS leaders. Thus, reporters may flout the maxims by the vague language so as to avoid the responsibility for the information about the situation which was, at that time, blur and in a continuous change.

One of the interesting pragmatic aspects of the types of vague language in news articles on the Iraqi security crisis is that each type of vague language has caused more than one maxim to be flouted. The use of hedges has caused the flouting of the quality, quantity and manner maxims. Vague words have led to the flouting of the quality and manner maxims. The instances of vague implication have led to the flouting of the quantity, relevance and manner maxims.

2. The most frequently used type of vague language is hedging which has caused the flouting of three maxims; namely the quality, quantity and manner maxims. Generally speaking, hedging is a rhetorical strategy the user of which can avoid commitment to the contents of a text. It is a common knowledge, for the world in general and the Iraqis in particular, that the security situation in Iraq has witnessed serious escalation after April, 2014. Thus, the reporters of news articles on the Iraqi security crisis have given news which is subject to inexactitude, inadequacy and incompleteness of information. In such a case, hedging is the linguistic safe haven to avoid inauthenticity in reporting events that were happening rapidly and unexpectedly. Because of its flexible nature (being able to fit its meaning according to the message conveyed), hedging has been used more frequently and caused three cooperative maxims to be flouted.

3. According to the statistical analysis (table II), the maxims of quantity and manner are the ones more frequently flouted (132 times for the former and 112 times for the latter). They can be put in the same category for their close frequency of occurrence. Concerning the quantity maxim, the details given should be neither more nor less than the informative amount. A reasonable explanation for this case is that, after April, 2014, the events in Iraq have been in a race like state to the extent that people have become almost obsessed with news reports because they have been sure to find new pieces of news every time they check out the media. Broadcasting corporations and news agencies, on their turn, have competed to be the earlier on their news and they have not had time to put into consideration the amount of details they provide the reader with. Thus, the details, whether more or less than the required, have not been of much concern for reporters. Their top priority, in this race, is the essence of the news with some details and it does not matter whether these details are more or less than the required.

As for the maxim of manner, one needs to be brief and orderly and avoid both obscurity and ambiguity. Obviously, reporters of news articles on the Iraqi security crisis could not always pay attention for being brief and orderly for the same reasons mentioned above which led to flouting the quantity maxim. The frequent use of vague language (190 times in eight news articles), has definitely created obscurity and vagueness in the text and, eventually, flouting the manner maxim.

4. Going back to table (II), it is apparent that the maxims of quality and relevance are less violated and they have close frequency of occurrence (58 for the former and 54 for the latter). After April, 2014, news about Iraq has become the focal point for broadcasting corporations and news agencies. The situation in Iraq has been extremely subtle and critical and the responsibility of the security crisis has been thrown upon different parties and, sometimes, countries. In such a case, truthfulness and accuracy is number one concern for reporters and any false or uncertain information has negative effects on the reporting source as well as on the general opinion of the readers. Thus, flouting the quality maxims is not that frequent because clarity rather than vagueness has been stuck to.

Another vital point in such a type of news articles is that the information should focus on the main general topic (the Iraqi security crisis) and readers, at that period of time, have been so eager to know about this topic. Any vague or irrelevant details might disturb such eager readers and, eventually, they could lose interest in following up the source of such news. Reporters seem to be quite aware of this and have done their best to avoid, as much as possible, the use of vague language which leads to flouting the relevance maxim.

5. Finally, from the pragmatic perspective, there seems to be a contradiction between vague language and Grice's cooperative principle. Some linguists believe that the vague language is considered to be a sort of violation of the Grice's cooperative principles, which sometimes leads to failure of communication while other linguists have opposite views in this respect (Pan, 2012, p. 2530). According to the present paper, though the instances of vague language are quite frequent in news articles on the Iraqi security crisis and have caused the four cooperative maxims to be flouted, the text has kept a considerable amount of precision, clarity, and informing nature. It has been apparent that flouting the four maxims through vague language seems to be first, part of the natural features of news articles on the Iraqi security crisis, second, has logical purposes (as mentioned above) which, eventually, have had positive effects on the communicative aspect of the text and, third, too much clarity in news articles on the Iraqi security crisis would cause the text to lose its spontaneity and acceptability by readers.

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The Revival of Local Fairy Tales for Children Education

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Abstract—This study explored the function of fairy tales as a means of entertainment and education for children. Fairy tales in children's literature have gradually shifted from an oral storytelling tradition to a mass media product. The role of the mother as the first and foremost teacher of her children is increasingly challenged in modern education. From pre-school age up to junior high school level, a child needs special attention from his or her parents, especially the mother. From the age of three until a child enters primary school, the parents, especially the mother, play a strategic role in fostering various aspects of development language, psychology and character. One way in which this takes place is through storytelling, however unfortunately children's literature in the form of local fairy tales often no longer has a place in the home or the kindergarten. This case study in South Sulawesi, Indonesia explored the causes behind this change. Data were gathered through interviews and questionnaires. A simple statistical method was used to analyse the data. The results show that telling fairy tales to children is still relevant and can help to instil character values in young children.

Index Terms—fairy tales, children's literature, cyber literature, moral value

I. INTRODUCTION

Modern children's literature includes short stories, picture books, comics, magazines, cartoons, and poetry that can potentially be enjoyed by most children. Children's literature is growing rapidly in line with the need to provide reading matter and entertainment for children. In recent years, modern children's literature has been classified from two different perspectives: by 'specific genre' or based on the age of the target listeners/readers. The target age of readers in this research was up to 15 years old (until entry into senior high school).

Children's literature is literature created specifically for children, although the readers are not always children, as many adults also love reading children's literature. Originally, children's literature was founded on old tales and folk-songs/folklore, as part of a wider oral tradition that adults shared with children before printing was invented. Thus, it stands to reason that children's literature was born before people became familiar with the written language.

Some oral traditions are still maintained within modern society in South Sulawesi, such as ritual speeches, annual traditional celebrations including the 'maulid' ceremony and traditional festivals. Although a writing system was developed many centuries ago, the oral tradition has been the main media for societal and cultural communication. The practice of oral traditions has long been a convention, and that convention is a cultural absolute.

The development of children's literature is an expected norm within human civilization. Long before printing was invented, mankind created stories; and the stories told by their ancestors have survived in many cultures because they formed a part of the oral tradition within that society. In fact, it is often difficult to trace the source and origination of a story from the language in which it is currently told and the characters involved. Multiple versions of a story can mean that the origin of a story becomes even more blurred.

Fairy tales are one cultural heritage originating in oral traditions, and in general they are enjoyed by children. One reason for this is that fairy tales were often intended to be an entertainment for children, told by parents. When parents want share certain experiences with children, fairy tales are often used as a medium. In this way, parents can make strategic use of parables to convey their true intent in a mutually pleasurable manner. Fairy tales have sometimes been distinguished from other folklore and narrative story media, such as myths and legends which generally involve world views, traditions, and belief in the veracity of the events mentioned. Nevertheless the definition of a fairy tale remains vague. A fairy tale can be considered to belong to a kind of storytelling that typically features fabled fantasy characters and explicitly moral tales. In South Sulawesi, the term is mainly used for tales or stories with origins in the traditions of the Bugis, Makassar, Tator and Mandar ethnic groups. The names of the characters are often associated with recognizable traits or values in the cultural environment in which the children are immersed.

Technically, the term fairy tale is generally used to describe something utopian. Additionally, the plot will contain facts which cannot be true, and it is also not possible that the tale as a whole could be true. This distinguishes the fairy tale from a legend, which is told as if the plot is real, and impressed as a part of history.

In a fairy tale, the events always take place 'once upon a time', not in actual or specific times. According to Gruner (2010), the fact that most fairy tales begin with 'once upon a time', and the resulting effacement of both time and place, is central to their perceived universality (p. 5). Zipes (2001) notes that the timelessness of the tale and its lack of

geographical specificity endow it with utopian connotation – ‘utopia’ in its original meaning designated ‘no place’, a place that no one has (or could have) ever been to or seen.

Fairy tales are found in both oral and written literary forms; the name "fairy tale" was first coined by Madame d'Aulnoy in the late 17th century. Many of today's fairy tales have evolved from centuries-old stories that have appeared, with variations, in multiple cultures around the world (Gray, 2009). Some folklorists have attempted to classify fairy tales into various categories, for example the Aarne-Thomson classification system. Other folklorists have interpreted the significance of these tales, but there are no definitively established or universally recognised schools or classification systems for the meaning of fairy tales.

Historical evidence for the origin of fairy tales is particularly difficult to find, since often only the literary (written) forms have survived. Many fairy tales handed down through oral traditions are now lost and forgotten. They are undocumented. For example, in South Sulawesi, there is no written historical report mentioning storytelling or the stories told.

In many traditions, adults would have been part of the audience of fairy tales just as often as children. The first printed works in the literary genre of fairy tales were meant for adults to read, and in fact this genre only became specifically associated with children's literature in the early 19th century. Since then, children's literature has been growing rapidly and is increasingly becoming an object of serious study.

The study of children's literature is not limited to a purely literary point of view but embraces many other aspects. These include studies in the fields of communication studies, child psychology, psycholinguistics, cinematology, alternative therapy, and many more.

II. FAIRY TALES AND CHILDREN'S LITERATURE

Children's literature, is a specific term in literary study, does not easily fit into any ‘cultural or academic’ category; rather, it can be considered a diverse and paradoxical area of study. This richness and complexity is reflected in the ‘vast array of theories’ that permeate and surround this term. Many experts are paying attention to the development of children's literature (Wellek & Werren, 1978), (Hunt, 1994), (Rogers, 1999), (Anderson, 2006), (Galda, 2013) and (Nurgiyantoro, 2013). But there is no clear definition of ‘fairy tales’ in the studies on children's literature.

Anderson (2006) defined children's literature as ‘all books written for children’ (p. 2). These could be in the form of comic books, joke books, cartoon books, and non-fiction works that are not intended to be read from front to back, such as dictionaries, encyclopaedias, and other reference material, as well as novels and short stories, including fairy tales.

Wellek & Werren (1978) defined literature as something printed. The *Online Dictionary for Library and Information Science* (Reitz, 2004) states that there are two kinds of reading materials specific to children: *picture books* and *picture story books*, which contain simple stories with an interesting layout designed to appeal to children. The second of these is supposed to be a kind of children's literature. Some examples of the type of children's literature in question tell stories that entertain, educate and provide new knowledge which can be told by parents or present success stories of children who are diligent, pious, and obedient to their parents.

Claims such as those made by Wellek & Werren (1978), Reitz (2004), and Anderson (2006) seem to present a view which only emphasizes written material. In fact, in oral literature is also known to include fairy tales that are still preserved in society especially in rural areas though it must be admitted that early children's literature merely consisted of spoken stories, songs, and poems that were used to educate, instruct, and entertain children (Hunt, 1999). It was only in the 18th century, with the development of the concept of childhood, that a separate genre of children's literature began to emerge, with its own divisions, expectations, and literary canons (Nikolajeva, 1995).

From a simplistic viewpoint, children's literature can be divided into two categories: written literature and oral literature. Written literature is often associated with modern literature while oral literature is usually a part of traditional literature. In general, traditional literature belongs to the ethno-literature category. Fairy tales are one of many genres within ethno-literature. So far there is no single or widely used definition of a fairy tale although they can be broadly defined as tales narrated to children that provide entertainment along with moral messages and values.

Dundes (2007) stated that fairy tales belong to folklore. Furthermore, he also stated that “the various forms of folklore: myths, folktales, legends, folksongs, proverbs, riddles, games, dances and many others...” (p. 55), while Endraswara (2006) also claimed that folklore includes many literary genres: legends, fairy tales, jokes, proverbs, riddles, chants, charms, blessings, insults, retorts, tongue-twisters, greetings, and leave taking rituals. In addition, folklore also includes folk costumes, folk dances, folk drama, folk art, folk beliefs, folk medicine, folk songs, lullabies, ballads, folk speech, folk similes, folk metaphors, and folk names.

Danandjaya (1984) stated that folklore is part of a cultural collective that preserved from one generation to the next. For Jan Harold Brunvad (1998), folklore can be divided into three main parts: verbal folklore, partly verbal folklore and non-verbal folklore. There is a close relationship between fairy tales, folklore, and collective memory. In conjunction with this study, they are examined in the perspective of children's literature, and can be explained in a general way through the theory of narrative. In fact, the trajectory of narrative theory in the study of children's literature has been coincidental with the development of theory in this genre (Cadden, 2010)

Specifically, fairy tales in this article are defined as oral stories that can be delivered to children (especially to pre-school children up junior high school years old) to develop their imagination. The content is generally a kind of fable,

with entertainment, adventure stories, motivation, and elements of luck, but with an underlying moral message. Through fairy tales, a mother can instil moral values and culturally appropriate ideals in her children from an early age.

In traditional societies, fairy tales are passed down from generation to generation. As literary works, they are anonymous. Sometimes there are many versions, so that the origin of a particular fairy tale is no longer known for sure. For traditional societies, looking for traces of the source of a story is not so usually very important. As an intangible cultural heritage, fairy tales are still maintained by the community since they are considered a valuable means of communicating a moral message.

Why are fairy tales so important? The reasons may vary. Parents naturally want the best for their children from an early age. In educating children, parents also seek to instil new knowledge, habits, values, and behaviour patterns. Many parents, for example, want to awaken children's interest through introducing them to reading from early childhood. This requires reading materials that can make learning to read a fun activity for children. One strategy to encourage children to read is to provide them with attractive pictorial and coloured books. It has to be realized that the reading of children's literature is not just to meet the immediate needs of the child but should also be a window opening up new horizons and a stimulating a child to exercise his or her imagination more widely.

The psychological growth of pre-school age children is determined by the home environment. This period is referred to as the period of language acquisition, the period in which children easily imitate and mimic anything they see and hear around them. All the things that impress them are easily stored in their memories. The period of language acquisition of a child begins roughly around the age of 18 months. At the age of 24-36 months a child has begun to speak and understand the language. From the ages of 3 years entering school (kindergarten), the role of the parents, especially mothers, is very important and strategic in promoting the linguistic and psychological growth of the children. One way in which this can be achieved is through telling fairy tales. This can also be part of the role of the mother as a first and foremost teacher in instilling virtue and exemplary behaviour.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This research aimed to a) explain the role of fairy tales in developing and fostering children's personality; b) reveal aspects and functions of fairy tales in fostering children's language acquisition; and c) explore their role in fostering intimate communication with children. Overall, the study aims to explain the reduction in the use of storytelling (fairy tales) to entertain and educate children since this medium has been increasingly replaced by TV serials and gadgets that offer children's stories online.

The first objective was achieved through interviews and filling in questionnaires with mothers who tell fairy tales to their children. The second goal was achieved through the way in which mothers choose appropriate fairy tales to fulfil children's need to develop their imaginations, and the third objective was achieved through studying the methods and strategies of mothers in telling fairy tales to their children. It is important to know that fairy tales must be told at the right time. In traditional societies, for example in many rural societies, people tell fairy tales to their children as bedtime stories.

Children's characteristics differ between age groups. In this study, the category children were classified by age group as shown in Table 1;

TABLE 1.
CHILDREN'S AGE CATEGORIES

No	Category	Age range (years)
1	Pre-school - kindergarten	3-5
2	Elementary School	6-12
3	Junior High School	13-15

Firstly, it was assumed that children in pre-school or kindergarten are able to speak and they are learning to read. Here the task of parents is to read fairy tales to children. Children this age love to listen to stories, and try to imitate what they are able to understand. Secondly, it was assumed that children in elementary school are able to speak and read in a limited context. When the child is reading, they may need someone nearby who can explain to them things which they do not yet know. Thirdly, children in junior high school should be able to read on their own and to develop logical thought. At this age, children should be able to take part in a discussion.

Fostering interest in reading by children should start early. Reading is a habit. Giving an example by doing is of the utmost importance. One responsibility of parents is to make available useful, good- quality reading materials for their children.

IV. ASPECTS OF CHILDREN'S LITERATURE

In children's literature, there are at least three aspects that should stand out, namely beauty, virtue and honesty. With the exception of fairy tales, children are often given information in introductions that are necessary in order to understand what's to come (Cadden, 2010). In other words, if one of these aspects is found to be lacking in a literary work for children, perhaps for business reasons, the author(s) of this work could be viewed as having deviated from the basic nature and betrayed the true identity of this genre.

A good literary work should always contain values implicitly or explicitly. This is the foundation of literary strength. The values was packaged within the structure of a literary work exists implicitly in the plot, setting, characters, and theme or in the array, couplets, rhymes, and rhythms. The values contained within a literary work relate to at least six points: (1) the humanitarian value, this can raise awareness of the importance of the nature of this life; (2) the hedonic value, a value which can give pleasure directly to reader or listener; (3) the artistic value, a value that can manifest an art or skill in performing a job; (4) the cultural value, a value that can provide or describe a deep relationship with a society, a civilization, or culture; (5) the ethical, moral or religious value is a value that can provide or transmit advice or teachings related to ethics, morals, or religion; and (6) the practical value, a value which is practical and pragmatic and that can be applied in daily life.

It is the values contained in literature such as fairy tales that makes these literary works interesting and useful for life. Such literature is born with a mission, to maintain a balance of values in life. The structure is simple and the plots are not too complicated, easily understood. One advantage of such literary works is that they can deliver the message implied, with beautiful language, simple style, while also entertaining people. The implied message is distinct yet generally accepted.

Fairy tales teach us that there is a sense of justice and equity we share, that the bad guys always come to a bad end, that people who work diligently will be successful, that cleanliness is the basis of health, and so on. Fairy tales offers options by way of comparison. The villains are always dealing with the good characters. Smart characters are always dealing with stupid characters. Honest people always beat the fraudulent characters in the end, and so on. Despite the challenges, at the end of the story the diligent, the virtuous, and the honest will win. That is the pattern of fairy tales.

In one story, the children will be invited to take part in an adventure in the jungle, with the roar of the animals at night, in the pitch black, with drizzling rain and without shelter. The child's imagination works and imagines how that atmosphere feels. Children will gain imaginary experiences. Likewise with the story of the princess who finds her true love. The child will imagine having a beautiful dress and crown, living happily in the royal palace, all needs met and having fun, and so on. Such stories will encourage children to develop their imagination, strive to get the good things and to be successful in life.

When a mother tells fairy tales, she is actually performing an in depth communication with the child, she fills the empty space in the soul of the child, and shares affection for her child. A mother should be a model and facilitator for her children. Storytelling carries two implications: to educate and inculcate moral values to the children, and to preserve the fairy tales indirectly as a cultural heritage, since it is possible her children in time will also tell the stories to the next generation.

Fairy tales record time out of time. In fact, some fairy tales characters become deeply embedded in the heart of their readers. Children are familiar with the character 'Cinderella', 'Snow White' and '*Bawang Merah dan Bawang Putih*' (Indonesian fairy tale) and so on. These characters live forever in fairy tales. Please welcome them to be present in our lives, in traditional or modern characterisations, and hope they will continue to give a wonderful impression to children. Do not forget that there are many valuable lessons that children have already learnt from the plot and characters.

V. SOUTH SULAWESI AND ITS FAIRY TALES

South Sulawesi (Indonesian: Sulawesi Selatan) is one of the provinces in the southern peninsula of Sulawesi. It is situated in Eastern Indonesia. The total area is 45764.53 km² with topography comprising plains, mountains and sea. In June 2016, the total number of population was about 8,034,776 living in 24 districts (South Sulawesi, 2016). The capital city of this province is Makassar.

There are four main ethnic groups living in this region: Bugis (41.9%), Makassar (25.43%), Toraja (9.02%), and Mandar (6.1%). All other ethnic groups comprise 17.37% of the population and mainly transmigrants/immigrants to this region. The names of the ethnic groups are also the local language names. The languages belong to the Malayo-Polynesian, a branch of Austronesian languages. These four ethnic groups have specific characteristics but their way of life is not all that different. They live in peace and respect each other. Their traditional writing system is a pictograph system called *Lontaraq*. *Lontaraq* manuscript records knowledge on such topics as science, history, literature, tradition, custom, biography, diary, and laws. Literally, the word *Lontaraq* or *Lontara* means a 'palm-leaf manuscript'. In some rural areas, people still uphold their oral traditions. The people of South Sulawesi generally embraced Islam or Christianity. The ways in which the people uphold their customs and traditions include the use of their native languages. In daily activities, except in the provincial capital city of Makassar, where people generally interact in Indonesian language. In their social interactions, they share their mutual respect and protect a cultural system which they call '*siri*'. *Siri* is a kind of mental spirit for living together and in togetherness. The concept of *siri* is based on honour and dignity. People maintain the tradition and culture as they maintain their intangible cultural heritage.

In terms of literature, South Sulawesi has a great literary work, *Lagaligo*, the longest epic in the world. Pelras (2006) claimed that *Lagaligo* is a great world literary heritage. In addition to *Lagaligo*, there are also some oral literary works that are still preserved. In general, the oral literature is in the form of fairy tales, legends, folktales and myths. They belong to oral tradition as define by Rogers (1999). With regard to fairy tales, there are compelling reasons that make a fairy tale remain alive in the community because they are still used by parents as a means of forming their children's personality.

Based on the survey, this study found 39 popular stories, especially fairy tales, in South Sulawesi. They are *Elo Puang, La Kuttu Paddaga, Caritana La Tongko-tongko, Arung Maraja MappattongengE, Pamboang, Landorundun, Buen Manik dan Batu Berlubang, Pakkampi Tedong sibawa Paddampok, Tau Ruayya Saribattang, Ana' Turusiengngi Pappasenna Tomatoanna, Raqapang na panjaga Tarreang, Tellu Masselalo, Aga Sabaqna Nalolang Penni PanningE, I Kukang, I Lapung Tau Lolo, Samba Paria, I Tinuluk, Pau-paunna La Tobajak ri Soppeng, Arung Masala Ulie, Sijello to Mampu, Tau SabbaraE, La Pagala, Appongenna Nariaseng Masewali sibawa Malaka, I Nyameng Kininnawa sibawa I Parikininnawa, Bulu Palak, Besse Punawa-nawa ri Galesong, Tau Tujua Ana'na, Pullandoq na Pucceang, Tau Dorakayya ri tau Toana, Karaeng Mallagau, Panglima To Dilating, Tulangdidi, Tau Ruayya Akbela-bela, Karaeng Mallagau, Lapung Polandok siagang Lapung Buaja, Tau Ruayya Sarebattang, La Peso sibawa La Uta, Panglima To Dilaling, and Karake' Lette'*

This study confirms the fact that South Sulawesi has fairy tales. According to Thahir & Hunaini (2016), approximately 247 fairy tales are still preserved by communities in South Sulawesi. They are in local languages. Of these, 39 are particularly popular, especially as they are considered to have valuable moral content. These 39 fairy tales are thematically categorized into eight categories in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
POPULAR FAIRY TALES BY THEMATIC ASPECT

No.	Themes	Titles	Origin
I	Rebellious child	1. Tulangdidi	Toraja
		2. Tau Dorakayya ri tau Toana	Makassar
		3. Buen Manik dan Batu Berlubang	Toraja
II	Living environment	1. Raqapang na panjaga Tarreang	Mandar
		2. Pamboang	Mandar
		3. Karake' Lette'	Mandar
III	The story of brothers and fidelity	1. Samba Paria	Mandar
		2. Tellu Masselalo	Bugis
		3. Landorundun	Toraja
IV	Solidarity, cooperation and friendship	1. La Peso sibawa La Uta	Makassar
		2. La Pagala	Bugis
		3. Tellu Masselalo	Bugis
		4. Tau Ruayya Sarebattang	Makassar
		5. Lapung Polandok siagang Lapung Buaja	Makassar
V	Motivation	1. I Tinuluk	Makassar
		2. Tau Tujua Ana'na	Makassar
		3. Besse Punawa-nawa ri Galesong	Makassar
		4. Karaeng Mallagau	Makassar
		5. Elo Puang	Bugis
VI	Origin stories	1. Sijello to Mampu	Bugis
		2. Appongenna Nariaseng Masewali sibawa Malaka	Bugis
		3. Panglima To Dilating	Mandar
		4. Arung Maraja MappattongengE	Bugis
VII	Good advice	1. I Nyameng Kininnawa sibawa I Parikininnawa	Bugis
		2. Ana' Turusiengngi Pappasenna Tomatoanna	Bugis
		3. Tau Tujua Ana'na	Makassar
		4. Arung Masala Ulie	Bugis
		5. Tau SabbaraE	Bugis
		6. Bulu Palak	Toraja
		7. Tau Ruayya Saribattang	Makassar
		8. Pau-paunna La obajak ri Soppeng	Bugis
		9. I Kukang	Makassar
VIII	Witty story	1. Pakkampi Tedong sibawa Paddampok	Bugis
		2. Aga Sabaqna Nalolang Penni PanningE	Bugis
		3. La Kuttu Paddaga	Bugis
		4. Caritana La Tongko-tongko	Bugis
		5. Pullandoq na Pucceang	Mandar
		6. Caritana La Tongko-tongko	Bugis
		7. I Lapung Tau Lolo	Makassar

Based on Table 2, the dominant themes of popular fairy tales were 'good advice', followed by 'witty stories', and 'solidarity, cooperation and friendship'. These fairy tales have been preserved due to the habit of mothers telling stories to their children as a means of entertainment, with educational and cultural value to be passed on to the next generation.

One interesting finding of this study is that it found strong evidence that, although the origins of all these fairy tales are in the local languages, they are now generally told in Indonesian, especially in Makassar. There is a language shift in progress.

VI. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF FAIRY TALES

Fairy tales offer a new dimension to a child's imagination. Their imaginings can influence their daydreams and aspirations. Tales speak to children in the language of symbols. They enter a wondrous world where normal logic and rules of causation are suspended, with imaginary places and people, and at the story's end, they are returned to reality in a reassuring manner (Bettelheim, 1989).

Bettelheim (1989) provides a psychoanalytical perspective on why these stories are so important and enthralling for children. Fairy tales are one means to entertain and educate children. As a part of their cultural heritages, the tales are supposed to contain moral and cultural messages that can provide many benefits in terms of developing knowledge and fostering children's personalities. Based on the study, some benefits of telling fairy tales to children are as follows:

- Enriching the vocabulary of children
- Stimulating the imagination and creative power of children.
- Training the children's ability to listen
- Introducing children to new things including new basic knowledge.
- Developing powers of expression: the more children listen, the more easily they talk and express their opinion.

Fairy tales deal with the basic human condition (Bettelheim, 1989). With respect to certain conditions, a fairy tale may present things differently compared with our own culture. Sometimes there are also many variations and versions, including character names replaced with local names as well as changes in the setting. The nature of fairy tales is like this. The emphasis here is on the message rather than the details.

In addition, the study found that some things to be considered when telling fairy tales are as follows:

- In telling fairy tales, mother and child should be relaxed, be embraced, laughed together and cuddle. This way of telling will strengthen the relationship between mother and children.
- After reading fairy tales, the teller should not forget to ask questions and give children the opportunity to ask questions. This is beneficial to train the child's memory.
- The person telling the tale should show appreciation if the child understands the story well, and try to relate the story within the context of everyday life.

The challenges to traditional fairy tales existence at the moment include the increasing popularity of various gadgets (electronic devices) that are easily accessed, including children's films. On the internet, there are many things that are easily accessed using the gadgets. Through audio-visual media, these enable children to easily watch on their own, or even their own sites, unaccompanied by parents. Some materials, including TV series, do not necessarily correspond to the needs of the child's personality.

Telling fairy tales is an effective interactive activity so that parents and children can share ideas about the tale. However, if it is done by digital media, this activity could be one way. Digitalized fairy tales can make children lose the power of imagination and communication because they just watch them alone. Sometimes, according to Cadden (2010), children are given information in introductions that are necessary in order to understand what's to come.

VII. FAIRY TALES VERSUS CYBER LITERATURE

The presence of digital technology is reality which cannot be denied. As time goes on, fewer and fewer parents maintain storytelling habits with their children. Nowadays, many parents would rather take advantage of digital technology to entertain their children. In fact, psychologically, a fairy tale that is told directly from the mouth of parents has a strong impression on children and at the same time is a good way to listen to the response of the children.

Internet access is a good means of sharing information. Cyber literature also makes use of this opportunity. Cyber literature is an ongoing revolution. The internet can be considered as the third media revolution after the invention of the printing press and that of television. Before the advent of cyber literature, the world of literature had some limitations associated with the media technology used, limiting access to products such as literary magazines, literary papers, and so on. While printed publication tended to become more costly, the Internet was developing as an alternative.

The internet has turned out to be a media to disseminate literature, and fairy tales are no exception. It is now common to easily find a fairy tale on the internet. This is a logical consequence of technological advances, and thus cannot, of course, be avoided. However it is important to realise that there is a fundamental distinction between watching the fairy tale through the computer rather than listening to a live retelling of it. Fairy tales on the internet are static and passive, while the fairy tales conveyed orally are dynamic and lead to interactive communication with children.

For a mother who has no fairy tale to tell, one alternative is to find a story from a book of fairy tales or maybe download one from the Internet. Not everyone is gifted for storytelling, but a mother should try. The key is that a mother should act as a facilitator for retelling the fairy tale. Telling fairy tales orally can give a good impression to the child. At the time of telling the story, the words should be reinforced by hand movements, eye contact, and creative expressions. This builds the intimacy between the mother and child. It must be realized that, at the pre-school or elementary school age, each child should receive particular attention from his or her parents.

In the future, children's literature, especially fairy tales will face very serious challenges. Firstly, with regard to the oral tradition, if oral traditions decline, then oral literature, including fairy tales, will also be affected and may even disappear from the collective societal memory. Secondly, due to the impact of advances in internet and electronic technology, the fairy tales of children's literature gradually shift from an oral tradition of storytelling to a mass media

product. The media of oral tradition (fairy tales) will shift to the easy to access recorded versions (e.g. YouTube). The habit of interactive storytelling becomes automatically shifted to a viewing habit.

VIII. METHODS AND DATA COLLECTION

The most recent surveys were carried out by the Department of Education and Culture of South Sulawesi (Rijal & Nappu, 1977) and (Enre, 1993). These surveys were governmental project and only aimed to inventory the fairy tales in society. The studies did not seek to explain what the functions and contributions of fairy tales in people's lives. They stemmed from concerns that the fairy tales would become extinct if they were not collected. This study describes the critical role of fairy tales and their contribution to society, with an explorative field research approach.

The data used in this research were obtained through interviews and questionnaires with a number of respondents. Interviews were conducted in South Sulawesi Province, Indonesia. The respondents were 217 mothers of children of pre-school to junior high school age (3 to 15 years old). It is a regional case study. The first data were collected through interviews. The main question in this interview is whether the mother tells stories (fairy tales) to her children. The mothers were also asked whether they themselves liked fairy tales or not, and why, as shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
HOW MOTHERS LIKE FAIRY TALES

Do you like fairy tales?	
Yes	48%
Fairy tales are exciting	18%
They have happy endings	13%
They are relaxing	10%
Others	7%
No	44%
Fairy tales are silly	16%
They are boring	12%
They are unrealistic	11%
Others	5%
I only like some fairy tales	6%
n= 217	

Only 48% (104) of all respondents answered 'yes', 6% answered 'sometimes' or 'I only like some fairy tales', and the remaining 44% (95) answered 'not at all'. The data collection with the questionnaire only included the 104 respondents (48%) who answered 'yes'. The five questions in the questionnaire designed to achieve the objectives of the research, and had been tested previously to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire contained the following questions: 1) how often do you tell stories (fairy tales) to your children; 2) are the fairy tales still relevant to the character building and education of children; 3) please give an assessment on the importance of the function of storytelling to children; 4) what benefits can be expected from telling fairy tales to children; and 5) do your children listen enthusiastically to fairy tales. The total time period for this study was two years.

IX. QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

Based on the answers of the respondents as follows:

1) How often do you tell stories to children?

Respondents answered the question as follows: 'if there is spare time' (51% - 54 respondents); 'sometimes' (32% - 33 respondents), and 'almost every night of the week (17% - 17 respondents).

2) Is storytelling (fairy tale) still relevant to the character building and education of children?

Out of the 104 respondents, 72 (69%) answered 'very relevant', 20 (19%) 'still relevant', and 12 (11%) 'do not know / no answer'.

3) Please give an assessment on the importance of the function of storytelling to children?

For this question, the option scale was 'less important', 'important', and 'very important'. There were 20 (19.5%) respondents who answered 'less important' (if there is time), 38 (36%) respondents who answered 'important' (for entertainment) and 46 respondents (44%) who answered 'very important' (fostering a child's character).

4) What benefits can be expected from telling fairy tales to children?

The respondents' answers were varied, with 48 respondents (46%) answering 'to give new knowledge to the child', 27 respondents (26%) answering 'to lead children to think logically', 18 respondents (17%) answering 'to show the child how to make the right choices', and 11 respondents (11%) answering 'to teach the children the importance of honesty'.

5) Do your children listen to fairy tales enthusiastically?

Based on their observations of their children, 68 respondents (65%) answered 'very enthusiastic' and 36 respondents (35%) answered 'it depends on the mood of the child'.

Based on the responses above, only 17% of mothers still tell fairy tales to their children on almost every night of the week, while (51%) answered 'if I have time'. This means that although the respondents still use fairy tales as a medium

to educate and inculcate moral values to their children, most of the mothers only tell fairy tales if they feel that there is enough time. This is reasonable because 92 respondents answered that fairy tale are still relevant or very relevant as a medium for teaching moral values to children, while 84 respondents (80%) considered that storytelling is still important or very important.

These answers prove that mothers still tell fairy tales to their children because they expect some positive result. The respondent's responses revealed their perception that fairy tales are supposed to increase knowledge, promote logical thinking and teach children to value honesty. From the child's point of view, the enthusiasm for listening to fairy tales varied, with about two third (65%) of mothers considering their children to be very enthusiastic, while the remainder said that it depended on the mood of their child. However, it was difficult to discover the reasons why or how to encourage children to feel 'in the mood' to listen to fairy tales.

X. CONCLUSION

The conclusions of this study are as follows, 1) storytelling is still relevant to entertain and educate children, 2) the implications are that listening to fairy tales can provide children with new knowledge, help them develop logical thinking and encourage them to value and practice honesty, and 3) that the level of interest of children in listening to fairy tales cannot be separated from the methods and strategies of the people who tell stories, and the motivation of children to listen to fairy tales can be strongly determined by their mood.

These results show that the role and importance of fairy tales in the current societal context should not be overlooked. Fairy tales can be a source of inspiration. Although we are all surrounded by cyber technology in modern life, the oral tradition of fairy tales is still valued. Awareness of the use of fairy tales as a medium to educate and inculcate moral values to children shows that they are still relevant to the needs of psychological growth of children, and that children's literature has a role to play in education and character building.

The results of this research have led to a number of recommendations, in particular for effective strategies and actions to prevent the loss of fairy tales (especially local fairy tales), and to encourage their use in interactive settings through widespread recognition of the important role of children's literature in education. The use of fairy tales should be promoted to maximise their potential benefits for awakening creativity and communicating moral values to children, both in the home and in other relevant settings. In this way, the implications of the research will benefit current and future generation.

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Imperial Imagination in *Cymbeline*

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Abstract—Though telling the story of the Roman conquest, *Cymbeline* features alliance and fraternity, instead of enmity, between ancient Briton and the Roman Empire. *Cymbeline*, through its appropriation of the Roman-Briton tie, gives shape to the imperial imagination of the Stuart court. Shakespeare depicts the historical King of Briton, Cymbeline, the legendary warrior raised by the Romans, as the British counterpart of Caesar Augustus and heir of the mythical Brutus. Cymbeline can also be seen as an avatar of James I, who at that time willed to become the second Brutus and was keen to conquer. Shakespeare presents a Romanized Briton as the proper heir to the Roman Empire, degrading the Empire's natural descendent Italy for their moral corruption. The sense of moral superiority caters to the burgeoning imperial practice of the Jacobean monarch.

Index Terms—Cymbeline, Shakespeare, Roman, imperial

I. INTRODUCTION

Cymbeline was created and on in the Christmas season of 1609-1610, when Prince Henry, James's elder son, was invested Prince of Wales. This tragicomedy was especially conditioned for the investiture entertainment, with its story set in the ancient Briton, when Britain was still a remote Roman colony under the threat and harassment of the Empire. Shakespeare's allusions to the historical Augustus and legendary Brutus in the play cater to the taste of the incumbent reign James I, who out of both admiration and ambition had willed to become the second Brutus, and what Glynne Wickham (as cited in Parolin, 2002) calls a "British Augustus" (p. 192). Northrop Frye (1968) viewed that the "reconciliation between the two Trojan nations" is central in the play (p. 210). Alliance of the ancient Briton and Roman is core to the play and palatable to the Jacobean imagination. Shakespeare's rendering of the Romans and Britons originates from and is embedded into the Jacobean imagination of an empire.

Shakespeare based his story on Boccaccio's *Decameron* and Raphael Holinshed's *Chronicles* (1587), and created a new narrative of history conditioned to please the imperial throne of James I. Cymbeline, the historical King of Briton around the last half century BC and the first half century AD, a contemporary of the Roman emperor Caesar Augustus, as is known to us, was raised and trained by the Romans to become a fierce warrior and ordained to be the King of Briton. Cymbeline maintained good relations with the Roman Empire, conducting trade and business with the Empire and paying a tribute out of respect for the Empire instead of a duty. Cymbeline's story appeared in Geoffrey of Monmouth's *Historia Regum Britanniae* (1136), and was later incorporated in Holinshed. Shakespeare made a faithful adaptation of Holinshed in the play. The name of the heroine Imogen, daughter of Cymbeline, is allegedly taken from Innogen, wife of the legendary Trojan founder of Britain, Brutus. In the play, Cymbeline's story, the political one, and Imogen's story, a romance, are woven together to give shape to the imperial imagination of the burgeoning empire.

II. A ROMAN BRITAIN

The ancient Briton as depicted in *Cymbeline* is more an assimilation of the Stuart court which holds high of the Roman style than a reliable representation of Briton as a Roman colony. The Roman style is cast in high-profile as examples of nobility that finds its advocates in Cymbeline and his court. The upholding of the Roman style in Cymbeline's court reveals the strong desire of the Jacobean monarch for identification with its conqueror and the secret wish of adjusting its history as the conquered. The Romanized Briton stands proof to the Jacobean efforts to appropriate the history of the Roman conquest.

Cymbeline is Shakespeare's last Roman play¹. In all the six plays about the ancient Rome or Romans, the Romans are held as masculine examples of clemency and discipline, of constancy and valiancy as needed in war and conquest. The constant epithet for the Romans is "noble," as "What's brave, what's noble" (4.15.) in *Antony and Cleopatra*, "Like a Colossus" (1.2) in *Julius Caesar*. The Romans are above all civilized and decent, as they are always cast against the barbarous. In *Coriolanus*, the hero is thus admonished: you are a Roman, be not barbarous. The popularity of the Roman play and the sublimation of the Roman style indicate, as Clifford Ronan (as cited in Raman, 2011) explains, "as an age of colonization and empire was launched, England found in Rome a glass where the island could behold its own image simultaneously civilized and barbarous, powerful and hollow." (p. 16) In spite of the colonizing experience in Britain, the Romans are viewed more as patron than a predator, a modal to follow in Shakespeare's Roman plays. When

¹ The Roman plays are usually recognized as: *Titus Andronicus* (1593-1594), *Julius Caesar* (1599-1600), *Troilus and Cressida* (1601-1602), *Antony and Cleopatra* (1607-1608), *Coriolanus* (1607-1608), *Cymbeline* (1609-1610).

musings on the relation between culture and imperialism, Edward Said (1993) says: “appeals to the past are among the commonest of strategies in interpretations of the present. ... and how we formulate or represent the past shapes our understanding and views of the present” (pp.3-4). Indeed, the high Roman imagination in the Jacobean England is exactly the imperial amour needed by the keen conqueror.

Identification with the Romans is the high fashion of the Stuart court, which is mirrored in Cymbeline’s court in the play. Shakespeare was known as knowing little Latin and less Greek. His little Latin leads him to the works of Ovid and Plutarch, whose works in English were also available in the sixteenth century England. Shakespeare’s interest in Latin and the appeal of his Roman plays reflect the high Roman enthusiasm of the milieu in which he lived and created his work. Shakespeare’s two narrative poems of Roman origin were especially dedicated to his patron, Earl of Southampton, and Baron of Tichfield. Among the courtiers and aristocrats, enthusiasm for the Roman antiquity was high and on the rise. Peter A. Parolin (2002) explains that in the Stuart court, the antiques from Italy are signs of prestige. (p. 195) The Roman origin is a sign of nobility and civility. The contemporary enthusiasm for the Romans and the Roman way is well reflected in the play. Cymbeline, the King himself takes pride in his bond with the Romans. When Lucius, Augustus’s envoy, declares war on Briton, instead of defying the Romans, Cymbeline nostalgically recalls his debt to Caesar. “Thy Caesar knighted me; my youth I spent / Much under him I gathered honor” (*Cymbeline*, 3.1.67-69). The intimate bond is resumed at the end of the play when Cymbeline facilitates the peace alliance and tribute commitment. Parolin (2002) views that “the basis of James’s comparison of himself to Augustus was their common commitment to peace, a commitment that, within the play, is shared by another British king, Cymbeline, a contemporary of Augustus who can also be seen as an avatar of James” (p. 192). Cymbeline and Augustus prototype features James’s ambition as both an imperialist and pacifist. Cymbeline’s final call for fraternity and peace stands proof to that ambition. “let / A Roman and a British ensign wave / friendly together. So through Lud’s Town march, / And in the temple of great Jupiter / our peace we’ll ratify, seal it with feasts” (*Cymbeline*, 5.5.480-483). And not at all surprising, the victory is celebrated in the Roman style: parades to the temple of Jupiter and feasts.

Shakespeare renders a Romanized Britain in *Cymbeline*. The names of the Roman deities frequently occur in the characters’ oaths and articulation. “Jove” and “Jupiter” become the habitual utterance of both Princess Imogen, and the banished Belarius as well. Jove’s bird, a Roman eagle is the catchphrase of the soothsayer. The Roman deities also make their way into the British household. Princess Imogen’s bedroom roofs a Rome within a British Court. Imogen is found to be reading Ovid’s *Metamorphoses* before her sleep. The furtive Iachimo even notes that the story she was reading was the rape of Philomel. Ironically, Iachimo’s stealthy presence in the chamber is also interpreted as metaphor for rape. The chamber’s interior is as exotic as the remote Empire itself. The hangings depict Cleopatra on the River Cydnus, meeting her Roman, Antony; the roof is decorated with golden cherubim; Goddess Diana perches on the chimneypiece; and two winking Cupids of silver served as fire irons.

The cross identification with the Romans reveals both the imperial ambition of the Stuart England and the undercurrent desire to adjust its history of once being colonized by the Romans. The complex feeling reflectively prevails in the Roman Briton in *Cymbeline*. Cymbeline’s chamberlain, Posthumous, as his name indicates, the posthumous son of the late Lord Sicilius Leonatus, who is a glorious warrior against the Romans, is taken by Cymbeline to his protection, raised as a Roman soldier. He is held up as an ideal, “most praised, most loved, / a sample to the youngest, to th’ more mature / a glass that feated them, and to the graver / a child that guided dotards” (1.1.47-50). Posthumous is banished to Rome, and returned to Britain on the battlefield as a Roman soldier. He was introduced as a Briton to Rome and returned as a Roman. At his return, though he decides to peel off his Roman uniform and fight for Britain, he still holds himself high as a Roman. “I will begin / The (Roman) fashion, less without and more within” (5.1.32-33). Running across a British Lord on the battlefield, he encourages him as to “Stand, / or we are Romans” (5.3.26). He had hardly determined to fight at a disguise of a British peasant when he got arrested. He answers the British capturers, saying he is “A Roman, / who had not now been drooping here if seconds/ Had answered him” (5.3.89-91). The heroic emulation of the Roman style reflects his devotion and determination to live up to the training of the Romans. Nonetheless, his British status ridicules his emulation, for as a Briton, Romans are to be speared against not to be followed behind. As Coppelia Kahn (as cited in Parolin, 2002) observes, Britain’s relationship with Rome “express both identification and rivalry” (p. 192). The mixture of impulses displays in the battleground where the Britons should follow the Roman style to defeat the Romans. Posthumous says, the British soldiers with their discipline learned from the Romans, “Now mingled with heir courages, will make known/ To their approvers they are people such/ that mend upon the world” (2.4.24-26). The mixed feeling of admiration and competition is what the imperial ambition speaks loud.

In the friend-and-foe relation between the Britons and the Romans, the rivalry status lies secondary to the strong desire for identification. The willful identification with the Romans is presented as both righteous and necessary. This can be observed in the two princely brothers, Guiderius and Arviragus. They are raised in the Welsh mountains by the banished Belarius. They complain that the exclusion makes them look barbarous. “We have seen nothing. / We are beastly: subtle as the fox for prey, / like warlike as the wolf for what we eat” (3.3.39-40). Fear of barbarism and desire for civil status epitomizes the ethos of Britain as a burgeoning empire. Jodi Mikalachi (as cited in Innes, 2007) views that “in early modern England an originary engagement with Rome was necessary for the formation of an autonomous national identity.” (p. 9) *Cymbeline* compromises the rivalry between the conqueror and the conquered, introducing

instead an intimacy and fraternity. The Anglo-Roman alliance, as well as the Roman Briton, undermines the prey-predator dichotomy between Britain and Rome. The fraternity of the cousin nations invokes not only a peace vision, but also a sense of historical and cultural continuity. The Romanized Britain embodies the Jacobean appropriation of the colonized history that the imperial Britain can comfortably identify with and lean upon.

III. THE RIGHTFUL HEIR

Shakespeare depicts the Roman-orientated Briton as the rightful heir of the Empire, debasing the natural heir, Italy, as both corrupt and enfeebled. The fraternity between Briton and Rome is explained and bound by the legendary history and the mythical prophecy of the westward transfer of Empire. Anachronisms are employed to accentuate the disparity between the Roman way of the British and the degraded style of the contemporary Italian. The identification with the Romans is properly verified in the process of seek its inheritance.

The parallel between the ancient and modern empires is well observed by the 20th century novelist, Joseph Conrad (1983). His colonial narrative *Heart of Darkness*, begins with the bold association of the now colonizer and once colonized British. While idling on the Thames, Marlowe begins his story, "And this also, has been one of the dark places of the earth ...I was thinking of very old times, when the Romans first came here, nineteen hundred years ago. ...it is like a running blaze on a plain, like a flash of lightning in the clouds." (pp. 29-30) Conrad's comparison of Romans to lightings may indicate both the immensity of the Roman legion and the enlightenment following the conquest. The Romans came to rule and to tame. He elaborates, "The conquest of the earth, which mostly means the taking it away from those who have a different complexion or slightly flatter noses than ourselves, is not a pretty thing when you look into it too much." (p. 32) Conrad refers to the sense of superiority behind the logic of conquest, which to Conrad is not a privilege endowed to the conqueror, but the darkness of the human heart. The sense of superiority is also observed in *Cymbeline*. In Shakespeare's historical narrative, England's suffering and subjugation under the Roman invasion fades into oblivion. Instead, the colonized past becomes a history needed to be appropriated and a heritage to be claimed and inherited.

Briton's status as the rightful heir to the Empire is justified by the theory of *translatio imperii*. The idea of *translatio imperii*, the translation or transferal of empire, evolves from biblical connotation of a golden empire, followed by ones of silver, bronze, iron and clay. Margaret Ferguson (2003) uses *translatio imperii* to interpret the succession of empires, or substitution of one empire by another. Generally speaking it is a westward transition of imperial powers. Accordingly, "Protestant England will simply replace the ancient Romans, the medieval Church, and the Normans as colonizer of new territories." (p. 97) The westward movement of the imperial center parallels the observation of the soothsayer in *Cymbeline*.

For the Roman eagle,
From south to west on wing soaring aloft,
Lessened herself and in the beams o' th' sun
So vanished; which foreshadowed our princely eagle,
Th' imperial Caesar, should again unite
His favor with the radiant Cymbeline,
Which shines here in the west. (5.5.470-476)

In *Cymbeline*, Britain's history as a Roman colony is understood to serve as an inevitable qualification of an imperial heir. Besides, Shakespeare also promotes Britain as the proper heir against the Empire's natural descendant Italy.

Shakespeare depicts the Renaissance Italy and Italian in the ancient period of the Roman conquest. Italy and Italians are presence of anachronisms in *Cymbeline*. Phyllis Rackin (1990) views anachronism as disruption of historical context, as radical dislocations of past and present. Anachronism causes striking effect on the audience, and special theatrical effect in performance. Rackin notes that "Shakespeare's anachronisms usually function as tokens of debasement." (p. 104) In *Cymbeline* the Renaissance Italy is depicted as corrupted and degenerated as "drug-damn'd Italy" (3.4. 15). Posthumous is banished to Rome. However, the place is frequently referred as Italy; and Imogen worried about the "shes of Italy" (1.3.30). The juxtaposition of Rome and Italy functions as dramatic irony which only enhances the disparity of the two. Shakespeare incarnates the dichotomy between the ancient Rome and the contemporary Italy in two characters: the virtuous Lucius and the vicious Iachimo. Lucius, as the envoy of Augustus, represents the civil and refined Roman tradition and value, while Iachimo speaks for the contemporary decadent Italy. Iachimo stands for the "false Italian, / as poisonous-tongued as handed" (3.2.4-5). In the final scene, Posthumous defies him as the "Italian fiend!" (5.5.210).

In Shakespeare's other Roman plays, the Romans are usually cast against the mob, the common herd, or the tag-rag people, which are usually a crowd of inferior origins, or peoples of colors. However, in *Cymbeline*, the opposition between the barbarism and civility is less distinct than the contrast between civility and decadence, between righteousness and Machiavellianism. The contrast reaches its culmination in Iachimo's conspiracy against Imogen's fidelity. Iachimo sees no hope to seduce Imogen to win his wager with Posthumous against Imogen's fidelity. So he hides himself in the trunk, which Imogen, ignorant of its contents, has agreed to keep in her bedroom for the night. After Imogen falls asleep, Iachimo sneaks out of the box to note down the interior details of the bedroom. He also notices a mole on her left breast and takes away her bracelet as proof against Posthumous. As afore-mentioned, the

scene is usually viewed as a virtual rape, and Iachimo is compared to the rapist Tarquin or Tereus. Shakespeare depicts a sleeping beauty and relates Imogen to the Roman goddess of love Venus. “Cytherea, / How bravely thou becom’st thy bed, fresh lily, / And whiter than the sheets!” (2.2.14-16). Imogen, the heir of the kingdom, stands for chastity and angel, while Iachimo for malice and the lodger of hell. Parolin (2002) argues that Iachimo’s presence in the chamber may signify a violation of the integrity of Britain court by the poisonous Machiavellianism within. Imogen’s status as heir is later naturally transferred to her recovered brothers. Cymbeline’s court is not free of dangers within. However, the Imogen-Iachimo contradiction unequivocally registers the superiority of Britain over the contemporary Italy. In *Cymbeline* the south symbolizes “spongy” (4.2.349), unhealthy, rotting damp as in Cloten’s words “the south fog rot him” (2.3. 133). In contrast, *Cymbeline* raises Briton, the shinning west, as the rightful heir of the Empire and the values it incarnates.

Jules Harmand (as cited in Said, 1993) views that “the basic legitimation of conquest over native peoples is the conviction of our superiority, not merely our mechanical, economic, and military superiority, but our moral superiority” (p. 17). In *Cymbeline*, Shakespeare renders this sense of superiority through aligning Briton with Rome against the contemporary Italy. The sense of superiority lays foundation for the imperial imagination. Therefore, it seems natural for Shakespeare to write his colonial story *The Tempest* right after *Cymbeline*.

IV. CONSTRUCTING HISTORY AND BRITAIN

Shakespeare’s writing of *Cymbeline* co-occurs with Briton’s colonization of America. It’s the common imperial imagination that underwrites the history writing of Shakespeare and the history making of James I. Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in the New World, was established in May 1607 by the English Virginia Company after several unsuccessful attempts, including the first English colony Roanoke in North America build in 1585. After brief abandonment, Jamestown became permanent, and served as the capital of the colony for more than eighty years. That was more than a century since the discovery of this land by Christopher Columbus. Following Jamestown, more settlements were built; more colonists were shipped in. The full colonization of America was ushered in. *Cymbeline*, as all the other history writings of the same period, was meant to construct history in a way so as to connect the past with the present.

Shakespeare’s adaptation of Holinshed is not accidental. The historical Cymbeline as depicted by Holinshed meets the expectation for the Roman bond and the justification for the empire enterprise of the day. Cymbeline is thus reported in Holinshed as being brought up in Rome and knighted in the court of Augustus. He ever showed himself a friend to the Romans, and chiefly was loath to break with them because the youth of Briton nation should not be deprived of the benefit to be trained and brought up among the Romans; whereby they might learn both to behave themselves like civil men and to attain to the knowledge of feats of war. When Shakespeare picked out Holinshed’s Cymbeline to dramatize him to be both a British King and Roman warrior, the image of the warrior emperor like Caesar and Augustus was ready to make its way to its audience.

Shakespeare for all his prestige and popularity in literature helps to build the cultural memory of the British. Jan Assmann (as cited in Grabes, 2010) defines cultural memory as:

the characteristic store of repeatedly used texts, images and rituals in the cultivation of which each society and epoch stabilizes and imports its self-image; a collectively shared knowledge of preferably (yet not exclusively) the past, on which a group bases its awareness of unity and character. (pp. 311-312)

Memory is what we know about the past. Either the individual or collective memory is vital to the sense of identity. Different from the individual memory that is bound by personal experience, the cultural memory is subject to the mechanism of history and is shaped by careful and purposeful maneuvers of the prevailing power. Shakespeare’s history writing is a well-chosen of history. Herbert Grabes (2010) notes, “the collective canon widely determines, after all, what remains in a society’s cultural memory, and this again influences the view of the present and the future” (p. 312). Literature, especially canonic literature, is a major medium of cultural memory, and therefore a vital force in constructing national identity. Shakespeare embeds the Jacobean imperial imagination in Cymbeline’s Britain. History is appropriated for contemporary purposes. Moreover, the reconstructed past further shapes the imagination and self-identification of the new generations where Shakespeare find his new readers.

Birgit Neumann (2010) views literature as a part of the prevailing processes of creating memory, which “is endowed with a (memory-)cultural effectiveness and can contribute to a new perspectivization of extra-textual orders of knowledge and hierarchies of values. ... as a medium of cultural self-reflection, literature—through its aesthetic structure—paves the way for cultural change.” (p. 341) Literature, loaded with personal or collective memories, offers opportunities for historical engagement and identification. Meanwhile, literature is conducive to construct psychological frameworks for social changes by (re)negotiating with the past, or the collective memory of the past. It’s hard to tell Shakespeare’s function in building this positive Roman image, but it’s fair to say that Shakespeare is the chosen accomplice of history.

It’s undeniable that the alignment between the Roman and British empire that feels natural and inevitable to us today is the result of the long-term pacification of the violent and savage process of invasion. John Kerrigan (2008) records an anecdote about a play depicting the ancient Romans and Britons in his book *Archipelagic English*. Director Howard Brenton put his play *The Romans in Britain* on stage at the National Theater in 1980. The play depicted the Roman

domination of the British Isles. Brenton did not shun from violence and brutality. However, he had never expected that the displaying of brutality of the Roman soldiers would put him to court. At the beginning combat scene, three Roman soldiers murdered two British and raped a third after stabbing him on the buttocks. The scene prompted a Mrs. Whitehouse to sue the director. Brenton later reflected that the play challenged “a rooted, popular myth from the British national consciousness” (p. 115). That is, the Roman invasion was vaguely related as something good. In *A School History of England*, published in 1911, Rudyard Kipling and C.R.L. Fletcher related the Roman conquest as something necessary and positive: “The Romans introduced into all their provinces a system of law so fair and so strong, that almost all the best laws of modern Europe have been formed on it.” (as cited in Kelly, 118) The British imagination about the Romans is associated with good roads and law, instead of blood shedding. Actually, the brutality of the Roman was as solid as their roads. The most famous British uprising against Rome was led by Boudica, queen of the Iceni tribe. The uprising took place around 61 AD, triggered by an incident when Boudica was whipped and her daughters raped by Romans. This revolt was well documented, and Boudica’s story made its way into the Renaissance and Victorian literature. Nonetheless, the cultural memory of the British people still seems to have been carefully screened to somehow retain the good records about the Romans.

At the height of the British empire, as Conrad’s simile of the lightning suggests, the imperial practice prevails on the surface of the earth, and it looks as rightful as it has always been. William Blake (as cited in Said, 1993), the eighteenth-century poet and prophet, writes, “The Foundation of Empire is Art and Science. Remove them or Degrade them and the Empire is No more. Empire follows Art and not vice versa as Englishmen suppose” (p. 13). The twentieth century Edward W. Said (1993) interprets as: “The literature itself makes constant references to itself as somehow participating in Europe’s overseas expansion, and therefore creates what Raymond Williams calls ‘structures of feeling’ that support, elaborate, and consolidate the practice of empire” (p. 14). Rome is not built in one day. When we look back to the early colonial days, we find that the empire building does not only involve the technical, economical and political impetuses, but the dream impetus as well. And literature is dream business. In the late nineteenth century, the sun-never-set Empire towered over its peers. We have a reason to believe that the country has lived up to the imperial vision embodied in *Cymbeline*. Right at that time, the culture scholar, Mathew Arnold was urging people to read Shakespeare for self-cultivation. It seems that the ripple effect of Shakespeare was, is and will be surging on.

Cymbeline, though telling the story of the Roman conquest, features alliance and fraternity, instead of enmity, between ancient Briton and the Roman Empire. The Roman Briton and the Roman tie are the embedded imperial imagination of the Jacobean era in the play. *Cymbeline* is not unlike the specimen of history where the vision for a brave new world is freshly and safely stored. Shakespeare was not of an age, but for all time! Ben Johnson’s elegiac praise is prophecy in disguise. In the postcolonial era, Shakespeare and his plays are still frequently visited and revisited, for they embody the cultural codes in which the postcolonial generation can see both the past and the present.

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The Effect of L1 Chinese Transfer on L2 English Learning: A Brief Review of the Research

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Abstract—This review examines eight research articles, conducted in the past two decades, focusing on the L1 Chinese transfer on L2 English learning. These studies analyzed the transferred function of L1 Chinese from phonological and morphological aspects. The phonological studies indicated that the Chinese pinyin system contributes to a shared phonological process for bilingual reading acquisition. The morphological studies revealed that both in Chinese and English, inflection, derivation, and compounding are the principal methods for word formation. Thus, practice of morphological principles in Chinese characters contributes to L1 Chinese transfer on L2 English learning. In addition, these studies emphasized that lexical exposure and extensive reading are the best ways to improve Chinese EFL learners' English comprehension.

Index Terms—L1 Chinese transfer on L2 English, English language learning, phonology, morphology

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the late 1970s, English has been a mandatory course in all secondary and postsecondary schools in China. In 2002, English courses entered primary schools from grade three to grade six. Currently, China has the largest population of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners around the world. Unfortunately, most Chinese students perceive much pressure and anxiety in their language learning processes (Hu, 2003), partly due to the total difference between the alphabetic English and the logographic Chinese. Chinese linguists claim that the best method of learning English is completely disregarding Chinese and studying English vocabulary and grammar through immersion (Gao, 2008). Thus, the majority of Chinese EFL learners hold that English is very useful but is too difficult to conquer.

I taught Chinese college students English for more than fifteen years. I found that the college students had learned English for a total of ten years since the third grade, but most of them had relatively poor English grades and most of them did not like English very much. This lack of a sense of accomplishment in the early years leads to a sense of anxiety and frustration in later English language learning processes. The typical cramming method and the constant low grades in the high-stakes tests contribute to a strong sense of failure among the EFL learners in China. Is English really unconquerable?

I have strong doubts regarding the big gap between the two languages and the immersion method. Such doubts lead to my research question: Are there any similar rules of phonology and morphology between Chinese and English? Can we use the prior Chinese language knowledge as the base for English language learning? In other words, is there L1 Chinese transfer on L2 English learning in the areas of phonology and morphology? First, the Chinese pinyin system (the spelled-out sounds of Chinese characters) is based on the Roman alphabet, which is the same for English. Second, like English, inflection, derivation, and compounding are the basic principles for Chinese word formation. Why not use prior Chinese knowledge to help Chinese EFL learners to learn English? Therefore, it is worthwhile to conduct a literature review on L1 (Chinese) transfer on L2 (English) learning.

In order to find the relevant journal articles analyzing the transfer function of L1 Chinese on L2 English, I chose the articles from the peer-reviewed journals focusing on reading research, applied linguistics, and multilingual research from 2000 on. I put the search terms “L1 transfer on L2 English” and “phonological relation between English and Chinese” and “morphological relation between English and Chinese” into Google Scholar. When I reviewed these articles, I paid attention to the following six aspects: research questions, methodologies used, the contexts in which the study took place, the populations studied, findings, and conclusions. Finally, I chose eight peer-review journal articles as the base of my review.

II. L1 CHINESE TRANSFER ON L2 ENGLISH LEARNING: PHONOLOGY

The Chinese pinyin is an alphabetical system indicating the spelled-out sounds of Chinese characters, and it is based on the Roman alphabet that is the same for English. The pinyin system is “the official phonetic system for transcribing the pronunciations of Chinese characters into the Latin alphabet in mainland China, Taiwan, and Singapore” (Snowling & Hulme, 2005). Several researchers examined the features of pinyin and found that pinyin is a good instrument for Chinese character learning and is helpful for L2 English learning.

Lin et al. (2010) conducted research to examine how Chinese pinyin helped Chinese children learn Chinese characters. A group of 296 native Chinese children in the third year of kindergarten in Beijing participated in this study. The study lasted 12 months. The results indicated that children's early pinyin skills play an important role in their later reading development. Additionally, the findings supported the idea of a universal phonological principle and suggested that pinyin is potentially an ideal measure of phonological awareness in Chinese. Due to the universal phonological principle, the syllables in pinyin can be divided into onset, rime, tone, phonemes, etc. Pinyin practice strengthens Chinese children's phonological awareness (see Table 1).

TABLE 1
CHINESE PINYIN AND CHINESE CHARACTER EXAMPLES

Pinyin	k àn	tīng	xué	shōu huò	děng dài	qín láo	yǒng gǎn
Onset & rime	k an	t ing	x ue	sh ou h uo	d eng d ai	q in l ao	y ong g an
Chinese character	看	听	学	收获	等待	勤劳	勇敢
English translation	look	listen	learn	harvest	wait	Hard- working	brave

In China, elementary school students spend their first school year learning the pinyin spelling system. In second and third grade, pinyin is the primary self-teaching device for their Chinese character learning. The results of this study suggest that L1 Chinese transfer on L2 English is possible because of Chinese children's phonological awareness practiced and enhanced throughout the pinyin system (see Table 2).

TABLE 2
CHINESE PINYIN AND CHINESE SENTENCE EXAMPLES

pinyin	rén zhī chū, xìng běn shàn	xìng xiāng jìn, xí xiāng yuǎn	liǎng gè huáng lí míng cuì liǔ yī háng bái lù shàng qīng tiān
Chinese sentence	人之初，性本善。	性相近，习相远。	两个黄鹂鸣翠柳， 一行白鹭上青天。
English translation	Man on earth, good at birth.	The same nature, Varies on nurture.	Two golden orioles sing amid the willows green, A row of white egrets flies into the blue sky.

Shu, Anderson, and Wu (2000) examined Chinese children's phonetic awareness in an elementary school in Beijing. The participants included 113 students in second, fourth and sixth grades. The participants were asked to represent the pronunciation of 60 compound characters consisting of semantic and phonetic components. The results indicated that Chinese children's phonetic awareness develops over their elementary school years (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
EXAMPLES OF CHINESE COMPOUNDS OF SEMANTIC AND PHONETIC COMPONENTS

characters	河 hé	湖 hú	植 zhí	雹 báo
structure	Semantic + phonetic	Semantic + phonetic	Semantic + phonetic	Semantic + phonetic
English translation	river	lake	plant	hail

Wang, Perfetti, and Liu (2004) investigated cross-language and writing system transfer in biliteracy acquisition between Chinese and English. The participants included 46 immigrant Chinese children in second and third grades in a public elementary school in Washington D.C. The participants also attended weekend Chinese schools continuing their learning. The participants took phonological and orthographic tasks both in English and Chinese. The results indicated that Chinese onset matching skill is significantly correlated with English onset and rime matching skills. Pinyin was highly correlated with English pseudoword reading. Orthographic processing in the two writing systems do not predict each other's reading capabilities because Chinese is a logographic language while English is alphabetic. The findings suggest that Chinese and English have a shared phonological process for bilingual reading acquisition. These results confirmed the L1 Chinese transfer on L2 English learning in the aspect of phonology (see Table 4).

TABLE 4
EXAMPLES OF THE SIMILARITIES BETWEEN THE SYLLABLES OF CHINESE PINYIN AND ENGLISH

Chinese sentence	读书使人充实。
Pinyin syllables	d-ú / sh-ū / sh-ī / r-én / ch-ōng / sh-í
English translation and syllables	Reading makes a full man. r-ea-ding/ m-a-ke-s/ a/ f-u-ll /m-an

These three studies demonstrate that pinyin is an ideal instrument for Chinese children's learning in Chinese characters. The universal phonological principle is consistent with such results. Pinyin, like English, is based on 26 alphabet letters. Due to the rich experiences of how to use pinyin in Chinese learning and the universal phonological principles, it is possible for Chinese children and adults to utilize L1 Chinese transfer on L2 English learning in terms of phonological awareness. These studies illustrate forceful evidence that Chinese EFL learners should not totally disregard but make full use of the phonological principles in Chinese for their L2 English learning.

III. L1 CHINESE TRANSFER ON L2 ENGLISH LEARNING: MORPHOLOGY

Although Chinese is totally different from English in terms of orthography, the universal morphological principle indicates that L1 Chinese transfer on L2 English learning is crucial for Chinese EFL learners.

Shu and Anderson (1997) examined the role of radical awareness in Chinese characters and the word acquisition of Chinese children. The participants were elementary school children in Beijing. The researchers took two experiments. The first experiment consisted of 220 students in sixth grade and the second consisted of 72 students in third and fifth grades. The test results indicated that Chinese children have a functional awareness of the relationship between the root of a character and the meaning of the characters. Additionally, this study suggested that children's knowledge of morphology develops with their grade level (see Table 5).

TABLE 5
EXAMPLES OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SEMANTIC AND PHONETIC COMPONENTS OF CHINESE CHARACTERS

Characters	惚	湖	糊	莉	锂	狸
pinyin	Hū	hú	hū	lì	lǐ	lí
English translation	absent-minded	lake	Paste	jasmine	lithium	leopard cat

According to Shu and Anderson (1997), in modern Chinese, 80% to 90% of the Chinese characters are compounds of semantic and phonetic components. The semantic part is called the radical part of a character and the phonetic part illustrates the pronunciation of a character. In elementary school, Chinese children learn the basic 3,000 Chinese characters, which are primarily and frequently used in media and communication. Among the 3,000 characters, 2,000 of them are compounds of semantic and phonetic components (Shu and Anderson, 1997). Besides this point, both in Chinese and English, inflection, derivation, and compounding are the principle methods for word formation. Therefore, such substantial practice of morphological principles in Chinese characters contribute to L1 transfer on L2 English learning (see Table 6).

TABLE 6
EXAMPLES OF WORD FORMATION IN CHINESE AND ENGLISH

word formation	Chinese	English
inflection	男孩们 (男孩+们)	boys (boy + s)
derivation	现代化 (现代+化)	modernize (modern + ize)
compounding	洗手间 (洗手+间)	Restroom (rest+ room)

Ku and Anderson (2003) investigated the development of morphological awareness in Chinese and English among Chinese and American students. The participants included 412 Taiwanese and 256 American students in second, fourth, and sixth grades. The results demonstrated that the morphological awareness develops with grade level and that this awareness is strongly related to reading ability. Moreover, this study revealed that Chinese students' acquisition of derivational morphology seems to lag behind that of compounding rules, signifying there are fewer derivatives than compounds in Chinese. These results supported Shu and Anderson's (1997) research results about Chinese children's morphological development within the grade level (see Table 7).

TABLE 7
EXAMPLE OF THE SIGNIFICANCE OF MORPHOLOGICAL AWARENESS IN CHINESE READING

The text	那是在世界上最美丽最可爱的小房间了，有一只柔软舒服的床，上面有绿绸的被，绿天鹅绒的褥。在房间的中央，有一个小喷水器，向空中射出一股绿色香水的水花，水花回落在一只雕刻得很美丽的绿色大理石的盆子里(Baum, 2016)。
morphological awareness	房，绸，被，褥，绒，褥，理，盆

IV. L1 CHINESE TRANSFER ON L2 ENGLISH LEARNING: PHONOLOGICAL DECODING

Hamada and Koda (2010) examined the role of phonological decoding in L2 English word-meaning inference. The participants included college-level EFL learners. One group consisted of 15 native Korean and one native Turkish. In contrast, the Korean language is logographic while Turkish is alphabetic. Another group consisted of 13 native Chinese and four Japanese. Both Chinese and Japanese are logographic languages. The results indicated that in contrast to logographic L1 languages, alphabetic L1 Turkish language is associated with better decoding. Furthermore, the results pointed out in the L1 Turkish alphabetic group, the relationship between decoding, efficiency and meaning-inference is stronger than the L1 logographic group. However, the results announced that the two different groups did not differ in meaning-inference performance. This study provided forceful evidence that phonological awareness also plays an important role in word-meaning inference. In other words, morphology and phonology work together within one language contributing to the learner's word knowledge and vocabulary ability (see Table 8).

TABLE 8
EXAMPLES OF THE LANGUAGES OF ENGLISH, TURKISH, KOREAN, JAPANESE AND CHINESE

English	Industry: Lose no time (Franklin, 1726).
Turkish	endüstri: hiçbir zaman kaybetmek
Korean	근면하다, 물 낭비 다.
Japanese	勤勉で、時間を無駄遣いしている。
Chinese	勤奋: 勿浪费时间。

V. L2 ENGLISH LEARNING: MORPHOLOGICAL AWARENESS AND READING COMPREHENSION

Zhang and Koda (2013) examined the relationship between morphological awareness and reading comprehension in English among EFL learners. The participants included 245 sixth graders in a public elementary school in a small town in Northeast China. Data was collected in the regular English classes at the end of the school year. All items in the surveys tested the participants' morphological awareness, vocabulary knowledge, grammatical knowledge, and reading comprehension. The results indicated that EFL learners' inflectional awareness is better than the derivational awareness, and that compound awareness is better than derivational awareness. In addition, derivational and compound awareness independently predicted English reading comprehension over vocabulary and grammatical knowledge. These findings suggested the vital role of morphological awareness in English reading comprehension (see Table 9).

TABLE 9
EXAMPLE OF READING COMPREHENSION FOR THE SIXTH GRADERS

Jill and Kate are going hiking with their class tomorrow. They went to take some fruits with them. Jill likes oranges and Kate likes apples. When they get to the market, they can't find any oranges, and the apples are too green. "What are we going to buy now?" asks Kate "Hey, what's that big round fruit over there?" asks Jill. "I don't know. Let's ask the salesgirl." "What do you call this?" "Youzi," answers the girl. "Why don't we buy one?" Asks Jill "OK. We're going to have lots of fun hiking and eating a new kind of fruit!" says Kate ("English test for the sixth graders," n.d.).
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Before the above study, Zhang and Koda (2011) conducted a research in order to identify how the morphological awareness and lexical inference contribute to vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension among advanced EFL learners. The participants included 130 adult EFL learners working on their engineering master's degrees at a university in China. The results demonstrated that morphological awareness contributes to L2 English vocabulary knowledge through learner's lexical inference ability. In addition, the results revealed that morphological awareness makes no significant unique or direct contribution to L2 reading comprehension. It seems that the findings in this research contradict the findings in their study in 2013. The reason for the contradiction is that for elementary children, the reading test is much easier than those for advanced EFL learners. Children can easily find the answer to the questions just according to the literal meaning of the words. So that children can finish the task of reading comprehension if they have strong morphological awareness. However, morphological awareness is less effective when graduate level readings require comprehensive reading ability, such as higher level critical thinking or problem solving (see Table 10).

TABLE 10
EXAMPLES OF READING COMPREHENSION FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS AND GRADUATE STUDENTS

text	
Elementary school level	Hard by a great forest dwelt a poor wood-cutter with his wife and his two children. The boy was called Hansel and the girl Gretel. He had little to bite and to break, and once, when great dearth fell on the land, he could no longer procure even daily bread ("Hansel and Gretel," n.d.).
Graduate level	The presence of such surviving crudities does not evidence in the poet any essential brutality, but there is, in the strained and luxuriant pathos of his writing, and element of cruelty, or aesthetic sadism (Sommers, 1960).

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The Chinese pinyin system is an alphabet system which is based on the Roman alphabet used for English. Chinese pinyin is an ideal instrument for Chinese elementary school students to learn Chinese characters. Chinese pinyin is also a bridge to English language learning due to the universal phonological principles (Lin et al., 2010; Shu, Anderson, and Wu, 2000; Wang, Perfetti, and Liu, 2004). On the one hand, Chinese children's phonetic awareness develops throughout school (Shu, Anderson, and Wu, 2000); on the other hand, among the basic 3,000 Chinese characters, 80%-90% of the characters are compounds of phonetic and semantic components (Lin et al., 2010). Thus, together with the universal phonological principles, the practice of pinyin in the first three elementary school years develops a foundation of phonetic awareness for future L2 English learning. Because the pinyin system is the basic component of the Chinese language, all Chinese students are familiar with it, and this point can be seen as an advantage for Chinese EFL learners. In other words, Chinese EFL learners know and encounter the twenty six Latin letters frequently before they plan to learn English. In contrast, Korean and Japanese, logographic languages, do not have similar advantages in the process of L2 English learning. Therefore, Chinese EFL learners should be confident and take an optimistic attitude toward English language learning. Chinese EFL teachers should explain such advantages to Chinese EFL learners in order to

help them to develop confidence in L2 English learning. Consequently, L1 Chinese transfer on L2 English learning is supported and illustrated in the examples of the pinyin-based phonetic awareness.

The semantic and phonetic compounds form the majority of Chinese characters (Shu and Anderson, 1997; Shu, Anderson, and Wu, 2000). Furthermore, the majority of Chinese words are compounds made up of two or more characters (Shu and Anderson, 1997). It is well known that most of the English words can be understood in parts from their roots, prefixes, and suffixes. Thus, when we consider the structure of English words and Chinese words, a universal morphological principle appears in our minds. Expanding the role of pinyin and phonetic awareness in Chinese language, the morphological principles in Chinese and English allow Chinese EFL learners to have a sense of success and confidence in their English language learning. When Chinese EFL learners begin to learn the basic English words, they will find that it is not very hard to learn English because they can utilize their prior knowledge of Chinese morphological principles effectively. Thus, the second urgent task for Chinese EFL teachers is to tell the EFL learners to apply the Chinese morphological principles to English learning.

The research results from Hamada and Koda (2011) indicate that although English is an alphabetic language and Chinese is a logographic language, there is no difference in meaning-inference performance between L1 alphabetic background students and L1 logographic background students. This result increases confidence and hope for Chinese EFL learners. In other words, the prior knowledge of the Chinese language in terms of phonology and morphology contributes to Chinese EFL learners' advantages in English language learning (Ambrose, Bridges, DiPietro, Lovett, & Norman, 2010; Brown, 2014; Nilson, 2010). Further, the logographic feature of Chinese is not an obstacle to Chinese EFL learners. The proper strategy should be as follows: forget the negative influence of L1 logographic language, then focus on the positive components of your L1 language.

Both phonological and morphological researchers in L1 Chinese transfer on L2 English learning emphasized that lexical exposure and extensive reading are the best ways to improve EFL learners' English comprehension (Shu & Anderson, 1997; Zhang & Koda, 2013). Zhang and Koda (2011) confirmed that for advanced EFL learners morphological awareness does not make a direct contribution to their reading comprehension. This result indicated that intense and extensive reading is more effective than developing word knowledge and vocabulary. This emphasizes the transformation of English learning strategies from in-depth vocabulary comprehension to extensive reading practice.

Recent researchers in neuroimaging analyzing Chinese-English bilingual adults revealed that reading Chinese contributes to heightened activation in some brain areas for visual-spatial analysis. Additionally, the research indicated that reading Chinese involves both left and right occipital activation, whereas reading English involves only left occipital activation (Wang, Perfetti, and Liu, 2004). This result indicates that Chinese EFL learners have activated more areas of their brains before they begin to learn English. In contrast, learning English uses fewer parts of their brains. Therefore, for Chinese EFL learners, learning English could be easier. Moreover, recent research in neuroscience, biology, cognitive psychology and educational psychology confirmed that visual approaches such as concept maps (Ambrose, Bridges, DiPietro, Lovett, & Norman, 2010; Brown, Roediger III, & McDaniel, 2014; Doyle, 2013) are effective for learning. Chinese EFL learners have learned in the best way since birth because of the primary feature of Chinese: a total visual language. Therefore, it is reasonable for Chinese EFL learners to conquer English if they put forth considerable effort and use effective strategies in their English learning. In other words, based on this research, English is conquerable for each and every Chinese EFL learner.

There were limitations to this study. First, eight journal articles were analyzed. This number was sufficient for conducting a reasonable literature review, but it was not very large. If I had added more articles from more journals concerning the relation between Chinese and English from the phonological and morphological aspects, the current research would have been more valuable for generalization. Second, this review was conducted from two aspects, phonology and morphology without syntax or text linguistics. The results would have been more fruitful and more trustworthy if we had interviewed more articles from more aspects. In addition, during this research, I did not use China's biggest academic search engine CNKI for more relevant articles. How to explore L1 Chinese transfer on L2 English and apply such research to English learning is a continuous topic for future research.

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Implementing Interest Based Instructional Materials to Minimize EFL Learners' Speaking Skills De-motivating Factors

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Abstract—The study aimed to investigate de-motivating factors in speaking in Indonesian EFL learning context and to propose solution to overcome speaking problems in teaching learning process. The description and discussion of findings are based on the results of a longitudinal mixed-method research in teaching Speaking Classes in an English Education Department at University in Indonesia. A qualitative inquiry was implemented to map the de-motivating factors faced by the EFL learners and Classroom Action Research (CAR) design was conducted to improve speaking ability. The results of the study reveal that there are fifteen de-motivating factors that impede the improvement of the speaking ability. The results of the intervention during the CAR cycles, cycle 1 and 2, prove that the implementation of Interest Based Instructional Materials (IBIM) improves the speaking ability. The implementation of IBIM encourages learners to activate their previous knowledge of instructional topics and build up their beliefs in presenting speaking tasks. The improvement in the speaking ability is affected by the role of teachers both during the pre-teaching phase and during the teaching learning process. The implication for the design and the development of instructional materials in Speaking Classes are discussed.

Index Terms—interest based, instructional materials, speaking skills, de-motivating factors, communication, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learners' ability to express their feelings, experiences, and thoughts in their daily communication proves their success in language learning. It is noted that there are some factors affect the success in the language learning. The factors are classified into motivating and de-motivating factors. The motivating factors are related to those which encourage language learners to learn while the de-motivating ones are related to those which impede language learners to learn.

There are some benefits of identifying factors that motivate and impede the development of the speaking skills. First, the identification of the motivating factors allows their implementation in teaching learning process to effectively achieve instructional objectives (Manurung, 2012; Michelsen and Sriraman, 2009; Nunan, 1989; Richard, 2001). Second, the implementation and evaluation of those factors create a better teaching atmosphere (Hammer, 2007; Juhana, 2012). Third, it allows selection of effective instructional materials, methods, and teaching media (More, 2005; Richard, 2001). Fourth, the identification of the de-motivating factors permits speaking class teachers to avoid those factors during pre-teaching phase by selecting interesting instructional materials, selecting effective teaching techniques, and choosing appropriate teaching media (Hamad, 2013; Richard and Roger, 2014). Finally, some researchers believe that those de-motivating factors impede motivation of language learners (Chambers, 1993; Dornyei, 2001; Gorham and Christophel, 1992; Hamad, 2013; Lamb, 2007; Shen, 2013). These arguments imply that role and ability of language teachers to pre-identify the motivating and de-motivating factors to learn in the pre-teaching phase are challenging.

Classroom participation contributes to success in language learning. Active participation during the teaching learning process brings about various practices and training opportunities to develop oral language. The more practices and opportunities provided to language learners to use the language being learned the better they will be on the development of the language skills. It is agreed that the speaking skills are developed should there be opportunities, practice, and attention (Bashir, Azeem, and Dogar, 2011; Shen, 2013; Xiuqin, 2006). Basir at el. (2011) highlight the importance of speaking activities that are related to learners' experiences and knowledge. Shen (2013) argues that the practices and activities in speaking should facilitate both fluency and accuracy in the speaking skills. These arguments suggest that it is obvious that language teachers plan, create, and provide sufficient practices for learners during teaching learning process. The provided practices are effective should they be prepared based on the factors that motivate learners to learn.

It is noted that in this global era English speaking proficiency contributes significantly towards learners' academic success since more and more education institutions and systems require English as pre-requisite of admission. Despite

the fact that some learners in non-native English speaking countries have studied English for some years, the speaking performance is still limited. Many researchers have researched factors causing the limited ability in speaking (Bashir et al., 2011; Hamad, 2013; Ho, 2009; Juhana, 2012; Lamb, 2007; Latha and Rames, 2012; Manurung, 2015; Rubin, 1992; Shen, 2013; Soureshjani and Riahipour, 2012). The results of the identification and investigation of the factors forward some solutions on how to minimize those factors and at the same time improve the speaking ability. Bashir et al., for example, suggest the provision of instructional materials which are familiar with learners and the use of language closely related to learners' knowledge; Shen (2013) argues that choice and provision of instructional materials that seldom facilitate authentic oral production practices are frequently observed to during the teaching of English; Latha and Ramesh (2012) and Manurung (2015) note that the choice of subject matters or instructional materials are considerable factors to motivate learners and to improve speaking ability; Soureshjani and Riahipour (2012) found teachers, peers, and instructional materials contribute to the improvement of speaking ability. The arguments suggest that language teachers hold vital roles to prepare quality instructional processes that motivate and encourage language learners to actively participate in the development of the speaking skills both in the face-to-face teaching and out of classroom activities. Therefore, knowledge of effective instructional design is required by the language teachers.

Instructional materials, method, and teaching aids are three of the most dominant components in instructional design. It is believed that selection, gradation, and organization of instructional materials hold important role in an effective teaching (Michelsen and Sriraman, 2009; Richard, 2001; Zubairi and Sarudin, 2009). Richard (2001) further suggests that the selection of the instructional materials is based on the results of needs analysis so needs and interest of learners are fulfilled. More importantly, Ellis (2003) strengthen that joyful activities in language classes are actualized when content of instructional materials are prepared based on the area of interest of learners. In addition, Zubairi and Sarudin (2009) proposed that the different needs and motivation of learners should be used as the base of the course content planning and the choice of the methods of classroom teaching.

Those points of view are also supported by some of the instructional designers arguing that effective instructional materials are those which are contextual and interesting (Dick, Carey, and Carey, 2001; Harmer, 2007; More, 2005; Nunan, 1989). In relation to role of EFL teacher, Richard and Rodgers (2014) suggest that the teachers adjust the topic of instructional materials so that learners get a better understanding on the instructional materials and as a result active participations are manifested. Dick et al. (2001) proposed the importance of appropriateness between learners' level and the level of difficulty of instructional materials in the design of instructional materials. These arguments are supported by Harmer (2007) who highlights that the ability of the language teachers to create activities and practices during the speaking class builds up speaking culture in the classroom. These viewpoints imply that contextual and interesting instructional materials are those that are closely related to individual learner's experiences. These sort of instructional materials are generally considered as potential factors in the success of language learners. Those arguments have motivated the conduct of the current study to answer the following two questions; 1) *What factors de-motivate the development of the speaking skills of Indonesian EFL learners?*; and 2) *How do the implementation of interest based instructional materials (IBIM) develop the speaking skills?*

IBIM in the current study refer to learners' choice of everyday activities, unforgettable memories or experiences, hobbies, events, cultures, etc. that the learners are interested to talk about in English.

II. THE RESEARCH METHOD

The current study applied a longitudinal mixed-method research design. In the first phase of the study, a qualitative inquiry was employed to map de-motivating factors that was experienced by the EFL learners during their Speaking Classes by applying interview technique. Seliger and Shohamy (1990:160) argue that "in qualitative research the most typical interviews are those which are open, informal, and unstructured". Twenty students who enrolled in Speaking IV class, the last speaking class at the English Education Department, were trained to conduct the interview. The twenty students were trained to pronounce words correctly, to use the right intonation, and to speak in normal speed on the previously prepared questions. In addition, the purposes of the questions were discussed in Indonesian language so that the interviewers have the choice to mix or switch codes should there be any interviewees need explanation of the purpose of the questions in the native language. They were also trained to take note effectively on answers to the posed questions and to record the interviews. There were two main purposes of assigning the students to conduct the interview; the first purpose was to get them used to have conversation in English with other learners at the department informally so that English atmosphere among the English Education Department learners could be built up unconsciously. Selinger and Shohamy (1990: 161) argue that "an interview may resemble a conversation rather than an interview"; the second purpose was to avoid formal situation. Should I, as their lecturer, posed questions to the learners, the answers might be limited and consequently the data might not satisfy the purpose of the study. The twenty students were successful to interview 220 learners at the English Department. The collected data were tabulated and computed to find out frequency and percentage. The de-motivating factors were ranked from the most frequently experienced to the least ones.

The second phase of the study aimed to minimize the de-motivating factors in speaking as the follow up of the results of the first phase, and to improve the speaking ability of learners in the English Department. Intervention in the form of Classroom Action Research (CAR) design was conducted by following steps of the CAR; planning, acting, observing, and reflecting. Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) and Nunan (1992) argue that CAR design is used to overcome problems

and improve practices. The setting of the study was at the English Department, Tadulako university in Palu Central Sulawesi, Indonesia and the subject was a pre-existing group consisting of 40 EFL learners programming Speaking IV Class. The IBIM were planned and decided to be instructed during the cycles of the CAR. The criteria of success were set up as follows; 1) a learner was considered successful when speaking grade was equal to or higher than 75 (Speaking Grade is ≥ 75); and 2) there must be a minimum of 80% of the learners who achieved the grade of ≥ 75 . The collaborator in implementing the CAR was an English lecturer in the English Education Department.

The third phase of the study aimed to dig out potential factors of the implementation of IBIM that have affected the improvement of the speaking ability. Interview with five of the highest grade in the speaking ability after the intervention in cycle 2 was conducted. Five previously prepared question items were posed to each of the five learners.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The objectives of the current study were to map the de-motivating factors in speaking skills and to overcome speaking problems in Speaking Classes in EFL learning in Indonesian context. The collected data have been able to address the research questions. In one hand, it was noted that there were fifteen factors reported as the de-motivating factors in the development of the speaking skills in which five of them were reported to be the most frequently experienced factors. On the other hand, the intervention, where the IBIM were implemented, solved the speaking problems of the EFL learners. The findings and the discussion of the findings are discussed in detail in the following sections.

A. The De-motivating Factors in Indonesian EFL Learners' Speaking

The teaching of English in Indonesia is regarded as the teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL). English is taught formally from Junior high school to higher education levels at present (where previously before the 2012 academic year, English was formally taught in the elementary school). Therefore, when a learner attends university, the learner has studied English for at least six years (three years at junior high school and another three years at senior high school). At the university level, particularly in an English Education Department, the teaching of the language skills is prioritized in the first and the second academic years. Each of the language skills is divided into four grade and grade one is made as pre-requisite to next grade. For example, Speaking Class is divided into Speaking I, II, III, and IV. The Speaking I Class is pre-requisite to the Speaking II Class. In other words, a learner must pass the Speaking I Class so that Speaking II class can be programmed, and so forth.

Although an Indonesian learner has studied English for at least six years prior to attending university, his/her speaking skill is still limited. This limitation is also experienced by the learners who have programmed the Speaking Classes at the English Department. Therefore, the mapping of the de-motivating factors and the way to solve or minimize those factors are urgently needed. The present study reported that there were some factors that have impeded the development of the speaking skills.

Table 1 presents the results of the interviews followed by the frequency and the percentage of each the de-motivating factor as reported through the interviews. The de-motivating factors are ranked from the most frequently experienced to the least ones to allow the classification of the extreme factors that need to be solved immediately. The data in Table 1 show that there are fifteen factors impede the development of the speaking skills of the EFL learners. There were five out of the fifteen de-motivating factors reported to be the most frequently experienced by the learners; *Knowledge about topics in Speaking Classes*, *Fear of making mistakes*, *Lecturer doesn't use English all of the time*, *Feel shy to speak*, and *Lack of Practice*.

Knowledge about topics in the Speaking Classes was reported to be the most frequently experienced as de-motivating factors to develop the speaking skills. It is found out that there were 207 or 94.09% of the subjects reported that they faced problems about knowledge of the topics during the Speaking Classes. This report could be understood due to the fact that the topics in the Speaking Classes were just taken and based on the syllabus and course outline generated from the department curriculum. This kind of topics might not be familiar with the learners and consequently their background knowledge could not be used to facilitate the learning process. In other words, the class does not fulfill needs of the learners and it is not joyful.

This sort of condition could also be understood as the reason for reporting other factor as the de-motivating factors by the learners, for example factor no 6 (Lack of vocabulary), no. 9 (pronunciation problems), no. 11 (Lack of confidence), and no. 14 (Feel nervous to speak). The unfamiliarity of particular topics with learners' experiences affects the stock of vocabularies to be used to express feeling, ideas, and thoughts. This finding supports Basir at el. (2011) who suggest that the instructional materials are preferable the ones which are familiar with learners including the language instruction. The finding implies that language teachers considers learners needs and interests prior to deciding instructional materials and the topics found in the curriculum should be enriched by varying them with the topics accustomed to learners

TABLE I.
THE DEMOTIVATING FACTORS IN SPEAKING SKILLS

No	De-motivating Factors	Frequency	% (Percentage)
1	Knowledge about topics in the Speaking Classes	207	94.09
2	Fear of making mistakes	206	93.64
3	Use English by the lecturers	178	80.91
4	Feeling shy to speak	175	79.55
5	Lack of practice	175	79.55
6	Lack of Vocabulary	134	60.91
7	Lack of Grammar	123	55.91
8	Not accustomed to speak English	114	51.82
9	Pronunciation problems	104	47.27
10	Study habit	103	46.82
11	Lack of confidence	92	41.82
12	Not able to find anyone to speak English	85	38.64
13	Lack of motivation	70	31.82
14	Feeling nervous to speak	63	28.64
15	Speaking Environment	42	19.09

Fear of making mistakes was reported to be the second most frequently experienced as de-motivating factors. There were 206 or 93.64% of the subjects reported that they faced problems on fear of making mistakes during the Speaking Classes. This factor was reported in line with the focus of the teaching of English in most schools and universities in Indonesia where structure or grammar was the main focus of the teaching of English. In other words, emphasis is mostly paid on the correct use of patterns of the sentences when learners speak and consequently the context and the authentic use of the sentences are neglected. In addition, based on my experience and observation in teaching the Speaking Classes for several years in the English Department, most students pay more attention on the correct use of the sentence pattern instead of the fluency and the transfer of the information. This observed situation is in line with the reported factor no. 7 (Lack of Grammar) as the de-motivating factors in speaking.

It implies that during the Speaking Classes, learners pay more attention on the grammatically constructed sentences than the continuation of the talk. This finding is in line with Shen (2011) who reported that one of the factors impeded the improvement in the speaking ability was that the practices and activities provided did not facilitate authentic oral production. It implies that the teaching of speaking considers the speaking aspects, whether the teaching emphasize on fluency, accuracy, and comprehensibility or appropriateness, or is it advisable to put emphasis in the teaching on the fluency and comprehensibility first, or even only put emphasis on fluency first, and later on followed by accuracy? Further research is advisable to be conducted regarding this speaking aspects division.

The use of English by the lecturers was reported to be the third most frequently experienced as de-motivating factors. There were 178 or 80.91% of the subjects reported that the lecturer did not use English all of the time during the Speaking Classes. The choice of the topic to be taught in the speaking classes, as has been previously discussed as the most de-motivating factors, led the lecturers to explain the topics instead of assigning learners to use expressions in real context. The explanation has sometimes forced the lecturers to use Indonesian language to ensure the learners' understanding of the topics. Consequently, the speaking classes were taught improperly where most of the time was occupied by the lecturer. This time occupation, certainly, opened up wider possibilities to switch and mix codes in the lecturers' side.

This is in line with the fifth most de-motivating factors, *Lack of practice*, to be discussed after the following paragraph. This findings support Soureshjani and Riahipour (2012) and argument on the de-motivating factors in speaking. They reported that teachers, peers, materials were the factors impeding speaking skills development. Teachers and peers reactions during the class on learner answers or responses diminished motivation. In addition, they also reported the selection of the instructional materials which were mostly not related to the learners' daily life discouraged active participation of the learners. These findings imply that language teachers use simple and frequently used expressions instead of switching and mixing codes in the Speaking Classes.

Feel shy to speak was reported to be the fourth most frequently experienced as de-motivating factors in speaking. There were 175 or 79.55% of the subjects reported that they felt shy to speak during the Speaking Classes. English was rarely spoken in learners' everyday life. It could be argued that the subjects of the study only used English when they were in the classroom. They were rarely heard speaking English outside the classroom, let alone in a public places. This sort of condition contributed to the shyness of the EFL learners in the present study. The feeling of being shy to speak was in line with the de-motivating factor No. 1 (Knowledge about the topics in the Speaking Classes) that limited the understanding and knowledge of the topics.

There is no doubt at all that learners are not confident to speak or to involve in a discussion whenever they are not sure of the topic. In addition, the setting of the study is also rarely visited by native speakers of English and therefore it affects oral skills of the learners. The solution to this kind of problems have been propose by Richard and Rodger (2014) dealing with instructional materials. They suggested that language teachers adjusted instructional materials so that the instructional materials were better understood and consequently encouraged active participation of the learners. This suggestion is also supported by Shen (2011) proposing the use of authentic language. The authentic use of language

allows learners to frequently use the expression in their daily lives and consequently it contributes to the improvement in the speaking ability.

Lack of practice was reported to be the fifth most frequently experienced as de-motivating factors in speaking. There were 175 or 79.55% of the subjects reported that they lacked of practice during the speaking class. The size of Speaking Classes became one of the problems for long time in the provision of speaking activities in the setting of the present study. The Speaking Classes were mostly large size where there were between 30 and 45 learners. This size certainly hindered the possibility to assign individual students to practice speaking activities at an agreeable amount of time or if it was likely to practice the activities individually, the time might be limited. More importantly, the technique of choosing the instructional materials which was based on the syllabus or course outline limited the knowledge of the students about the topics, so the speaking activities just seemed to be memorizing sentences or expressions instead of expressing feeling or ideas in the real situation. Consequently, authentic use of English was rarely performed and the time consuming could not be avoided for the preparation of the learners' presentation. This time consuming was observed during the speaking class when learners were assigned to present topics in our previous Speaking Classes in the English Department. The learners tended to write the whole expressions to be presented instead of preparing clue.

This de-motivating factor was contributed to the existence of the previously discussed factors, feel shy to speak. Being shy to speak was seen to be the results of writing the whole expressions because what the learners were doing during the presentation was not speaking but the learners reading what have been written down. The results were of course not satisfying and the speaking habit in the classroom was not built up. This is in line with Harmer's (2007) argument that active participation in form of speaking practices contributed to creation of speaking culture. The creation of speaking culture in the classroom overcomes and minimizes the de-motivating factors such as feeling shy to speak and lack of practices.

The findings of the first phase imply that the five most de-motivating factors, the problems faced during the Speaking Classes, should be minimized so that improvement in the speaking ability can be achieved. This purpose is addressed in the second phase of the study where intervention in CAR design was conducted. The results of the intervention are presented and discussed in the following sections.

B. Improvement in Speaking Ability

To address the second objective of the study, to minimize and to solve the speaking problems, an intervention in the form of CAR was conducted to a group of 40 EFL learners at the English Education Department, Tadulako University, Palu in Indonesia. The intervention employed CAR design conducted in two cycles. Prior to the intervention in Cycle 1, a pretest was conducted to measure the speaking ability of the learners. Each learner was assigned to speak any topics for at least three minutes and other learners were assigned to pose questions around the presented topics. The score was given based on the length of the presentation, fluency, and the ability to answer the posed question. In other words, the score is only based on the fluency and the comprehensibility. The criteria of success were set up as has been described in the previous section. The result of the pretest is presented in Table II.

TABLE II

Cycle	Score			
	<75	%	≥75	%
Pretest	30	75	10	25

The data in the table shows that there are 30 out of 40 or 75% of the learners did not achieve the set up criteria. The data revealed that only 10 out of 40 or 25% of the learners got grade ≥ 75 . The results of the pretest implies that there are problems in the Speaking Classes. Therefore intervention in the form of CAR was planned where the intervention was based on the findings of the first phase of the current study, addressing the demotivating factors. Since the most frequently reported as de-motivating factor was Knowledge about topics in the Speaking Classes, it was planned to implement IBIM in Cycle 1.

1. The results of intervention in Cycle 1

The intervention in cycle 1 was initiated by *planning* phase. In the planning phase, it was decided that the learners were free to choose a topic based on their interests. Then, the learners who have the same or similar interests were assigned into a group. At the end of the planning phase, the students were grouped into five. So there were maximum eight learners in each group. Each group chose and decided one of the most interesting topic out of the topics chosen by each learner in a group. After deciding the topic for each group, the learners were assigned to discuss and prepare for presentation. At this phase, the discussion was facilitated by moving and asking learners' problems. In the *acting* phase, each member of the group presented the chosen topic. The scoring system was based on three aspects; first, on the length of the talk; second, on the fluency to express the topic; and third, on the ability to respond questions from the classmates. These types of assessment were chosen, instead of administering formal assessment, to avoid being under the pressure during the presentation. Each member of the group presented the topic for at least three minutes and then followed by question and answer. The results of Cycle 1 are described in Table III.

TABLE III
THE RESULTS OF CYCLE 1

Cycle	Score			
	<75	%	≥75	%
Cycle 1	13	43.3	27	67.5

In the *reflecting* phase it was noted the results of Cycle 1 has not met the set up criteria although improvement in the achievement was proven. It was noted that there were only 27 out of 40 or 67.5% of the learners met the set-up criteria. It implies that revised plan is needed and therefore intervention in Cycle 2 has to be conducted. The contents of the revised plan for Cycle 2 were based on the results of the reflection of Cycle 1 and that notes taken by the observer.

2. The Results of the Intervention in Cycle 2

The conduct of Cycle 2 was initiated by revising the plan based on the results of Cycle 1. The results of Cycle 1 revealed that there was a problem faced by some learners during the presentation session. The problem was unfamiliarity with the used terms in the topic. The problem occurred due to the fact that the chosen topic to be presented was only based on the topic chosen by the majority of the group members. In other words, the topic was not the one chosen by particular learner. This technique might have discouraged particular member of the group to express the topic since it was not the one in which she or he was interested in. For example the group that chose *Sport* as a topic. Particular members were interested in *badminton* but others were interested in *swimming* and *football*. The difference in the kind of sports as the interest of different members of the group obliged the group members to find out terms based on the decided topics for the group which was not helpful for other members of the group. This implies that work in group is not fruitful due to different terms used in different kind of sports. This problem was taken into account and consequently, the revised plan was designed based on the individual topic of interest. The learners were not assigned to work in group any longer, each learner had to choose and prepare a topic of his/her interest instead. The learners were assigned to prepare for the presentation by making clue. The scoring techniques were the same as the ones employed in Cycle 1. The results of the intervention in cycle 2 are described in Table IV.

TABLE IV
THE RESULTS OF CYCLE 2

Cycle	Score			
	<75	%	≥75	%
Cycle 2	4	10	36	90

In the reflecting phase of Cycle 2, it was noted that the results of the intervention have fulfilled the set-up criteria. There were 36 out of 40 or 90% of the learners achieved the grade of higher than or equal to 75. It shows that there is 22.5% improvement from Cycle 1 to Cycle 2. It implies that there is no need to move to the next cycle.

The results of the intervention in the two cycles indicate that even though the chosen topics are similar from one learner to others, fluency in speaking is not guaranteed. It implies that it is better for individual learner to choose particular topic instead of assigning a group to decide and choose a topic. However, an account must be taken on the contribution of working in a group prior to assigning individual presentation. By working in a group confidence might be built up due to the possibility to get acquainted with each other and more opportunities to practice for individual learner. The possibility to get more chance to practice in the group brings about more support and advice from other members of the group and more importantly working in a group provides assistance to recall particular words and their pronunciation if an individual learner gets stuck during the group practice. The improvement achieved from Cycle 1 to Cycle 2 is graphed in Figure 1.

Figure 1 indicates that there is an increase in the number of the learners who fulfilled the set-up criteria from cycle 1 to cycle 2. The increase in the number of the learners who met the criteria was from 27 to 36 or 67.5% to 90% of the learners. This improvement shows that the implementation of IBIM, both when learners work in group or individually, improves achievement in speaking. In other words, the de-motivating factors in speaking can be minimized or solved by choosing instructional materials that are based on the needs and interest of the learners. This result supports Richard's (2001) argument on the formulation of instructional objectives in which he highlights that the instructional objectives are formulated based on the results of the needs analysis. It is also in line with Ellis (2003) highlighting the selection of the instructional materials are based on the area of interest. More importantly, technique in the assignment of the learners to first work in group followed by individual work supports Richard and Rodgers (2014) opinion on the importance of method in the teaching learning process.

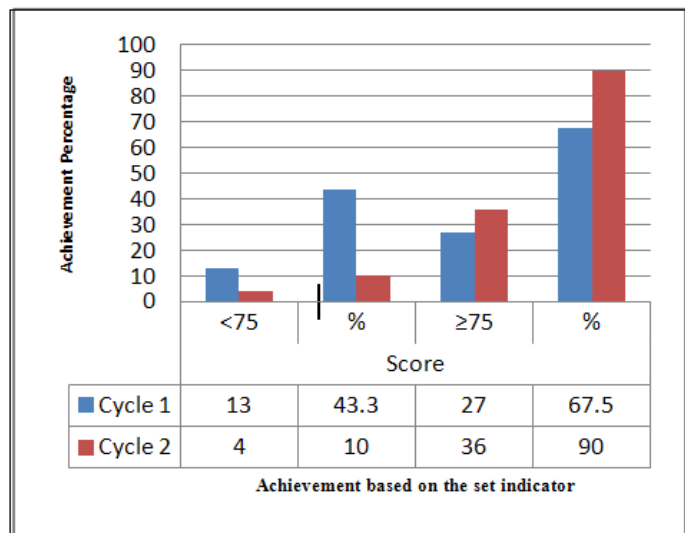


Figure 1. Comparison of the achievement in Cycle 1 and 2

The implementation of IBIM contributes to improvement in speaking ability. The results of the intervention in Cycle 1, as the improvement from the results of the pretest, shows the affect of the IBIM in group, and the improvement in speaking in Cycle 2 shows the affect of IBIM individually. The increases in the improvement from Pretest, Cycle 1, to Cycle 2 are graphed in Figure 2. It is figured out that the increase in the number of learners who met the criteria is higher from the pretest results to the results of Cycle 1 (42.50%) than from the results of Cycle 1 to the results of Cycle 2 (22.50%). The figure indicates that the IBIM are able to cope with speaking problems. In other words, the implementation of the IBIM minimizes the de-motivating factors in speaking skills both in group and individual learning mode. The implementation of IBIM in group facilitates the speaking practice where each member has sufficient time to participate during the discussion and as a result speaking culture is actualized in the classroom (Harmer, 2007).

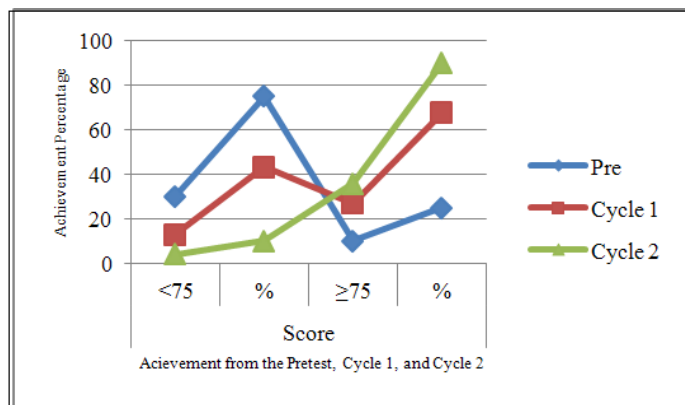


Figure 2. Improvement from the pretest, Cycle 1, to Cycle 2

More importantly, the identified de-motivating factors in the first phase of the current study such as feel shy to speak, lack of practice, not accustomed to speak English, lack of confidence, can't find anyone to speak English, feel nervous to speak, and environment does not support are overcome. Individual work mode allows individual learners to practice as frequently and as long as it is needed which in turns provide learners with opportunities to authentic use of expressions or sentences (Shen, 2013). The improvement implies that oral language improvement or development is facilitated by the instructional materials and the teaching methods. The combination of these two components brings about effective teaching (Richard and Rodgers, 2014). The effective teaching is certainly conducted should language teachers undergo their vital roles properly during the pre-teaching phase, while teaching (pre activities, while activities, and post activities), and post teaching.

C. *The Potential Factors of the IBIM in Affecting Speaking Improvement*

The implementation of the IBIM during the intervention in Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 have minimized the de-motivating factors in speaking that is proven by the increase in the achievement both in Cycle 1, where the learners worked in group, and in Cycle 2, where the learners worked individually. The third phase of the study is to find out how IBIM minimizes the de-motivating factors and overcome problems in speaking. The potential factors in the implementation of the IBIM that contributed to the improvement in the ability to speak were reported through interviews conducted with

five of the highest grade learners in speaking after the completion of the intervention in Cycle 2. The results of the interviews indicated that there were five potential factors of the IBIM that contributed to the development of the speaking skills and thus minimize the de-motivational factors during the speaking class. The five potential factors are described as follows:

1. Activating Previous Knowledge

Teaching techniques require learning process to activate learners' previous knowledge in order that the learners have good basic on the planned instructional materials. It has long been practiced that teaching learning process is started by pre-activities where teacher poses questions to students related to what they have learned and what will be learned in a particular lesson. The IBIM are in fact help learners to activate their previous knowledge. The previous knowledge was reported to enrich vocabularies of learners when they intend to express feelings, ideas and thought.

The activation of previous knowledge enables learners to choose words or expressions that have been familiar to them and available in their repertoire. The results of the interview with Learner A revealed that the implementation of the IBIM allowed the learners to choose topics that have been familiar with them. It implies that the topics have been frequently discussed in his daily lives, so they are easily recalled when the presentation time is called. For example Learner (A) expressed that *When I chose the topic I am interested in to be presented, I remember what I have done before when I was doing the presentation.* This idea is also supported by Learner (B) who said that *I remember the words ... and I used the words because I know the topic before.* Learners (C) reported *I have used the words and the sentences in my daily activities so I get easy during the presentation.* This response is also supported by Learner (D) stating that *Words I know before help me to do the presentation.* Learner (E) reported *when the topic is familiar, I can remember it when I do presentation.* In sum, the use of IBIM allows the learners to activate their previous knowledge that enormously helps them during the presentation in the Speaking Class. It implies that the instructional materials should not only be based on the available syllabus but it should also be directly related to the real situation and context.

2. Building up Learners' Belief

Learners' belief and teachers' belief have long been investigated in language learning. Some researchers reported that belief influences success of learners. It was reported that the use of the IBIM built up learners' belief in expressing feeling, ideas, and thought. A familiar topic to be discussed and presented particularly when the topic was chosen by the learners themselves ensures them to be able to present the topic due to the fact that they have got familiar words and sentences. Learner (A) reported that *When we were assigned to decide our topic, I believe I will be success, because I will choose the topic that I know.* Learner (B) revealed that *I am happy that we choose topic to discuss in group and then individual. I believe to work in group first will help me in individual work.* Learner (C) on the other hand reported about the lecturer saying that *I believe the lecturer ask us to work in group so that we can support each other...* and learner (D) support the opinion of Learner (C) highlighting the role of the lecturer stating that *the lecturer method support my ability to do presentation.* Learner (E) argued the topic by saying *I say to myself, I know the topic and I want to talk about it. I believed I can express.* In brief, the implementation of the IBIM builds up learners' belief in their ability to do presentation in the Speaking Class. Therefore, it would be more challenging should instructional materials are more prioritized that the choice of instructional method during the pre-teaching phase.

3. Changing the role of Lecturer

Modern teaching-learning processes argues role of teachers. Traditional teaching believes that the teachers are the only source of knowledge. On the other hand, modern teaching learning process opens up wider sources of knowledge and as a result role of teachers is altered from teacher to facilitator. The implementation of the IBIM changes the role of the teacher as reported by the learners as follows. Learner (A) revealed that *In this kind of teaching, the lecturers facilitate us in the discussion and not only teach us anymore.* In addition Learner (B) states that *the present of the lecturer to our group allow us to hold discussion longer because he guide us.* More Importantly, Learner (C) reported that *the lecturer in my class before only teaches expressions and we memorize the expressions, so I forget.* Learner (D) argues that *the techniques of the lecturer make us free to develop our own sentences based on group and individual.* While Learner (E) support Learner (A) and (C) stating that *I like the way the teacher ask me to choose the topic. He came to group when we discussed. He encourages us.* In sum, the implementation of IBIM allows teaching flexibility where the role of the lecturers in the Speaking Class is altered based on the classroom atmosphere. It implies that language teachers should dig out learners' needs and interests and use them as guide to select and organize instructional materials.

4. Grouping technique

Group and individual work have been adapted interchangeably in the teaching learning process nowadays. Some teachers employ group work when the size of the class is large, some other employ individual work to build up and promote autonomous learning. In the current study both group and individual works were employed. The learners believed that the employment of group work preceded individual work provided them more opportunities to practice and got more chance to get acquainted with their classmates where this acquaintance allowed them to know each other and as a result group member supported each other. This support build up self-confidence to speak that encourages individual learner to do his or her presentation. Learner (A) argues that *grouping based on interest is good. We practice a lot in group.* Learner (B) states that *group work based on our interest make discussion continued, we use words we know to practice.* Learner (C) *When the lecturer divided us to group, it could familiarize each member of group to each*

other. This group work helped us not be shy to each other. The assignment of the learners into group first and the freedom to decide the major topic to discuss enable each member of the group to better know each other and consequently support each other during the presentation. More importantly, after getting well acquainted in a group, each member of the group is more confident in doing the individual presentation. They believe that each member of the group is willing to assist them. Learner (D) states *in the next presentation when I chose my own topic I can practice individually and ask something I don't know to my group*. In addition, Learner (E) felt the support of the member of the group saying *My group supports me when I present my own topic. I feel OK in individual presentation*. In sum, it is noted that grouping based on the interest provides more opportunities for the group member to help each other due to the fact that they almost all get familiar with the terms used and needed. More importantly, the previously assignment of the learners into group encouraged each member of the group to work individually for they have got acquainted with each other. It implies that the grouping technique in Speaking Classes can be based on the interest in the instructional materials and is not necessarily based on the performance level or gender based as has commonly been practiced in teaching learning process.

5. Choosing Topic Technique

The technique in deciding the topic to be presented in the speaking class provide the students with chances to speak so that practices can be autonomously conducted and consequently confidence in expressing feeling, ideas, and thoughts are built up. The more the practices the better the confidence to speak and certainly being confident minimizes feeling of being ashamed and as a result speaking atmosphere is attained. Learner (A) argued that *I am glad when the lecturer asked us to choose our own topic, I can practice myself before I join my group*. Learner (B) reported *I have more confidence to speak because I know the topic. It helped me to get confidence and not to be shy*. The assignment of the learners to work in groups before doing individual presentation motivated learners to work individually. It implies that not only does the choice of the instructional topics that motivate learners to speak but also the assignment of the learners into group of the same interest in the first cycle of the intervention. Learner (C) *I never feel confident to speak English, I got shy. But the topic and the group work help me a lot. We discuss and talk the same thing*. Learner (E) *I practice more myself at home, I talked in my group, because I know the topic. My friends help me to speak English*. In sum, the technique to choose the topic for group work, that is based on the group interest, and then followed by the individual choice of a learner interest encourage the learners to speak and at the same time these techniques, the grouping and the assignment of the topic, minimize the de-motivating factors identified in the current study. It implies that Speaking Class atmosphere is not only influenced by the language teachers and the chosen methods, it is also affected by the assignment of the learners to choose instructional topics.

IV. CONCLUSION

Needs and interest of learners are two important factors in planning instructional materials to improve speaking ability. The insertion of those two components in the planning stage of teaching motivates and encourages learners to actively participate in teaching learning process. The active participation of the learners diminishes factors that negatively affect the speaking ability. The findings of the current study reveal that there are fifteen factors that have demotivated learners to speak in which the most de-motivating one is *knowledge about the topics*. The study investigated a technique that could minimize the de-motivating factors. The findings suggest that the implementation of IBIM overcomes the speaking problems and improves the speaking ability. The findings imply that the topics for the Speaking Classes outlined in the curriculum/syllabus may be enriched by assigning instructional materials that have been familiar with learners for this kind of materials motivate learners to learn and consequently improve achievement in Speaking Classes. The implementation of IBIM is found to be able to activate the learners' prior knowledge and to build up the learners' belief and self-confidence.

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On Development History of Australia's Language Policy and the Enlightenment to China's Foreign Language Education*

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Abstract—As is well-known, Australia is the first English country to officially make and efficiently carry out multi-lingual and plural culture in the world, whose language education policy has been highly spoken of by most linguists and politicians in the world in terms of the formulation and implementation. By studying such items as affecting factors, development history, implementing strategies of Australian language education policy under the background of multiculturalism, researchers can get a clue of the law of development of the language education policy in the developed countries and even the world. To be specific, through studying the development history of Australian language education policy under the background of multiculturalism, the paper puts forward some enlightenment and presents some advice on the China's foreign language education.

Index Terms—development history, language policy, enlightenment, China's foreign language education

I. INTRODUCTION

Australia has a complicated population compared with other countries in the world, which is made up of the indigenous people, the immigrants and the settler group. In this case, Australia is a multilingual and multicultural country, with English being the official language. Meanwhile, many kinds of minority languages such as immigrant languages and aboriginal languages are coexisting. In order to coordinate different languages harmoniously, Australia officially issued *National Policy on Languages (NPL)* as the first authorized language policy of the country in 1987. The goals of NPL include the following three: the first, all Australians enjoy high standards of Australian English; the second, all Australians enjoy bilingualism; finally, all immigrant languages and aboriginal languages will be accepted as unique heritages of Australia which are irreplaceable and worthwhile of preservation. Australia's language policy under the background of multiculturalism is worth studying for the good of China's foreign language education.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Multiculturalism is the existence of multiple cultural traditions within a single nation, usually considered in terms of the culture associated with an aboriginal ethnic group and foreigner ethnic groups. Although multiculturalism was firstly presented in Canada, it gained rapid development in Australia as a governmental policy. Neil Bissoondath (2002) states that multiculturalism became an official national policy in 1971 so that the government could build up a harmonious coexistence of different groups. In Australia, multiculturalism policy was first raised up during Whitlam's Administration (1972-1975), and formally came into being during Fraser's Administration (1975-1983). During Hawke's administration, it became the national policy of Australia to deal with ethnic cultural diversity. Later on, it was continuously improved during Keating's Administration (1991-1996) and Howard's (1996-2008).

As a matter of fact, before the 1970s, Australia's language policy has been one important part of the nation's immigration policy, with language linking with ethnic relations, culture and immigration. For this reason, many scholars have taken great efforts to study different stages of Australian language policies like *White Australia Policy* and *Multicultural Policy*. Representative figures include Michael Clyne, Helen Moore and D. E. Ingram, as well as Joseph Lo Bianco, the author of *National Policy on Languages (NPL)*. Some of them adopt a documentary method by analyzing strategies for language policy planning, by providing goal-setting in specified language policy, and by studying specific language planning contexts on a historical basis. Some make comparisons between different policy texts, trying to find clues for better improvement. Others present an assessment of language policy documents, finding out the political implications and existing problems. The interaction between ethnicity and language policy has long been a hot topic in Australia in terms of language policy. In *The Politics of Language in Australia*, Uldis Ozolins (1993) studies the interplay between ethnicity, politics and language from the end of WWII to the beginning of 1990s in

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Australia. In *From Policy to Language Planning: An Overview of Language Other Than in Australia Education*, Djite (1994) analyzes languages other than English in Australia. And in *Australian Policy Activism in Language and Literacy*, Lo Bianco and Wickert (2001) presents introspection for language policy of Australia.

Domestic researches are relatively few and late. Professor Liu Rushan and Liu Jinxia (2003) divides the development history of Australian language policy into 3 stages: the first one is named as free period (1788-1900) in which English is the mainstream over other subordinating languages; the second one is assimilation period (1901-1970); and the third one is known as period of multiculturalism (1970-). Professor Wang Binhua (2003) specifically studies the bilingual education implemented in Australia Benowa State High School with a detailed record of process, results and assessment. Wang Hui (2010) presents a detailed analysis of the development history of Australia's language policy and further puts forward some advice for Chinese language education, in his *A Study on Language Policy in Australia*, the first domestic monograph about Australian language policy.

III. DEVELOPMENT HISTORY OF AUSTRALIA'S LANGUAGE POLICIES

The Australian language policies have went through three distinct stages of evolution together with cultural policies. The following is the detailed description of the three stages.

The first stage is called assimilation (1901-1960s). During this period, the Australian government held that immigrants and indigenous people did harm to the national identity and security. And Australian government adopted assimilation policy towards other non-English languages, with an aim to force the indigenous people, the immigrants and the settler groups to give up their native languages and culture and to learn the language and culture of white Australian. *White Australia Policy* was prevailing at that time. Under this circumstance, non-English languages failed to enjoy respect and emphasis. In order to adapt themselves to the mainstream society of Australia, indigenous people and the immigrants had to learn English hard. And as a matter of fact, since 1901, English had been the only language used in Australian schools. Thus, in late 1900s, rich Chinese families sent their children back to China to study more Chinese culture before going back to Australia to study in schools run by white Australian. Assimilation policy had been carried out for so long a time that it caused negative effect on the development of Australian culture and language. What is worse is that social stability and unity between different groups of people had been undermined to a certain degree. Some kinds of languages used by indigenous people were gradually becoming extinct, so that in some places assimilation policy was strongly opposed by indigenous people. This kind of situation did obviously harm to the country's development. And in early 1970s, the multiculturalism was first introduced so that Australian government gradually realized that non-English languages and English must coexist and develop together.

The second stage is called "integration" (mid 1960s-1972). Since the beginning of 1960s, colonial and semi-colonial nations have become independent one after another. And there was a severe criticism from the world opinion, which made the *White Australia Policy* difficult to continue. Meanwhile, Australia had to give up the *White Australia Policy* for economic reasons. China had become Australia's main export trade partner since 1960s. But Chinese was still under discrimination by the *White Australia Policy*. Aiming to establish good rapport with China, Australia had to do something. Because of these reasons, the Australian government finally decided to abate the *White Australia Policy* in the early 1970s. And since the mid-1970s, there was an international change that equality and human rights had been greatly concerned. Language policies in Australia stressed the integration instead of the assimilation, advocating language diversity and cultural diversity rather than unity, respecting various values, and setting immigration policies of non-discrimination.

The third stage is called "multiculturalism" (1970-). The idea of multiculturalism was firstly introduced to Australia since the early 1970s. Since then, Australian people had gradually become aware of the vital importance of diverse culture and foreign languages. And the government began to adopt a lot of policies to encourage the study of foreign languages from 1970s to 1980s. Finally, in April 1987, the Commonwealth's Department of Education issued the first official language policy in Australia, *National Policy on Languages (NPL)* written by Prof. Joseph Lo Bianco. *NPL* includes the following 3 points: the first, all Australians have the equal right to enjoy high standards of Australian English; the second, all Australians have the equal right to enjoy bilingualism; the third, all immigrant languages and aboriginal languages will be accepted as unique heritages of Australia which are irreplaceable and worthwhile of preservation. From *NPL*, it can be seen clearly that Australia acknowledges English's status as their national language, stresses the bilingual education and protects the aboriginal language and culture at the same time. The central essence of *NPL* has perfectly solved the old problems, pointing out a correct direction for Australia's foreign language education to develop. As an epoch-making education achievement in Australia, *NPL* is beneficial for the nation to make the best use of language resources available, to strengthen the intellectual and cultural diversity, and to preserve languages of various ethnic groups.

IV. CHARACTERISTICS OF AUSTRALIA'S LANGUAGE POLICY

In general, Australia has a lot for us to learn in terms of language policy making, for example, advocating multiculturalism, stressing language's economic value, focusing on education planning, emphasizing teachers' training and increasing education investment, etc. But the paper only analyzes characteristics of Australia's language policy

mainly in the following 4 aspects: education planning, curriculum design and implementation, teachers' training, as well as education investment.

1. Education Planning:

First of all, the policy planning of foreign language education in Australia is obligatory, which means that Australia's foreign language education policy is issued as a national policy, publicized by the government education department to the whole country. In addition, the policy planning of foreign language in Australia is on a long-term basis, which means that it is designed so as to meet the demand of national economic development. For instance, because since the 1960s Australia had kept a much closer trade cooperation with Asia countries like China and Japan than with the American and European countries, Australia redesigned its foreign language education policy so as to create a larger export markets in Asia for economic interest. The new foreign language education policy specified that all middle-school students began being encouraged to learn history, culture and language of Asian countries especially China and Japan and that the government choose those who have talents in this field for special training, which is vital for the trade cooperation and diplomatic affairs.

What's more, Australian government attaches great importance to foreign language education by setting up special committees in charge of the management of the foreign education affairs, such as *Australian Language and Culture Committee*, *Australian Union and Asia Research Committee*. These committees are designed to have clear purpose respectively, being supposed to assist Australian government to make effective foreign language education policy so as to promote Australia's multi-development of foreign language education, which lays a solid foundation for Australia's success and reputation of policy-making of foreign language education in the world.

2. Curriculum Design and Implementation:

Besides foreign language education policy planning, Australia also has some good experience worthwhile of learning for us in the aspect of curriculum design and implementation, which promotes the rapid development of its foreign language education. Australia's foreign language curriculum design is more advantageous over that of China. Being comparatively more flexible with more diverse content, Australia's foreign language courses are composed of selective courses and compulsory courses. Diverse and rich content of selective courses grant the students more autonomy so that they can arrange their learning in a flexible way based on their interest and ability. Such a flexible and effective curriculum design will certainly promote Australia's foreign language education. In addition, in Australia, the implementation of foreign language curriculum is also flexible and natural. To be more specific, Australia's foreign language education adopts proper curriculum, flexible teaching approaches, as well as free classroom atmosphere.

3. Teachers' Training

Regarding the quality of the foreign language teachers as the key element for foreign language education quality, Australia attaches great significance to the development of foreign language teachers by making specific education policy for foreign language teachers, and providing a lot of opportunities for teachers' training. For example, in the beginning of 1990s, with a view to meeting the great challenges that face Australia's foreign language teacher training in the 21st century, Australian government adopted a specific project for training high-quality teachers of foreign language, by allocating 2 million Australian dollars as the funding of federal department of education to help teachers improve their professional development.

4. Education Investment:

Australian government has long been emphasizing the education investment. Even in each state of Australia, there is a funding plan for foreign language education. Take the state of Victoria for instance, the education employment training department sets a funding plan of foreign language and Asian language to sustain Asian languages education and training in all schools. By enough funding, the schools can perfect the teaching conditions and buy enough teaching resources so that not only the teachers' professional development is dramatically promoted but also the efficiency of students' learning foreign language is greatly improved.

V. ENLIGHTENMENT TO CHINA'S FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

By analyzing the characteristics of Australia's foreign language education, we can get some clues that are beneficial to our Chinese foreign language education as follows.

First, Australia establishes specific committees to research the foreign language education, welcoming advice from people all walks of life. And that is why Australia gains success and reputation in its foreign language education in the world. But in contrast, China has never ever established any specialized committee or institution in charge of the management of the foreign language education, and in fact, China's foreign language education has been run by the Ministry of Education for so many years, only to make hasty decisions or issue inconsistent policies. Therefore, it is time that Chinese government established specialized and authorized foreign language education committees or institutions in charge of overall plan for all levels of foreign language education in China.

Second, in China, the foreign language curriculum, set by the Ministry of Education, is inflexible, which leaves no room for provinces, educators, schools and teachers to choose, while the foreign language curriculum in Australia is diversified so that the states, the schools and the teachers can make a choice about what policy to adopt, which textbook to use or what kind of content to teach. Thus, it's time that Chinese government made foreign language curriculum flexible and diverse, granted every province more rights to choose textbooks and design curriculums based on the

specific situations, granted schools more right to choose textbooks, and granted teachers more right to conduct activities in foreign language teaching. What's more, in China, the Ministry of Education has been aware of the significance of curriculum implementation and has issued certain policies trying to solve the problem in vain. But in contrast, Australia's foreign language curriculum implementation is effective and successful with free and active class atmosphere, which is good for foreign language education. Thus, we need absorb the good experience of how Australia's curriculum is carried out. And meanwhile, we need to be aware that the examination-oriented education is still prevailing in China, although the Ministry of Education has made great efforts to rectify it. Under the great pressure of different kinds of examinations, schools and teachers focus on students' examination grades instead of their language competence. In China's foreign language education, chances are that the teachers mechanically ask students to memorize a lot of vocabulary, grammatical points, and sentence patterns only to get high scores in exams, failing to provide them for opportunities to speak or listen to the foreign language. Therefore, it is high time that examination-oriented education was eliminated thoroughly and the implementation of the curriculum was conducted under strict monitor.

Finally, Chinese government does not allocate special fund for foreign language teachers to pursue advanced studies so that most foreign language teachers in China have little chance to improve their teaching skills by further studying teaching theory. But in contrast, Australian education department attaches great significance to teachers' training and constantly increases education investment in foreign language teaching so that the foreign language teachers in Australia improve their professional development a lot while foreign language teachers in China are poor in quality and educational background. Thus, it is high time that China's Ministry of Education set up a system of foreign language teachers training and increased education investment for our foreign language teachers to improve their professional development, which will definitely do good to China's foreign language education.

VI. CONCLUSION

In sum, Australia does a good job in making and planning foreign language education policy so that its foreign language education has in turn promoted its social, economic and diplomatic development. And for China's foreign language education, Australia's advanced and effective experience is worth learning and imitating. Generally speaking, Chinese government needs to do the following to improve its foreign language education: first of all, reconsidering the foreign language education from a strategic height so as to maintain an overall planning; second, setting up ideas of multi-development in foreign language education so as to take a global view; third, considering the requirement and need of foreign language education with a view to developing our society, economy and international cooperation; fourth, making further scientific research in making foreign language policy while being open to any advice and opinions from all sectors of society; fifth, increase the status of minority languages other than English so as to develop more languages for trade use; sixth, develop our foreign language education in a reasonable and constant way so as to provide a healthy atmosphere for our foreign language education. And in the implementation of the foreign language policy, our government should first decide which language should be put in the first place in order to promote China's development better and faster, grant more rights to provinces and schools as well as teachers who teach foreign language, stress more on teachers' training, change from exam-oriented education to quality-oriented education so as to improve students' comprehensive competence in foreign language. Only with overall consideration and reasonable planning as well as more effective and constant policies can China improve its foreign language education.

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An Investigation into Objective-based English Listening and Speaking Instruction

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Abstract—Based on the theories of instructional objectives, this research investigates the current situation of teachers' attitude toward objectives, how English teachers design objectives and how they facilitate the attainment of objectives in College English listening and speaking class. This research aims to arouse teachers' awareness of objectives in College English listening and speaking classroom instruction and restate the importance of objectives for effective instruction. Meanwhile, the investigation also aims to presents problems existing in teachers' professional competence, especially in objective design before class and promotion in classroom instruction to provide clues for teachers' professional development.

Index Terms—objectives, College English, listening and speaking instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

Background

In 2015, the Steering Committee for College English Instruction of the Colleges and Universities, Chinese Ministry of Education released a draft of the *College English Instruction Guide*, which proposes the general objective of College English course is to develop students' integral competence, enhance their inter-cultural awareness and develop their social abilities. Meanwhile, English courses aim to develop students' autonomous learning ability and improve their comprehensive culture accomplishments.

The key to realize the target is the enhancement of the effectiveness of College English instruction. English listening and speaking, as two basic and required skills, play important roles in College English classroom instruction. However, English listening and speaking competence has been a relative weakness for non-English major students. Although much improvement has been made in College English instruction, the effectiveness and quality of the instruction in College English have been improved as a whole, the phenomenon of low effective or ineffective instruction still exist.

There are many factors influencing the effectiveness of instruction. Objective is a key factor. Bloom, an Educational Psychologist in United States has said "effective instruction begins with clearly knowing what the instructional objective is." Objective "explicit formulations of the ways in which students are expected to be changed by the educative process" (Bloom, 1956, p.26).

Therefore, there is a profound significance to conduct a research from the perspective of objectives in College English listening and speaking. In order to know how objectives influence the effect of the instruction of College English listening and speaking, the research will be carried out to explore the current situation of teachers' design of objectives and how these objectives are achieved during the process of classroom instruction. Therefore, there is a profound significance to conduct a research from the perspective of objectives in College English listening and speaking. In order to know how objectives influence the effect of the instruction of College English listening and speaking, the research will be carried out to explore the current situation of teachers' design of objectives and how these objectives are achieved during the process of classroom instruction. The study will be carried out in a mixed research method to explore the effectiveness of the instruction in College English classroom through three questions as following: 1) What is the College English teachers' views on classroom instructional objective? 2) How is the current situation of teachers' designing of objectives? 3) How are these objectives achieved during the process of classroom instruction?

General Ideas of Objectives

To be effective in class, we must have direction and purpose. For example, we want to focus on listening and speaking skills in college English class. Our task would then be to decide on the specific learning activities that will lead to the attainment of this goal. Therefore, listening and speaking as two broad skills would be integrated into course content and related specific objectives.

Indeed, it is Ralph W. Tyler (1949/2014) who puts forward the concept of objective for evaluation of education. According to Tyler, educational objectives "represent the kinds of changes in behavior that an education institution seeks to bring about in its students (Tyler, 2014, p. 101)." Influenced by Tyler's idea, experts began to explore objectives. Among which, Bloom's Taxonomy is the most impacted theory. Research on objectives is accompanied by the birth of Bloom's Taxonomy of educational objectives.

There are many synonymous terms used to refer to objectives including behavioral objective, cognitive objectives, learning objectives, educational objectives and objectives (Marken & Morrison, 2013). Actually, most educators have formed a consensus view on "what objectives are" even they use different statements focusing on learning outcome,

change, intended outcome or result. For example, Bloom (1956) defines it as a change of the students after instruction procedure. Mager (1997) points out “an objective is a description of a performance you want learners to be able to exhibit before you consider them competent.” Morrison regards it as a statement that specifies what a learner will be able to do after instruction (Morrison, Ross & Kemp, 2007).” Gagné (2005) thinks there are five expected “learning outcomes.” In Moore’s view, “An objective is not a statement of what you plan to put into the lesson (content) but instead a statement of what your students should get out of the lesson.” “...an objective describes an intended result of instruction, rather than the process of instruction itself...” (Moore, 2012, p.164).” Wu Hongyun & Pi Liansheng (2011) agree that objectives are the expected learning outcome of the students.

Despite their differences in the specific situation, they hold the same purpose to show students’ expected outcome after learning.

Objectives can be stated at varying levels of specificity. At the general level, objective presents the broad goals of instruction. At the more specific level, objective tells what students will be able to do following instruction. When writing objectives, we can begin by identifying goals at a broad level and follow these with the more specific objectives.

Generally speaking, objectives can be written at three different levels. These three levels can be described as following in descending order: goals, aims and objectives.

Aims refer to a broad statement about the intent of education. They are value-laden statements, written by panels, commission, or policymaking groups, that express a philosophy of education and concepts of the social role of schools and the needs of children and youth. In short, they are broad guides for translating the needs of society into educational policy. Aims are written on a societal level. They are descriptive and vaguely written statements.

Goals are more definite than aims, but they are still non-behavioral and therefore non-observable and non-measurable. Goals provide direction for educators, but they do not specify achievement levels or proficiency level. Objectives are descriptions of what eventually are to take place at a specific subject or grade level and at the classroom level. They specify content and sometimes the proficiency level to be attained.

Objectives are stated in behavioral terms. They state specific skills, task, content, and attitudes to be taught and learned, and give teachers and students a standard by which to judge whether they are achieving the objectives. Naturally, objective should be consistent with the overriding goals of the school system and state and the general educational aims of society. Each teacher, when planning for instruction, might contribute to these goals and aims in a different way. Aims are the broadest, and objectives are the most specific.

In our research, the objectives refer to the more detailed description of what a learner is expected to be able to do or the change after a period of College English instruction. Specifically, they are the intended outcome at the end of an English lesson and usually formulated by the teacher to plan for the entire English class. It can be the expectation of a unit, a lesson, or a period of class.

Role of Objectives

There are many reasons why we should care about instructional objectives. For example, Gronlund (1999) identifies some of the benefits of objectives:

They provide an instructional focus for participants (learners, instructors, and instructional designers). They provide participants with guidelines for learning and teaching. They provide standards for assessment (including self-assessment) and evaluation. They communicate instructor and course expectations to participants. They communicate instructional intent. They provide instructional designers with guidelines for selecting media, materials, and strategies.

The role of objectives concerns about three aspects: teachers’ guide; students’ learning; evaluation and assessment of the instruction effectiveness; premise of the educational goal.

1) Objectives are the guide for teachers to carry out instructional activities. Objectives establish the framework for instruction: They force teachers to provide students with the environment and sequence of activities to reach the stated intent. As Gronlund mentioned in his book, objectives can provide an instructional focus for instructors and instructional designers with guidelines for selecting media, materials, and strategies (Gronlund, 1999), overcoming the blindness and random in traditional instruction, which assure the achievement of educational objectives and provide norm for formative evaluation.

2) Objectives give students indication for their learning. Objectives make clear to students a teacher’s expectations prior to his instruction. This communication eliminates guess work related to students’ learning. Students who are told what they should accomplish at the conclusion of a course know what must focus on, have tangible goals to strive for, and are better able to judge how successful they have learned new materials. Students can make more informed decisions about how to focus their efforts and allocate their studying time, and they can more effectively monitor their comprehension as they read and study (Gronlund, 1999).

3) Objectives can help the evaluation of instruction effectiveness.

Objectives also prescribe exactly what skills and knowledge students must reveal as a result of instruction. In other words, your objectives will set the framework for the evaluation process (Moore, 2012, P.164). Whether the objectives are attained and achieved is the most important standard to judge the effective instruction. The classroom instruction cannot be regarded as a successful class without fully attainment of objectives even if other aspects are really good enough.

To judge whether an English class is successful or not should depend on the real enhancement of the students’

language level. However, language competence, the effect of a classroom instruction cannot embody right away through one's language expression. So how the teachers design the objectives and how he facilitates the attainment of such objectives will be the focus of the research.

4) Objectives are the basic support for the goal realization of education. Objectives are beneficial for the scientific instructional design which plays roles as stimulating, checking and evaluating. Each level of instructional objective should be realized so as to assure the language teaching goal.

Objectives make a framework for instruction design, teaching strategies and specific activities and evaluation process for students' attainment, which will drive instructors to provide the environment and activities for students to reach the stated intent. The teacher who understands why and how to use objectives can teach more effectively. Objectives help the teacher focus on what student should know at the end of the lesson plan or unit plan and help students know what is expected from them. Objectives help the teacher plan for teaching and organize instruction; they identify what to teach and when to teach it, and thus serve as a "map" or guide for both teachers and students.

Therefore, clearly stated objectives are important for the effectiveness of English classroom because they provide you with a solid foundation for designing relevant activities and assessment. Well-written objectives tell clearly students what the mastery level is. How well students achieve this level tells the teacher whether the instruction is successful and effective.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

Research Overview

This research aims to pursue answers for the following three questions:

- 1) What is the College English teachers' view and attitudes toward objectives in listening and speaking class?
- 2) What is the current situation of teachers' design of objectives for College English listening and speaking class?
- 3) How are these objectives achieved during the process of classroom instruction in listening and speaking class?

The first question will be divided into teachers' view or attitude and their design competence of objectives. A survey investigation based on questionnaire will be adopted to find how the College English teachers view and their attitude on objectives. By analyzing the teachers' lesson plan for listening and speaking class, teachers' competence of designing objectives will be discovered.

With regard to the third question, a case study will be adopted to observe two selected teachers' real classes so as to find how the teacher facilitates the attainment of objectives.

Participants

In the research, thirty-three teachers who teach College English in Zunyi Medical college where I have been working are involved for the investigation about the teachers' view and attitude on the objectives. These English teachers vary widely in professional preparation, age and teaching experience. Among them, 28 are female and 5 are male. Their years of teaching experience in the field of English teaching range from 1 to 15 years with a mean of 5 years. All of them are full-time English teachers. Table 1 shows the structure of teachers' background involved in questionnaire.

TABLE 1
TEACHERS' BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Sex	Age			Year of teaching			
	male	90s	80s	70s	1-3years	4-6years	7-10years
28	5	4	20	9	14	13	6

Note: 90s, 80s and 70s in the table refer to the birth year of the teachers. For example, 90s means that the teacher was born in 1990s.

In addition, two teachers of them were be selected to be observed in their listening and speaking class to find out how they facilitate their students' attainment of objectives. One is Anne, who teaches freshmen, another is Jane, who teaches sophomore. Both are full-time College English teachers. Their background information is given as following.

Anne

Anne is a novice teacher in Zunyi Medical College. She comes from a county of other province. She came to Zunyi because her boyfriend as a soldier in service was assigned to Zunyi. Thus they can meet once a week at weekends.

When the study started, she has just graduated with a master degree major in English language and literature from an international studies university one year ago. Before coming to the College, she has the experience of being an English teacher in a university for a year, and trainer in an English training institute during her vocations. When at school, she has worked as vice-minister of the learning department of the student committee. She has a personality of open-minded, kind-hearted. She is willing to help others and cooperative and working hard.

When I first meet her, she undertakes the teaching of College English for five classes. Each class has four periods of class hour. In other words, she has twenty class hours a week. Since this is the first year of teaching career in university, she has to attend pre-job training for the first two months this semester. In addition, she is a member of the chorus in foreign language school. Therefore, I really appreciate for her warm-heart to help me finish my research because she is busy all the time. "The life in this semester", as she said, "seems like a battle." However, despite her busy work, she is energetic and smiles all day long. And I have never even seen she has used the microphone I gave to her like most of the

other teachers do.

Jane

Jane is a native girl with three-year teaching experience. She graduated from a teachers' university before she began her postgraduate study. Before she came to Zunyi Medical College, she has no any experience of teaching. She said she never dreamed to be teacher before. She has no child and her husband supports her teaching work very much.

Jane is the director of the teaching group for freshmen and sometimes works for the teaching secretary. She is rigorous when she works. She refused to be observed at first because she was afraid of her students' performances. After negotiating with her students, they expressed their welcome to me.

Jane has four classes to teach this semester. Her teaching tasks are not as many as Anne because she has one class in English major. In total, she has eighteen class hours a week. Therefore, Jane is as busy as Anne even if her class hours are less than that of

I told Anne and Jane my purpose of research before observing her class because I feel ashamed if I keep it in secret although this may influence the authenticity of the observation. So at the very beginning, I did not give much comments about their teaching and tried to give them clues about my pure motivation to make them out of the pressure. After four class hours passed, that is, two weeks later I found the classes went normally.

Another big population is the students of the two selected English teachers. As described in former chapter, their responses in class reveal the degree to which they have attained the designed objectives. They are freshmen in two parallel classes with 50 students in average in each class. They were chosen randomly no matter they are girls or boys and not considering their English levels.

Procedure

The research is designed in three stages. First, questionnaire for teachers are designed to find teachers' view and attitude on objectives. In this part, quantitative method has been used to get an overall impression about teachers' attitude, knowledge and competence of objectives. Thus, valid data can be collected and analyzed in terms of current situations of the design of the objectives in College English listening class.

The second stage is analysis of teachers' lesson plan, specifically, analysis of teachers' design of objectives. 33 teachers' lesson plan were collected among which the objectives were analyzed to find how teachers classification of objectives, their statement of objectives, the use of verbs in stating objectives, and the alignment between objectives and the teaching activities, etc.

Classroom observations is the third stage, which was conducted to explore the attainment of objectives in the two selected teachers' real listening and speaking class. Three phases were taken to check the effectiveness of listening and speaking class from the attainment of objectives. First, we got to know about teachers' designing of objectives before each class. Second phase happened in the whole process of instruction, observer observed and made record for teachers' behaviors and students' response. A survey was taken after the class in the third phase in which the students were required to make an evaluation on the attainment of the objectives of this class. And the teacher was interviewed to recall and make an assessment of this class from the attainment of objectives.

By observing teachers' behavior and interactive activities in classroom from Zunyi Medical College, what happens in real class is a good source for the research, which provides authentic information for effective classroom instruction. A classroom observation sheet was designed based on the question how the College English teacher facilitate the attainment of classroom instructional objective so as to realize the effectiveness of College English classroom instruction (see Appendix II). Observations have been conducted from September 2015 to December 2015, two selected teachers' listening and speaking classroom instructions were observed successively for 16 class hours.

In this part of the research, qualitative method was used to get an overall impression about classroom instruction in College English listening and speaking class. After each period of listening and speaking class, a question was asked to the students to see to what degree they think they achieved the expected objectives.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Results and Discussion of Questionnaire for Teachers

Teachers' view on objectives serves as the guidance of teacher's performance and premise the effective instruction in the class. It reveals teachers' attitudes, education values, awareness, and theories foundation about teaching and learning that are set up over times, it is a source for teachers' classroom performance and guidance of their decision-making for effective instruction. Therefore, under the background of teaching reform recently, effective instruction in College English requires more consideration about objectives.

1. Teachers' Attitude toward Objectives

Items 1, 4, and 11 are designed to explore teachers' attitude toward the importance or the function of objectives. Table 3.1 presents teachers' response to these items.

TABLE 3. 1
TEACHERS' ATTITUDE TOWARD THE IMPORTANCE OF OBJECTIVES

Items	Options	Percentage	Total
1. Do you think it is necessary to set up objectives in college English listening and speaking class?	Completely necessary	42.42%	14
	Necessary	57.58%	19
	Not necessary	0%	0
	Completely not necessary	0%	0
4. Do you agree with the statement that objectives are the basis of effective instruction?	Completely disagree	0%	0
	Disagree	6.06%	2
	Agree	93.94%	31
	Completely agree	0%	0
	Objectives underlie the design of activities	66.67%	22
11. Please choose the statement which you agree with.	Objectives guide the choice of teaching method	75.76%	25
	Objectives do not guide the instructional design	24.24%	8
	Objectives guide the teachers' effective instruction	81.82%	27

Item 1 shows how important teachers think of objectives in College English listening and speaking class. According to the table, all College English teachers think objectives are important in College English listening and speaking class. Item 4 is designed to know the importance for effective teaching. Based on the table, most of the teachers agree the say that objectives are the basis of effective instruction. Apart from the function in effective instruction, objectives play roles in other parts of instruction. We can find from item 11, 66.67% teachers think objectives underlie the design of activities. 75.76% teachers think objectives guide the choice of teaching method. 81.82% teachers believe objectives can guide the teachers' effective instruction. That is to say, most teachers admit the function and role of objectives in College English listening and speaking class. However, it's worth noting that 24.24% teachers hold the view that objectives do not guide the instructional design. The number reaches nearly to one third, which is not a small portion.

2 Teachers' Knowledge of Objectives

In order to know teachers' knowledge of objective, we design item 2, 3, 6, 7,12,13, which range from the meaning of objective, elements of objectives, domain of objectives, some famous theories of objectives and what a well-written objective is. The responses are shown in Table 3.2.

TABLE 3. 2
TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE OF OBJECTIVES

Items	Options	Percentage	Total	
2. Please choose the statement which describes objective.	Develop students' integrated competence	54.55%	18	
	Cultivate students' four skills	18.18%	6	
	Students can gain main idea of listening material according to key words after learning this unit	24.24%	8	
	Finish exercises after class	3.03%	1	
3. The objectives for College English class are_____.	The basic requirement of teachers' teaching	18.18%	6	
	The expected outcome of learning or behavior, which can be measured scientifically	57.58%	19	
	The requirement of college English course	18.18%	6	
	The description of learning process	6.06%	2	
6. Which domain of the following objectives is most important ?	Knowledge and skills	33.33%	11	
	Process and methods	27.27%	9	
	Culture	6.06%	2	
	Attitude and value	24.24%	8	
	Learning strategies	9.09%	3	
7. What features do you think are well-written objectives	Complete domains of objectives	54.55%	18	
	learner-centered	87.88%	29	
	Teaching-content-centered	30.30%	10	
	Measurable	27.27%	9	
	Diversity of levels	54.55%	18	
12. Do you agree with the idea that the "Requirement of College English course" can guide and define the design of objectives?	Completely disagree	0%	0	
	Disagree	25.93%	7	
	Agree	74.07%	20	
	Completely agree	0%	0	
13. Do you know about the following theories?	A. Bloom's taxonomy of objectives?	Absolutely unfamiliar	5%	1
		Unfamiliar	60%	12
		Familiar	30%	6
		Very familiar	5%	1
	B. Mager's approach of writing objectives	Absolutely unfamiliar	10%	2
		Unfamiliar	65%	13
		Familiar	20%	4
		Very familiar	5%	1
	C. Gronlund's approach of writing objectives	Absolutely unfamiliar	15%	3
		Unfamiliar	70%	14
		Familiar	5%	1
		Very familiar	10%	2

In order to explore the current situation of teachers' understanding of instructional objectives, we set Item 2 and 3 related to the understanding of instructional objectives in the questionnaire.

Item 2 and 3 are used to check how teachers know about the basic meaning of objectives. According to this table, 54.55% teachers item 2 regard "develop students' comprehensive competence" as a classroom instructional objective, 18.18% teachers think of "cultivate students four skills" as classroom instructional objective, only 24.24% teachers regard "students can gain main idea of listening material according to key words after learning this unit" as objectives. In other words, less than one quarter teachers believe objectives are the expected change or outcome after learning. More than half teachers cannot identify specific objectives from general goal of course objectives. Ironically, in item 3, 57.58% teachers make the correct choice for the meaning of objectives. This response is contradicted with item 2.

Item 6 is a question to find out teachers' focus on the domain of objectives. The proportion of culture and learning strategies are only 6.06% and 9.09%, which are obvious lower than the rest. That is to say, knowledge and skills are still focus of teachers in College English while culture and learning strategies draw less attention.

Teachers were asked to judge whether a statement is a well-written objective in item 7 to know how much they know about objectives. From their answers, it is shown that, complete domains of objectives and learner-centered are two main aspects they think very important for a well-written objective.

3 Teachers' Competence of Stating Objectives

Teachers' competence on the stating of objectives is to be found in item 5, 8, 9 10 in table 4.3. Item 5 is to check what teachers refer to when writing objectives. Item 8 is to find the philosophy of objectives. Item 9 is the principle of stating objectives and item 8 focus on the alignment between objectives and activities. Detailed information will be shown in Table 3.3.

TABLE 3.3
TEACHERS COMPETENCE OF STATING OF OBJECTIVES

Items	Options	Percentage	Total
5. What do you refer to when writing objectives?	Design according to the course requirement, content and students' condition	75.76%	25
	Consult excellent lesson plans	0%	0
	Adopt the instructional objectives directly from teachers' book	15.15%	5
	Write objectives based on personal experiences	3.03%	1
	Write objectives only for the administration checking	6.06%	2
8. Which of the following embodies the philosophy of writing objectives?	Students-centered	84.85%	28
	Teachers-centered	3.03%	1
	Combination of presetting and generating	54.55%	18
	Combination of comprehensiveness and emphasis	72.73%	24
	Combination of scientific spirit and humanistic spirit	54.55%	18
9. Which principles should be followed when designing objectives	Specific	69.70%	23
	Comprehensive	75.76%	25
	Scientific	69.70%	23
	Operable	90.91%	30
	Measurable	42.42%	14
10. Do you pay attention to the alignment between objectives with teaching activities?	Yes	100%	33
	No	0%	0

According to the responses in item 5, most teachers (75.76% and 15.15%) claim that they design objectives based on the course requirement, content and students' condition as well as the teachers' book. The figures are largely aligned with the result of item 12 in Table 3.2, which shows 74.7% teachers regard "Requirement for English course" serve as the guidance for designing objectives. However, there are still 25.93% teachers disagree the role of "Requirement for English course" in designing objectives. This number cannot be neglected.

With regard to the designing methods and principles, item 8 is designed for teachers to judge what a well-written classroom instructional objective is, 87.88 teachers chose "learner-centered", 54.55% chose "complete domains of objectives", 54.55% teachers chose "diversity of levels", 27.27% teachers chose "measurable", and 30.30 % teachers chose "teaching-content-centered." This suggests that teachers give much consideration to the diversity of level and domains of objectives, that is, they concern about the comprehensive aspect when designing while "measurable" is less considered as in item 10, and the proportion of "measurable" is lowest, in teachers' designing classroom instructional objective.

4 Teachers' Evaluation of Objectives

As for teachers' view on the evaluation of objectives, teachers' responses are found in item 14 and 15. Detail information will be shown in Table 3.4.

TABLE 3.4
TEACHERS' VIEW ON EVALUATION OF OBJECTIVES

Items	Options	Percentage	Total
14. Will you evaluate your objectives in different ways?	Often	27.27%	9
	Constantly	63.64%	21
	Not evaluate	6.06%	2
	Don't know how to evaluate	3.03%	1
	Can be achieved	15.15%	5
15. Do you think the designed objectives can be achieved after leaning?	Can be Largely achieved	27.27%	21
	Can be achieved sometimes	63.64%	7
	Cannot be achieved, they are just for show	6.06%	0

From the responses, we can find all teachers pay attention to the alignment between classroom instructional objectives with teaching activities. But not all of them can evaluate their objectives in different ways. The result of evaluation seems not so perfect, only 15.15% can be achieved. 63.64% teachers think the designed objectives can be achieved sometimes. This is not an optimistic phenomenon.

IV. CONCLUSION

Objectives play an important role in promoting the effectiveness of English listening and speaking class in College. Nowadays, many scholars begin to rethink the setting of objectives in College English course in order to change the phenomenon of current teaching situation "time consuming, low efficiency", thus there is a profound significance to take an investigation into how teachers view and design objectives for English listening and speaking class. Since it happens in the real class on how teachers facilitate the attainment of objectives, it is necessary to take classroom observation into account. In addition, the effectiveness of English listening and speaking class in College also depends on the students to a large degree, therefore, the study also explores the attainment of the objectives by classroom observation and self-evaluation from a students' perspective. The Major findings of this study will be shown as follows.

A. Major Findings of the Research

1. Teachers' Attitudes Toward Objectives

Through analyzing 33 English teachers' responses to the questionnaire about the objectives, the author concludes that English teachers in College admit the importance of the objectives. But they lack of systematic knowledge about it. The specific details are as following:

- 1) The functions of objective are admitted by most of the English teachers for the effective instruction of listening and speaking class. All teachers think it is necessary to set up classroom instructional objective, which will give guidance for teaching and learning.
- 2) Most teachers know the meaning of objectives, but they cannot make it clear about the difference between the instructional objective for a course and a class.
- 3) Most teachers know the way of design objectives, but Knowledge and skills are still the main concern when English teachers design objectives.
- 4) Most teachers consider they evaluate the objectives occasionally. And their students can achieve the objectives after learning in class.

2. Teachers' Design of Objectives

English teachers' effective design of objectives premises the effective instruction in listening and speaking class. Based on the analysis of the teachers' designed objective for the listening and speaking classes, we found the features as follow:

- 1) Teachers mainly concern about language knowledge and skills, which is aligned with the findings in the response of the questionnaire.
- 2) Most teachers cannot make clear about the differences between the objectives and the teaching activities or tasks, which may influence the effective design of the objectives. This finding shows there is a certain discrepancy between teachers' self-evaluation and the real situation about their knowledge about objectives.
- 3) The subjects of the objectives are vague, and teachers' book is the main recourse of their designing, which does not conform to the response of the questionnaire. It is possible that teacher forgot the rules when designing objectives in reality. And time is another reason.
- 4) No specific details are given in teachers' design, for example, there is no condition to show how to judge the achievement of the objective.
- 5) No signs are shown about how to evaluate the attainment of objectives.

3. Attainment of Objectives

The study observed two teachers' classes in order to find the effectiveness of the instruction by the effective attainment of objectives in English listening and speaking class. Teachers' promotion for the attainment of the objectives is the core of observation. According to the analysis of the classroom observation, the researcher concludes that:

1) Teachers present the classroom instructional objective mainly in a direct way. Usually, they just tell students what they are going to listen and speak. They did not give details about how to achieve the objective from students' perspective.

2) Teachers' teaching activities are all aligned with designed objectives, which conform to the response of the questionnaire. However, influenced by the teaching plan of the course, teachers may focus on different part of the listening and speaking. Students' English competence, and the objectives, cannot be developed in balance, which may impede the effectiveness of the instruction of listening and speaking class in College English.

Nowadays, formative assessment is mainly used in College English in the listening and speaking classroom. Teachers' subjective assessment will decide students' performance in the classroom. Therefore, the assessment for the attainment of instructional objective requires highly for the teachers' knowledge, experience and beliefs or value of teaching.

B. Implications of the Research

1. Implications for Teachers

As we have discussed in this research, the design and the attainment of objectives underline the effective instruction of English listening and speaking. On the one hand, teachers should take the classroom instructional objective seriously and learn more about the knowledge of instructional objective. Particularly, they need to identify the different meaning of different levels of objective, thus helping designing the objectives effectively for English listening and speaking class. On the other hand, teachers of College English should develop more expertise of English teaching to facilitate the attainment of classroom instructional objective, so as to assure the effectiveness of the instruction of College English listening and speaking class.

2. Implications for School Administrators

Firstly, the finding of the research can give clues to the school administrators and leaders about the current situation of the effective instruction from the perspective of objectives, that is, from the teachers' view on the objectives and how they promote the students' achievement of objectives, which is helpful in finding the factors influencing the effectiveness of College English instruction.

Secondly, the research findings also make the school administrators and leaders know the current situation of teachers' teaching knowledge and make proper decisions for teachers' professional development.

Therefore, suggestions could be given to strengthen in-service English teachers' learning and straining, enhancing the teachers' level of teaching theories. Moreover, a better of environment of teachers' development could be created to help students reflect their teaching so that the teaching competence and quality can be improved effectively.

3. Implications for Students Learning

The finding of the research also gives implications for students' English learning in listening and speaking class. Because no matter what the findings of the research implies for teachers and school administrators or leaders, students are the final beneficiaries. The purpose of teachers' development and administrators' making policy is to serve for students learning and education.

C. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Study

The design and attainment of classroom instructional objective premise the effective instruction in College English listening and speaking class. The important function of instructional objective in effective instruction cannot be looked down upon. However, limitations exist in the study due to the constraint of the condition and time. One of the limitations in this study is the response rate and sample size. The items in the questionnaire are not all-around. The author's lack of comprehensive understanding of the current situation or limited assessment to materials available may lead to some other significant factors for the design and attainment of objectives might have been dropped. The number of the subjects is not very large and all the participants including teachers and students are from Zunyi Medical College. Thus, whether this conclusion can be applied further will be brought out as a question. Another limitation lies in the documents and data collected. The teaching plan collected may not be completely the same teachers' who answer the questionnaire, which may influence the result of the research to some extent. Furthermore, when observing the two teachers' classes, some designed points cannot be done due to teachers' time schedule. And teachers and students' behavior were marked with subjective judgment.

This research may have many limitations as illustrated above, but it does not mean we should stop research about the effective instruction in College English. More researches should be taken on how teachers and students behave to maximize the effective instruction. Perhaps the closest answer for English teachers and researchers is to become open-minded and flexible enough, equipped with more things they need to find out more factors influencing the effectiveness of College English instruction in class. Classroom observation can be adopted as a new method of research by revealing variety of information during the process of teaching and learning.

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An Analysis of Student's Ability in Writing at Riau University Pekanbaru - Indonesia

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Abstract—This study focused on the analysis of students' writing performance. It aimed to ascertain the students' ability in using grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, coherence and cohesion. To measure the students' writing ability, they were told to do a writing task to be completed in less than 75 minutes in duration. The task asked them to imagine that they were working for a company in Batam, a fast-growing administrative town in Kepulauan Riau Province. They were told to write a letter to their friends who wanted to know about the companies they were working for, the companies' future prospects, the availability of vacancies in them, and the requirements to be met if their friends wanted to apply for positions there. The findings the study showed that grammatical problems seemed to be the most frequent made by the students ranging from error in using plural forms, articles, verb forms, clauses, passive voice and prepositions. The findings also indicated that problems in coherence and cohesion stemmed from the absence of cohesive markers in the students' sentences which affected how they put ideas in their letters coherently. However, despite the problems the students faced in writing, on the whole the results of their writing were good enough as they were able to include most of the important information required by their friends.

Index Terms—writing, students' ability, Language Center, Riau University, ELT in Indonesia

I. INTRODUCTION

During the past decade Riau Province has been developing very steadily in many areas particularly in business sector. This development is marked by the increasing number of local and foreign companies operating there especially after the commencement of the Singapore-Johor-Thailand Growth Triangle (SIJORI) and the Indonesia-Malaysia-Thailand Growth Triangle (IMT-GT). More companies and industries are concentrating their operations in this province as Riau is commercially strategic in terms of its productions of petroleum, natural gas, and other products such as pulp and paper that contribute much to the national income.

The presence of these companies and industries opens great opportunity for the local people as they need more workers to work for them. Very unfortunately, the quality of human resources in Riau Province is relatively low that inevitably affects people's income. Approximately 70 percent of workers are primary school graduates; as a result, jobs available could not be much utilized by the local people because they do not have professional skills and knowledge. It was said by the Rector of Riau University in a graduation ceremony of 2014 that of every five jobs available only two could be absorbed by the local people whereas the other three were obtained by people from outside Riau Province such as those from Java. Today, more job opportunities are widely open especially in Batam, a small town which is close to Singapore and has become the Centre of business activity in Kepulauan Riau Province ever since the commencement of SIJORI and IMT-GT. It is proved that many local university graduates have not got jobs because they have no qualifications that match the needs of the job market. Even if the qualifications do match the job market, they are unable to compete with those from outside Riau for they do not have other related skills such as the ability to read and write in English.

As the only public university in the province, Riau University is expected to produce graduates who are later ready for use after they have completed their studies in various disciplines. In order to make this expectation come to reality for the future development of Riau province and Indonesia as a whole, Riau University has set up a permanent language centre where students and lecturers of all faculties within the university have access to learn English in order to equip themselves with the four language skills. This opportunity is especially given to non-English majors to provide them with the ability to communicate in English so that they can find jobs soon after they graduate. To achieve this, of course takes time as students' ability in the productive skills particularly writing is very low. Although they have been studying English since Junior High School, they are still unable to write a good single paragraph. This may partly be caused by of lack of practice. Moreover, the materials emphasise more on reading so that they have little opportunity to speak and write. Many students actually do take English courses at other places, but the courses concentrate their teaching more on conversation rather than on writing. Consequently, the students' performance in writing until they are sitting at the university is not much improving.

There is no doubt that language plays a key role in many purposes of human communication where various transactions and social interactions are taking place. Language, in fact, exists to fulfil a range of communicative function, and these functions are reflected in the shape of the language itself. The communicative language is performed both in spoken and written forms each of which has its own respective functions and boundaries of use. English as an international language, for example, is widely used all over the world for different purposes such as in education, politics, business, and so forth.

It is a fact that most people spend their every day life more in speaking rather than writing in order to get in touch and interact with each other. But as the world has been developing in terms of people's need for adequate means of communication in various settings, spoken language seems insufficient to cover all messages to be conveyed. Therefore, the role of written language in this respect is of great importance (Halliday 1994).

Some studies on student's performance of the four language skills have been undertaken by the English department teaching staff of the Faculty of Teachers Training and Education, Riau University, but the studies dealt more with students of English department. Given that English is also taught in all faculties and departments within the university and is one of the major subjects to take up, it is worth noting that a study on the writing performance of non-English majors needs to be conducted. The purpose of this study was to find out the student's performance in writing English so that strengths and weaknesses could be discovered in order to take necessary measures for improvement.

II. WRITTEN LANGUAGE

Written language has a number of functions that differ from spoken language. To put these function into operation is not easy since when writing one is engaged in an activity that is usually at the same time both private and public in the sense that there is no direct cooperation between the writer and the reader. That is why the conventions of writing tend to be less flexible and the language used tends to be standardised (Broughton 1978).

Harmer (1991) reveals that the need for accuracy in writing is very high; sentences must be written in correct grammatical structures. More importantly, there is a greater need for logical organisation compared to speaking. Halliday (1994) strengthens Harmer's idea saying that written language is more complex and its complexity is seen in the way clauses are linked together. Furthermore, in speaking the speaker, on the one hand, can co-operate and negotiate meaning with the listener, and the listener, on the other hand, can benefit from the speaker's way of delivering the message where he or she could repeat what he or she was saying, simplify the grammar, vary intonation and stress, speed up and slow down, for the listener to understand. What is more, the speaker can also use facial expression, gesture, and body movement in order to ease the communication. All of these strategies cannot be found in written language. Chase (1983) says, "*The speaker's chief goal is to get across what he has in mind, and he is not likely to be interested in grammar unless there is a good reason to think of it usually there is, ... after someone has spoken ungrammatically I doubt if the average person would care. But it would be damaging to say 'You did not get across what you had in mind'.*"

This statement implies that the main focus in speaking is getting ideas across where mistakes in grammar are somewhat tolerable since the speaker whilst speaking is under time pressure as he does not have much time to think of what to say and how to say it. Writing, on the other hand, is more likely to provide elaborated information that requires sequencing, structure, and stance which are not the characteristics of spoken language. It is argued that speech tends to be socially placed on recording things, completing tasks, building ideas or arguments, whereas in speaking more emphasis is put on building relationships. Though speaking and writing have certain things in common, when they are put into functions, the style of language is different because the social activities are different as well. Clearly, in writing there is a one-way communication process where the writer sends information to the reader and he or she may not get the reply to what he or she has written. On the contrary, in speaking there is a two-way communication process in which both speaker and listener are engaged in interaction (Tribble 1996). Leech (1982) views that speaking and writing differ in form as a result of the difference in medium. That is to say, there are features of speech which are absent in writing such as rhythm, intonation, and non-linguistic noises such as signs and laughter. Given that speech is performed in a face-to-face situation, it can also be accompanied by non-verbal communication such as gestures, body language and facial expression. Writing, on the other hand, also has several features that cannot be found in speaking such as punctuation, paragraphing and the capitalization of letters. It would be correct to say, therefore, that the major difference between written language and spoken language lies in the need for more accuracy. Such a demand for more accuracy in writing consequently brings about some problems on the part of ESL/EFL learners.

A. Problems Encountered by Learners of ESL/EFL in Writing

Kaplan (1987) views that lack of differentiation amongst varieties of writing a varieties of audience appears to be one of the problems in acquiring the ability to write in a second language. In reality, writing varies in forms which require composing such as formulations and registers. There are forms which require composing such as theoretical formulation in which the act of writing is used. On the other hand, there are forms which do not require composing such as routine translation in which the translator only transfers the message of a particular language to another.

It should be noted that the message of the written language may be addressed to a large audience whether they are known to the writer or not such as readers of personal letters and readers of books or periodicals. In or she may know

very well and thus the message is usually written in an informal way; whereas in a book or in a report the language must be written in a formal way according to the rules and conventions.

Broughton (1978) observes that other problems that might be confronted by ESL writers deal with the script of English, grammar and lexis, and expressing what to be said. It is the fact that the scripts of many languages are different from that of English which may bring about writing problems on the part of ESL/EFL students. Grammar, as part of discourse, is an integral part of language for sentences without grammar are more likely to cause confusion and misinterpretation. Nevertheless, grammar would not exist without lexis; both of them are interdependent. Batstone (1994) views that grammar does not exist on its own, but it is interdependent on lexis, and in many cases grammatical regularity and acceptability are constrained and conditioned by words. Halliday (1994) strengthens this idea suggesting that the idea of a piece of writing would be easy to grasp if appropriate lexical items are used. Cook (1989) assumes that students' difficulty in writing stems from inadequate lexical items or the complexity of grammatical structure at sentence level.

Another problem that may be confronted by ESL/EFL learners in writing is ease and comfort in expressing ideas which are linked with coherence and cohesion. Coherent organization and logical thought are both crucial in writing which are in some ways more difficult than in speaking as the reader is not in a position to clarify points they do not understand with the writer in the same way that the participants in a conversation can negotiate meaning and ask for repetition and clarification. The importance of coherence in a text is revealed by Kathleen Bardovi and Harlig (2001). They say, "*The sentences in well-formed writing are more like pieces in a jigsaw puzzle; the sentences interlock, each sentence building on the preceding ones while at the same time advancing discourse. Coherent writing, then, is dependent on how sentences fit together to form a whole. The fit is achieved by the way the elements are arranged within the sentences and the sentence patterns themselves.*"

This statement implies the close relationship between coherence and cohesion in writing where sentences should fit together in appropriate grammatical structures so that the overall idea of all the sentences are related to each other. Cohesion is very important in writing. This is an area that is relevant to all discourse whether spoken or written. To achieve cohesion in sentences needs the ability to handle grammar and words in sentences which is not easy for students. It has been assumed that the students' difficulties in writing stem from lack of vocabulary or the complexity of grammatical structure at sentence level (Cook 1989). Yet, in many ESL/EFL classrooms it is often discovered that students, whilst writing in English, are much influenced by the way they speak and write in their L1.

B. Effects of a First Language on Writing in English as a Second or Foreign Language

As mentioned previously, the complexity of written language results in some problems for ESL/ EFL learners to operate the functions of the written language. It may be true to say that writing is frequently difficult not only for non-native speakers but also for native speakers themselves. In writing the writer faces much difficulty which stems from a number of constraints. When an ESL/ EFL student is expressing an idea in writing he or she has to consider at least four structural levels, that is, overall text structure. To put these four into a piece of text is not easy at all (Kroll 1990). Very often ESL/ ELF learners manage to find appropriate strategies to help them cope with the problems. A number of studies on the possible effects of a first language on writing in English as a second and foreign language have been undertaken. Kroll (1990) in her study indicates that ESL writers will transfer writing abilities and strategies from their L1. They transfer the structure and vocabulary of L1 to L2 in an incorrect way. Kroll added that time might also be a key factor in other aspects of writing in the sense that the availability of time when completing a task is crucial since writing under pressure may lead to imperfection of the task. Kaplan (1987) also found out that English texts written by ESL learners are greatly different from the texts written by native speakers where the difference is noticeable at the level of syntax and rhetoric, that is, the organization of the whole text.

C. Written Language in the Indonesian Context

In Indonesia English is learned as a foreign language and taught as a major subject from Junior High school to university. Various teaching techniques under the umbrella of the communicative approach which is also called the PKG approach have been applied in an effort to achieve the goals of teaching English as a foreign language in the country. The communicative approach is putting the emphasis on providing students with the ability to use the four language skill in particular to develop the skills of effective reading which is the main objective of the official curriculum.

The teaching techniques at secondary school under the heading of the PKG approach are labeled as TPR (Total Physical Response), EGRA (Experience, Generalisation, Reinforcement and Application), PGR (Practice, Generalisation, Reinforcement), and Peer Teaching. These four teaching strategies only differ in the focus of the activities whilst classroom teaching is in progress; they come together to achieve the goal of teaching and learning English, that is, communicative competence, the ability to operate the linguistic forms of language into its functional form in various communication situations (Tomlinson 1990). However, since the aim of teaching English at secondary and university is to enable the students to be able to read English text books, the main focus of teaching prioritises to reading. Consequently, what is really meant by communicative competence as the main goal of learning English is in some respects is neglected as speaking and writing are considered secondary for a number of reasons.

To be honest, the students' speaking and writing performances when they were studying at secondary schools and while they are sitting at the university are not far apart unless they are taking English courses or majoring in English. This is perhaps partly caused by having more reading rather than listening, speaking and writing, apart from the quality of teachers and the real implementation of the teaching strategies mentioned beforehand.

III. METHODS

A. Research Design

The population of the study was non-English students of intermediate level who were taking an English course at Riau University Language Centre, Indonesia. Before the course commenced, approximately 80 participants from different faculties within the university were given a placement test in order to know at what level of English they would be placed in the course. It was found out that some 20 students were enrolled in the intermediate level alone most of whom were fourth year students. They all participated in the course until the end of the programme. The course ran three days a week regularly. Each session lasted 100 minutes and the materials covered the four language skills taught by three instructors. When the data were gathered, of 20 students only 15 volunteered to do the given task. Therefore, it was decided that all of them became the sample of the study given that the number was not very great. The instrument employed to collect the data was a writing task in the form of a letter to measure the students' performance in writing which was relevant to their needs after they had completed their studies at the university. The task asked them to imagine that they were working for a foreign company in Batam. Then they were asked to do the task and complete it in less than 75 minutes under the supervision of both their instructors and the researcher in order to avoid collaboration among them while doing the task. The results of the task would be used to measure the students' mastery of grammar, the use of punctuation, spelling, coherence, cohesion, and the content of the task itself. The study was carried out at Riau University Language Centre, Indonesia. The study was purposely conducted at the writer's own institution in order to look closely at any problem in students' writing performance so that necessary steps for further improvements could be made in the near future.

B. The Data

The data of the study were obtained from the results of the writing task of 15 students who participated in the intermediate English course at Riau University Language Centre Pekanbaru, Indonesia. In doing the task the student were timed but not restricted to write the exact number of words in a letter in order to give them a feeling of relaxation and at the same time to avoid pressure and nervousness. On average each student wrote 150 words. The following data correspond to the result of the students' writing task and are presented separately in order to be easy to understand and to see clearly the characteristics and students' problems in writing based on the component to be measured. Some parts of the students' letters are intentionally not included here such as dates, inside addresses, salutations, complementary closings, and signatures.

IV. RESULTS

A. Problems in Grammar

It goes without saying that knowledge of grammar is essential for competent users of a language and it is necessary for students to bear in mind the importance of rules of grammar to apply in their writing. Unlike in speaking, words in sentences or paragraphs need to be written grammatically correct in writing. However, there is no doubt that student of L2 usually face grammatical problems in their writing regardless of the purpose. This group of intermediate English students experienced such problems when doing the task. The data shows that the grammatical errors lie in the use of plural forms, articles, verb forms, passive voice, clauses, and prepositions.

Problems in using the plural forms came up in many sentences of the student's letters most of which were regular plural. It seems as though the students made no distinction between countable nouns to indicate the number, the nouns are still written in singular. Such errors can be seen from the following examples:

The are **some big company** operating here such as travel Agency, Lexica company, Batam company; etc. (S2).

For your known, **all company** in Batam need worker who can Speak English (S6).

Product of the company here have distributed at **many Country** in the world (S7).

In terms of using articles, the data proved that the students were not very clear about when to use and not to use them. They misused articles in many words in their letters and they even left them out totally as shown in the examples below:

I am working in **electronic** company (S1).

You know, as manager of **big company** I should work hard and have little time for my own activities (S14).

They are **a** nice children, aren't they? (S6)

I think if you master **the** both above, you are easy to accepted, not only here, even in Singapore or Malaysia (S13).

Misuse of verb forms was another problem discovered in students' letters. The data showed that the students, for example, used the present tense for the past tense or the present perfect tense for the past tense. Disagreement between subject and verb was often noticeable particularly when the subject is the third person singular in the present singular in

the present simple. In addition, the students were unclear about the difference in use between the verb **be** and **full verb**. They often treated adjectives and nouns as verbs or the reverse. The data also indicated that the use of **to infinitive** was often misleading particularly after adjectives, auxiliaries, and the first verbs. The next examples illustrate the errors made by the students in using verb forms.

You letter **arrive** in one week ago (S1).

I **have received** your letter last week (S10).

Our company **produce** some electric product (S2).

If you **success** as a distributor, later you will send to another branch of the company in the other country (S7).

I **sure** you are diligent boy (S1).

I am **apologize** not write back you letter (S13).

I am glad **received** your letter (S13)

You must **able** to speak English (S6).

I will **looking** for information (S12).

The next problem in grammar that the students encountered was how to deal with clauses. As shown in the data the students misused relative pronouns in adjective clauses such as using **which** instead of **who** (S13) that corresponds to the noun preceding it. The problem also arose as a result of the absence of a verb after **which** as can be seen from what was written by S4 and S11. The examples below illustrate each of these problems.

I work at PT. Nogyoya **which** activities in oil field (S4).

There was many people **which** join it (S13).

My company **which** activity in electronic make television, radio, air condition and etc (S11).

The last grammatical problem the students had in their letters was how to use appropriate prepositions such as in dates, days, years, places and elsewhere in sentences. The data showed that the students used inappropriate prepositions before words in sentences. It seems that there was a tendency the students just followed the way they used prepositions in Indonesia Language and applied it in English. In other words, they were influenced by their L1 in using prepositions that may not always work in English. To make the above explanation clear, the following examples illustrate each of the problems.

Thank you a lot for your letter received **on** early June, 1997 (S14).

I was received your letter **at** July, 20 1997 (S2).

Sometimes I work at night to follow the schedule and **in** Sunday I get holiday (S2).

I am happy **at** Batam because I have my job **at** there (S5).

For addition, you can send other certificate you have (S6).

B. Problems in Vocabulary

It is agreed that vocabulary plays a key role to make meaning of sentences clear and understandable. In English one meaning may be expressed by more than one lexical item that may vary in use according to the context. Therefore, words should be carefully selected especially in writing because misusing words could break down meaning and may result in misunderstanding in communication. Whether or not a piece of writing is good is judged not only from the grammatical point of view but also from its lexical point of view and other factors such as its organization. In fact, the data shows that the students made mistakes in using appropriate words in context that may lead the readers to misunderstand the whole ideas of sentences. Lexical errors also appeared in word formation such as using nouns for verbs and nouns for adjectives or vice-versa. The examples below give a clear picture of students' lexical problems in their letters.

(1) Errors in Using Lexical Items

You can **enter** your application in this company (S2).

This company become more and more increasing **development** and good prospect because Batam is strategic place and many foreigner **pass away** and do business to this city (S8).

If you want to come I will **invite** you in harbor (S2).

Product of the company also **go out** to many provinces in Indonesia, Malaysia & Singapore (S5).

(2) Errors in Using Word Classes

I believe you will **succes** for secretary position because you beautiful and really smart (S3).

You must work hard in this company because it is **growth** and has hard completion (S3).

If you **interesting**, please send your application to my company a/n Personal Manager PT. Surya Mas Jl. Bukit Raya Batam (S11).

If you are **come** from chemistry student you can work at my company (S4).

C. Problems in Punctuation

Punctuation is just like traffic signs in the streets that tell people where to go and where to stop. When the traffic signs are well-organised, the traffic will run smoothly. In contrast, if they are ill-organised, more accidents are likely to take place and more dangers will follow. This situation also applies to the art of writing. When sentences in paragraphs use correct punctuation, ideas will go smoothly and are easy to understand by the readers. On the contrary, when punctuation is ignored, ideas may be difficult to convey; consequently, communication may not run smoothly. In conjunction with the students' writing task the data shows that more errors arise in misuse of punctuation particularly

capitalisation. The students kept using small letters after periods or full-stops. What is more, they used capital letters for words which were not supposed to be capitalised or vice-versa. Misuse of commas was also noticeable in some areas in students letters. They put commas in places where there is no need to put them or they used commas in the positions of periods. Further details of errors made by the students in punctuation can be seen in the following examples:

(1) Errors in Using capitalisation

I work as a field supervisor. **it** is a big company, **it** product are TV, VIDIO, Tape recorder(S2).

Right now I work In foreign company which operate in Cargo and Fshing field (S10).

(2) Errors in Using Commas and Apostrophes

It's product is very good. **It's** quality so good (S7).

I work in electric company, our company produce some electronic product (S2).

I am sorry, because I nearly forget to tell you one thing. You must work hard in this company, because it is growth and has hard competition (s3).

D. Problems in spelling

Spelling also needs to be taken into account in writing for misspelling may create miss understanding. If one letter is misplaced or missing in a word the meaning may be different and cause confusion. The data proves that students seemed to be unaware of spelling mistakes. They sometimes missed a letters in a word, added a letters in it or they spelled words in their L1. The following examples illustrate each of the problems.

We plan to built the **bigest** chemistry industry in Batam area (S14).

I work at marketting manager here (S15).

Furthermore, I just have returned from singapore for **neogosiotion** and made contract with Singapore Ltd.(S14).

In the company where I'm work, the work is making radio, televisi and other **electronica** instrument and the **electronica** instrument to **eksport** to Asian and Eropan (S1).

E. Problems In Coherence and Cohesion

Coherence and cohesion are both dealing with the relationship of sentences with one another. Cohesion on the hand is grammatical; showing formal syntactic links between sentences, and coherence on the other hand is rhetorical where the relationship are not between forms but between speech acts. Cohesion in a sentence or an utterance can be seen from the relationship between different parts of the sentence itself. For instance, students A asks student B, "**Did John attend the lecture in room G.18 Yesterday?**". students B answers "**yes, he did**". In this example there is a link between **John** and **He**. In addition, in the sentence, "When you go to England some day, do not forget to see football matches there". There is a link between **England** and **there**.

On the other hand, coherence deals with the relationships that link the meanings of sentences in a text or an utterance in a discourse in the sense that the meaning of a sentence or an utterance should not always be interpreted on the basis of its grammatical structure or vocabulary, but also from the meaning of its context. In others words, there is a pragmatic meaning behind the sentence or utterance. For example, student A says to student B "**could you give me a ride as far as Leeds Coach station?**" the student B replies "**I am sorry, I m going to Skipton**". In this example there is no grammatical relationship between student A's request and student B's answer at all, but there is a coherence in communication since both of them know that Leeds Coach station and Skipton have different direction. Nevertheless, both coherence and cohesion go hand in hand to make ideas of sentence flow smoothly. the movement from one sentence to another should be logical and smooth, meaning that the idea of one sentence to another must be related to each other without sudden jumps and should be in correct grammatical and lexis links.

The data showed that on the whole the student faced difficulty to put sentences into good coherence and logical order. Ideas from one sentence to another did flow very smoothly partly because of the absence of cohesive markers in most of the students writing tasks. In some student letters it was discovered that ideas that was supposed to come first later. The links between grammatical components were sometimes absents. Furthermore, in some sentences adverb of place take the position of the subjects. The examples below show the problems in coherence and cohesion confronted by the students.

In one day I must work for 9 hours, sometimes I work at night to follow the schedule I get holiday.

I work as a field supervisor. it is a big company. it product are TV , Video, Tape recorder (S2)

The idea of the first example (S2) is not arranged in good logical order. S2 should have first begun from telling what company he was working for, what the company produced, and then what position he had in the company. In the above example there is no grammatical link between the work **I** in "**I work as field supervisor**" and the word **It** in "**It is a big company**".

And..... for your known, all companyin Batam need worker who can speak English **beside our programme in university (S6)**

In the second example (S6) it is found out that the idea of the main clause and the dependent clause is not relevant. Though the idea is interpereted pragmatically, it is still difficult to grasp.

For going to work place the company prepare Bus transportation and **there** are always in the protocol streetall time, and this company also have medical facility (S2).

In the third example it is discovered that the word **there** has no reference to any word preceding it. The reader might be able to interpret that **there** might refer to transportation which is always available in the street.

I think there are job for you to be an accountant, because **in my company still need an accountant** (S11).

Unlike the third example, the fourth one (S11) misses the subject in the second clause. S11 treated adverb of place as the subject (in my company still need an accountant). He wrote this sentence according to the way he was speaking and writing in Bahasa Indonesia which is grammatically wrong and unacceptable in writing in English

The company become more and more increasing development and good prospect in this city because Batam is strategic place, and **many foreginer pass away and dobusiness to this city.**(S8)

The idea of this sentence (S8) is completely destroyed by the reason that Batam is developing rapidly because it is strategic and many foreigners **pass away** there. Perhaps S8 meant that many foreginers visit Batam instead of **passing away** there. Although it is only a matter of word choice, the sentence change the meaning and damages the coherence of the sentences as a whole.

F. Problems in Relevance

Relevance in this context refers to the content of the task. That is to say the content of students' letters must be relevant to the task demanded. It appears that most of the students included the required information requested by their friends. However, the data showed that 12 students all except S8, S10 and S13 did not include in their letters other information required that was about the possibility of being placed to work in Batam, Malaysia or Singapore if their friends were succesful applicants. In addition, 2 students (S1 and S2) did not include information about vacancies available in the companies where they were working. It was also discovered that 3 students (S1, S2, and S7) did not inform their friends about the requirements to be met if they wanted to apply for any positions in the company where they themselves were working.

However, there are some good points to note here. Among others, the students were well-motivated to study English in order to equip themselves with the ability to communicate in English. In fact, most of them put the ability to use English as the main requirement to be accepted to work for companies in various vacancies. Also, from the contents of their letters it was apparent that the students have positive attitudes towards English in order that they would find jobs easily after they complete their studies at the university. There was an indication that the students, if they really got jobs later, would be keen to inform their colleagues about vacancies available in their respective jobs.

Due to lack of knowledge about letter writing and the interference of the students' L1, of 15 students, 5 of them (S2, S4, S6, S8 and S12) tended to begin their letters in a typically Indonesian way. For example, S2 and S12 respectively wrote, **"I hope you are in fine when this letter come to you"**, **"I hope you are in fine and face life happily. And I am here fine too"**. On the other hand, 5 other students (S9, S10, S11, S12, S13, and S14) began their letters in a business-like way which is not appropriate in writing a personal letter. For instance, S9 and S14 wrote, **"I received your letter last week"**, **"Thanks a lot for your letter"**.

V. DISCUSSION

As the students wrote the task in the form of a letter, problems arose in grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, coherence, cohesion, and relevance. Problems in the students' letters may vary to some extent according to the level of difficulty every individual student encountered. The findings provided the evidence that grammatical problems seem to be the most frequent made by the students in their letters ranging from errors in plural forms, articles, verb forms, clauses, passive voice, and proposition. These errors may have occurred for a number of reasons. Firstly, the students had inadequate knowledge of the linguistic forms of language as a period of three months in the course seemed to be insufficient for them to be able to write in correct grammatical structures in a foreign language such as English. Although they had studied English since Junior High School, it could not be taken for granted that the students were able to write English properly.

The second reason could be that the English lessons at the university apart from those at the Language Centre focused more on reading and translation in order to enable them to understand text book which are mostly written in English. Thirdly, the students were not used writing in English. They wrote in English only when they had semester examinations so that the rules of grammar may have been forgotten when they were doing the task.

Errors in using verb **be** or auxiliaries, infinitive, and full verb were believed to be caused by inadequate knowledge of grammar and also partly because of lack of practice in the productive skills. If we take a look at the students' letter, we could discover that the students made many mistakes for example, S2, S4,S6, S10, S12 ans S13. However, given that verbs vary in form and use, it is not surprising that the students experienced difficulties in using them since language acquasition undergoes certain process, stages and developments.

In terms of vocabulary it appeared that lexical errors were discovered in the choice of words and word formation such as forming verbs to nouns, adjectives to nouns, or vice-versa. However, it should be acknowledge that using appropriate words in writing is not easy since similar meaning may be expressed by several words which in some contexts may be the same in use and in other contexts may be different. For example, an idea that a thing, an animal, or a human being ends its or his life can be expressed by using the word **to be dead**, **to die**, and **to pass away**. The words dead (adjective) and **die** (verb) can be used for a thing, an animal, and a human being when they ends their lives, but the

word **pas away** is normally used for human being when he ends his life. Very often ESL/EFL students misuse these words in speaking and writing. Therefore, it was difficult for the students to choose words that really suited the meaning in context. Nevertheless, none of the students abandoned any lexical items they wanted to write in their letters but managed to find words they thought suitable. For example, S5 wrote. "Product of the company **go out** to many provinces in Indonesia, Malaysia & Singapore." S5 might have forgotten to use word **export** instead of the word **go out** in this sentence, but he managed to find a word which is close the meaning of **export**.

Errors in word formation came up in many sentences in the students' letters. Such error seemed to be an on going problem encountered by L2 students in writing given that the formation of words may vary accordingly. For instance, there are words that can be used as nouns but others cannot be treated as such unless certain suffixes are used. For instance, forming verbs to nouns may be done by adding suffixes such as **-ment (agree-agreement), -ion (promote-promotion), -ation (pronounce-pronunciation), -sion (permit-permission), -al (approve-approval), -age (leak-leakage)**, and so on. The inconsistency of the form in word formation, therefore, might have led the students to make lexical errors in writing as they were also pressured by the time to finish their tasks under their instructor's and the writer's supervision. Lack of practice in writing and in speaking could be one of the causes why the students had difficulty in using suitable lexical items. However, the students attempted to find words to write even though the words might not be very appropriate such as in the letters of S1 (I am **positions** manager in there), and S3 (I believe you will **success** for secretary position) apart from appropriateness what they meant to write in their letters could clearly be interpreted and understood by the readers.

The findings also revealed that misuse of punctuation was the second most frequent category of errors made by the students particularly capitalization. It is likely that the students often began the first word of every sentence with small letters. Such a mistake was assumed to have arisen partly because the students were running out of time and partly because of their carelessness in writing.

Spelling mistakes often occur in the students' letters and varied in form. The data showed that the students seemed to be uncertain of the exact spelling of words and wrote them as they could. The reason could be that the students may have been confused by the complication and irregularities in the English writing system that eventually led them to make spelling errors. Experience has proved that teachers of English may sometimes make mistakes in spelling for the above reason. For example, the word **believe** may be misspelled **beive**, the word **necessary** may be misspelled **nessecary**, and may other possible misspelling in the English writing system may also be experienced by native speakers of English.

Problems arising in spelling may also occur as a result of the interference of the students' L1 spelling and pronunciation where some words appear to be spelled and pronounced closely to Bahasa Indonesia spelling and pronunciation as in the words **electronica** and **export** (S1), and the word **neogosiation** (S14). Besides, misspelling could also occur as a result of the students' inadequate knowledge of the rules of English pronunciation which may effect spelling as well. Students doubled consonant sounds after being preceded b vowel before the consonants end with a morpheme such as **-ing** as in the word **marketing** (S15) where the stress is placed on the first syllable and there is no need to double the consonant sound /t/.

Problems in coherence and cohesion may have emerged because of the students' inadequate knowledge of how to relate one sentence to another using grammatical links in sentences and transition signals. At the same time, they may have meant of time as 75 minutes might not have been enough for them to complete the task. It is understood that L2 students of intermediate level after taking the course for only three months might not be able to organize their ideas properly in a piece of writing. But since the task was only writing a letter to the students' friends where the most important point was to deliver the required information which was in some respect different from writing an essay, the students had gradually managed to do their task better.

In terms of relevance or content it was found out that most of the students could deliver the message to their friends although some of them did not include some information such as the availability to be assigned to work in Batam, Malaysia, or Singapore. Nevertheless, it was assumed that the absence of the message may have been caused by the students' forgetfulness to include them in their letters or because of being pressured by the time to finish the task.

VI. CONCLUSION

Having analysed the data within the whole range of the students' problems in doing the writing task, the findings provided the evidence that grammar seemed to be the major problem encountered by the students in writing. In fact, errors in using verbs and plural forms were more noticeable compared to other grammatical components in the students' letter. However, the students had gradually shown good effort to build sentences correctly.

Problems in using punctuation ranked the second most frequent type of errors made by the students even though the use of punctuation in their letters seemed to be restricted to the use of capitalization an commas. The results also proved that the students founds it difficult to choose appropriate words in context as well as word formation as a result of lack of vocabulary and linguistic knowledge of the language.

Numerous problems in spelling were found ranging from misplacing letters in words, adding letters in them, mixing English and Indonesian spelling. In the case of coherence and cohesion, the findings lead us to believe that the students' difficulty had to do with the organization of ideas in sentences in paragraphs where the absence of cohesive markers

was often noticeable. Yet, all the weaknesses and strengths discovered in the students' letters imply that more improvements need to be made in all aspects of writing. However, the study indicated that the students' writing performance on the whole was good enough since the important messages required by the readers could be delivered by the students.

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The Evolution of Concept of Popular Culture and Its Significance

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Abstract—The paper has checked the evolution of concept of popular culture, which presents the essential meanings and its hidden reasons to general readers. Built upon the conceptual evolution, i.e. roughly from British School, Frankfurt School until French School, the thesis explores the possible characteristics of today's popular culture of China in the ever-changing era. First, subjectivity of the people, i.e. the subject of China's popular culture is composed of average people; Second, aesthetic experience, i.e. China's popular culture is committed to perfecting her subjects' mind and moral sense by providing beautiful contents, but not ugly immoral ones as currently appeared on new media; Third, "cultural consciousness," i.e. the subjects should have confidence, reflection upon China's popular culture, and not reject "others" blindly.

Index Terms—popular culture, subjectivity, aesthetic experience, cultural consciousness

I. INTRODUCTION

Today, China's "the Silk Road Economic Belt and the 21st-Century Maritime Silk Road" initial, initialed "B&R", is going to global. So is China's culture spread over the world at the same time. Generally, we are preferred and proud of our ancient civilization and culture. But, it's not enough and impossible for us to just spread and disseminate the ancient civilization and culture over the world. Compared with our great cultural forefathers, our contemporary culture is not much more influenced and systematic as the traditional classical ones. How could we cultivate and bring about our new culture today? It's a task with emergence and significance under the circumstances of new media. Logically, we may have two sources to foster it; one is to make use of domestic sources, the other is to absorb the best from foreign culture, which has been proved to be the most effective way to strengthen and develop a new culture in history time and again. Not only should we transmit the traditional oldies but also contemporary culture to the world as well. In modern times, popular culture is well developed among other nations over the world. There is no reason for us to deny the fact. If we can have a clear mind about the trends of popular culture of other nations, China's contemporary cultural growth is bound to benefit greatly. So we are going to trace down the main trends of popular culture, and hope to get some proposals for us.

Since Matthew Arnold, one of founding fathers in popular cultural studies, set off the studies in the last few decades of the 19th century, the studies have witnessed the history of its own for over a century. Though scholars have been intensely interested in the research for such a long time, they still can't reach a final agreement on it, and hold diversified opinions, which is quite evident to indicate the complication, changeability and difficulty in grasping the essential facts of the concept. First, the difficulty is clearly shown in naming it properly. Over the past 100 years, popular culture has gotten different names. Besides the name--popular culture, it is also called populace culture in its initial stage, mass culture, industrial culture in modern society, consumption culture and media culture at present; and yet, the names, listed just a few here, can continue. From the different names mentioned above, we may notice the development of the studies and the scholars' recognition of the concept toward it. Second, for popular culture itself has too many dimensions indeed, it is hard for the scholars to understand its characteristics. During different periods, even in the same period, the scholars have held different ideas about the characteristics. Among them, they have not always shared the same opinions with each other, some opinions are similar, and others are not at all. Even the same scholar is not necessary to keep his understanding in his life time. Some of them think popular culture is lower, vulgar and rude, a kind of passive culture; others take it as equal, popular, practical and radical, an active culture. Ideologically speaking, some look it as a representation of dominating ideology, but for others, it is an ideology embodying the average people; and some consider it is made of the popular subjects; others regard it as media culture. The diversified ideas of popular culture, picked up and listed here, are the point of departure for us to explore it. Based upon it, the thesis mainly consists of two sections: one is to revisit and renew the evolution of the concept, put forward by different scholars concerned with it; another part, it includes a brief discussion on today's popular culture in China, whose sources are partially derived from the evolution.

II. THE EVOLUTION OF THE CONCEPT OF POPULAR CULTURE

A. British School

As we know that popular culture is a kind of historical product and phenomenon rather than natural one. It is clearly

denoted that popular culture is not born naturally, spontaneously in the process and development of human society, but at some specific and special time. When popular culture is mentioned in cultural studies, scholars are intent to trace back to the great giant, herald, pioneer, Matthew Arnold in the studies in Britain. In his eyes, culture is the best thought, knowledge and speech of human being ever since the time immemorial (Arnold, 2008, p.18). In Matthew Arnold's era, the majorities of average people are poor and is not available to school education, so they can't read and write appropriately. And Arnold holds the view that the populace is illiterate, low and rude, and they have no cultural cultivation; in his eyes, so is the culture of the populace. Because of the lower culture, their speech or manner is not civil as well. That's why Arnold has named it as culture of populace. In the time, because of his great influence, there are conflicts between the populace culture and the elitist one throughout Great Britain. Even there is a potential threat—anarchy—to existing government from the lower populace for their barbarism. The attitude toward the populace culture is inherited by F.R. Leavis. To him, the traditional classical culture of Britain is divided into the elite culture and mass civilization by Industrial Revolution. Here, the so-called mass civilization refers to mass culture, according to F.R. Leavis, which is commercialized, lower, and coarse. And it is consumed and accepted by the uneducated mass, without criticism (Zhu, 2009, p.438). Film, broadcasting, popular fiction and publication, and advertisement, etc., are listed in the ranks of mass culture. F. R. Leavis also maintains that mass culture is banal, standard, snobbish, paralyzing and poisoning the mass, which is caused by the industrialization in Great Britain. For his life-long devotion to the studies, he is regarded as a pioneer and leader of Leavis School among cultural academicians. In his works, there are worries and concerns about the mass culture hidden beneath his lines. From Arnold to Leavis, they have shared some beliefs on the mass culture. Broadly speaking, they are a kind of elitism. The outstanding disciples, who have inherited the elitism, are Richard Hoggart, Edward Thompson, Stuart Hall and Raymond Williams. But, in fact, they all are not always faithful to Arnoldian tradition in the end. They have their own theory on popular culture. For instance, Hoggart holds that popular culture is popularized and spread by average workers, which doesn't mean it is an escape to daily life. On the contrary, the life world of working class is full of colors and tastes of their own, not dull and drab at all. From Hoggart, who thinks highly of working class, we can see his idea of popular culture is diverged from his teachers, F. R. Leavis, who actually have contempt to average people. That is to say, to popular culture, Hoggart is commendatory, Arnold and Leavis are derogatory. The other renowned disciple, Raymond Williams, also, insists that popular culture is the daily life and experience of average men and women, instead of the so-called traditional classics, which is also a react against the elitists, like Leavis School. Though the scholars are far different from the opinions about popular culture, they have contributed their wisdom to the cultural studies, and are called British School as well as Birmingham School, who have set up the Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies at Birmingham University, initialed as CCCS.

B. Frankfurt School

It is understandable for general readers about British School, there are more differences than similarities on issues related. For whatever, from Arnold down F. R. Leavis to Raymond Williams, a representative of Birmingham School, there is huge span of time gap. And the situation and context in different stages of history are totally different and diversified contrasted against the precedent ones. In fact, even within a same school in a similar time, the scholars are most likely to have distinctive voices of their own. So are the ideas on popular culture from Frankfurt School, for the studies center of the School is located in Frankfurt, Germany. Generally speaking, the School is referred as a School of criticism, or negation against the contemporary industrialized society. As to the criticism against capitalism, they are unanimously agreed to uncover the dark sides of capitalism. Nevertheless, when it comes to popular culture, there are not concerted voices among them; some are singing their own songs, and others are just contrastive and contradictory. And more importantly, the theory of popular culture is an indispensable part of the School, which is hard to be neglected by the scholars related.

In the last 1930s, Frankfurt School, who had been devoted to the studies of the influence of popular culture and media upon ideology and society, has coined a new term—"cultural industry" (Lu & Wang, 2009, p.89), which is quickly accepted by academic circle, and is referred to both the process of cultural industrialization of mass production and the commercial system promoted by the process. To the members of Frankfurt School, popular culture is not derived from the spontaneous rise of the culture of ordinary mass, the dominated class, but a specific culture which is popularized among the mass by making the use of popular media, like radio, loudspeaker, film, and gramophone etc, a kind of modern devices, invented in last 1920s or 1930s. They consider it as a hotchpotch, a mixture of all kinds of cultural forms, which is imposed upon the mass from the upper ruling class. Here, we can see the distinction between the School and other scholars. To Frankfurt, the so-called popular culture is not a culture of average people, but one culture whose vehicles are popular media, the tools and devices to spread any culture; what's more, they are available to the mass easily and directly. Hence, to Frankfurt scholars, the studies of popular culture are mainly focused on media devices as well as its content and form. However, to general readers, popular culture first means the content is easy and simple, and then, the mass is the subject of the culture. As we mentioned above, the Frankfurt is united harmoniously to criticize and make the anatomy of modern capitalist society, but they are far from the same with each other on popular culture. Among their arguments, there are roughly three varied ideas on popular culture though they have agreements on exposing capitalism. A first group of the idea is led by Max Horkheimer and Theodor Adorno, a second one is noted for Benjamin Walter, an optimist to popular culture, a third one is represented by Herbert Marcuse, who is famous for so-called single dimensional culture.

During 1930s~1940s, as it is known to us that, Frankfurt School, for their Jewish identity, for which was persecuted by German Nazi, was forced to exile in the U.S.A. Afterwards, the School, headed by Horkheimer and Adorno, have reconsidered the widespread persecution in Germany, and reflected upon why German Nazi ideology has been popularized and predominated over the common people, and finally reached a remark that popular psychology was the devil to play an utmost role in the Holocaust. The people's psychology is affected and controlled by the contemporary ideology of German authority, which had also dictated the national cultural industry. Of course, Horkheimer and Adorno have noticed that there are connections between the mass culture or cultural industry and the ideology. They have witnessed and experienced the ideological propaganda adopted by German fascist governments, who made clever use of the popular Medias, like broadcasting loudspeaker, newspaper, radio etc, and the use of the new scientific transportation, like automobile, train and ship to carry millions of Jews systematically to Auschwitz Camp and Buchenwald Camp, which are referred to as modern "factory" described in the Medias controlled by German authority to deceive the Jews, and be handled--murdered. At that time, even there are a lot of Jews to be deceived, for who are willing to help mobilize their fellow Jews to follow German Nazis. Apparently, to us modern citizens, all the actions are barbarism, but why are so many people set in the Nazi trap without knowing it? According to Frankfurt School, why the trap is made successfully in the public, it is because the Nazi made use of the popular media, modern transportation and the like modern tools to dupe the Jews; and at the time the average people have naturally accepted the idea that science is too innocent and good to kill them, so that they would collaborate with the fascists. So, in a sense, the average people have a belief that modernity is always progressive and beautiful. And German authority just takes the advantage of the innocent belief in cultural industry. Actually, all the cultural products are embodiments of the German Nazi ideology. Therefore, to Adorno and Horkheimer, cultural industry, i.e. popular culture, is not formed and organized spontaneously by mass people, "the lower class", but the representation or reproduction of dominating ideology from "the upper". After Frankfurt School was moved to America, they continued to observe and criticize American society. They think that America is a society, characterized by consumption and pleasure-seeking. In America, culture industry is one of profitable industries, which is a system of pleasure industry to massively duplicate, propagate cultural products or goods. Or, frankly speaking, popular culture is consumed like any other goods in markets; it is both a consumption culture and culture of hedonism. In short, from the viewpoint of Adorno and Horkheimer, popular culture is uniform, standard, commercial, pleasure-seeking, ingratiating, false, mandatory, etc, in content; and in terms of person, they are slack, passive, atomic, isolated and something like that.

Yet, there is a kind of distinctive opinion in the School, represented by Walter Benjamin, from Adorno and Horkheimer. Benjamin is not always negative to the popular media. He holds that, as science and technology are developing rapidly; the means and methods of production of art surely will take great changes and be upgraded, so is the forms of art to be changed, which will bring about new types of art. And a second idea taken by Benjamin is, since the production of human society is in a new era of mechanical duplication, so is the production of art, so can art be reproduced and duplicated as well, if not absolutely, theoretically speaking at least. But the modern technology of duplication, like photograph, cinema, etc, is far from the same as the traditional craftsmanship of duplication, like xylography, lithographic printing. The new copy technology can bring the imitation of art upward to a fresh realm, which is impossible to reach for the original product of art, taking camera as a good example, which can offer viewers life-like scene and highly defined colors, which are also impossible to distinguish for naked eyes. However, the aura of traditional art is disappeared and replaced by the mechanical copy of art. A third one, which Benjamin is distinctive about popular culture, is that he has strong faith in the subjects of popular culture. He doesn't think all the people are numb and insensitive in mind, some parts of them, being politically progressive, can be organized to be revolutionists to overthrow the capitalists. What's more, he doesn't agree on the idea, i.e. popular culture and elitist culture are not necessarily conflicted and contradicted as Horkheimer and Adorno have claimed. In Benjamin's opinion, popular culture is not rude and uncultivated.

A third part of distinctive idea of popular culture is Herbert Marcuse, whose ideas are recorded in his work *One Dimensional Man—Studies in the Ideology of Advanced Industrial Society*. In the book, he has formulated that popular culture is one dimensional, and the subjects of the culture are one dimensional too. Marcuse (1991) refers American society as post-industrialized society, which is predominated by hedonism and consumptionism. Because of abundant materials and goods in the society, most of the citizens are set free of starvation and coldness in America. It is the rich living condition that has led the conflicts and contradictions between working class and capitalist to be cleared up, the workers' class consciousness to be eliminated, turned the workers into soulless ones. Simply and frankly, he is warning us that working class will not overthrow their capitalist class anymore, who used to take it as their ultimate goal. And as a result of the eradication of class conflicts, there is only one ideology existed in the industrialized society—the dominating ideology of capitalist, which is criticized as one dimensional society. And it just brings up the one dimensional culture. Another key point in the book is a discussion on popular culture and the elitist culture. Marcuse admits that, still there are difference and division between popular culture and elitist culture in industrial society, however, in post-industrial one, elitist culture isn't degenerated downward to popular culture, in Marcuse's opinions, which refers to golden oldies, traditional classics, and is not well suited the context of the post-industrial society, and is rejected by the context. Before the industrial society, the elitist culture, though enjoyed and appreciated by few minorities of the society, at least, has two dimensions, including conflicts, negation and criticism against the existing

commercial order; in post-industrial society, for science and technology are rapidly improved, one good way brought by that is the majority of proletarian, who are set free from the hard labor and stricken poverty in the past, the other way is the popular media invented rapidly, which are available to average people to enjoy art and culture. While the people are enjoying using the new media, the ruling ideology is permeated easily into every domain of their daily life, either public or private domain. Though this culture has various forms, the essence of the content is the representation of national ideology, which controls, crumbles and corrupts people's mind; and the workers and the management seem to be no more hostile each other. Seeing the tactic government against the working class planned carefully by the capitalist, whether Herbert Marcuse refers it as "totalitarian" dictatorship, or in Antonio Gramsci's term, who is an Italian Marxist, as "hegemony" of government (Leitch, Cain, Finke, et al.(ed.), 2001, p.1135-1138); they merely hit the essence of the culture. Above all, borrowing Marcuse's remarks (1991), the society is one dimensional, so is popular culture fostered in the society; that is to say, there is merely one culture from the upper ruling class. Marcuse maintains that it is the culture that turns the average people into the single dimensional, just like an isolated atom, which are deprived of rebellious desire and negative ability.

C. *French School*

French School, generally, is referred to a group of thinkers on culture in France, like Jean-Francois Lyotard, Roland Barthes, Jean Baudrillard, to name just a few here. They are also called as post-modernists. Of course, there are other post-modernist theoreticians in other countries, like Frederica Jameson in America, Terry Eagleton in Britain. But, here, the thesis is merely going to centre on Jean Baudrillard, for whose theory on mass media is predictive and logically more connected with the gist discussed in the thesis. Baudrillard began to pay his attention to popular culture in last 1960s. He points out that culture has been commercialized, which means two aspects, one is that culture can be exchanged and circulated like any other commodities, a second one is the real value of culture is lost but the value of exchange remained. To modern media, Baudrillard believes that it is a pusher or promoter to accelerate the degeneration from modern society of production downwards to post-modernist society of simulacrum. In post-modernist society, everyone can see implosion, high culture and low culture, phenomenon and reality, traditional kind of dual oppositions cleared up here and there. (John, 2004, p.152~153) Modern media is woven into the webs of carriers, which have made information into the webs of contents; and the simulacrum and information are huge enough to cover up the sky, which gets formed a super-reality beyond the reality. And it is hard for general readers to distinguish the reality from its representation or vice versa. Apparently, the modern media seem to be neutral to present viewers the reality, but "conceal and cover" the true story of the reality in fact, which eradicates the meaning and truth. And a new type of inequality is established again between the people and popular media. The people, faced with great number of information, might have many choices, but the true story is that, the people have no communication or dialogue with the media only to accept the information released by the media. Either this one or that one are you made to choose. So, the people have to select and accept what they are confronted. In brief, the people of popular culture are passive; somehow, the media vehicle is an evil-doer; the content is full of lies.

D. *Popular Culture and Folk Culture*

General readers might be confused with the two concepts of popular culture and folk culture respectively, for both the two share something in common and vary greatly in many ways. Folk culture derives from the average people, so-called "the below", "the lower party", is made by the people themselves to represent their life and experiences, which agrees with the ideas from Richard Hoggart and Raymond Williams. It is not imposed upon the people from the above, not the kind of dominate ideology, but "a public domain" of the people, for the people and by the people, has least connection with the elitist culture. This point is far away from Frankfurt School. And folk culture is intent to focus on their traditional materials, really democratic if defined by its participants; and popular culture is keen on present situation, seeking for a kind of real democracy all the time. To some extent, the two are overlapped.

E. *Summary of the Evolution of Popular Culture*

From the analysis and synthesis of the conceptual evolution of popular culture, a clear map is shown here. Arnold and F.R. Leavis, who belong to the elitists, don't think highly of popular culture. This can be explained from the context Arnold lives in British history, a transitional era from traditional to industrial one. Being an aristocrat, he has good grounds to maintain the high and noble tradition and culture to stabilize the society. Moreover, at that time, many of the common people are illiterate and uncultivated, so they are rude and anarchists. Anarchism is the last condition Arnold can bear. The arisen contempt is a kind of defense of the existing order. As to F.R. Leavis, a professor of Cambridge University, one of the elitist intellectuals as well, witnesses the decline of British power after two World Wars. And Britain is earnest to need peace to repair the scars left by the Wars, he doesn't want to see violence and ferocity, i.e. anarchism. And he has inherited the essential part from Arnold, and certainly is bound to defend the elitism as well. Conversely, Richard Hoggart and Raymond Williams, as outstanding disciples of Leavis School, try to praise popular culture because they are born in a family of working class; they understand their daily life of workers and defend the culture from the working class, whose ideas are dynamic and progressive.

Though Adorno and Horkheimer criticize popular culture sharply, they are mere critics, theoretically and spiritually, but not practically; Benjamin is taking a technological intent, which proves he is dialectic on one hand, and supportive

to modern media on another hand. Pitiably, he is somewhat neglected the spirituality, creativity and uniqueness of culture. For Marcuse, he is attacking bitterly against the mass culture too, and so is his attack launched like Adorno and Horkheimer, is not radical and revolutionary, but ideological. That is why his theory sounds like a “Utopia”. Up to now, inevitably, we will ask why Frankfurt School has been waging theoretical struggles instead of an uprising against the ruling institution. Because they claim that their responsibility is to criticize the industrial society of capitalism, and to awaken working class not to forget their mission to overthrow the ruling capitalist, which has brought them the reputation of Western Marxists. Yet, the situation and the time are changed, it is impossible for the working class to overturn capitalism by arms. Therefore, the School insists to negating the existing system by launching ideological, theoretical attack, which is just a war of words, not practical revolt. And so is their criticism to popular culture.

Jean Baudrillard, forewarning of the negative influence of popular media before the media were globalized and Internet was popularized, and is recognized as a prophet of media culture. He has remarked, modern media is a threat to accelerate alienated soul, to dismember a country and individual mentality and personality. Obviously, what Baudrillard predicted is to awaken the world to be alert to the disadvantage and danger to destroy the nations and individuals. His foresights are mainly benefitted from Jean-Francois Lyotard and Jurgen Habermas, a German philosopher, whose theory have drawn Baudrillard’s focus on modern information and media. This is why he is capable of forewarning of the harmful influence, and criticizing the media for it.

III. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE EVOLUTION

The evolution of the concept of popular culture is of great importance and significance to the cultural growth in China today. We may make use of the advantage of popular culture to improve and mend the deficiency of today’s culture in China. It is known to us that China is making progress in transitional phase. Our cultural progress made is lagged behind the economy in China, though it has long history of civilization for over 5,000 years. We are not strong and powerful in contemporary culture. Nowadays, with the globalization of information and economy, for us, it is the best time to absorb the best culture from the world, but also it’s the worst time to have more “negative” cultures, as Baudrillard addressed. There are too many trends for youngsters to resist and pick up the information correctly from webs of Internet. So, if we think about Baudrillard’s sharp remarks, especially about the negative sides of Internet, we can’t help worrying about the children in China today. The thrilling cry of “saving children” seems to echo around us again. It is critical for schools and the like organization, institution to take measures against the negative effects. As to popular culture, surely, neither can we follow Frankfurt School nor British School. Because the former stresses too much on the vehicles of culture, and not practical; and the later, they pays much attention to the division and conflict of culture. We should have new features of our own in cultural construction, faced the new situation—globalized Internets. Taking the best from the both, we have following proposals to develop our new type of culture. First, subjectivity, it means the people should play the role of subject, not by the elitist minority. The new culture in China today is derived from the so-called “lower” side, mainly created by them, not by and from the upper one, the ruling elitists; second, the best aesthetic experience, this is stressed that our popular culture is devoted to good and beautiful experience for the people, not the “ugly and dirty” one on some Internet, which is vulgar and low, harmful to youngsters. This is to ensure the culture to serve the final ends to entertain the subject of the people mentally and physically, and to help them form healthy personality. In short, here what we try to avoid is the destructive sides of Internet culture. Third, “Cultural consciousness”, it refers to we are supposed to have cultural confidence of our own, but not blindly reject “others” at the same time, on other hand, we must rethink and reflect upon the content, type, form, carrier, receptor of the culture from time to time, to develop and create something new. We are certain to fully make use of folk culture, old and new, home and abroad, in a critical manner. After all, not only will China’s culture provide spiritual bread for Chinese people, but also should contribute to the cultural treasury of the world, that is, the new culture is definitely universal.

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The Construction of Multi-dimensional Interaction Mode in College English Teaching*

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Abstract—With the increasing importance of English in current society, it's an urgent task for college English teachers to conduct research on ways of improving college English teaching and learning. In this study, an effective teaching mode---Multi-dimensional interaction mode is trying to be constructed based on the theory of constructivism, communicative language teaching method and interactive teaching mode, in the meantime, the application and practice of this mode is analyzed, and characteristics and effects of this mode are also discussed.

Index Terms—college English teaching, interactive teaching mode, multi-dimensional interaction

I. INTRODUCTION

With the development of international trade and globalization, the importance of English is increasingly apparent and the so called English Mania is still prevailing in most parts of China. From primary schools to universities, teachers and students are making great efforts to learn English but often without satisfactory results. At present, college English teaching is undergoing a reform with the purpose of cultivating college graduates who are skillful at English listening, speaking, reading and writing. It's an important issue for college teachers to conduct research regarding how to achieve this goal, especially how to help students develop their ability in English communication. With the fast development of educational technology, at present most college classrooms have been equipped with computers and projectors and have become multimedia classrooms. With the assistance of these equipment, classroom teaching and learning has taken on a new look. Students can enjoy more vivid video and audio materials as well as pictures, tables, diagrams, which will help their understanding of the texts and enrich their knowledge. In order to make the most of the multimedia classrooms and achieve the best result of classroom teaching and learning, an effective teaching mode---Multi-dimensional interaction mode is trying to be constructed in this paper based on the theory of constructivism, communicative language teaching method and interactive teaching mode, in the meantime, the application and practice of this mode is analyzed, and characteristics and effects of this mode are also discussed.

II. RELATED THEORIES

A. Constructivism Learning Theory

Constructivism is a philosophical framework or theory of learning which argues humans construct meaning from current knowledge structures. Constructivism was first proposed by Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget, who didn't agree with the traditional view that children's play was aimlessly unimportant. On the contrary, he regarded children's play as an important and necessary part of their cognitive development. He suggested that through processes of accommodation and assimilation, individuals construct new knowledge from their experiences. The cognitive development theory "Children are scientists" by Piaget (1950), along with the historical cultural development psychology theory by Vygotsky (1978), the meaningful learning theory by Ausubel (1968) and the discovery learning theory by Bruner (1961) lay a foundation for the formalization of Constructivism. In 1980s constructivism began to be influential in the western world. British scholars Williams. M and Burden. R L (1977) proposed the theory of social constructivism in their book "Psychology for Language Teachers", in which they discussed the four factors influencing learning: teachers, learners, tasks and contexts. These four factors are not irrelevant to each other, instead, they interact with each other and the process of learning is a dynamic process with the four factors interacting with one another. The teaching concept of constructivism reflect in the change of teachers' roles, who are changing to the assistant and facilitator from the introducer and deliverer of knowledge. According to this theory, learning is not a simple one-way process form teachers to students, instead, learning occurs through the construction of meaning.

In the educational sphere, constructivism arose in the 1990s in the western world and is accepted by scholars in China since 21st century. This theory has exerted a profound influence on foreign language teaching in our country since its introduction as can be seen in the aspect of teaching concept, teaching mode, faculty training and so on. Research concerning constructivism is one of the hottest topics in our foreign language teaching field. Teachers and experts study and analyze this theory from different angles such as its inspiration to foreign language teaching, its application in

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classroom language teaching and its assistance in taking the advantage of the multimedia classroom equipment.

It is worth noting that constructivism itself is not a particular pedagogy. It just describes how learning should happen. In short, the theory of constructivism suggests that learners construct knowledge.

B. Communicative Language Teaching Method

Communicative language teaching method is a method aiming to enhance language function and cultivate students' communicative ability including the improvement of listening, speaking, reading and writing. It holds that language is a tool for social communication, so teaching should be arranged according to the specific communicative context like hospital, bank, airport, etc. The emphasis of teaching should be designed according to the students' majors and possible future careers so as to improve the practicability, objective, and interest of teaching.

Communicative teaching method is an effective method which can train students' ability of language application and it was introduced to our country by well-known scholars like Hu wenzhong (1982) in the early 1980s and it plays a significant role in the field of foreign language teaching. The objective of college English teaching is to cultivate the students' comprehensive ability of language application, especially the ability of listening and speaking as as to communicate smoothly both in oral and written form. Communicative teaching method mainly deals with a couple of relationship: the relationship of teacher and students, and the relationship of fluency and accuracy.

C. Interactive Teaching Mode

Interaction theory originated from Europe in the 20th century. It was put forward by Mead and improved and perfected by his student Blumer (1980) who proposed symbol interaction theory and other later researchers. 1950s witnessed the beginning of interacting teaching approach, which focuses on researching how teaching approaches affect interaction between teachers and students. American professor Palincsar (1986) from Michigan University proposed the concept of "interactive" classroom teaching, and claimed that students are the main part of the teaching process, students' acquisition of knowledge is a process of continuous self-improvement and self-construction, during which students need to establish an interactive cooperative relationship with others so as to improve their own ability to study, while the teachers only need to provide students with instruction, assistance and a kind of studying atmosphere. Interactive teaching has always been a focus in international education and language teaching field. Ashley, B.J (1969) classified the classroom teacher-student interaction patterns into three categories: teacher-centered, students-centered, knowledge-centered. In fact, interactive teaching approach is a form of development in communicative teaching approach and aims to transform the traditional teaching to the interactive teaching. Hatch holds that the process of learning through interaction is equally important for language learners.

Under the guideline of interactive theory, classroom teaching and learning should be based on the interaction between teacher and students, students and students, even learners and learning materials and learning equipment, meanwhile, teaching and learning process should be in a state of dynamic cooperation and interdependence between teachers and students.

III. MULTI-DIMENSIONAL INTERACTIVE MODE IN COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

A. The Concept of Multi-dimensional Interactive Mode in College English Teaching

Interactive teaching mode regards the teaching process as a dynamic, interactive process and is a creative and practical teaching mode. It reflects in the interaction between different factors such as students, teachers and students, learners and learning materials, people and computers, people and internet, etc. The interaction between teacher and students mainly reflects in the communication and interaction in and outside classroom, the accomplishment of group assignments through cooperative learning method, and so on. Many college teachers and researcher have conducted studies on it, for example, Guo Jianjun (2005) has published a book entitled "An exploration of the construction of multi-dimensional teaching mode".

The so-called "multi-dimensional" refers to the multiple factors and layers related to teaching. Firstly, we have multiple interactive parties. In multi-dimensional interactive teaching mode, teacher and students, students and students will receive the information from each other and will interact with each other, and every individual and every group learn as well influence each other. Secondly, we have multiple interactive contents. The interaction between teacher and students includes not only knowledge of English language but also exchange of diverse concepts, emotions, cultures and so forth. Hence, the teacher and students will know more about each other which will help the teacher to modify their teaching methods or materials to meet the different needs of different students. Thirdly, we have multiple interactive media. The implement of multi-dimensional interactive teaching in college English classroom must depend on the advanced multi-media equipment, which helps to change the traditional teaching mode with a blackboard and chalk. With the help of multi-media equipment, students can get access to the learning material in a more vivid way with audio and video aspects of the materials both presented for them. In this research, the interactive factors go beyond people and classroom, including not only teacher and students but also other teaching and learning media and places.

The "multi-dimensional" interactive mode in college English teaching has its own distinctive features. Firstly, in comparison to traditional classroom teaching, this mode will be much more attractive to students in that it provides students with more multiple and more abundant learning materials in a more flexible and interactive teaching and

learning mode. Then, with this flexibility and interactivity, different students will find their own interests and values in different learning procedure and enhance their confidence in learning English. Eventually, with the help of the teaching mode, there will be win-win in college English classroom teaching and learning. On one hand, in the process of participating in classroom activities students can benefit from as well as contribute to classroom teaching and learning; on the other hand, teachers will also enrich their own knowledge and teaching experiences from the interaction with students in classroom.

B. The Teaching Objective of Multi-dimensional Interactive Mode in College English Teaching

According to the college English syllabus issued by the ministry of education, the objective of college English teaching is to cultivate the students' comprehensive English application ability, especially their listening and speaking ability, which will help them to communicate effectively in their future study, career and social interaction. Meanwhile, their autonomous learning ability should also be enhanced so as to meet the need of the social development and international communication. In this research, the construction of multi-dimensional interactive mode in college English teaching is based on this syllabus and adds its own features with the objectives as follows: In listening ability, students should be able to understand English classes, lectures, daily conversations and English broadcast and TV programs at the speed of 130-150 words per minute. As for speaking ability, students should be able to use English to communicate with each other in the process of learning and be able to discuss a certain topic in English as well as make English presentations after some preparation with correct pronunciation and intonation. In comprehension ability, students should be able to understand English articles at the speed of 70 words every minute. And in completing fast reading tasks their speed should reach 100 words per minute. The ability of scanning and skimming is also required. They should be able to locate certain details and summarize main ideas of different articles. In writing aspect, students should be able to finish writing tasks like narration, argumentation, exposition and letters, notices etc. They should be able to finish a composition of at least 120 words within half an hour and translate short articles of about 150 words within half an hour.

To sum up, the construction of multi-dimensional interactive mode in college English teaching mode is in consistent with the requirement of college English teaching reform with the purpose of improve students' comprehensive English ability. The objective of this novel mode of teaching is in consistent with the above mentioned teaching objectives proposed by the college English syllabus.

C. The Construction of Multi-dimensional Interactive Mode in College English Teaching

Multi-dimensional interactive mode is a multiple pattern of interaction instead of the traditional way of teacher-student interaction. This mode focuses on students-centered activities in which students study actively and autonomously, meanwhile teachers instruct and inspire students to explore knowledge based upon the above mentioned theories. In this paper, an integral and meaningful multi-dimensional interactive mode in college English teaching is trying to be constructed based on teaching theories through teaching activities, aiming to motivate students' study interests and improve their English study. The "multi-dimensional interaction" is this paper mainly refers to three dimensional interaction consisting of the interaction of various factors in classroom; the interaction of classroom teaching and after-class learning; and the interaction of students' knowledge in their major and in English language.

1. Dimension one -- the construction of interaction among various factors in classroom

In traditional college English classroom, teaching procedures go in sequence of vocabulary and phrases explaining, text translation, exercise correction. The teachers' teaching contents consist of a large number of words, phrases, example sentences, it is the teacher who does the most of classroom discourse and the students have very few opportunities to participate in the classroom learning. The most part of students' activity is to take down notes of what the teacher teaches. As a result, students have very little interests in college English classroom learning. In order to overcome this shortcoming of college English classroom teaching, the construction of a brand new interactive mode in college English classroom has profound significance. The procedure of classroom teaching includes a sequence of classroom activities like students' oral presentation, teachers' lead-in, students' group work, the study and analysis of text, the practice of key words and expressions, group discussions, role play, etc.

In constructing this multi-dimensional interactive mode, firstly, the interaction among various factors in classroom is constructed. In dimension one, the construction of multi-dimensional classroom interactions focuses on four aspects: The interaction between teachers and students; the interactions between students; the interactions between teachers; and the interaction between students and information technology.

In this mode, teachers shift their roles from dominators of the classroom to the partners of learning. Teachers' are on the mission to assist students to discover and explore the knowledge, inspire the students to think, challenge and find solutions to problems as much as they can with the purpose of maximizing their learning ability. Classroom organization is the key to this transformation. In the process of teaching, multiple ways of teaching should be employed such as role play, classroom presentation, group work, group discussion, games, quizzes, and so on.

Then, the interactions between students are to be constructed to comprise the first dimension of this multi-dimensional interactive mode in classroom teaching. Students learn knowledge in the process of diverse activities in classroom. They will be able to enrich their knowledge as well as enhance their ability in the cooperation with their peers. Studies by Forman and Cazden (1985) suggest that students who are working together and having peer support

could increase oral exchange and be led to higher levels of task engagement and problem solving.

Nextly, interactions between teachers are also an important aspect in the first dimension. In one classroom, there is only one teacher who is implementing the teaching task. But how well the teacher conducts the teaching depends on a variety of factors among which the interaction between associates and experienced peers is of crucial importance due to the fact that in doing so teachers will have more ideas as to how to design a classroom teaching activities and have more information and inspiration as to how to demonstrate the related knowledge to the students.

Lastly in this dimension are the interactions between students and information technology. In this information age, college campus can be said to be an absolutely digital space. Students are surrounded by information technology everywhere and they have access to the internet almost 24/7. They have been accustomed to obtaining information via internet. As a result, classroom teaching should make full use of information technology such as computers, internet, real-time message, online homework, etc. Students' interaction with information technology will have great influence on their motivation of learning, acquisition of knowledge, feedback of classroom teaching effect and communication with their teachers.

2. Dimension two -- the construction of interaction of classroom teaching and after-class learning

Classroom teaching is the main channel of college English teaching. But with the abundance of English knowledge of the limit of classroom time, only learning English in classroom is far from enough. So classroom teaching and learning is only a part of college English studying. How to activate the students to make more efforts to learn English in their after-class time to assimilate the classroom knowledge and to improve learning efficiency is an important issue. So in this study, the construction of multi-dimensional interactive mode in college English classroom teaching also takes the construction of interaction between classroom teaching and after-class learning as an essential task. To achieve this goal, teachers will seriously design the students' after-class assignment to make an effective connection between classroom teaching and after-class learning so as to lengthen the teaching time and train students' ability to study autonomously. For example, students are assigned group work in every unit with two groups each time. Then in class, one group will make an oral presentation of the related background information of this unit and the other group will give a detailed introduction of the contents of the text as well as an analysis of the text structure. In this way, students have to be engaged in after-class learning and make good preparation for every English class. What's more, in classroom they will participate more in the teaching process.

3. Dimension three -- the construction of interaction of students' knowledge in their major and in English language.

One obstacle is college English teaching is that many teachers find that some students lack interest in studying English. In part, the reason is that they feel there is little connection of English with their majors and they feel there is no use to learn English so they lack the motive to learn it seriously. From this perspective, in the construction of multi-dimensional interactive mode of college English teaching, it is advocated that students' knowledge in their major and in English language should be combined in the way of adding more English materials related to their major to classroom English teaching, organizing more activities concerning their major characteristics, and so on. Generally speaking students will have more interests in learning their major knowledge and thus teaching effect and learning efficiency will be promoted at the same time.

IV. FEATURES AND EFFECTS OF THE MULTI-DIMENSIONAL INTERACTIVE MODE IN COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

A. The Transformation of Teachers' Roles

For a long time, it is the teacher who dominates our classroom and is the subject of the classroom activities while students only passively receive the knowledge and are the objects of learning. Students educated in this way tend to be dependent on teacher's explanation of the knowledge, lack of creativity and autonomous learning ability, which result in the fact that they can't have a good command of the language. In this mode, teachers transform their conventional cramming method of teaching, establish modern teaching concept, shift their own roles, serve as a guide, an organizer, and a cooperater in the process of learning. What's more, teachers should clarify that students should become the subjects of learning and help the students improve their autonomous learning ability and communicative competence as well as realizing the importance of language output to language learning. Thus students will learn actively instead of passively and their autonomous learning ability will be cultivated eventually.

B. The Trigger of Students' Learning Enthusiasm

In this mode, the interaction between teacher and students is strengthened. This dynamic, two-way interaction contributes to trigger students' learning enthusiasm and transform the situation of teacher dominating the class, information only flowing one-way from the teacher to students. In English teaching, both the teacher and students should be the participants of the learning process and their discourse and activities comprise the the main contents of the classroom teaching and learning. Researches show that teacher discourses consist of three parts, that is, lecturing, questioning and feedback while students' discourses are mainly composed of answers to teacher's questions and responses to teacher's feedback. In traditional classrooms, teacher's discourses account for as much as 70% to 90% of class time and the classroom teaching is dominated by the teacher like a mono-drama of the teacher. As a result, the students' participation time in classroom is very limited and it's difficult for the teacher to know the degree of the

students' understanding and master of the knowledge. Thus, the lack of interaction between the teacher and students is adverse to the cultivation of students' language application capability and the teacher's understanding of students' problems and difficulties.

In this mode, in order to achieve ideal classroom teaching effect, make classroom atmosphere more active, teachers adopt proper interaction pattern to strengthen the interaction between the teacher and students. In this way the students will actively take part in the classroom activities and become the main participant of the learning process, so as to shift language teaching from teacher-centered to learning-centered. The multi-dimensional interaction between teacher and students can be diversified. For example, teacher questioning- students answering- teacher feedback can be transformed into student questioning—students answering—students evaluating/feedback.

C. *The Implement of Student-centered Activities and Task-based Teaching*

In traditional classroom teaching, it is the teacher who controls the process of the teaching process and the classroom communication and interaction is mainly through the questions asked by the teacher and the answers given by the students, which makes language learning process a boring experience. To solve this problem, in this mode, teachers design more student-centered activities to involve more students in the learning process and during which, assign students specific tasks to implement task-based teaching. The tasks can be in various forms and with diverse purposes. To finish the tasks, students must engage in the real interaction between each other and will improve their comprehensive language ability in the long run. For instance, group discussion is a good method of student-centered interactive activity and has gained popularity among teachers and students. The teacher can divide the students into different groups with 5 to 6 students in each group according to the total number of the students. The group members will discuss a topic assigned by the teacher, form their own viewpoint and make a presentation on the topic to share their opinions with other students. The representative who makes the speech is not fixed, all the members can do it in turn. After their presentation, comments and feedback will be given to them by the teacher as well as the students. This kind of student-centered interaction arouses great interest in students' language learning and provides the students with precious opportunities of practicing speaking English in public and students' ability to think in English is strengthened in the process as well.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the construction of multi-dimensional mode in college English teaching can be of significance to the improvement of college English classroom teaching and students' learning effect. And this study can also be expected to benefit college English teaching research and teacher-researchers in terms of teaching practices in general.

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Critical Analysis of the Models of Language Proficiency with a Focus on Communicative Models

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Abstract—Production of a clear-cut and comprehensive framework for the sake of evaluation purposes has been one of the most challenging issues in the realm of language assessment. Over the past decades, notable effort has been made to put forward models to practically define and theoretically specify the construct of language proficiency. To accomplish this, theorists have drawn on different epistemological sources such as empirical research, narrative accounts as well as introspective and retrospective analysis of language related data. The objective of this review is to conduct a critical analysis of the validity and practicality of these models and also to indicate the contributions as well as the drawbacks of these models from different standpoints. The analysis has been done in conformity with the widely accepted paradigms of socio-cultural and communicative orientations toward language within the field of language assessment.

Index Terms—construct validity, language proficiency, communicative competence

I. INTRODUCTION

Language assessment as the distinguished subfield of applied linguistics has witnessed immense and multi-dimensional advancements in theory and practice in recent decades. (Alderson, 1991; Bachman, 2000; Davies, 1990; Skehan, 1991 to name a few). Most of these improvements have been informed by the theoretical and practical accomplishments in the field of language learning and teaching theories. In the realm of language assessment, the definitive characterization of language proficiency has been one of the most controversial and cumbersome issues that has been dealt with from diverse aspects by scholars. One of the noteworthy classifications was offered by Spolsky (1985) who maintained that language testing has witnessed three different eras in its evolutionary path including, the traditional era (from ancient china until the emergence of structural linguistics), psycholinguistic-structuralist era, and sociolinguistic-communicative era(emergence of socio-cultural and extra-linguistic paradigms).

Within the scope of the traditional era, there was no clear-cut definition of language proficiency and essay type as well as open-ended questions were mostly adopted for the evaluation purposes. In a different vein, the scientific structuralist period was largely influenced by structural linguists as (Bloomfield, 1933; Sausor, 1966). Lado(1961) drawing on the structuralists' conceptualization of language, put forward his pioneer skill-component model which was the first endeavor for the precise definition of language proficiency. It did not take a long time that the tenets of the structuralism were harshly criticized by Chomsky (1965). In his account, structuralists can not explain the creative aspect of language as well as the universal characteristics shared among all languages.

In his conceptualization, the rather quick mastery of learning the complex structures of language, despite the insufficient input from their parents and the surrounding environment was another proof for the inadequacy of structuralists' account of language learning. For this reason, Chomsky coined the term "linguistic competence" which shared some commonalities with Sausors' notorious term of 'Langue'. Chomsky rejected the significance of language performance (believing in the idealized speaker and listener) because he maintained that it was widely constrained by limited cognitive processing capacity, lapses and tips of tongue. Chomskys' disregard of contextual factors in formulating language was fiercely challenged by Hymes' (1972) landmark article which indicated how socio-cultural factors impact on the formation of language. In a similar line, functional linguists such as (Halliday, 1964, 1973; Widdowson, 1978; Munby; 1978; van Ek 1977) instilled new outlooks into the field of language testing. Paradigm shift from generative grammar to functionalists' account of language gave birth to new communicative competence models. In this regard, the most referenced model was the one adopted by Cannale and Swine (1980) which was warmly supported by scholars such as (Haliday, 1973; Widdowson, 1978; spolsky, 1985, to name a few). The subsequent

models offered by (Bachman 1990, Celica Murcia et al, 1995; Bachman & Palmer: 1996) added to the complexity of the theoretical definition of the construct of language proficiency. These subsequent models made tremendous effort to indicate the multi-faceted interactions among different components of language. Perhaps it was due to these inherent complexities that McNamara (1991) suggested not to open the 'Pondera box' of language proficiency.

Taking these points into account, the present paper is to provide a comprehensive overview of the models of language proficiency and communicative proficiency from a critical point of view. This paper has chronologically analyzed the mainstream models of language proficiency with a focus on their strength and weakness in mirroring the essence of language in a detailed and simplified style to involve wider spectrum of the EFL community.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

In the rather short history of language testing, different models of language proficiency have been widely informed by the paradigm shifts in diverse fields of psychology, sociology, and second language studies. The trends including Behaviorism, Gestalt psychology, Interactionism, task-based teaching and so forth have widely contributed to the expansion of the models in terms of clarity and scope. These models have been chronologically introduced and analyzed in this section.

A. Skill-component Model

Lado's (1961) breakthrough conceptualization from linguistic competence led to a theoretical framework for explaining the concept of language proficiency. Drawing on the structuralist linguistics, Lado defined language proficiency as a system constituted of the four separate skills of listening, speaking, writing and reading as well as a set of highly overlapped and interrelated components involving phonemes, morphemes, phrases, clauses and sentences. The introduction of this model as Farhady (1981) maintained was a breakthrough in the sense that for the first time it was possible for testers to evaluate test takers' performances base on a unified and structural model. The manifestations of this model were the appearance of discreet point type tests in the literature of formal assessment. In these types of tests, one component of language is assessed separately from others because language is not deemed as a uniformed whole but a set of separate components.

A host of scholars (Carroll, 1961; Oller, 1979; Farhady, 1980, Spolsky, 1985, etc.) voiced criticism of the weakness of these tests to assess the learner's performance in real life context. According to Bachman (1990) this model did not indicate how skills and the knowledge of components are related to each other. It was not clear whether skills are the simple manifestation of the knowledge component or whether they are different qualitatively in other ways. For instance, with respect to questions such as "Does reading differ from writing only in that it involves interpretation, rather than expression?" it remains unproductive and even misleading. Another serious limitation of skills - component model as Motallebzadeh&Baghai (2011) argued was its failure to recognize the full context of language use. In the same line, Morrow (1979) believed that the atomistic approach to language is not correct because language is a whole different from its components.

B. Ollers' Integrative Model

The introduction of the integrative tests was the outcome of the setbacks in the Lados' model that led applied linguists as (Carrol, 1965, Oller, 1979) to introduce a new type of language proficiency model called "integrative approach". According to Oller (1979) language is integrative in practice and unitary in nature. Being under the influence of Gestalt psychology as well as generative grammar, he maintained that language as a whole is different from its components; consequently, Ollers' approach toward language was holistic as he rejected the divisibility of language into skills. Dictation type tests, oral interview and cloze tests were manifestations of his approach toward language because they included the simultaneous processing of more than one skill which is similar to the use of language in real life. He also referred to the new test of language proficiency as pragmatic and integrative tests which are intended to tap extra-linguistic factors in the comprehension and production of language.

There were some flaws in Integrative tests, for instance, Alderson (1991) points out that the results of cloze tests are not the true indication of learners' ability since their performance was affected by the number of deleted items and where the deletions begin. Morrow (1979) states that neither cloze tests nor diction type tests allow for spontaneous production by candidate, relying instead on the examiner for the language input. Similarly, unitary trait hypothesis was criticized for both methodological and theoretical drawbacks. Ollers' advocacy of using principal component analysis was questioned by (Farhady 1983: Vollnmer & Song ,1983). The theory was critiqued since Oller's adopted technique would allow the incorporation of error variance into the analysis and then overestimation of the first factor.

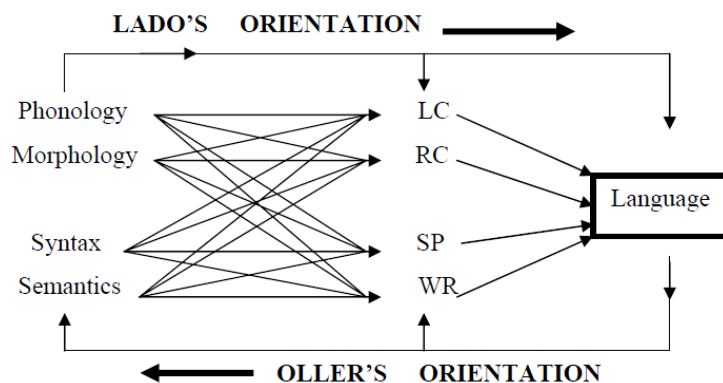


Figure 1: Model of language proficiency based on Lado (1961) and Oller (1979)

C. Cannale and Swine Communicative Competence Model (1980)

The increasing pessimism toward the slogans of the structuralists' and psycholinguistic's models of language proficiency informed by Hymes' (1972) sociolinguistic approach as well as the Hallidays' "functional grammar" toward language, ushered in innovative trends in defining language ability. Based on Cannel and swine (1980), communicative competence is of central concern in forming theoretical framework for language ability. In this model, language is made up of different components some of which were not touched upon in the previous model. In their conceptualization, socio-linguistic competence along with linguistic and strategic competence interact with each other in formulating communicative competence.

In this model, grammatical competence is not much different from chomskyan linguistic competence. It includes the knowledge of lexical items, rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar, semantics and phonology. Criticizing the purely functional- based approaches of VanEk (1977) and Munby (1978), Cannale& swine (1980) underpinned the central role of linguistic knowledge for fulfilling communicative intentions. As a proof, they referred to many instances in which the learners had vast sociolinguistic knowledge but due to the lack of linguistic resources, they could not fulfill their intended communicative goals in real life context.

By adding the branch of sociolinguistic competence to their model, Cannal& swine (1980) maintained that language is not formed in vacuum and it is not just a mental phenomenon as Chomsky claims (Adel & Hashemi, 2015; Ghaniabadi & Hashemi, 2015). They referred to savignons' (1973) study, in which the groups whose focus was on the formal aspects of language use scored much lower than those who were both trained linguistically and communicatively.

In their proposed model, sociolinguistic competence is made up of two sets of rules: socio-cultural rules of use and rules of discourse. The socio-cultural rules of use involve the appropriate use of vocabulary, register, politeness and style in the related context. Through adopting these rules, it is feasible to produce appropriate utterances b on the basis of the contextual factors. It is noteworthy that mere grammatical sentences are not sufficient for interaction in real life context. It should be noted that the primary focus of these rules is on the extent to which certain propositions and communicative functions are appropriate within a given socio-cultural context, depending on factors such as topic, role of participants, setting and norms of interaction. By this means, they implied that any model of communicative competence should include the multifaceted knowledge of context.

"Discourse competence" as a pivotal sub-category of socio-cultural rules is representative of the ability to combine language structures into various types of cohesive texts (i.e., appropriate combination of communicative functions) of group of utterances. The focus of rules of discourse in this framework is on the ability to combine utterances with regard to communicative functions. Consequently, the locus of emphasis as Widowson (1978) implied is on text-based cohesion and coherence.

The inclusion of strategic competence in this model was a major step forward with respect to the previous frameworks proposed by Munby (1978) and Van eks' (1977) concept of functional and notional grammar. This component is made up of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be employed by the person to recompense for the flaws in communication because of the performance variables or lack of competence. These strategies include avoidance, circumlocution, paraphrase, repetition, avoidance of words, etc.

Subsequently, Cannale (1981) pointed out that "strategic competence" can also be applied to enhance the effectiveness of communication in a qualitative sense; it is different from the other three components of communicative competence in that it is not a type of stored knowledge and it includes non-cognitive aspects such as self-confidence, readiness to take risks, etc. However since it is highly interrelated to other components, it enables learners to deal effectively with the limitations in their competence. He also considered discourse competence as a separate competence from the sociolinguistic competence in order to highlight the importance of this competence as a separate component. For Cannale (1983) sociolinguistic competence is the appropriateness of meaning (whether functions, attitudes, ideas

are appropriate to the context) and of forms (how appropriate the realization of functions, attitudes and ideas are in specific contexts).

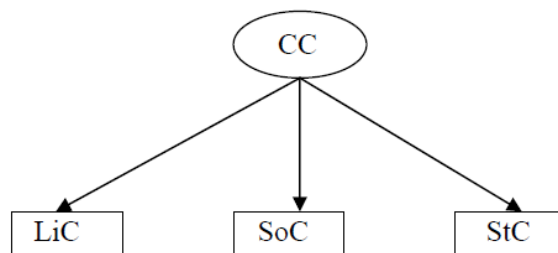


Figure 2: Canale and Swine's model of communicative competence (1980)

D. Farhady's Model of Communicative Competence

Farhaday(1980, 2005), one of the first vocal critics of the notion of Canale and Swine model of communicative competence, contended that communicative competence is so vast in domain and complex in nature that it is not even possible for many native speakers to reach it. This argument was espoused years later by Widowson (1983) implying that not all people could be communicatively competent in all given language contexts. In this regard, Farhady introduced the notorious concept of "functional competence" (FC) in language assessment as a specific sub-component of the communicative competence which embodied all the characteristics of the communicative competence but was limited in terms of scope. Based on the functional model of testing, he designed functional tests in (1981) which proved to be more diagnostic and valid than integrative and discrete- point tests.

E. Bachmans' Model of Communicative Competence

One of the substantial advancements in the realm of language testing was Bachmans' (1990) comprehensive model of communicative competence which was an improvement over the previous models, from diverse perspectives. This model not only specified different components of communicative competence but also indicated how these components interact with each other in a complex manner. Another major achievement of Bachman's model over the previous ones was its emphasis on the central role of strategic competence including meta-cognitive strategies or higher order process that explain the interaction of knowledge and affective components of language use. According to Bachman (1990) and the subsequent model of Bachman & Palmer (1996) many traits of language users such as some general characteristics (ethnicity, cognitive style, sex, nationality, etc), their topical knowledge (knowledge of the world, background knowledge, affective schema (the feelings and biases people may have toward some linguistic contents) as well as the language ability impact the communicative language ability and linguistic performance of the learners in the real life context. For Bachman (1990) language ability is the most substantive characteristic of communicative competence which is composed of two broad categories including: organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge.

He maintains that "organizational knowledge" associates to the production and comprehension of grammatical utterances. This type of knowledge is employed for the construction of either oral or conversational texts. There are two areas of organizational knowledge; grammatical knowledge used for producing grammatically acceptable utterances and organizational knowledge for organizing sentences to form both oral and written texts.

"Grammatical knowledge" contributes to the production or comprehension of the formally acceptable utterances or sentences. The lexical, syntactic, phonological and graphological knowledge are deemed as the subcomponents of this competence. "Textual knowledge" encompasses the knowledge required for generating and comprehending either spoken or written texts. There are two areas of textual knowledge: knowledge of "cohesion" and knowledge of "rhetorical" or conversational organization.

Knowledge of cohesion is adopted to generate the textual relationship among sentences (anaphora, ellipsis, conjunctions, substitution, etc) in written texts or among utterances in conversations. Knowledge of conversational organization is involved in producing or comprehending organizational development in written texts. It is the knowledge that indicates how (spoken or written) texts are structured so that they are recognized conventional by hearers or readers.

1. Pragmatic knowledge

In Bachmans' model, the inclusion of extra-linguistic knowledge was the focal point. Hence, he gave priority to the pragmatic aspects of language. This knowledge enables the user to adopt his linguistic knowledge to the context. This adaptation considers the social position of participants, the relationship between them, the setting parameters, dialects, registers and many other factors. In this model, there are two areas of pragmatic knowledge: functional knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge. Functional knowledge includes what he called illocutionary competence that enables the user to interpret relationships between utterances and texts and the intentions of language users.

To define the functional competence, Bachman refers to Haliday's (1973) classification of the language functions. For Haliday, Functional knowledge involves the knowledge of four categories of language functions: ideational, manipulative, instrumental and imaginative.

For instance, drawing upon the knowledge of manipulative function, it is possible to use language to affect the world around us which includes the knowledge of the following:

- a. Instrumental functions are exploited to get other people to do things for our sake.
- b. Regulatory functions: exploited to preside over what other people do.
- c. Interpersonal functions: used to establish, maintain and change interpersonal relationships.
- d. Knowledge of heuristic functions: enables us to use language to create an imaginative world.

2. Sociolinguistic knowledge

As another substantial component of pragmatic knowledge, sociolinguistic knowledge is wedged to create or interpret language that is appropriate to a particular language use setting: it embodies 1) sensitivity to registers which is of overriding importance, because in any language as Stevens, Haliday, Macintosh and Stevens (1964) implied, there is a variety of registers in terms of the three aspects of language use which include, field and mode of discourse as well as the style of discourse which refer to the relations between participants. The knowledge of these variations in sociolinguistic competence are important 2) knowledge of cultural references and figures of speech, which means the knowledge of the extended meaning given by specific cultures to particular events, places, institutions. It also involves the knowledge of connotation of that meaning. 3) Sensitivity to naturalness that signals the native-like use of language. 4) Sensitivity to dialects, entailing the awareness from the regional and social varieties or dialects. Different contexts require the use of different languages.

3. Strategic competence

This competence is defined as consisting of a set of meta-cognitive strategies, which can be thought of as higher order executive process providing a cognitive management function in language use. There are three general areas in which meta-cognitive component operate: 1) goal setting (deciding what one is going to do 2) Assessment (taking stock of what is needed and what one has to work with). 3) Planning- deciding how to use what one has.

One notable advance on the Canale and Swine model is that Bachman underpins that test design and scoring might have a significant impact on the test takers' performance as a direct outcome of strategic competence. Certain tasks are highly attributable to the use of strategic competence to compensate for the lack of competence in other areas. This model vividly distinguishes between what constitutes knowledge and what constitutes the skill which is left unclear in the aforementioned model. In the second place, it explicitly attempts to characterize the process by which the wide range of components interacts with each other and in the context in which language performance occurs.

F. Celcia Murcia's Model of Communicative Competence

Celcia Murcia, Thurrell & Dorney (1995) withheld that their model of competence has expanded the scope of the prior models of communicative competence in terms of content specification. This model included five components including "socio-cultural competence", "linguistic competence", and "discourse competence" along with "actional and strategic competence". Actional competence was an addition to Canale and Swine model which was conceptualized as a competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent by performing speech acts.

They put discourse competence at the focal position in which "lexico-grammatical", actional skills of communicative intent and socio-cultural and constitute discourse, which in turn, shapes each of the other three components. The two minor terminological differences between this new model and Canale and Swine model is in that they used the term linguistic competence rather than grammatical competence so as to explicitly indicate that this component comprises lexis and phonology, morphology and syntax. In the same line, they exploited the term socio-linguistic competence to better distinguish it from actional competence. Linguistic competence which plays a substantive role in this model includes the following components.



Figure 3: Model of Communicative competence by Celcia Murcia et al (1995)

a. Discourse competence

The discourse component of their suggested model is positioned at the center of the model, reuniting cohesion and coherence. It is in the discourse competence where the Lexico-grammatical building blocks, the actional skills and the socio-cultural context come together and shape discourse component. This component pertinent to the formal and contextual elements in the comprehension and production of language includes cohesion; Deixis, coherence, and conversational structure form this component. The sub-components of each of these categories are as following:

1. Suggested components of discourse competence

(1) Cohesion

- References (anaphora-cataphora)
- Substitution/ ellipsis
- Conjunctions
- Lexical chains

(2) Deixis

- Personal (pronoun)
- Spatial (here, there...)
- Temporal (now, then,)
- Textual coherence
- Organizational expression and interpretation of content and purpose.
- Thematisation and staging.
- Management of new and old information.
- Propositional structure and their organizational sequences.
- Temporal continuity/shift.

(3) Conversational structure

- Turn taking system in conversation and varieties of genre.
- How to perform opening and reopening.
- Topic establishment and change.
- How to hold and relinquish information.
- How to interact.
- How to collaborate and back channel.
- How to pre-closing and closing.
- Adjacency pairs.

2. Actional competence

The introduction of Actional competence was one of the major steps taken by Celcia-Murcia et al (1995) for enriching the content of communicative competence. It entails more components than the functional competence of Bachman (1990) model and widely draws on the Van Eke's (1977) taxonomy of linguistic functions. According to Future & Davidson (2007) actional competence is defined as a competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent that is matching actional intent with linguistic form. For many communicative purposes they maintain that this competence is of great importance. It includes the following components:

a. Suggested components of Actional competence

(1). Knowledge of language functions including:

- Interpersonal exchange
- Greeting and leave taking
- Making introductions
- Expressing and acknowledging gratitude
- Reacting to the interlocutors' speech by showing attention, interest, etc.

(2). Information sharing

- Asking for and giving information
- Reporting (describing and narrating)
- Remembering
- Explaining and discussing
- Opinions and feelings
- Expressing and finding out about opinions and attitudes
- Agreeing and disagreeing

(3). Problem solving

- Complaining
- Blaming and accusing
- Admitting and denying

3. Socio-cultural competence

Socio-cultural competence refers to the speakers' knowledge of how to express messages appropriately within the oral, social and cultural context of communication in accordance with the pragmatic factors related to variation in

language. Celcia-Murcia et al (1995) separated sociolinguistic competence including, the knowledge related to context that impacts upon what is said and how it is said. A Comprehensive list of the components of the socio-cultural competence is shown as the following:

Suggested components of socio-cultural competence

- a. Social contextual factors which include participants' variables such as age, gender, status, etc.
- b. Situational variables including the time and place of linguistic performance, and social situation and so forth
- c. Stylistic appropriateness factors including politeness conventions and strategies, degree of formality and field specific registers
- d. Cultural factor encompassing socio-cultural background knowledge, living condition (way of life, living standards,) awareness of major dialectal or regional differences and nonverbal communicative factors including 1) kinesics factors 2) proxemic and paralinguistic factors

G. Kramsch Model of Interactional Competence

For Kramsch (1986), having just a shared knowledge of the world does not guarantee successful interaction in the real life context. Verbal and non-verbal interaction in real life context entail the dynamic co-construction of utterances and meanings which are not mostly pre-specified and pre-planned. Consequently, successes in interaction as Fulture and Davidson (2007) implied involves the ability of the individuals to process and negotiate the intended meaning, predict listeners' response and possible misunderstanding. In the same line, it is crucial for the interlocutors to be able to clarify their own and others' intentions and finally to arrive at a communicative decision during their conversational interaction. According to Kramsch's (1986) definition, interaction is a dynamic process of matching between intended, perceived and expected meaning. As Fulture and Davidson (2007) implied, interactional competence subsumes the following parts of the model: the conversational structure component of discourse competence which includes sequential organization of that conversation, turn taking organization, and the ability to repair speech, in case of possible problems. The strategic competence is of no difference with that of the Canale and Swain (1980) model. This competence includes the avoidance and reduction strategies, achievement and compensation strategies along with self monitoring and interactional strategies.

III. CONCLUSION

This paper indicates that a substantial amount of time and energy of theorists has been devoted to the introduction of practical and sophisticated models of the nature of language ability as one of the most complicated issues in the field of language assessment. The expansion of the proposed model was heavily influenced by the mainstream structuralist, cognitive and functional and socio-cultural linguists. It also indicates that each of these models added more components to language proficiency while others have offered insightful suggestions about the multi-dimensional interactions between these components. However, up to now no comprehensive model has been suggested for evaluation purposes due to the multiplicity of the extra-linguistic factors that play role in producing the system of language. Maybe it is the time that we accept Macnamara's (2000) suggestion mentioned in this research and not to open the 'Pondera box' by which he meant to stop trying to demystify the distressingly complicated nature of language proficiency.

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